Institutional entrepreneurship of women's professional volleyball leagues, the United States and Czech Republic

by

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my boyfriend Damien, my family, supervisor, dissertation committee, and friends. Special thanks go to my boyfriend who was very supportive, always encouraging, and very positive during this process. I would like to thank him for his continuous support. I would also like to thank my family including my dad with whom I had numerous conversations over Skype about my dissertation. I am not sure if I would make it through without the support of my family. So, thank you for your support and encouragements. Thank you also to Marvin Washington (my supervisor) who patiently read each of my drafts and provided me with feedback, so I could move forward in the process. Thank you also to my supervisory committee, who took time to meet with me, read my drafts, and gave me feedback regarding my work. Lastly, I would like to thank my friends including those that played frequently volleyball with me in numerous leagues and tournaments or just for fun. They made my stay in Edmonton very enjoyable and helped me to reenergize, so I was able to continue my work at a later time. Thank you very much.

Abstract

Women's volleyball gained major popularity in the United States in the 1980s under the umbrella of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) (NCAA, 2010). In the last few decades several women's professional volleyball leagues emerged in the United States. Unfortunately, every single women's professional league ceased activity within five years of its creation. Incidentally, the struggle concerning the development of a women's professional league has been absent in the Czech Republic (Stibitz, 1958). This dissertation answered two questions: Why did women's professional volleyball leagues fail in the United States? Why did the women's professional volleyball league not fail in the Czech Republic? To explore professional women's volleyball league(s) in the United States and Czech Republic, I drew on the theory of institutional entrepreneurship, which refers to the formation of values and patterns of behaviors that not only strive to support an organization's identity, but also strive to become socially accepted (Zimmerman & Zeitz, 2002). The U.S. cases followed Yin's (1994) multiple-case study design and the Czech study was guided by Yin's (1994) single-case study design. The collected data included archival data, books, newspaper and magazine articles. In addition, interviews were conducted with ten subjects. Successful institutional entrepreneurs are able to frame, gather resources, and collaborate, as the literature on institutional entrepreneurship suggests. My findings showed that the institutional entrepreneurs of the U.S. leagues failed to create a clear frame, gather useful resources, and collaborate with others. Additionally, the failed leagues experienced environmental misfit and wanted to

become professional in a short period of time, which contributed to the failure of the leagues. On the other hand, the Czech league was able to create a clear mission, obtain resources and have clubs that developed a working relationship with the federation. The league functioned as an amateur league that was supported by the federation and Czech state for many years. The managers of a new professional volleyball league in the United States should consider connecting the league with USA Volleyball, creating teams in the areas where strong clubs are located, and have clear objectives that are consistent with the product.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Volleyball was created by William G. Morgan at the Holyoke, Massachusetts, YMCA at the end of the 19th century (Putney, 2001). The game was initially played by middle-aged businessmen who perceived the sport as a leisure rather than a vigorous activity (Dearing, 2007). While the female side of the sport experienced a slow initial development, women's volleyball gained major popularity in the 1980s under the umbrella of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) (NCAA, 2010). At that time, several women's professional volleyball leagues emerged in the United States. Unfortunately, every single women's professional league that operated in the United States ceased activity within five years of its opening. What is surprising regarding this failure is that a pool of university athletes exists in the United States and volleyball is an aesthetically appealing sport. Incidentally, the struggle concerning the development of a women's professional league has been mostly absent in the European environment, where volleyball spread two decades after its invention in the United States (Stibitz, 1958). The Czechs, in particular, were able to quickly establish their own volleyball federation and a national league (Stibitz, 1958). This raises two broad questions: Why did women's professional volleyball leagues fail in the United States? Why did the women's professional volleyball league not fail in the Czech Republic/Czechoslovakia?

A brief development of the sport in the United States will be highlighted in the introduction. A development of the sport in Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic will follow, and the theory and method to conduct this research will be discussed.

In the 19th century, America was transforming from a rural society to an industrial, urbanized one (Shewman, 1995). Sports became more prominent during this change because public schools were adding organized sports to their curricula, women were becoming more active, and improved transportation allowed access to sports events and more widespread competition. However, religious views in the middle of the 19th century (Victorian era) emphasized that men could achieve salvation without being physically active (Putney, 2001). As a reaction to these views, a new movement called muscular Christianity was becoming more popular in the United States. Muscular Christianity focused on spirituality, human exercise, and the relationship between mind and body. Males preached muscular Christianity in the Young Men's Christian Associations (YMCAs), among other places (Putney, 2001).

A new sport, originally known as "mintonette" (later renamed volleyball), developed along the muscular Christianity movement in the late 19th century (Dearing, 2007, p. 32; Putney, 2001). This sport was invented by William G. Morgan at the Holyoke, Massachusetts YMCA (Welch, 1969). The new game, which required teamwork and excluded aggressive play, served as a lunchtime activity for local businessmen (Shewman, 1995). Women started playing volleyball in the first half of the 20th century for recreational enjoyment. A federal law enacted in the 1970s required the majority of universities and high schools to add women's sports to their programs (O'Reilly & Cahn, 2007). Volleyball was perceived as a socially acceptable and a feminine sport already existing at some high schools and universities in the 1970s; therefore many universities and high

schools decided to add women's volleyball to their programs (Christensen, Guttman, & Pfister, 2001). Women's volleyball then started gaining in popularity. It has become the third most-participated sport at the interscholastic level, organized by the National Federation of State High School Associations (NFHS) ("National Federation," 2011). Similarly, volleyball has become the second-most participated sport at the intercollegiate level, governed by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) ("NCAA," 2010). In spite of the high number of athletes that participate in the interscholastic and intercollegiate levels every year, the United States does not have its own professional women's volleyball league.

While the United States is currently lacking a professional league, professional leagues exist in many European countries where volleyball was brought by American soldiers during World War I. Soon after the war many European countries took advantage of the new sport and introduced national championships in their countries (Kluka & Dunn, 1992). Shewman (1995) believed that volleyball became popular as a spectator and participant sport in Europe due to the lack of team sports in Europe at that time, and the lack of existence of a preconceived attitude of what consists of a "sissy" game (p. 38). Czechoslovakia, today the Czech Republic (since 1993), was one of the countries that adopted the sport extremely quickly. Men have been playing volleyball since 1919 (Havel, 1946), and women began competing from the mid 1920s in various leagues and tournaments (Stibitz, 1958). The country not only contributed to the development of volleyball skills ("100 Years," 1996), but also has been able to maintain a women's professional volleyball league for almost 80 years ("Czech

Volleyball," 2010). The league initially had a tournament format allowing any team to participate (Z. Vrbensky, personal communication, February 28, 2011), but it adopted a qualification system of play in 1955, which resembles the current league's arrangements ("45 Let," 1966). While the attendance of the league is currently nowhere close to the attendance of men's professional hockey or soccer, one can consider the women's league sustainable. The many failed women's professional volleyball leagues that operated in the United States, on the other hand, cannot even make this claim.

To explore professional women's volleyball league(s) in the United States and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic, I draw on the theory of institutional entrepreneurship. Institutional entrepreneurship belongs to the area of institutional theory, which became a dominant theory in the organization literature (Kikulis, 2000). The theory studies the relationship between organizations and their environments, concentrating on, among other things, "how and why do organizations behave as they do, and with what consequences" (Greenwood, Oliver, Sahlin, & Suddaby, 2008, p. 1)? Greenwood et al. (2008) described institutions as taken-for-granted and repetitive behaviors, which are reinforced by normative and cognitive systems that enable social order. Institutional entrepreneurship then refers to the formation of values and patterns of behaviors that not only strive to support an organization's identity, but also strive to become socially accepted (Zimmerman & Zeitz, 2002). The institutional entrepreneurship literature highlights the concepts of sustainability and value creation of new practices. Institutional entrepreneurs often frame, use resources, formal authority,

social capital, and discourse to achieve social acceptance. I use the theory of institutional entrepreneurship because the theory will help me to understand part of the reasons why the U.S. leagues failed and the Czech league sustained. While failed leagues eventually cease their operation because they run out of money, the theory of institutional entrepreneurship will provide more nuanced understanding of the leagues' failures. Additionally, the concept of sustainability, value creation, and social acceptance present in the institutional entrepreneurship theory plays a key role in the development of sport leagues.

There are no present studies on institutional entrepreneurship within the sport field. Washington and Patterson (2010) said: "We need more attention to the factors that change institutional arrangement" (p. 9), referring to the theory of institutional entrepreneurship. This study examines the past U.S. leagues and the existing Czech league from the institutional entrepreneurship perspective, and therefore it informs sport management scholars about the theory of institutional entrepreneurship used in the sport context. Additionally, the failed cases of institutional entrepreneurship have received limited attention within institutional entrepreneurship literature (Battilana, Leca, & Boxenbaum, 2009). My research will examine the failed cases making a contribution to the institutional entrepreneurship research.

This dissertation is a historical case study, and it includes two separate projects. The first project explores the institutional entrepreneurship of the professional volleyball leagues in the United States, and the second study examines the institutional entrepreneurship of the professional volleyball league

in Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic. The first project follows Yin's (1994) multiple-case study design, while the second project is guided by Yin's (1994) single-case study design. The collected data of both projects include archival data, newspaper/magazine articles, books, and textbooks. Additionally, interviews were conducted with ten interviewees, six for the U.S. cases and four for the Czech case. Acknowledging Leblebici et al.'s (1991) notion of a practice, the data were coded to search for practices, strategies and their outcomes that were associated with the establishment of the professional leagues in the U.S. and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic. Consequently, organizing and interpreting the data based on the literature review followed.

The purpose of this introduction was to provide a brief overview of my study, justifying the importance of my study and introducing the empirical setting, theory, and method used in this study. Next, chapter two (the empirical chapter) will follow, providing more detail regarding the empirical setting of my research.

Chapter 2: Empirical Chapter

Muscular Christianity, a movement that spread in North America in the second half of the 19th century (Putney, 2001), provided a solid foundation for a new sport to develop. The new invention caught people's attention, and soon after developed into an activity that provided enjoyment and social interaction for many. It was not until the 1970s and 1980s when women's volleyball in the United States became a competitive rather than a leisure activity. Apart from the aesthetic appeal of the sport and the recent increase in the number of female volleyball players, the explosion of organizations in the 1970/1980s should justify

the presence of a women's professional league. While several women's professional leagues have existed in the United States in the past decades, the leagues could not survive. On the other hand, Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic has been able to sustain its professional women's league for over eighty years. This chapter will provide a detailed development of volleyball in the United States and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic, supplying information regarding the history of volleyball in each country.

American men, supported by pioneer psychologist G. Stanley Hall and President Theodore Roosevelt, started opposing Victorian culture in the late 19th century because the Victorian era tolerated physical weaknesses and effeminacy (Putney, 2001). One of the streams of this new American culture, which developed out of the Protestant churches, became known as muscular Christianity. Putney (2001) defines muscular Christianity as "a Christian commitment to health and manliness" (p. 11). The movement originated in Victorian Great Britain in the middle of the 19th century (Parry, Robinson, Watson, & Nesti, 2007). Haley (1978) provides three reasons that contributed to the development of muscular Christianity. First, the Industrial Revolution in Great Britain led to the creation of many sedentary jobs, which resulted in cardiovascular and respiratory diseases, so therefore any physical exercise was welcomed. Second, the medical field experienced the development of disciplines such as physiology and physiological psychology. These disciplines focused on the relationship between mind and body, which overlapped with the beliefs of muscular Christians. Lastly, several European countries threatened others with war, and therefore nationalists desired

to protect the British Empire through producing leaders that were strong and intelligent (Haley, 1978). Due to the 19th century's push for human exercise and knowledge, muscular Christianity attracted the masses.

This movement followed the "body as temple" theology and included three prongs: making health spiritual, glorifying the body, and emphasizing man's strength rather than confessing his weaknesses (Putney, 2001, p. 57). Overall, the followers of muscular Christianity believed that "a strong mind in a strong body makes a better Christian" (Putney, 2001, p. 57). Men at that time participated in various exercises at different organizations. The most influential organization that combined religion and sport at the end of the 19th century was the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). At that time, sports such as football, basketball, baseball, and volleyball developed alongside the muscular Christianity movement.

Before I examine the development of volleyball in North America, it is important to know more about the history of North American men's professional sports such as football, baseball, and basketball. The history of men's major sports in North America helps us to better understand the failure of women's volleyball leagues in the United States. While many books have been written about the men's major league sports, I summarize in the following paragraphs only the most important moments in the historical development of these sports.

History and Development of Men's Major League Sports in North America

The game of football, which evolved from soccer and rugby, emphasizes character building, and teamwork, and helps to transform boys to men (Coenen, 2005; Peterson, 1996). In the early days professional football was nowhere close

to the glamorous game that we know now (Coenen, 2005). Football was played at the college level since the late 1860s, and college football thrived at the end of the 19th century, while early professional football was struggling to survive (Coenen, 2005, p. 7). At the turn of century, non-college games were associated with violence due to profit, gambling, and corruption of men's morals. Coenen (2005) states: "Pro football, in its early days, had the social standing of snooker pool. It might be legal, but no nice person would bother with it" (p. 5). Salaries of players were low, sponsors hoped to break even, and games admissions were many times free. Teams were mostly located in smaller towns because of a lack of interest among fans and owners in bigger towns and cities. In general, games against rivals brought more profit; however, losing a rivalry game usually resulted in lower gate receipts. Media also failed to cover or ignored early professional football (Peterson, 1996). The situation was so bad that a former coach and writer for the New York Evening Post even predicted the demise of professional football in the 1920s. Even by the 1940s, 70 years after the first college game was played, professional football still was not respected (Coenen, 2005).

Professional football started gaining acceptance during the Great Depression and World War II when there were less job opportunities in the United States, and therefore many former college players decided to try out for professional teams. At that time colleges were eliminating college football teams to save money, which helped the professional game (Coenen, 2005). The path to success was influenced by wealthy owners who supported teams in bigger cities and a creation of a national market. The NFL was established in 1920 and the All-

American Football Conference (AAFC) league after World War II. The rivalries between these two leagues attracted college players, and generated more media exposure. In the 1950s football's violence, short season and televised games contributed to the popularity of the game. The American Football League (AFL) then emerged in the 1960s. The NFL and AFL merged and decided to share their resources rather than create unnecessary competition for each other. By the 1960s the NFL was the dominant league with franchises and owners placed all over the country and high media exposure.

Basketball was invented by James Naismith in 1891 in Springfield, Massachusetts (Hill, 1997). As basketball became more popular, the control of the sport was passed to the Athletic Union of America (AAU), which registered its players as either amateurs or professionals (Kirchberg, 2007). As with college football, college basketball was more popular than professional basketball in the sport's early days because college basketball had a standard set of rules. Players and fans knew what to expect when they went to see a college basketball game. Professional leagues that operated in the United States did not obey the same rules and principles. Each league had its own set of guidelines, which was confusing for fans.

Despite basketball's popularity, it took more than half a century to develop a stable league. Kirchberg (2007) notes that 24 men's professional leagues existed in the United States before the establishment of the NBA. Many of the leagues lasted only a few years because they struggled financially. Players' pay was very

low and many times the players would play in other leagues to supplement their incomes. Teams also struggled to attract fans.

The NBL (National Basketball League) and BAA (Basketball Association of America) decided to support each other and merged on August 3, 1949 to form the NBA. The commissioner of the NBA became Russian-born Maurice Podoloff. Professional basketball became more stable under the governance of Podoloff even though teams still kept losing money. The NBA slowly entered the television market, introduced the 24-second clock, and created the All Star Game in the 1950s. By the 1960s the NBA was steadily growing and was considered a stable league which heavily capitalized on its individual stars.

Baseball was played in North America by undergraduate students at Princeton at the end of the 18th century (Burk, 1994). As early as 1829 baseball was a popular activity at American universities. The Knickerbocker Baseball Club that emerged in 1842 focused on "manly" fellowship and set rules and standards for the early game (Burk, 1994). The first professional baseball league, called the National Association of Professional Baseball Players (NAPBP), was formed in 1871 and lasted five years. The National League (NL) was formed in 1876 and became a major league at the end of the 19th century. Other leagues that formed early on were the American Association (AA) (1882-1891), Union Association (UA) (1884), Players League (PL) (1890), and West League (WL) (1892-1899), which was later renamed to American League (AL). The American League proclaimed itself a major league in 1901 and merged with the National League in 1903 (Kyle & Fairbanks, 2008). Since the early days tension between owners and

players existed, players were often underpaid and many gambling, betting, and game fixing scandals appeared (Burk, 1994). During World War II, professional baseball was supported by Franklin D. Roosevelt (Kyle & Fairbanks, 2008). Roosevelt at that time supported baseball because he believed that participation in the game would reduce unemployment and that the players would have an opportunity to think about something else (sport) other than work. Throughout the 20th century the American League and National League experienced a series of expansions and relocations (Jozsa, 2010), which positively influenced professional baseball.

Major men's professional leagues faced challenges throughout their history. Violence due to profit, gambling and betting problems appeared frequently. Players often had low salaries, sponsors hoped to break even, and tension between owners and players appeared. Acknowledging the challenges that men's major leagues faced, it is not surprising to find that professional women's leagues that were created in the United States also experienced struggles. Nevertheless, some of the leagues have been more successful than others.

Professional Women's Leagues in North America

The professional women's leagues that operate in the United States are the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA), Lingerie Football League (LFL), and National Pro Fastpitch (NPF). The WNBA started operation in 1996 and it has been supported by the NBA who absorbed financial losses of the WNBA (Terzieff, 2008). The WNBA also uses NBA's marketing strategies and venue contracts (Baker, 2008). The National Pro Fastpitch (NPF) is a women's

professional softball league that strives to provide family entertainment and be a positive role model for younger athletes ("About NPF," 2013). The NPF has a contract with ESPN family network where it appeared several times during its 2012 season.

While several women's professional leagues exist, many women's professional basketball, softball/baseball, and football leagues failed in the United States in the second half of the 20th century. Four professional women's basketball leagues existed from 1979 to 1991 (e.g. Ladies Professional Basketball, Liberty Basketball Association). However, each of these leagues ceased because it faced financial problems (Pederson et al., 2011). In 1996, two professional women's basketball leagues formed, the ABL (American Basketball League) and WNBA (Women's National Basketball Association). The ABL again faced financial difficulties and folded after two seasons (Terzieff, 2008).

The All-American Girls Professional Baseball League (AAGPBL) was historically the first women's professional league that was created in the 1940s. The players competed for 11 seasons before the league folded in 1954. The recent attempt of women's professional softball was again unsuccessful as the Women's Professional Fastpitch (WPF) failed a few years after its creation. Also, many professional women's football leagues emerged and failed since the 1960s. Some of the leagues were Women's Professional Football League (WPFL), National Women's Football Association, and Independent Women's Football League (IWFL).

Several attempts have been made to organize and sustain women's professional volleyball leagues in the United States. All women's professional volleyball league(s) that once operated in the United States failed; however, the leagues left traces of information, which I assembled to provide a brief overview of each league.

Failed Women's Professional Volleyball Leagues

Three women's professional volleyball leagues have at one time existed in the United States. The women's leagues were the Major League Volleyball (MLV, 1987-1989), National Volleyball Association (NVA, 1993-1998), and United States Professional Volleyball League (USPV, 2002-2003).

The Major League Volleyball (MLV) was the first women's professional volleyball league to operate in the United States (PrepVolleyball.com, 2011.). The league was founded in 1987 by Steven Arnold, and folded in 1989 with an unfinished season (Lidz, 1987; "Major League Volleyball," n.d.). The league's chairman was Robert Batinovich, who made a final decision to suspend operation of the league in 1989 (Lowery, 1989b). Six teams played for Major League Volleyball ("Major League," n.d.). The league included the following teams: Chicago Breeze (1987-1989), Dallas Belles (1987)/Arizona Blaze (1988)/Portland Spikers (1989), Los Angeles Starlites (1987-1989), Minnesota Monarchs (1987-1989), New York Liberties (1987-1989), and San Jose Golddiggers (1987-1989). Many of the league's players were former collegiate all-American and Olympic athletes, and the level of play was highly competitive (the level of play was above NCAA Division I level) ("YouTube," 2007). Each team in the league had

individual owners and sponsors, and the major sponsor of the entire league was DHL Worldwide Express (Deutsche Post) shipping company (D. Cooper, personal communication, November 22, 2010).

The National Volleyball Association (NVA) was another league that belongs to the failed professional leagues in North America. This league started in 1993 (unknown season)/1994, in the west coast, and disbanded in 1998 ("PrepVolleyball.com," 2011; "National Volleyball," n.d.). The league had 13 franchises: Orange County Diggers (1994-1996), Sacramento Stars (1994-1996), San Diego Spikers (1994-1996), San Jose Storm (1994-1996), Utah Predators (1994-1996), Arizona Flames (1996-1997), Colorado Thunder (1996-1998), Iowa Blizzard (1996-1998), Nebraska Tornadoes (1996-1998), St. Louis Spirits (1996-1998), Utah Golden Spikers (1996-1997), Kansas City Lightning (1997-1998), and Wisconsin Fury (1997-1998). The league's winners were San Diego Spikers (1994-95), Utah Predators (1995-1996), Colorado Thunder (1996-1997), and Nebraska Tornadoes (1997-1998); the champion of the first season is unknown ("National Volleyball," n.d.). The Sacramento Stars, San Jose Storm and Utah Predators decided to leave the league in 1996 and establish the Professional Volleyball League (PVL) ("Professional Volleyball," n.d.).

The most recent professional league that was launched in the United States was the United States Professional Volleyball League (USPV), originally known as the United States Volleyball League (USVL). The league was established in 2002 and disbanded in 2003 ("United States Professional," n.d.). Some of the management staff members associated with the professional league were Bill

Kennedy, Susan Nucci (USPV director of operations), Robert McAuliff and his employees (marketing and business management), Rick Butler (technical adviser), and Wayne Messmer and Associates of Chicago (communications) ("USVL," 1999). The mission of the league was to position "the United States to win Olympic gold medals and provide American women volleyball athletes a career opportunity post collegiate play" ("USVL," 1999, p. 18). The league held tryouts in the Chicago area in April, 1999. Twenty top players were selected to form a team, which would compete against collegiate, national, and international teams. The athletes would receive $30,000 for the initial period. Following the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, the league was supposed to spread from Chicago to six to eight cities in the United States. Nevertheless, the USPV ended up having four franchises: Chicago Thunder (2002), Grand Rapids Force (2002), Minnesota Chill (2002), and St. Louise Quest (2002) ("United States Professional," n.d.). The league was supposed to own the individual franchises for the first few years, and consequently the USPV would sell the franchises to interested parties (USVL, 1999). The league folded before the start of its third season ("United States Professional," n.d.).

Professional women's volleyball leagues failed in the United States, but the sport has a long history, showing that women's volleyball has been a popular sport in the United States. The history of volleyball in the United States is discussed in the following section.

History and Development of Volleyball in the United States

At the end of the 19th century, students at American universities participated during the summer months in track and field, rugby, and baseball (Vertelar, 2005b). However, these students could not find any enjoyable activity during the winter months. Gymnastics, which was practiced during winters, was not satisfying the students' physical and psychological needs (Vertelar, 2005b). To add more selection of activities for students during the winter months, James Naismith created a new game called "naismith-ball" (renamed later basketball), in 1891 which soon gained popularity (Vertelar, 2005b, para. 4).

However, William G. Morgan, a physical director of the Holyoke Massachusetts YMCA perceived the game of basketball as too rough and strenuous for local cigar-smoking businessmen who participated in his physical activity classes (Dearing, 2007). He said: "We needed a game they could play. As I believed, it was recreation more than anything else they needed and there seemed to be nothing to just meet their needs" (Dhanaraj, 1991, p. 1). Morgan, therefore, created a less physically straining activity, which he named "mintonette" (Dearing, 2007, p. 32).

While thinking about the game, Morgan was strongly inspired by basketball, tennis, handball, and baseball ("100 Years," 1996). He discarded the idea of using racquets but kept a net, which was raised about six feet six inches from the floor, just above the head of an average man (Welch, 1969). There was also the need for a ball for the new sport and basketball served as a strong inspiration for choosing the right size and weight. A.G. Spalding & Bros. designed a ball for Morgan which was made out of leather and had a rubber

bladder. The basic rules and concepts of volleyball were consequently developed, based on the suggestions of members of Morgan's gymnasium: Dr. Frank Wood and John Lynch (Welch, 1969).

In 1896, Morgan attended the physical directors' conference where he explained the nature of the new game (Welch, 1969). The game was fairly simple: there was no restriction on the number of participants, the ball was played over the net, and the game had several innings. Morgan's proposal did not lead to excessive enthusiasm of the local Christian-oriented leaders; however, the leaders accepted the game ("100 Years," 1996). In addition, based on the suggestion of professor Alfred T. Halstead, one of the conference members, the original name "mintonette" was changed into "volley ball" due to the volleying part of the game (Welch, 1969, p. 19). This term was used until 1952, when the United States Volleyball (USVBA) board of directors decided to spell the term as "volleyball" (Welch, 1969, p. 24).

It was not only volleyball itself, but also Morgan's Christian background and personality that influenced acceptance of the game ("100 Years," 1996). He "represented the ideal prototype of the YMCA teacher: good hearted, straightforward, and God-fearing" (p. 17). For his genuine nature and Christian background, he was respected within the Christian community and this certainly affected initial acceptance of the new sport.

The first YMCA National Volley Ball Championship occurred at the Brooklyn Central YMCA in 1922, where twenty-three American teams participated (Welch, 1969). Pittsburgh (Pennsylvania) finished first and

Germantown (Pennsylvania) was second. The USVBA was created in 1928 (later renamed United States of America Volleyball, USA Volleyball). This organization has mainly focused on annual meetings, development of rules, introducing a national championship, and overall promotion of the game (Welch, 1969). In 1947, 14 federations founded the Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB), in Paris. The FIVB (2011) has supported the Olympic Games, World Championships, and World Cups ("100 Years," 1996). In 1964, volleyball appeared for the first time at the Olympic Games in Tokyo (Welch, 1969). The inclusion of volleyball in the Olympic Games legitimized the sport and gave the sport an appropriate standing. The NCAA adopted the sport in 1970 for men and 1982 for women (Kenny & Gregory, 2006). In the 1980s, Jon Hastings and Dennis Steers, two male volleyball players from California, decided to document volleyball through publishing stories in a magazine called *Volleyball Monthly* (Shewman, 1995). This magazine was later renamed *Volleyball Magazine*.

Volleyball celebrated 100 years in 1995 and this anniversary encouraged several volleyball enthusiasts to record the first 100 years of volleyball (L. Sawula, personal communication, May 21, 2010). Books such as *Volleyball centennial. The first 100 years…* (Shewman, 1995) and *100 Years of global link* ("100 Years," 1996) were published at that time. Today, volleyball has a marginal resemblance to the game that originated at the end of the 19th century; however, the transformed game constantly appeals to wider masses, both at the participation and spectator levels (Dearing, 2007).

Women's Volleyball

The history of men's volleyball has been recorded since volleyball was first introduced by William G. Morgan. In contrast, the existence of women's volleyball has not received as much attention, especially in the early years (Oglesby, 1998). Oglesby (1998) reports that women's volleyball was played at U.S. colleges and YWCAs (Young Women's Christian Association); however, "men did not deem it worth reporting" (p. 291), and doctors discouraged women to play volleyball because it was believed that the jumping in volleyball could hurt women's reproductive organs (Drurin, 2001). However, evidence exists that volleyball was introduced at Wisconsin and Mt. Holyoke College in 1897 and in Wintrop college in 1901 (Gerber, 1974). Additionally, Senda Berenson, a director of physical education at Smith College (women's college), introduced the sport at Smith's Demonstration Day in 1901 (Miller, 2002). As Smith College archival data suggest, women's volleyball was played there from 1911 to 1920. However, women's interest was waning approaching 1920. The competition was discontinued at Smith College in the spring of 1920 ("Smith College," 1913).

From the 1900s through the 1930s, women also participated in regional Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) volleyball leagues in Chicago, Minneapolis, Pennsylvania, and California (Oglesby, 1998). But as Oglesby (1998) suggests, the information concerning these YWCA leagues was recorded only on a sporadic basis.

The Spalding Athletic Company modified men's volleyball rules to suit women's needs and published these rules in the *Red Cover Series* in 1924 (Kluka & Dunn, 2000). A year later (1925), Agnes Wyman, head of the department of

physical education at Barnard College (Columbia), described the rules in an article called *Volley Ball for Girls and Women* (Kluka & Dunn, 2000; Shewman, 1995). At this time, the first girls' varsity volleyball teams started to compete in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania (Dearing, 2007). Nan Weed, a member representing women on the Volleyball Rules Committee, described women in the 1930s as "creatures innately social and not seekers after individual prowess" (Shewman, 1995, p. 21). Additionally, she perceived volleyball as a suitable sport for women due to "the possibility of a continual development of skill without constant practice, without accompanying development of big muscles" (p. 21). Women's volleyball, therefore, seemed to adopt the original philosophy of volleyball, with recreational exercise and enjoyment being the main purposes of the game (Dearing, 2007).

Although Dearing (2007) describes that throughout the 1930s and 1940s volleyball was more popular amongst girls than boys, there was limited support for the development of girls' athletic programs. In the 1930s, women's volleyball was played at YWCAs, the Women's Section of the American Physical Education Association, and Camp Fire Girls, which were all members of the USVBA (Welch, 1969). The USVBA organized the first women's USVBA national championship in 1949 in Los Angeles, California (Kluka & Dunn, 2000) where eight teams entered the competition (Miller, 2002). At this competition, Houston, Texas won the women's championship (Scates, 1993). Although the USVBA has organized national women's championships since 1949, women's participation at the collegiate level in the 1940s and 1950s was sparse (Crego, 2003).

Volleyball in the 1960s was still marked with a spirit of amateurship, sportsmanship, and moral conduct (Welch, 1969). Welch (1969) claimed: "Volleyball is one of the few remaining amateur sports in America. There are no dollar signs suspended from the necks of volleyball players. They play for the sheer fun of playing-and this is the spirit of amateurism" (p. 32). Additionally, USA Volleyball, the governing volleyball organization in the United States, retained the sport as amateur and a subject of entertainment rather than serious competition. Shewman (1995) takes a very critical approach towards USA Volleyball and their governance in the volleyball field. He describes the organization as conservative, incestuous, and having heavy handed policies. However, the 1970s changed the nature of volleyball with the introduction of "power" volleyball (Scates, 1976, p. 3). Power volleyball differs from recreational in its degree of organization and level of intensity (Scates, 1976). Japanese men's and women's volleyball teams introduced power volleyball at the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo. Since then, several U.S. organizations such as the NCAA adopted power volleyball.

The Commission of Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW) belonging under the Division of Girls and Women's Sports (DGWS) has governed university women's volleyball since 1970 (Bell, n.d.). The CIAW was replaced by the Association of Interscholastic Athletics for Women (AIAW) in 1971/1972, which carried volleyball forward (Bell, n.d.). The NCAA stepped in in 1982 and organized women's championships, along with paying the expenses of participating teams. The AIAW did not cover the expenses of the teams, and

consequently the AIAW lost its participant members and folded thereafter (Kluka & Dunn, 2000). Apart from the NCAA, the National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) and the National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA) have governed the collegiate championships (Davis, 1994). The NAIA organized its first women's championship in 1980 in Pittsburgh, Texas with the first champion being Azusa Pacific from California ("NAIA," 2011). The NJCAA started their championships in 1974, with Alvin College, Texas, rising to the top. The NJCAA separated into three divisions in the 1990s ("NJCAA," 2011).

Not only the emergence of variety of volleyball organizations, but also a federal law called Title IX enhanced the development of the sport at universities and high schools in the United States. Shewman (1995) states:

> Title IX started it; an emerging attitude in the national psyche welcoming the idea of girls competing was another ingredient. In the mid-70's, no full scholarships for women volleyball players existed. In 1988, there were hundreds available and the numbers increase yearly. It's a hot sport for women. (p. 270)

Title IX was a federal law enacted in 1972 and it stated that "no person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Cohen, 2001, p. 136). Universities, colleges, and high schools had to choose at least one out of three

prongs through which they had to comply with Title IX within six years of the Title IX inception (Cohen, 2001).

The three prongs are:

1. The intercollegiate or interscholastic level of participation opportunities for male and female students is provided in numbers substantially proportionate to their respective enrolments, or
2. The institution can show a history and continuing practice of program expansion that is demonstrably responsive to the developing interests and abilities of the underrepresented sex, almost always females in this context, or
3. The institution can show that the present program has fully and effectively accommodated the interests and abilities of the members of that sex. (Cohen, 2001, p. 149)

While many perceived this law as controversial and contributing to the "codification of feminism," universities and high schools started adding not only women's sports into intercollegiate and interscholastic athletics in the 1980s (O'Reilly & Cahn, 2007, p. 348), but also program funding, athletic scholarships, women's coaches, and facilities (Christensen, Guttman, & Pfister, 2001) in order to comply with Title IX. Christensen et al. (2001) state that volleyball was perceived as a feminine and socially acceptable sport for women, and it was already present at high schools and universities, albeit at a minimal level. For this reason, volleyball received a priority status when universities and high schools began to comply with Title IX. Specifically, the interscholastic (National

Federation of State High School Associations, NFHS) and intercollegiate (NCAA) volleyball programs benefited from this compliance. In 1981/82, there were 12,164 schools competing in interscholastic volleyball competitions (third after basketball and outdoor track and field) ("National Federation," 2011) (Table 2.1). In the first volleyball season of 1981/82, there were 603 women's volleyball teams (third behind basketball and tennis) competing for the NCAA Divisions I, II, and III ("NCAA," 2010) (Table 2.2).

Table 2.1

National Federation of State High School Associations Participation Rates National (1981-82)

Ranking	Championship Women's Sports	Number of Universities
1.	Basketball	17,089
2.	Track and Field-Outdoor	13,925
3.	**Volleyball**	**12,164**
4.	Tennis	8,478
5.	Softball-Fast Pitch	7,569
6.	Cross Country	7,475
7.	Swimming & Diving	3,621
8.	Golf	3,335
9.	Gymnastics	2,682
10.	Soccer	2,032
29.	Judo	2

Table 2.2

National Collegiate Athletic Association Participation Rates (1981-82)

Ranking	Championship Women's Sports	Number of Universities
1.	Basketball	705
2.	Tennis	610
3.	**Volleyball**	**603**
4.	Track-Outdoor	427
5.	Cross Country	417
6.	Softball	416
7.	Swimming	348
8.	Field Hockey	268
9.	Track-Indoor	239
10.	Gymnastics	179
21.	Badminton/Bowling/Sailing	11

The number of volleyball players at the university and high school levels has kept increasing since the 1980s. In 2009/2010, there were 15,382 schools competing in interscholastic high school competitions (third after basketball and outdoor track and field) ("National Federation," 2011) (Table 2.3). In 2009/2010, 1,025 (second behind basketball) teams competed in the NCAA Divisions I, II, and III ("NCAA," 2010) (Table 2.4).

Table 2.3

National Federation of State High School Associations Participation Rates (2009-10)

Ranking	Girls' Sports	Number of High Schools
1.	Basketball	17,711
2.	Track and Field-Outdoor	15,923
3.	**Volleyball**	**15,382**
4.	Softball-Fast pitch	15,298
5.	Cross Country	13,809
6.	Soccer	10,901
7.	Tennis	10,166
8.	Golf	9,651
9.	Swimming and Diving	7,171
10.	Competitive Spirit Squad	4,879
54.	Football-9	3

Table 2.4

National Collegiate Athletic Association Participation Rates (2009-10)

Ranking	Championship Women's Sports	Number of Universities
1.	Basketball	1,059
2.	**Volleyball**	**1,025**
3.	Cross Country	1,005
4.	Soccer	967
5.	Softball	957
6.	Tennis	912
7.	Track-Outdoor	767
8.	Track-Indoor	673
9.	Golf	557
10.	Swimming and Diving	512
23.	Rugby	4

The high participation rates at the university and high school levels since the 1980s demonstrate that volleyball has had a sufficient base in terms of the number of athletes needed for a professional volleyball league to operate.

Additionally, the results of the United States national team signify that the United States women's national team can bring medals to its homeland from prestigious international competitions. In the Olympic Games in 1984 the women's national team finished second, in 1992 third, and in 2008 second ("USA Volleyball," 2011). In the world championship the team was second in 1967, third in 1982, third in 1990, and second in 2002 ("Sports123.com," 2011). This means that the variety of American intercollegiate leagues, especially the NCAA women's volleyball league, have been able to raise athletes of exceptional quality. However, many of the student-athletes who graduate every year leave forever the competitive scene of indoor volleyball. These athletes cease to continue playing volleyball, go to play in a professional league overseas, or begin to compete in beach volleyball. This is due to the absence of a professional volleyball league in the United States. A sustainable league, on the other hand exists in many European countries including the Czech Republic where volleyball spread after World War I. Spread of volleyball to Europe and the Czech Republic, the development of men's and women's volleyball in the Czech Republic, and the description of the sustainable Czech league follows.

Spread of Volleyball to Europe

Volleyball spread worldwide in the beginning of the 20th century. Canada was the first foreign country to adopt the new sport, in 1900 ("2009-2010 Indoor," 2010). At that time, Ottawa's YMCA included volleyball as part of its physical education program. Cuba started playing volleyball in 1905, Puerto Rico in 1909, Uruguay in 1912, Brazil and Mexico in 1917 (Liskevych, 1976). Volleyball was

introduced to France in 1917. The game spread to other European nations after World War I (Stibitz, 1958, p. 21). Czechoslovakia, today the Czech Republic, was among the countries that not only adopted the sport extremely fast, but also significantly contributed to the development of both the FIVB, and important volleyball skills.

Development of Volleyball in Czechoslovakia

Archival sources provide us with several explanations as to how volleyball was introduced to Czechoslovakia. While one source states that after World War I, American soldiers donated Czechoslovakian YMCAs volleyball nets and balls (Havel, 1946), another source claims that professor Josef Amos Pipal, a Czechoslovakian professor living in the United States, transported and introduced the first volleyball net to Prague ("45 Let," 1966). Whether or not Pipal and/or American soldiers initially introduced volleyball to Czechoslovakia, volleyball has been played in Czechoslovakia since 1919 (Havel, 1946).

Professor Pipal, a member of the Prague YMCA since 1919 (Kucerova, 2010), was the main force through which volleyball was introduced to a wider masses in Czechoslovakia (Stibitz, 1958). In 1919, Czechoslovakian soldiers were preparing for the Inter-Allied Games (organized for military soldiers after World War I) in Paris (Vertelar, 2005a, para. 2). Professor Pipal decided at that time to include American games such as volleyball and basketball among activities that helped the athletes prepare for the Games (Vertelar, 2005a). Vertlar (2005a) describes that volleyball caught the athletes' attention immediately, as they

devoted every bit of their free time playing this new American game. The game was introduced to the Czechoslovakian public in Prague on June 5, 1920.

Initially, variety of volleyball teams formed at universities across Czechoslovakia (Kucerova, 2010). The university teams/clubs that existed in 1919 were: Strakova akademie (Prague), VVK Vysokoskolsky volejbalovy klub (Prague), VS Brandys (Brandys), Jicin (Jicin), Jindrichuv Hradec (Jindrichuv Hradec), and Klatovy (Klatovy), among other teams/clubs (Kucerova, 2010).

The first volleyball federation was created in 1921 at the Prague YMCA (Havel, 1946); however, archival documents have not been retained concerning this initial Czechoslovakian volleyball organization. Havel (1946) points out that "a step forward" in the scene of Czechoslovakian volleyball was taken when the Czechoslovakian Volleyball and Basketball Federation (Ceskoslovensky Volejbalovy a Basketbalovy Svaz, CVBS) was formed in 1924 (Havel, 1946, p. 15). The CVBS was not only the first federation established in Europe (second in the world after Uruguay), but the Czechs also formed their federation four years in advance of the United States, where, the game originated (Stibitz, 1958). The CVBS started to organize a men's league from 1924 and women's league from 1931 (Vertelar, 2009).

Stibitz (1958) states that volleyball in-between the Wars was played not only at Czechoslovakian YMCAs, but also at organizations called Sokol (Ceskoslovenska Obec Sokolska, COS), Orel, tramping/camping organizations, and local schools (Havel, 1946). However, each organization had its own rules (Stibitz, 1958). Archival sources highlight 1933, because the COS and the CVBS,

the most dominant organizations, decided to make an agreement, which united their volleyball rules. In addition, that year these organizations improved their relationship through increased communication (Marek & Hala, 1935).

In the 1930s, the tramping movement was developing at local tramping destinations ("45 Let," 1966). According to dictionary.com (2013) tramping refers to "hiking, especially on trails having huts at regular intervals for hikers to use overnight" (p. 1). Tramps, people who engaged in tramping, enjoyed spending time outside and they also started playing outdoor volleyball in the 1930s. Outdoor volleyball became so popular among tramps that a Tramping Volleyball Federation (Trampsky Volejbalovy Svaz) was established in 1932. Archival information suggests that the Tramping Volleyball Federation ran one first league, two second leagues, four third leagues, and eight fourth leagues in the 1930s ("45 Let," 1966). The winner of the first league was Tulaci in 1936, Montana Beroun in 1937, Klub Old Skautu Jizera in 1938, Montana Beroun in 1939, and Waldes in 1940 (Havel, 1946).

While 15 leagues were evident in the Prague region, tramping leagues also existed at other parts of the country, especially in the Czech regions called Moravia and Bohemia. Due to the high amount of volleyball players at the tramping leagues in the period of 1936-1940, this era is often considered as the "golden age" of volleyball (Stibitz, 1958, p. 42). In addition, this significant period had an impact on the Czech men's national team because many of the players who competed in the tramping leagues successfully represented Czechoslovakia at international competitions in 1946, 1949, and 1956 ("45 Let,"

1966). While the tramping movement was suppressed by World War II, it re-emerged in 1965, at this time appearing at a smaller scale ("45 Let," 1966).

Volleyball in the 1940s was constantly overshadowed by the more popular basketball, and therefore there was a push from administrators and volleyball enthusiasts to separate these two sports. The dream came true on March 31, 1946 when the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation (Ceskoslovensky Volejbalovy Svaz, CVS) was created, and the sport was forever separated from basketball (Vit, Ejem, & Vyoral, 2001). Czechoslovakian efforts to contribute to the development of volleyball became visible again a year later, when representatives of Czechoslovakian volleyball helped to found the FIVB ("45 Let," 1966). Czechoslovakian and French national teams competed against each other in Prague in 1946. At this event, representatives of the Czechoslovakian, French, and Polish federation gathered ("45 Let," 1966), and they produced official documents that initiated the creation of the FIVB in 1947 ("100 Years," 1996).

Volleyball continued to attract masses during the second half of the 20th century. This time, outdoor tournaments with friendly and family atmospheres attracted many male and female volleyball players. Velka Cena Prahy and Drevenice are some examples of these types of outdoor tournaments. Administrators of Velka Cena Prahy, a tournament organized in Prague, registered 132 teams in 1954 (Vit et al., 2001). To note, an additional 32 teams were prevented from entering the tournament due to late registration. A tournament called Drevenice, located at a small village close to Jicin, also became popular (Vit et al., 2001). While only 15 teams registered for the tournament in

1954 when the tournament was introduced, 589 teams played in the tournament in 1987. This number included not only domestic teams, but also teams from Algeria, Cuba, and the United States.

Women's Volleyball in Czechoslovakia

Women started to play volleyball in Czechoslovakia in 1925 (Stibitz, 1958). They initially competed along men in coed leagues. Stibitz (1958) states that while women's volleyball was developing alongside the men's game, the development of the women's game was slower. Nevertheless, women started competing in the league, organized by the CVBS in 1931. This was approximately 12 years after volleyball was introduced to Czechoslovakia. The first champion of the women's league was, at that time, VVS Praha (Vertelar, 2009). Over the years, a variety of volleyball teams from Prague, Plzen, and Bratislava dominated the women's league (Vertelar, 2009).

Personal communication with Z. Vrbensky (February 28, 2011) revealed that initially the Czechoslovakian volleyball league organized by the CVBS was played in the form of a tournament. The CVBS selected a date and any team who wanted to participate and compete could attend the final tournament. However, as the number of teams increased, the league started to use a template of the COS leagues. The teams played matches with other teams in their region, and consequently a series of qualification rounds preceded the final tournament. The final tournament included the best three teams from Bohemia, three from Moravia and two from Slovakia. All these teams participated at a three-day final tournament, which determined the winner of the league. An article called *45 let*

odbijene v Ceskoslovensku specifies that this system of competition was not efficient because some teams ended their seasons early. Thus, a new system of competition was established. In 1955 the men's and women's extraleague was established, which allowed for teams from Bohemia, Moravia, and Slovakia to compete against each other in one group during the season, and it also guaranteed a similar amount of matches for each team. This system, with little changes, has prevailed until now. In 1963, it was decided that final tournaments would be added, which would allow the highest ranked teams compete for a title, and the lowest ranked teams for survival in the league ("45 Let," 1966).

Currently, eleven teams compete in the Women's Extraleague. The teams are: VK Kralovo Pole Brno (Brno), VK Modranska Prostejov (Prostejov), TJ Tatran Stresovice (Praha), SK Slavia Praha (Praha), Sokol Sternberk (Sternberk), VK TU Liberec (Liberec), TJ Mittal Ostrava (Ostrava), and PVK Prerov Precheza (Prerov), SK UP Olomouc (Olomouc), TJ Sokol Frydek-Mistek (Frydek-Mistek), and PVK Olymp Praha (Praha) ("Czech Volleyball," 2011). Except for the extraleague, the CVS also runs one first league and one second league, whose winners advance to the higher-level league. The winner from the second league advances to the first league, and the winner from the first league qualifies to the extraleague ("Czech Volleyball," 2011).

The athletes play in the extraleague from November to April ("Czech Volleyball," 2011). In the first half of the season, each team competes twice with every single team in the league. After the first half of the season, the last two teams are moved to a group where they play two best of five matches with each

other and with the winning team of the first league. The first two teams will then compete in the extraleague the following year, and the losing team will drop down to the first league. The first seven teams in the extraleague compete in the best of five games for a title ("Czech Volleyball," 2011).

The league has been able to sustain itself over the 80-year period as a club league (Vertelar, 2009). While initially individual teams competed against each other, clubs started to form later, and they created their own infrastructure. The clubs that have competed in the league changed over the period of 80 years, however, a few clubs were able to keep their positions in the league. For example, the club Tatran Stresovice was founded in 1948 ("Tatran Stresovice," 2011) and it won the championship six times, from 1965 to 1975 (Vertelar, 2009). Although the club presently experiences less success, it maintains its position in the league. Similarly, SK Slavia Praha dominated the league in 1965 and the club again currently competes in the women's league (Vertelar, 2009).

The clubs also manage their own expenses and revenues. Personal communication with M. Ejem (July 12, 2011) revealed that the club's expenses vary as each club regulates the salaries of their players. Even the Czech Volleyball Federation is not allowed to inquire about the players' salaries. The clubs also benefit financially from their sponsors; a club in the league has on average twelve sponsors.

The league attracts 238 spectators per game; 1200 spectators came to watch the final game of the league in 2011 ("Czech Volleyball," 2010). The Women's Champions League, which attracts the best teams in the world (T.

Kelly, personal communication, June 19, 2009) had on average 1626 spectators per game, with 4000 spectators being present at the final game ("CEV," 2011). While the women's extraleague features approximately six times fewer spectators than the Champions League, it has existed for almost 80 years and it is able to sustain itself as a club league.

The empirical section presented a detailed history of women's volleyball in the United States and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic, concentrating on the professional women's league(s). The next section provides a review of the theory that I selected in order to undertake this research.

Chapter 3: Theory

To examine why women's professional volleyball league(s) failed in the United States and did not fail in Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic, I draw on the theory of institutional entrepreneurship, which received increased attention in the previous decade (Hardy & Maguire, 2008). While the theory has limitations, it acknowledges the voice of agency present in the diverse institutional environment, which many scholars within institutional theory initially called for (DiMaggio, 1988; Oliver 1991, 1992). The research within institutional entrepreneurship has over the years concentrated on the determinants of institutional entrepreneurship (Pacheco et al., 2009), field characteristics, actors' social position, vision creation, and mobilization of allies (Battilana et al. 2009), through discourse, among others. Drawing on Leblebici et al.'s (1991) definition of practice, this inquiry will explore practices and strategies of institutional entrepreneurship associated with the professional volleyball league(s) in the

United States and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic. While research regarding institutional entrepreneurship exists within the organization literature, sport management is currently lacking research on institutional entrepreneurship. This study will inform researchers within sport management about institutional entrepreneurship theory.

Development of Institutional Theory

Institutional theory developed in the late 19th century in the fields of economics, political science, and sociology (Scott, 2008). Some of the early influential scholars in those fields were Thorsten, Dewey (economics), Wilson, Willoughby (political science), and Spencer and Weber (sociology). While the neoinstitutionalists (generation of institutional scholars in the 1970s) considered the majority of the early scholars as atheoretial, conservative and/or conflicting, the fact is that the knowledge that was produced by the early scholars planted a seed for further development of the theory (Scott, 2008). Institutional theory, for this reason, kept evolving in the fields of economics, political science, and sociology (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991).

Institution

Before delving into the specific concepts of institutional theory, it is essential to answer a simple question: What is an institution? As with many concepts, several definitions exist. Hughes (1936) defined an institution as an "establishment of relative permanence of a distinctly social sort" (p. 180). Selznick (1957) characterized institution as "an organization infused with value" (p. 17). Jepperson (1991), on the other hand, perceived an institution as "a social

pattern that reveals a particular reproduction process" (p. 145). Scott (2008) described institutions in the following manner: "Institutions are comprised of regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive elements that, together with associated activities and resources, provide stability and meaning to social life" (p. 48). Greenwood et al. (2008) utilized Scott's (2008) definition to generate their own description, and defined institutions as: "More-or-less, taken-for-granted repetitive social behavior that is underpinned by normative systems and cognitive understandings that give meaning to social exchange and thus enable self-reproducing social order" (Greenwood et al., 2008, p. 4-5). Greenwood et al.'s (2008) definition not only comprehends the majority of the ideas of the previously mentioned definitions, but also includes the normative and cognitive pillars of social systems. Hence, due to its comprehensiveness and specificity this definition will form a platform for my research.

Institutions are "malleable yet firm, somewhat illusory yet recognizable, and fleeting as well as permanent" and they are maintained by social interaction (Dacin, Munir, & Tracey, 2010, p. 1394). Institutional maintenance, which refers to the "supporting, repairing, and recreating" of institutions is important for stabilizing meaning systems and structures in society over time (Dacin et al., 2010). Dacin et al. (2010) studied how rituals of formal dining at the University of Cambridge contributed to maintaining of British class system. They found that rituals played an important role in institutional maintenance because the actors involved in the rituals continued promoting and reproducing them when they left the university.

Institutions can exist for the individual (e.g. a handshake), the organization (e.g. formal accounting controls), the field (e.g. hierarchies of status between a variety of occupations), or society (e.g. legal system). Institutional theory emphasizes institutional processes located at the organization and organizational field level. Over the years this approach became very popular, as evidenced by a high number of citations from the early authors (Meyer & Rowan, 1977), and submissions to the Academy of Management division called Organization and Management Theory (Greenwood et al., 2008). The central question that institutional theory attempts to answer is: "Why and with what consequences do organizations exhibit particular organizational arrangements that defy traditional rational explanation?" (Greenwood et al., 2008, p. 31).

Retrospectively, Washington and Patterson (2010) separated the theory into several key elements including isomorphism, organizational fields, institutional logics, legitimacy, and organizational/institutional change. In the following paragraphs, I will briefly review each of the categories.

Isomorphism

The basic idea of institutional isomorphism is that the environment exerts pressure on organizations and the organizations adopt practices in order to survive (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). However, the practices are in reality myths, and this adoption often leads to a decline of the organization's control and coordination. "As more organizations conform to these myths they become more deeply institutionalized," appearing therefore more similar (Boxenbaum & Jonsson, 2008, p. 78). DiMaggio and Powell (1983) introduced three types of

isomorphism: coercive, mimetic, and normative, which lead organizations looking alike. Coercive isomorphism implies that the organization responds to external, often political pressures; mimetic stems from imitation of other more successful organizations, and normative is a result of professionalization, a struggle to agree on conditions of work (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The early development of isomorphism was further empirically tested by Tolbert and Zucker (1983), DiMaggio (1983), and Slack and Hinings (1994).

Field

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) defined organizational field as "those organizations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognized area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies and other organizations that produce similar services or products" (p. 143). Similarly, Scott (2001) perceived field as "a community of organizations that partakes of a common meaning system and whose participants interact more frequently and fatefully with one another than with actors outside the field" (Scott, 1995, p. 56). An organization and its actors present in the field have been guided by existing institutions (Scott, 1995), and this process appears in an unconscious way (Greenwood et al., 2008). The research concerning organizational field has concentrated on this unconscious behavior. Additionally, the earlier literature within the organizational field focused on a similarity within the field. In contrast, later scholars examining organizational field attempted to understand variations within the field (Hardy and Maguire, 2010). Hardy and Maguire (2010), for example, studied organizational change associated with field-configuring events

and they found that narratives contributed to a change in an institutional field and in organizations which was channeled through several mechanisms such as domination and translation.

Logics

The next construct that appears in the literature is institutional logics, and this concept was studied in a wide variety of empirical settings such as health care organizations (Scott et al., 2000), colleges and universities (Gumport, 2000), French cuisine (Rao, Monin, & Durand, 2003), and accounting firms (Thornton, Jones, & Kury, 2005), among others. Friedland and Alford (1991) defined institutional logics as: "symbolic systems, ways of ordering reality, and thereby rendering experience of time and space meaningful" (p. 243). On the other hand, Thornton and Ocasio (1999) conceptualized institutional logics as "the socially constructed, historical patterns of material practices, assumptions, values, beliefs, and rules by which individuals produce and reproduce their material subsistence, organize time and space, and provide meaning to their social reality" (p. 804). Examples of institutional logics are: capitalism, family, bureaucracy, democracy, and Christianity.

According to Greenwood et al. (2008), scholars examining institutional logics focused on analysis of the role of agency restrained by prevailing institutional logics (Giddens, 1984; Sewell, 1992; McPherson & Sauder, 2010); the role of society viewed as an inter-institutional system (Friedland & Alford, 1991); the material and cultural characteristics of institutional logics (Friedland & Alford, 1991); logics at multiple levels such as organizations, markets, industries,

networks, geographic communities, organizational fields (Greenwood et al., 2008); and lastly, the influence of societal characteristics on organizations' behavior (Thornton & Ocasio, 1999; Scott et al., 2000). Logic studies also examine the relationship between logics and diffusion (Shippilov, Insead, & Rowley, 2010) and logics and identity (Lok, 2010). For example, Shippilov et al. (2010) studied how institutions and their logics were spread following diffusion. Their study showed that organizations that followed a particular logic were more likely to choose practices congruent with the specific logic. Lok's (2010) study examined the role of identity work in the translation and reproduction of new institutional logics. He found, among other things, that actors can use the identity of new logic to strengthen legitimation of their pre-existing practices.

Legitimacy

The broad literature that exists on legitimacy has been, in recent years, highly theoretical, concentrating on examining legitimacy as an explanatory concept rather than exploring the empirical property of the phenomenon (Greenwood et al., 2008). The existing stream of literature on legitimacy stems from Weber (1978, [1924], as cited in Johnson, Dowd, & Ridgeway, 2006) who believed that individuals' behaviors essentially become compliant with the rules, norms, or social order even though the individuals do not always hold the same values and beliefs. Parsons (1956) extended Weber's ideas by expressing legitimacy as the congruence of an organization and social laws. Meyer and Rowan (1977), on the other hand, incorporated institutional rules into the definition of legitimacy, rules that function as institutional myths and lead to a

gain of legitimacy, resources, and stability, and therefore enhance survival. Furthermore, organizations that become isomorphic with institutional myths decrease internal control in order to maintain legitimacy (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Child (1972) created a theoretical model from which he concluded that legitimate organizations have the freedom to move to given markets in order to secure favorable demand. In addition, the organizations have the ability to select technology, structural arrangements, and scale of operation. Suchman (1995) defined legitimacy as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions" (p. 574). Apart from the existence of a variety of definitions of legitimacy, Greenwood et al. (2008) highlighted that dimensions, sources, antecedents, and consequences of legitimacy had all received scholarly attention. Recent studies on legitimacy looked at how organizations respond when the field's legitimacy is threatened (Desai, 2011) and how new market categories emerge and become legitimate (Navis & Glynn, 2010).

Change and Institutional Entrepreneurship

The early work of Meyer and Rowan (1977), and DiMaggio and Powell (1983) focused on stability and isomorphism (Washington & Patterson, 2010). Significant changes appeared in the 1990s with the emergence of a new stream of research in institutional theory (Washington & Patterson, 2010). This new inquiry transformed from stability to change, and isomorphism to agency. Early institutionalists perceived change in terms of exogenous forces called jolts

(Meyer, Brooks, & Goes, 1990) that disrupt already existing practices. Similarly, Clemens and Cook (1999) stated that change is caused by external factors that disrupt the stable institutional arrangements (Clemens & Cook, 1999). In contrast to Meyer, Brooks, and Goes (1990) and Clemens and Cook (1999); Leblebici et al. (1991) demonstrated that change is driven endogenously, therefore their study is considered as an important early research of organizational change (Greenwood et al, 2008). Wright and Zammuto (2013) in their longitudinal archival study of English cricket also demonstrated that change occurs endogenously, this time in mature fields when organizations are located in the field's center, periphery, and in between fields. DiMaggio (1988) argued that institutional theorists were "poorly equipped to explain change," without acknowledging the role of agency (p. 11). He (1988) stated that early institutional theorists addressed agency, but the agency was "not the focus of sustained theoretical arguments" (DiMaggio, 1988, p. 9). DiMaggio (1988) said: "Actors' self-interested behavior tends to be smuggled into institutional arguments rather than theorized explicitly" (p. 11). DiMaggio (1988), for this reason, re-introduced the concept of institutional entrepreneurship to allow future researchers to explain change adequately. Since then, institutional entrepreneurship became an area of interest for many scholars within institutional theory, with 60 book chapters and articles concerning this topic being published in peer-reviewed journals in North America and Europe from 2000 to 2010 (Pacheco et al., 2010).

Institutional entrepreneurship "refers to the practice of creating norms, values, beliefs, expectations, models, patterns of behavior, networks, or frames of

reference consistent with an organization's identity and current practice, and then getting others to accepts these norms, values, and so forth" (Zimmerman & Zeitz, 2002, p. 425). Battilana et al. (2009) defined institutional entrepreneurs, as "agents who initiate, and actively participate in implementation of, changes that diverge from existing institutions, independent of whether the initial intent was to change the institutional environment and whether the changes were successfully implemented" (p. 72).

Institutional entrepreneurship, similar to other theories, faces inevitable obstacles. The "paradox of embedded agency," which refers to an uneasy relationship between institutional determinism and agency, is one of them (Battilana et al., 2009, p. 67). Institutional entrepreneurship "acknowledges that individuals have the agency to drive the transformation of institutions in the pursuance of self-interest" (Pacheco et al., 2010, p. 977). Institutional entrepreneurship, however, "poses a problem for institutional theorists, most of whom view institutions as source of stability and order" (Scott, 2001, p. 181). If norms and beliefs are established by the institution, Battilana et al. (2009) asked, "how can human agency be a factor in institutional change" (p. 67)? For this reason, the goal of institutional entrepreneurship is to demonstrate "how [actors can] envision and enact changes to the contexts in which they are embedded" (Greenwood & Suddaby, 2006, p. 27).

Institutional entrepreneurship has been also criticized in recent years for the presentation of entrepreneurs as "heroes" (Battilana et al., 2009, p. 67) who lack embeddedness (Meyer, 2006, p. 732) or "Deus Ex Machina,"(Delmestri,

2006, p. 1536-1537), indicating that change is generated by an ecological process rather than powerful actors. Despite this extended vision of institutional entrepreneurship, Battilana et al. (2009) argued that institutional entrepreneurship should be a subject of future research because it allows exploration of the degree of agency which is embedded in the complex institutional environment.

Pacheco et al. (2010) and Battilana et al. (2009) have recently summarized the existing literature regarding institutional entrepreneurship. While each concentrated on different aspects of institutional entrepreneurship, their reviews overlap to some degree. Over the following pages, I use their studies as a template to present the existing research concerning institutional entrepreneurship, paying special attention to the area of mobilizing allies through discourse. Additionally, I consulted the literature review with Greenwood et al. (2008), who summarized the existing field approach of institutional entrepreneurship.

Pacheco et al. (2010) discussed the determinants of institutional entrepreneurship, which they perceive as motives that initiate institutional entrepreneurship. They included in this category external pressures, legitimacy, and organizational field. Similarly to Pacheco et al. (2010), Battilana et al. (2009) summarized the literature concerning organizational field and its properties. Additionally, they discussed the existing research within institutional entrepreneurship concerning actors' social position, vision creation and mobilization of allies, which all can lead to institutional change (Battilana et al., 2009, figure 8.1.).

Determinants of Institutional Entrepreneurship

Oliver (1992) examined factors that can predict deinstitutionalization, a research area which filled a gap in the existing research. Oliver (1992) determined three pressures- political, functional, and social-which can all lead to deinstitutionalization of a practice in an organization. Political pressures such as an organization's performance, crises, and changing external dependencies might lead to the questioning of an organization's legitimacy by its internal members. In addition to political pressures, functional pressures (an increase in competition and the emergence of unexpected events), or social pressures (a change in institutional rules) can lead to the organization's uncertainty, which can cause deinstitutionalization of an institutional practice by its internal members.

Apart from external pressures, legitimacy can also act as determinants of institutional entrepreneurship. Garud, Jain, and Kumaraswamy (2002) studied Sun Microsystems' efforts to sponsor Java software, which included challenges with establishing legitimacy. These challenges forced Sun, the institutional entrepreneur, to act in order to protect itself.

Organizational Field

Battilana et al. (2009) argued that the field, including field characteristics and actors' social position is an enabling condition for institutional entrepreneurship. The organizational field includes key suppliers, consumers, regulatory agencies, and others who produce similar services (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The degree of field heterogeneity and institutionalization are then two forces, which can invoke strategic action at the field level. Battilana et al. (2009) suggested that a majority of the empirical studies within institutional

entrepreneurship occur in emerging fields, which have a smaller degree of institutionalization, and therefore change can appear within this environment more rapidly (Dejean, Gond, & Leca, 2004; Lawrence, 1999; Garud et al., 2002). Apart from the field characteristics, actors' social position can determine if institutional entrepreneurship will occur (Battilana et al., 2009). For instance, subject positions (legitimated identities present in the field, Oakes et al., 1998) within the field might encourage institutional entrepreneurship, as was evident in Maguire et al. (2004).

Battilana et al. (2009) also found in the past literature that divergent change can be initiated by low-status organizations located at the periphery of the field (Garud et al., 2002; Haveman and Rao, 1997; Hirsch, 1986; Kraatz and Zajac, 1996; Leblebici et al., 1991) or high-status organizations located at the centre of the field (Greenwood & Suddaby, 2006; Greenwood et al., 2002; Sherer & Lee, 2002).

Framing/Vision Creation

To implement a divergent change, institutional entrepreneurs engage in framing. Boxenbaum (2006) define a frame as "an interpretive lens through which individuals perceive and interpret the world and occurrences in this world" (p. 940). According to Snow and Benford (1992), framing involves "meaning work- the struggle over the production of mobilizing and counter mobilizing ideas and meanings" (p. 613). Maguire and Hardy (2006) in their study examined deinstitutionalization of DDT and they found that the use of DDT was framed differently in 1962 and 1972. While discourse suggested that the use of DDT was

safe, effective, and necessary in 1962, by 1972 DDT was not considered safe for the environment or important in agriculture. Framing of DDT practices played, therefore, an important role in deinstitutionalization of DDT.

Institutional entrepreneurs who frame will often choose preferred institutional arrangements that are appealing to wider masses (Pacheco et al. 2010). Thus, framing is connected to creating legitimacy for new practices and forms. King and Lenox (2000) and Lenox (2006) studied the U.S. chemistry industry and discovered that in order to improve efficacy, the chemical industry wanted to align self-regulatory institutions with ideas of environmental protection.

Institutional entrepreneurs engage in three types of framing: diagnostic, prognostic, and motivational (Battilana et al., 2009). Diagnostic framing includes identifying a specific problem concerning the existing organization or broader field, exposing problems with present institutionalized practices, and then assigning blame (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). In Denmark, integration of immigrants was perceived as a societal problem; however, the institutional entrepreneurs took advantage of a diagnostic frame available in Denmark to introduce a diversity management (developing and managing employees in the way that results in positive financial performance and personal development of employees) in the country. This new frame used elements of already existing legitimate practice and the frame was perceived as socially accepted and innovative in two Danish companies (Boxenbaum, 2006).

Institutional entrepreneurs can be also be involved in prognostic framing. When the institutional entrepreneurs use prognostic framing, they de-legitimize

already existing institutional arrangements (Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002) and legitimize new arrangements to their new stakeholders and potential allies (Dejean et al., 2004; Demil & Bensedrine, 2005). These institutional projects need to be theorized, so they are in agreement with stakeholders' interests and values. Munir and Phillips (2005) found that Kodak produced texts that helped to delegitimize the old version of photography. Kodak also introduced a new roll-film camera and encouraged people to bring it on a holiday, so they could document their experiences. Kodak framed their story: "A holiday without a Kodak is a holiday wasted" (Munir & Phillips, 2005, p. 1681). Many people wanted to have memories from their holidays, and therefore camera became an essential (must have) item for men and women.

Lastly, motivational framing includes providing sufficient reasoning in order to support the new vision. While engaging in motivational framing, it is important that institutional entrepreneurs make connections with the state and relate to those that are interested in the project (Fligstein, 1997). For example, Fligstein (2001) found that socially responsible mutual funds companies (institutional entrepreneurs) used motivational framing when they promised that socially responsible funds can provide high financial returns and sufficient social change.

Institutional entrepreneurs who are embedded in the discursive and cultural contexts are able to create a vision that others are inclined to support (Battilana et al. 2009), many times they take advantage of the existing institutional arrangements. Dejean et al. (2004) found that, ARESE, France's first

rating agency developed a measure of social performance that was framed in the way that it was congruent with the norms of the financial section (Dejean et al., 2004). Financial managers were then willing to use this helpful tool in order to legitimize themselves in the financial community. Similarly, Hardagon and Douglas (2001) found that Edison's success was based on developing a system of electric lighting that integrated the components of the already known gas industry. Edison designed and framed the electric lighting in the way, so it was indistinguishable from the existing system, decreasing rather than highlighting the gaps between the old institutions (gas industry) and his innovation (electric light).

Battilana et al. (2009) suggests that institutional entrepreneurs face unique challenges because they have to "justify divergence from taken-for-granted practices and frame the vision for that change in a way that enables others, despite unfamiliar nature, to understand and endorse it (p. 81). Thus, institutional entrepreneurs should posses a higher level of framing skills than entrepreneurs do.

Mobilizing Allies

Apart from framing, institutional entrepreneurship is often associated with mobilizing allies through resources (Garud et al., 2002), formal authority (Maguire, et al. 2004), social capital (Maguire et al., 2004), collaboration (Lawrence, Hardy, and Phillips, 2002), and use of discourse (Hardagon & Douglas, 2001) in order for the divergent change to appear (Battilana et al, 2009).

Resources.

Resource acquisition was a theme that commonly appeared in the literature on institutional entrepreneurship. The past literature on institutional

entrepreneurship discussed financial (Greenwood & Suddaby, 2006; Demil & Bensedrine, 2005), organizational (Greenwood & Suddaby, 2006), and cultural resources (Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002), among others.

Greenwood and Suddaby (2006) found that financial and organizational resources played a role in their research. They explored a new organizational form, the multidisciplinary practice (MDP) existing within the field of professional business services. Greenwood and Suddaby (2006) discovered that the MDP took advantage of their organizational and financial resources in order to oppose the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission, the regulatory agency.

Demil and Bensedrine (2005) found that the Firms for the Environment (Entreprises pour l'Environnement, EPE), the institutional entrepreneurs, utilized financial resources in order to influence important stakeholders in the area of industrial waste in France in the 1990s. Although the EPE was not able to prevent a tax on special industrial waste (SIW), it managed to modify the institutional environment through its financial resources.

Formal authority.

Formal authority, "an actor's legitimately recognized right to make decisions" (Phillips et al., 2000, p. 33), can accompany institutional entrepreneurs in several ways (Battilana et al., 2009). For example, the actors within the European Commission, the formal authority, performed the role of institutional entrepreneurs (Fligstein, 2001). The European Commission utilized cultural frames to create a Single Market Project and political coalition as well as

restructure the state actors' choices, despite the crisis that the European Union experienced during the 1980s (Fligstein, 2001).

Social capital.

Social capital refers to actors' positions within their social network, and it allows institutional entrepreneurs to obtain needed information and political support (Battilana et al., 2009). Maguire et al. (2004) found that Turner and Roberts, the institutional entrepreneurs, were dependent on social and cultural capital to initiate change. Turner and Roberts "skillfully combined their connections in the HIV/AIDS community and the pharmaceutical industry with their knowledge of the issues and ability to articulate those issues so that a wide variety of stakeholders could accept their interpretations and suggestions" (Maguire et al., 2004, p. 676).

Similarly, Jacques Delores, President of European Commission, took advantage of his central position in the European Union (Fligstein, 1997). Before he became president, he decided to travel the major European cities in order to push for the creation of the Single Market Program (SMP), which eventually started to operate.

Past research also indicated that institutional entrepreneurs are likely to have elevated degrees of "reach centrality," as was the case in Oliver and Montgomery's study (2008, p. 1152). Oliver and Montgomery (2008) examined the creation of a Jewish legal profession in pre-state Israel utilizing data from the '11th Congress of Jewish Lawyers' (p. 1152). They found that institutional entrepreneurship was associated with high "reach centrality", which was referred

to as having connections to many field members through a smaller amount of intermediaries (Oliver and Montgomery, 2008, p. 1155).

Collaboration.

Institutional entrepreneurs are people who acquire allies through resource mobilization, formal authority, and social capital (Battilana et al., 2009). Collaboration and constant communication is therefore important for institutional entrepreneurs. Wijen and Ansari (2007) studied the field of climate policy where various people negotiated in order to overcome collective inaction. The institutional entrepreneurs were able to collaborate through creation of common ground, application of ethical guidelines, and use of media exposure. Yet another example is a small nongovernmental organization (NGO) in Pakistan that successfully collaborated with organizations and programs such as University of Oslo, The World Food Program, and CARE International to achieve the NGO's goals (Lawrence, Hardy, & Phillips, 2002). Thus, collaboration is a requisite function for institutional entrepreneurship.

Use of discourse.

The recent research concerning institutional entrepreneurship also discusses the role of strategies of the institutional entrepreneurs/entrepreneurship, which are evident in discourse. The strategies that were implemented in order to initiate institutional change included rhetorical strategies (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005), narration of stories (Zilber, 2007), embedding a new technology within institutionalized practices (Munir & Phillips, 2005), utilizing measurements (Dejean et al., 2004), analogies (Leblebici et al., 1991; Hardagon & Douglas,

2001), conventions (Leblebici et al., 1991), and private agreements (Leblebici et al., 1991).

We understand texts as spoken, written, and spatial practices that are embedded in specific contexts that together form a discourse (Fairclough, 1992, as cited in Zilber, 2007). Fairclough (1992, as cited in Zilber, 2007) further states that discourse, in reality, allows for an interpersonal and interactional process, which is a source of collective institutional entrepreneurship. According to Wijen and Ansari (2007) collective institutional entrepreneurship is "the process of overcoming collective inaction and achieving sustained collaboration among numerous dispersed actors to create new institutions or transform existing ones" (p. 1079). The collective institutional entrepreneurship combats the heroic view of institutional entrepreneurship, the major challenge of the theory of institutional entrepreneurship (Battilana et al., 2009).

Rhetorical strategies.

Over the years discourse became one of the components through which we are able to identify strategies of institutional entrepreneurship. Suddaby and Greenwood (2005) examined the discourse surrounding the creation of a new organizational form consisting of an already established Big Five accounting firm who purchased a law company. The creation of this new organizational form led eventually to jurisdictional struggles. Suddaby and Greenwood (2005) found that the discourse included two types of rhetorical strategies: institutional vocabularies and theorization of change. The proponents and opponents of the new organization form used increasingly distinct vocabularies invoking different

logics of professionalism, as the battle of proponents and opponents of the MDP prevailed. The second strategy, theorization of change, was evident in the text, and the proponents and opponents of the new form referred to this strategy through teleological, historical, cosmological, ontological, and value-based rhetoric.

Narration of stories.

Similarly to Suddaby and Greenwood (2005), Zilber (2007) demonstrated that discourse provides us with tools to better understand institutional entrepreneurship. Zilber (2007) explored the discourse surrounding the crisis of an established institutional field of high-tech industry in Israel at a one-day conference organized by an Israeli accounting firm. He found that while various actors constructed a shared optimistic story, they also expressed two controversial stories through jokes, anecdotes, and graphics that positioned the venture capitals as heroes and high-tech entrepreneurs as villains.

Embedding a new technology within institutionalized practices.

Apart from usage of institutional vocabularies, theorization of change and revelation of stories, Munir and Phillips (2005) found that Kodak created new roles and institutions, and modified institutions at the field level in order to institutionalize the new roll-film photography. Additionally, Kodak strategically embedded a new technology in institutionalized practices because the company produced texts that included references to existing institutions such holiday and vacation (Munir & Phillips, 2005).

Measurements.

Dejean et al. (2004) explored the strategies of rating agencies, institutional entrepreneurs, who implemented them in order to gain legitimacy within the emerging market industry of socially responsible investment. They found that the measurement tools of French entrepreneurial company called ARESE triggered the development of legitimacy and powered the emerging industry. Furthermore, they discovered that the mediating factors of this process included adaptation to the cognitive framework of the financial community, alignment with professional standards, and structuring of the decision-making process of fund managers.

Analogies, conventions, and private agreements.

Hardagon and Douglas (2001) studied Thomas Edison and his invention of the electric light. The analysis of the data showed that Edison's new design of incandescent light was accepted and widely adopted because his innovation was constructed similarly to the design of the gas industry, while adding a new feature to his electric light. Due to the similarities between incandescent light and the gas industry, analogies were already present in the institutional entrepreneur's effort to legitimize change. Analogies also played an important role for Leblebici et al. (1991), who explored the creation of the radio industry in the United States. Leblebici et al. (1991) found that during World War I, the operation of unfamiliar radio industry was in press resembled to the operation of familiar post offices, public schools, and "the magazine of the air" (p. 340). Such press analogies, for this reason, made the radio industry a familiar business that was soon supported by radio stations and manufacturers. In addition, analogy known as the transportation model was evident in the data. The transportation model

contributed to a better understanding of the transmission of a radio spectrum. Apart from analogies, private agreements and conventions played a key role in the establishment of privately owned radio enterprise in the United States. In the beginning of the 20th century, amateurs designed their own radios and pirated existing innovations. These problems were resolved by the creation of private agreements between patent holders such as General Electric, American Telephone and Telegraph, and others. Conventions, which are repetitive patterns serving as solutions to specific problems, was the last strategy evident in the early development of the radio industry. The results showed that conventions such as live programming, connecting radio stations by telephone lines, or playing recorded music were key factors in the institutionalization of new practices in broadcasting.

Sustainability versus Success

Institutional entrepreneurship literature also alludes to the concepts of sustainability, value creation, and social acceptance. Institutional entrepreneurs often frame, use resources, formal authority, social capital, and discourse to achieve legitimacy of their practices. Institutional entrepreneurship differs from entrepreneurship as the latter concept highlights success and profitability of projects (Shane and Venkatraman, 2000). Furthermore, entrepreneurial opportunities are those where new goods and services can be sold at a price higher than the cost of their production.

Institutional entrepreneurship researchers suggest that there is a link in between institutional entrepreneurship and sustainability (Leblebici et al., 1991,

Hardagon and Douglas, 2001, Munir and Phillips, 2005). Leblebici et al. (1991) examined the growth of the radio industry, highlighting a variety of transformations that led to a formation of stable industry in the United States. While financing issues were discussed within the article, financing and profit making seemed to come secondary. This outcome is very similar to Hardagon and Douglas' (2001) institutional entrepreneurship paper. Hardagon and Douglas (2001) studied how Edison's invention of incandescent light gained social acceptance. His new design was initially rejected by British and American leading scientists and physicists. Despite the early rejection, Edison devoted his time to create a system of electric lighting, which would be user friendly, cheap, and resemble already existing gas industry. Edison wanted to create a socially accepted product that people could use for many years to come as opposed to a product that would make him an immediate profit. Overall, the concepts of social acceptance and sustainability played an important role in the development of early radio and electric industry.

Failed Leagues

We know from research that implemented strategies in a certain industry can lead to success, as was the case, for example, in the radio and financial industry. However, academic literature concerning institutional entrepreneurship tells us a bare minimum about the connection between organizations' strategies and failure. For this reason we bring up the case of American football, the sport that struggled to find its place in Europe, despite several trials. This case will serve as an example of strategies/reasons of why a sports league failed.

The American football league called the World League of American Football, NFL's developmental league, started to operate in 1991 with 10 teams, but it was forced to close for two seasons in 1993 and 1994 ("NFL Folds," 2007). The league came back in 1995 under the name NFL Europe, this time with six teams present. NFL Europe changed its name to NFL Europa, however even the new name did not help the league and it folded in 2007. NFL commissioner Roger Goodell stated: "The league was losing about $30 million a season," and therefore ceasing NFL Europa was the "best business decision" ("NFL Folds," 2007, para. 4). Apart from a loss of money, the league also received less TV exposure because of market saturation (Starcevic, 2007). Other sports (e.g. soccer, hockey) appear on TV in Europe and there is not much space for a new sport such as American football.

Bottenburg (2003), however, viewed the situation of American football in Europe differently. In his research Bottenburg (2003) explored why American football received so little attention in Europe despite the forces of Americanization such as McDonald, Stephen King, and Hollywood movies commonly consumed by Europeans. Bottenburg (2003) concluded that a lack of grassroots for football in Europe such as presence of the sport at high schools, universities, and in the media hurt American football in Europe. He stated that "in the 1990s, the NFL committed itself to launching football as a spectator sport with the help of media and sponsors, but as long as this approach is not accompanied by the building of a basic foundation at a grassroots level (a foundation that has been established for volleyball . . .), football in the European sport space will

continue to be thrown for a loss" (p. 1561). Similarly, Kevin Alavy, the head of analysts of Initiative Sports, said that it is extremely challenging to transplant sport into a new environment (Isidore, 2007). He believes that the complexity of football also makes it difficult for a new person to understand the game. It is difficult to say the exact reason why American football failed in Europe. The lack of profitability, TV exposure, grassroots, and general understanding of the sport were possible contributors to the demise of the league.

Practices and Strategies

Institutional entrepreneurs have promoted a variety of practices (Greenwood et al. 2008). Leblebici et al. (1991) described practices as "agents' specific actions within an interorganizational field" (Leblebici et al., 1991, p. 339). Greenwood et al. (2008) stated that the past literature highlights practices concerning the adoption of business plans (Oakes, Townley, & Cooper, 1998), forms of diversity management (Boxenbaum & Battilana, 2005), technological standards (Garud et al., 2002) and exchange media in the radio industry (Leblebici et al., 1991). Specifically, Leblebici et al. (1991) utilized practices that relate to financing, production, transmission and selection of programs and signals. Some practices that were present in the development of the radio industry in the United States were financing through advertising, low-cost network programs, or specialized programming.

Perceiving the professional volleyball leagues as new organizations and acknowledging that practices evolve after the establishment of something new, I attempt to discover, first, the practices that were associated with the establishment

of the professional leagues in the United States and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic. Second, strategies present in my data will be determined and evaluated. This research will answer several research questions:

1. What were the practices that were associated with the development of the American leagues? What were the strategies that were associated with the development of the American leagues? What were the common themes associated with each of the strategies?
2. What were the practices that were associated with the development (and sustainability) of the Czech league? What were the strategies that were associated with the development (and sustainability) of the Czech league? What were the common themes associated with each of the strategies?

The studies within institutional entrepreneurship have described a variety of industries such as accounting (Greenwood & Suddaby, 2006; Greenwood, Suddaby, & Hinings, 2002), radio (Leblebici et al., 1991), electricity (Hardagon & Douglas, 2001), law (Oliver & Montgomery (2008), and others. However, institutional entrepreneurship has not been utilized within the sport industry. While several authors, within sport management have addressed institutional change (Kikulis, 2000; Amis, Slack, & Hinings, 2004; O'Bryan & Slack, 2003), the concept of institutional entrepreneurship has not been voiced. The goal of my study is to inform sport management scholars regarding the use of institutional entrepreneurship theory in the field of sport management.

This chapter presented detailed information regarding institutional entrepreneurship. Next, the method used in this research will follow.

Chapter 4: Method

The following chapter describes the method of this study. This research is a historical case study, following Yin (1994) as a template. The chapter discusses the type of archival data used and data analysis procedures.

Similarly to Hardagon and Douglas (2001), my study is a historical case study. Kieser (1994) indicated that historical analysis provides us with tools to understand how actions and institutional structures are not led by laws, but are "the result of decisions in past choice opportunities, some of which were made intentionally and others more implicitly" (p. 611). Historical research also allows for a systematic collection and analysis of historical data (Ventresca & Mohr, 2002), and some institutional theorists who examined past events have selected this type of approach (Hardagon & Douglas, 2001; Leblebici et al., 1991). For this reason, a historical case study was a suitable approach for my inquiry.

While historical case studies were appropriate for my inquiry, they face several limitations. The first limitation refers to the frequent exclusion of the method section, and the second deals with information accuracy. The fact is that historical case studies are frequently published in history or sociology journals, and these journals do not usually require inclusion of a proper method section, as is the norm in sports management- oriented journals. To overcome this limitation, similar to Washington and Ventresca (2008) I will refer to a case study design proposed by Yin (1994). Yin (1994) states that a case study, in general,

"investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context" (p. 13), which resonates with my inquiry. Yin (1994) separates the design of case studies into two categories: single-case and multiple-case. My first study, the American professional volleyball leagues, follows a multiple-case study design and my second study, the Czechoslovakian/Czech professional volleyball league, is a revelatory single-case. I use a multiple-case study design for my first project because this type of design allows me to evaluate each of the women's professional leagues separately and make a comparison amongst my cases. The multiple-case study method follows a rigorous structure, described by Yin (1994). Yin's (1994) figure 2.5 includes developing a theory, selecting cases, designing data protocol, conducting all the case studies separately, writing individual case reports, drawing cross-case conclusions, modifying theory, developing policy implications, and writing a cross-case report.

While my first study will follow the format of a multiple-case study design, my second project, the Czech professional volleyball league (1930s/50s-2010), is a subject of a single-case revelatory case study. A revelatory case study is used by a researcher when he/she is able to analyze a phenomenon not accessible for observation by majority of researchers" (Yin, 1994, p. 40). My second project is revelatory because I will be able to collect data, which would be less accessible to most researchers in the sport management field in North America due to a language barrier. The single-case study design will follow a similar design to the multiple-case study design, except in the former only one case will be analyzed and a conclusion will be made based on this case.

The second limitation of historical case studies is that historical case studies face concerns with information accuracy. Hardagon and Douglas (2001) stated that historical analyses often ignore certain facts or do not acknowledge the time and background that surrounded the particular studied events. To overcome this limitation, I will draw on several resources rather than rely on a single source of data, as a single source of data might limit my study.

Data Collection (U.S. Cases)

To examine the institutional entrepreneurship of the professional volleyball leagues in the United States, I collected a variety of archival data that surrounded the operation of each of the three leagues. Appendix A presents the overview of the data that was used for this section. I mostly relied upon 592 newspaper articles (1,101 pages) and 1 book. Some of the most useful articles were titled "Major League Volleyball teams suspend operations" and "Breeze folds; league disbands." Please refer to the Appendix A for more information regarding the collected data. The existing data concerning the American leagues was produced mostly immediately before the league started, during its operation and/or soon after the league's failure. I collected newspaper/magazine articles, website articles, archival documents, and textbooks.

First, I collected electronic newspaper/magazine/website articles using http://www.highbeam.com/Search (a subscription was required) and google.com search websites. I typed in a name of each of the team hoping to discover as many articles as possible concerning the leagues. Then I compiled all of the articles that

I found and copied and pasted their websites and information into a word document.

I also contacted USA Volleyball, an organization that governs a junior and senior competition in the United States, and asked them if they have any documents concerning the professional leagues. Takuya Naito, USA Volleyball coordinator of special projects, not only responded to my request, but also sent me electronic documents concerning the leagues.

Lastly, I reserved several volleyball related textbooks from the University of Alberta library. Some of them had small amount of information on the leagues. I highlighted the relevant information and copied the pages for my own records.

Apart from collection of archival data, I also conducted interviews with organizers/employees of each league. I interviewed participants that founded each league and/or were involved in the league's operation. I identified these participants based on the collected archival data such as newspaper articles, internal documents, and media guides. Additionally, I also searched wikipedia and other websites in order to find names and contact information of the potential interviewees. I then contacted the potential interviewees to set up Skype interviews and I also sent them an information letter at that time (Appendices B and C). I interviewed six participants who were involved with the U.S. leagues. Three subjects were involved with the MLV, two were involved with the NVA, and one with the USPV. My interviewees of the MLV were the league commissioner, a team director of marketing and sales, and a team general manager. In the NVA league I interviewed a team general manager and team

announcer who later became a team general manager. In the USPV league I interviewed a team administrator that was initially involved with the league.

Before the interview started, I emailed a copy of the consent form to the participants, so they had a chance to review it prior to the interview (Appendix D). During the interview the participants were asked if they agree with the conditions of the study. Upon their agreement (all of them agreed) I proceeded with the semi-structured interviews. I asked the participants questions about the strategies that they think were or were not beneficial for the league, why they think the league failed and other related questions (Appendix E). At the end of the interview, I thanked the subjects for participating in the study and asked if they agree to be contacted for follow up questions. When I compiled all the interviews, I transcribed two of them and the remaining four were given to a transcription company called Comma Police who returned the final transcripts to me via email.

The information that the participants provided remained confidential and the identity of participants was not revealed. To secure the participants confidentiality the participants were assigned a letter based on the league that they were involved in (Major League Volleyball=A, National Volleyball Association=B, United States Professional Volleyball League=C). Additionally, a number was assigned to each letter based on the order of the interview for the particular league. For example, the organizers of the Major League Volleyball were labeled in the written drafts as A1 (the first interviewee of the MLV), A2 (the second interviewee of the MLV), and A3 (the third interviewee of the MLV).

Similarly, the interviewees of the National Volleyball Association were labeled as B1 and B2 and the interviewee of USPV was marked as C1.

Data Analysis (U.S. Cases)

Once I collected all the available information, I took time to analyze the data using a content analysis. Content analysis uses a coding technique to reduce data and separate it into appropriate categories (Edwards & Skinner, 2009).

First, I read all the collected data (including interviews) several times to gain a general understanding of the data. When I read the data the first time, I wrote in the margins of the interview transcripts and printed historical data, the areas the text covered. The second time I read the data, I specifically looked for strategies of the league's entrepreneurs following Leblebici et al. (1991) definition of strategy. While Leblebici et al. (1991) defined a strategy as agents' actions within an interoranizational field; this study scrutinized the agents' actions within each volleyball league. Additionally, I searched in the text for evaluations of the strategies by those who were involved with the leagues. Some of the codes that arose were, for example, TLOC (team location), OPPWOM (opportunities for women), or TV (television). Many of the codes overlapped across the three leagues. I would then transfer the codes into a word document where I would separate the text based on its codes. I would add to each code if it was positively (+), negatively (-) evaluated or if the description was more neutral/descriptive, keeping these categories altogether under each code. A general name was given to the similar quotes based on the content of each code. I labeled these strategies as the first-order concepts. Some of the first order-concepts that I found in the text

were early expansion, role models, or concentrated ownership. The first-order concepts were then grouped based on their similarities and a descriptive label, a second-order theme, was assigned to these practices. For example, the strategies of concentrated and individual ownership were grouped together. A label "ownership" was assigned to these strategies. Similarly, strategies of selection of teams in big versus small markets, California versus Midwest were labeled as "selection of areas for each team." Quotes that demonstrated the positive or negative evaluations of these strategies were then counted so I knew how many times each strategy appeared in the text. The strategies that were mentioned several times in the interviews were counted every time the interviewee would discuss the strategies.

Once the first-order concepts and second-order themes were assembled, I created Appendix F where I included quotes, the first-order concepts, and second-order themes. Then, I made a table 4.1, where I placed the first-order concepts, second-order themes and dimensions that came from the institutional entrepreneurship literature. Please refer to the Appendix F and Table 4.1 as you read through the results and discussion section of the U.S. cases.

Table 4.1

First-Order Concepts, Second-Order Themes and Dimensions of the U.S. Leagues

First-order concepts	→	**Second-order themes-dimensions**
Bigger versus smaller markets California versus Midwest Cities located in the Midwest	→	Selection of areas for each team-legitimacy
Providing opportunities for players Role models Other aims of USPV	→	Leagues' missions-framing
Type of players including local players and level of play	→	The sport product-resources
Concentrated ownership Individual owners One-man ownership	→	Ownership- framing, resources, formal authority, profitability
Early expansion Relocation	→	Expansion-framing, resources, success, profitability
Budgeting and finances Business plan	→	Struggle for profitability-resources,
Marketing Obtaining and maintaining sponsors TV Newspapers	→	Achieving external visibility-legitimacy, resources, framing, profitability, social capital, collaboration

Data Collection (Czech Case)

Similarly to the United States' cases, I used several types of data to analyze the volleyball league in Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic. The data included mainly newspaper and magazine articles. Additionally, I conducted interviews with entrepreneurs of the Czech league.

I collected newspaper articles from 1931 (women started to play in the women's league at that time) to early 1990s (1992) to have a comprehensive

picture of the data concerning the Czechoslovakian/Czech league. I stopped my data collection and analysis when I reached early 1990s because the league was stable by that time. Since the 1980s, the length of the season has been stabilized, starting in fall and ending in spring ("Volejbaliste na Plenarnim," 1980). Since the 1970s the league has played indoors only, so games did not have to be rescheduled because of unsuitable weather conditions. The Czechoslovakian/Czech Volleyball Federation helped to stabilize the structure of the league and the number of teams and cities where the teams play also have not changed significantly. For example, in the 1988/89 season there were eight teams spread over six cities (Vit, 2006) and in the 2012/13 season there were ten teams spread over eight cities ("Czech Volleyball," 2013). In 1989 some of the Czech clubs privatized, so it was important to include articles in my data collection from that year and a few years after 1989. Overall, there have not been any significant changes in the league's structure since 1989 that is why I stopped my data collection in the early 1990s.

Appendix G presents the overview of the data that was used for this section. I relied on 325 newspaper articles (350 pages) and 22 books. The most useful books were "Odbijena-kosikova" and "Odbijena" which were published annually from the 1950s to the 1970s by the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation. Please refer to the Appendix G to view more detailed information regarding my data collection.

I retrieved archival newspaper articles from Moravska Zemska Knihovna, located in Brno (Czech Republic). The library is required to keep all published

newspapers since 1935, and often stores magazines and newspapers from the beginning of the 20th century (personal communication, R. Chlupova, March 1, 2011). I searched for data in the following newspapers/magazines: *Star* (1930-1937), *Rekord* (1933-1942), *Nase Cesta* (Our Path) (1945-1948), *Ruch* (Noise) (1945-1952) and *Ceskoslovensky Sport* (Czechoslovakian Sport) (1953-2000). I selected these magazines because they were suggested to me to consider by an employee of a Museum of Physical Education (located in Prague) to whom I described my study. I initiated contact with the employee before I took my candidacy exam. I collected most of the data on my own, but some of the data was collected by one of the librarians, my grandfather and cousin upon giving them detailed instructions on what to do.

The library has an online database where one can find the magazines/newspapers/books that the library owns. Upon a request, a librarian usually brings within thirty minutes the reading material to a study room where one can read/study the material during the library opening hours. For the period of two months that I spent in the Czech Republic, I would order individual newspapers of *Star, Rekord, Our Path, Noise and Czechoslovakian Sport* and look through their prints. Once I picked up the individual newspapers, I would look through the newspapers/magazines and try to find articles that would concern the elite volleyball league. I knew that the elite volleyball league is very closely connected to other Czech volleyball leagues, so I would rather select a broader spectrum of articles to make sure that I covered my topic area.

Once I found the appropriate article, I would take a picture of the article with my camera and write down the references for each article (author, publisher, name of the newspapers). At home I would then upload articles on my computer and include the articles' references in their electronic version. I would also organize the articles based on the name of newspapers and the time, mostly year, the article was published. Uploading the articles, typing in their references and organizing them based on the date of their publication took a significant amount of time. When I arrived in Canada, I printed the articles adjusting the background of each of them if necessary so I would be able to write my notes on each printed article.

The additional source of data were interviews. I conducted four interviews with the employees of the Czech Volleyball Federation or former and current employees of the Czech clubs. Most of the current employees of the Federation and Czech clubs were knowledgeable about the historical development of the league, as they used to coach or play in the league. Additionally, these employees have worked with people who remember how the league operated in the past. The interviews with the subjects were conducted because the explanation of why the Czechoslovakian/Czech league did not fail was not discussed in the data or the explanation listed in the archival data was vague or incomplete. Initially, I sent an initial contact and information letter to each participant to review (Appendices H and I). First, I contacted and scheduled in-person interview with a team president. Next, I conducted in-person interview with an employee of the Czech Volleyball Federation. Two Skype interviews followed as I interviewed a team vice president

and a former team president. Similarly to the U.S. cases, before the interviews started, I emailed a consent form to the participants (Appendix J). During the interview the participants were asked if they agree with the conditions of the study and similarly to the U.S. participants, all of them agreed. Each participant was interviewed separately and the interviews did not exceed 45 minutes. All four interviews were conducted in Czech language and questions asked during the interviews were identical to the ones asked of the U.S. participants (Appendix K). This time I did not use any transcription company, I transcribed all the interviews by myself.

The information that the participants provided remained confidential and the identity of participants was not revealed. To secure the participants confidentiality, the participants were assigned a letter D and an appropriate number based on the order of the interview. For example, the first interviewee was labeled D1 and the second interviewee was labeled D2.

Data Analysis (Czech Case)

Once I printed all the articles (archival data), I separated them based on the name of the magazines/newspapers and the year they were published. Then I read through them and I highlighted the most important part(s) of each article, which would directly relate to the elite league. Then, I would type all the highlighted parts of the text (in Czech language) into a word document and I would code the data. Some of the codes that arose were FEDL (federation and the league), GYMs vs. OUT (gyms versus outside) or MED (media). The codes, the first-order concepts were then grouped together and second-order themes were created. For

example, finances, the professional athletes, and players' salaries were grouped together under the second- order theme called "professionalization." Then, I would create another word document where I would translate the coded text into English and add Czech quotes to the strategies. I would later translate these quotes into English. Initially, I wanted to highlight each strategy and its evaluation, but upon reading the data, the evaluation was often missing in the data, so I included only evaluations of the strategies that were present in the data.

Similarly to the U.S. cases, I created an appendix and a table. Appendix L consists of quotes, first-order concepts, and second-order themes (Appendix L) and table 4.2 includes the first-order concepts, second-order themes, and dimensions taken from the literature (Table 4.2). Please refer to the Appendix L and Table 4.2 as you read through the results and discussion of the Czech case.

I was born in the Czech Republic and I played club volleyball there for almost a decade. I received a four-year athletic scholarship from the University of Arkansas in 2002. I have never played professional volleyball in the United States or elsewhere, therefore my biases during the data analysis were reduced. Additionally before starting this study, I did not have much information about the failed leagues. I was familiar with the Czech language and I also had an understanding of the norms and culture of the Czech Republic, which was useful while collecting and analyzing the archival data.

This method section highlighted the design of my two projects, data collection and analysis, which were undertaken to successfully complete this

research. The next chapter will concentrate on the results of the U.S. cases and their discussion.

Table 4.2

First-Order Concepts, Second-Order Themes and Dimensions of the Czech League

First-order concepts	→	**Second-order themes-dimensions**
Length of the season National team	→	Structural changes and adjustments-sustainability
Structure Gyms versus outside Additional tournaments	→	Improve the level of play-framing, sustainability
Federation and the league State and the league	→	External control-formal authority, social capital, collaboration, legitimacy, resources, sustainability
The role of media including TV	→	Media and sport-legitimacy
Finances-state versus sponsors The professional athlete Players' transfers Team deposits and salaries	→	Professionalization-sustainability

Chapter 5: Results of the U.S. Cases

The story of the three failed professional volleyball leagues is a complex one. Some of the leagues experienced difficulties with teams' placements, the leagues' missions, and ownership structure. Additionally, the leagues expanded quickly and thus had problems managing their revenues and expenses and achieving external visibility. On the other hand, the leagues can pride themselves on having recruited high caliber players who were frequently local and who served as role models to younger athletes. In this section, I will discuss the

positive and negative aspects of each league, which were grouped based on the themes that arose from this study.

Selection of Areas for Each Team

Before the three leagues started operating, they all had to make some important decisions. One of the decisions regarded the placement of teams into specific areas. The organizers of Major League Volleyball (MLV) (1987-1989) felt that the league should be a major league so that people would not ignore it (Interview with A1). Thus, the organizers of Major League Volleyball selected markets for each team based on the areas' TV demographics and volleyball interest in each area (Rosenberg, 1987, para. 26). They planted their teams in the top three most populated cities in the United States in the 1980s: New York (1), Chicago (2), and Los Angeles (3) ("Population of the 100," 1998a). The teams in these markets struggled to attract fans: each team had on average 500 spectators per game. Even New York and Chicago drew only small crowds, which frustrated the teams' managers. Feldman (1987d), a newspaper columnist, stated that "Breeze general manager Kay Rogness was hoping to break 1,000 in attendance. I'm a little disappointed, but it's not a disaster" (para. 10). Similarly, Lowery (1989a) wrote:

> Not like you've been losing any sleep over this. This is probably the first you've heard of this team. They attracted about 3,000 people in 11 home games last season, or about as many people who show up for a mediocre high school football game on a mediocre Friday night. (para. 6)

The MLV managers also located their teams in smaller cities, which attracted larger crowds. These areas had fewer than 700,000 people in the 1980s and they were cities such as Portland, Oregon and Edina, Minnesota ("Population of the 100," 1998a). The team that was located in Edina did particularly well, attracting on average 2,000 people per game (Lowery, 1989a). A newspaper columnist Breining (n.d.) wrote:

> The Monarchs, Meade is quick to note, drew far more than their big-city rivals. Once, when nearly 2,400 people crammed into the 1,800-seat Edina Community Center in Minnesota, a fire marshall [sic] said to Meade, Congratulations! Don't ever do it again. (p. 183)

Although the games' attendance was better in smaller areas, the league's estimated financial losses were between $2.9 and $3.2 million. The league lost most of its money because of the failure of the teams in the three media markets of New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles (Lowery, 1989b). The financial loss was so significant that the league had to cease its operations in 1989. Lowery (1989b) discussed:

> Those losses were in large part because of the failure of teams in the three major media markets, New York, Chicago and Los Angeles. Each of those teams averaged about 500 spectators a game, league officials said. Teams in smaller markets, San Jose (1,900), Minnesota (2,000) and Portland, Ore. (1,500), have been the league's best draws. (Lowery, 1989b, para. 6)

The second league, the National Volleyball Association (NVA) (1993-1998) seemed to learn from the mistakes of the Major League Volleyball (MLV)

(1987-1989) because the league mostly avoided cities that had over a million people in the 1990s ("Population of the 100," 1998b). The owner of the league first placed his teams in cities in California (Sacramento, San Diego, San Jose, Orange County) and then relocated to the Midwest (Denver, Lincoln, St. Louis, Salt Lake City, Kansas City, Madison, Des Moines, Tucson). The marketplace was selected based on "how they [the sites] have responded to previous national and college volleyball exposure" ("Recapturing the Spirits," 1997, para. 15). California was an obvious choice for the league, because college volleyball had thrived in the region. The league, however, struggled financially in California, often experiencing low attendance (Whiterspoon, 1995, para. 19). The editor of "Recapturing the Spirits" article described the attendance of the NVA in California:

> But while Californians love to play volleyball, they were not inclined to watch it. Despite rosters filled with national reputations and Olympic medals, attendance was dismal. Founding partner Gary Wyma, who made his money in real estate, was losing it in a hurry on volleyball. ("Recapturing the Spirits," 1997, para. 10)

Several more specific reasons were listed as to why teams in California did so poorly: sport misconception, tough place to draw an audience, Californians prefer to play rather than watch volleyball, people in California watch only winning sports, and lack of media attention.

The NVA relocated to the Midwest after several years because it experienced so many difficulties in California. The NVA teams that were placed

in the Midwest generally did better than the teams that were located in California. Heffelfinger (2006) wrote: “We are tremendously happy, Wyma said from San Diego. This year, the frustrations are gone. We have 20 times the media and triple the attendance. And it’s all because we’ve gone to the right area” (para. 1). However, the teams’ attendance still fluctuated even after the league moved to the Midwest. While some teams attracted many fans (Utah Predators, Nebraska Tornadoes), some teams in the Midwest did poorly (Wisconsin Fury, Arizona Flames, Utah Golden Spikers).

The third league, the United States Professional Volleyball League (USPV) (2002-2003) placed its teams in the Midwest in Rochester, Minnesota; Chicago, Illinois; Grand Rapids, Michigan; and St. Louis, Missouri. The league targeted families and female athletes aged 12-20, and the goal of the league was to attract 3,000-3,500 fans per game (Williams, 2000, para. 6). However, the average attendance per game was only 1,655 spectators (Masson, 2002, para. 6). Despite this lower average, there were many bright moments in terms of the league’s or a dream team’s fan support. For example, 9,000 people came for two exhibition matches in 2000 (“USPV will Take,” 2000), on 11 occasions the league attracted more than 2,000 fans, and the Chicago Thunder and Minnesota teams separately sold out twice (Merking, 2002, para. 8). The problem was that the league was not popular on regular basis (Interview with C1) and overall the leagues’ support was “small by professional sports standards” (McGraw, 2002, para. 10). C1 thought that targeting teenage females was not that beneficial for the league because the target audience did not support volleyball games on regular basis. C1

acknowledged that young females love to play volleyball, but they are not necessarily avid spectators. Since they were not avid fans, they did not spend money on buying tickets and products or watch the game on TV (Interview with C1).

Leagues' Missions

There are many volleyball players who graduate from colleges and universities in the United States every year. The managers of the MLV, NVA and USPV gave such athletes the opportunity to continue playing their sport at a high level after graduation. Beauprey, who competed in the first league (MLV), stated in an interview for a newspaper: "Most girls don't have any place to take their talent after college… This is a terrific opportunity" (Dedic, 1987, para. 3). McGraw (2001) interviewed the USPV's manager who stated:

> I really believe in the mission of the league, which is to create post-collegiate career opportunities for female athletes…In the past there weren't many opportunities like that. As a father of three daughters, I'm pretty sensitive to that, which makes it easy for me to be passionate and committed to the league. (McGraw, 2001, para. 20)

Besides recent college graduates, the NVA also gave opportunities to past Olympians to play so that they could maintain their playing skills (Radtke, 1997, para. 17).

The managers of the first and third leagues (MLV, USPV) wanted their players to present themselves as role models. 13 quotes extracted from the USPV

data suggested that it was positive for the league that these players were positioned as role models. Rittenberg (2002) discussed:

> More than anything, Kessy was sold on becoming a role model for young players. Despite growing up in a volleyball Mecca, Kessy rarely had exposure to top professional and college players. Now she and her Thunder teammates travel to elementary schools enlightening children about the game and the opportunities now available through the USPV. (Rittenberg, 2002, para. 22)

Terri Zemaitis-Bouman (USPV athlete) and other USPV athletes mentioned in their interviews for newspapers that when they were younger they looked up to male athletes such as Michael Jordan, Wayne Gretzky and Walter Payton. However, there were at that time no female athletes to inspire the young girls. This situation had changed by the arrival of the USPV, whose motto was: "Women athletes, role models for a new millennium" (Martinez, 2001, para. 6). One of the USPV's players stated:

> When I was younger I really looked up to Michael Jordan. There really wasn't anything like this. That is what we are doing and I think you're seeing the WNBA do that a bit. It is great to be a part of something like this for that reason alone. (Martinez, 2000, para. 6, 7)

The USPV wanted to show its fans that little girls could now look up to the USPV female athletes.

Except for providing opportunities for female players and players serving as role models, the USPV also had other ideas that it wanted to get across to its

audience. The managers of the league wanted to show girls that professional volleyball can be a career option for them, empower girls/women aged 12-20 and boost their self-esteem, introduce young players to the game, provide a competitive environment, and position the U.S. to win Olympic medals.

The Sport Product

The owners of all three leagues were able to attract ex-college players and Olympians via players' drafts. Feldman (1987b), a newspaper columnist, wrote about the MLV: "The bottom line is that the sport is a good product. If you're looking for action, it's got a lot to offer" (para. 17). Similarly, A2 (interviewee of the MLV) stated in her interview: "It really was a fabulous product. It was the best that the country had to offer as far as volleyball."

The USPV also did not fall short in terms of the quality of the players. In 1999 the mangers of the USPV drafted 25 of the nation's top players to be part of a "Dream Team." The Dream Team played exhibition matches against top universities (Texas A&M, Nebraska, Butler University, St. Xavier University) and national teams (e.g. Canadian, Polish, Australian, Dominican Republic and Team America) (McGraw, 1999, para. 36). The top 25 American players were then divided among four teams and additional tryouts were held to complete the four teams.

The NVA stood out in terms of the type of players that the league had on its teams. The NVA's organizers decided to include many local players and heroes (some of them had even competed on a national team). This aspect seemed to work out well for the league, as 17 positive evaluations of it appeared in the

data. B2 mentioned: “I think that…is probably the biggest thing they did right, was the local players” (Interview with B2). The fans who watched college volleyball knew who the local MLV players were, and therefore these fans were more likely to attend the NVA’s games (Interview with B1). Through the inclusion of local players the teams were also able to get the community involved. The local players could go back to their club teams, high schools or universities and advertise the NVA’s matches there. B2, for example, stated in his interview:

> Having…the local…talent here was…beneficial because you kept more people involved in local community…, so if you had 15 year olds on the team that were from St. Louis area, then if you had a couple family members, then a couple friends coming from each one, you kind of had a base, from which to grow. (Interview with B2)

Overall, the local players in the NVA were a big draw for the league.

Ownership

During its first two years (1987, 1988) the MLV was funded by west coast investors that claimed ownership for all the teams, with Robert “Bat” Batinovitch being the main investor (Feldman, 1987c, para. 2, 14). The rest of the investors then shared the income and expenses of the league (Rosenberg, 1987, para. 23). This type of ownership can be considered as concentrated, as most of the owners had an equal share in the league. This concentrated ownership brought stability, financial security, and unity among owners (Feldman, 1987b, para. 15). Feldman (1987b) wrote: “I think the league wants to have owners eventually, said Butler. But it wants stability first. Right now it’s a good concept, because you’ve got

direct policy all the way down the line. You don't have owners bickering" (para. 15).

The league was controlled by several owners who established rules and policies which applied to every single team. For example, there was consistency in terms of players' salaries across the teams. Each player was paid from $5,000 to $6,000 base salary and up to $25,000 based on how well the player performed. The compensation was controlled by the league's management, who wanted to prevent both salary wars among players and owners (Feldman, 1987a, para. 6), and expenses getting out of control (Interview with A1). While the league was controlled by multiple owners, the ownership was not a dictatorship and the individual teams could still make their own decisions. For example, A3 said: "They weren't lording over us dictating every . . . step . . . so that was a really great opportunity to let ourselves shine."

However, this system changed in the third year (Brown, 1988, para. 13, 14). By the third year, the group of owners sold the franchises to individual owners to lessen the financial responsibilities of the main owners (Interview with A2). These individual owners were six friends and investment partners of Robert Batinovitch. Selling the teams to individual owners, however, had negative consequences for the league. Four quotes coming from one source highlight that there was a lack of commitment and leadership as well as financial issues that appeared in some of the franchises. Some of the individual owners did not have the same commitment to managing revenues and expenses as the original owners had.

A2 said during his interview:

> I think they felt that they were on solid enough footing after years one and two that…[they wanted to] bring… in the separate owners and allow… them to take more control… but in the end…because they [the new owners] didn't have…the same commitment to the success… as Mr. Batinovich…we ended up…having a couple of the owners pull the plug.

A2 finally added:

> I think . . . some of the decision making that I mentioned going from year two to year three and . . . having individual ownership take responsibility for individual budgets for each of the chains and manag[ing] the expenses. . . ultimately proved to be part of the downfall of the league.

The owners were not willing to pay the teams' increasing expenses and this was one of the aspects that contributed to the failure of the MLV in 1989.

The NVA had only one owner, Gary Wyma. The owner planned to sell his teams in the future to potential owners (Facer, 1996). One of the interviewees continually pointed out (8 quotes exist from one source) that the one-person ownership was not beneficial for the league, as a more diverse group of ownership/stakeholders (including sponsors, TV) would be better able to support the league financially (Interview with B1). B1 said: "I'm pretty sure a pro sports league is something that one person cannot do, period…it just needs a greater diversity of people, money, and support than what we had in the late '90s" (Interview with B1).

Expansion

The need to expand or relocate teams became evident in the cases of the NVA and the USPV. The NVA, which was originally based in California, began operating in 1994. Four teams from California (Sacramento Stars, San Diego Spikers, Orange County Diggers, San Jose Storm), one team from Utah (Utah Predators), and one team from Nevada (Las Vegas Vipers) originally played in the league ("NVA Expansion," 1996; "New Pro," 1994). For a variety of reasons, the league was not successful in California and the owner of the league decided to relocate it from California to the Midwest. Gary Wyma transferred the Orange County team to Tucson, Arizona and the San Diego team to Omaha, Nebraska in 1997 (Facer, 1996, para. 2). In 1997, the league had 2 divisions: Western/Pacific (Colorado Thunder, Utah Golden Spikers, and Arizona Flames) and Midwestern (St. Louis Spirits, Nebraska Tornadoes, and Iowa Blizzard) ("Women's Volleyball Takes," 1997). In 1998, the league added two more teams (Kansas City Lightning and Wisconsin Fury).

The USPV also had plans to expand the league. The managers wanted to have 8-10 teams by 2003, 20 teams by 2005 and 24-30 teams by 2020 ("USPV Business," n.d.). This, however, may not have been the most effective strategy, as three quotes highlight the negative effects of expanding too early. One of the newspaper articles noted:

> At one point, the league looked to the 2003 season to feature two divisions of five teams playing 26 matches. In two more years, it wanted to have 20 teams. In August 2002, lonestarvolleyball.com announced expansion teams were awarded to Dallas, Columbus, Milwaukee, and Philadelphia.

> By November, no one was talking expansion. A lot of leagues make the mistake of expanding too quickly, Cavalli said. ("Pro Scene," 2003)

In a similar manner, Radtke (2002) wrote: "In August, USPV announced expansion. . . . Those plans, though, were put on hold shortly thereafter" (Radtke, 2002, para. 6). Instead of expanding, the league ultimately ceased its operations.

Struggle for Profitability

All three leagues (MLV, NVA and USPV) struggled financially. They had to discontinue their operations because they did not have enough money. Major League Volleyball (1987-1989) experienced problems with budgeting, the National Volleyball Association (1993-1998) had financial difficulties, and the United States Professional Volleyball League's (2002-2003) business plan did not bring the league profit.

The MLV had a budget of $1.6 million and the league expected to lose around $800,000 first year (1987) (Tom, n.d., para. 15). The league, however, lost $1.3 million its first year, as archival data suggest (Brown, 1988). The amount that the MLV lost was therefore higher than originally anticipated, which put the league at a serious disadvantage. A1 mentioned in her interview: "They [the owners] overbudgeted the amount of income and severely underestimated the amount of expense... And so my thoughts were [for] the league in the future, they better get those projections a little bit closer to reality" (Interview with A1). As time went on, the MLV kept losing money. The MLV struggled with losses of money in its three biggest markets (New York, Chicago, Los Angeles) (Southwell, 1989, Interview with A1) and selling teams to individual owners

(Interview with A1). Additionally, the MLV experienced an overall lack of profit due to poor ticket sales and struggles with sponsorship and TV exposure (Interview with A1). For example, the league's managers paid $15,000 per TV production, but the MLV did not seem to benefit that much from this investment, as A1 stated in her interview. The MLV made investments that did not translate into a profit.

The USPV did not make a profit either, and its business plan might be the reason. Initially, the business plan seemed to impress players. Rittenberg (2002) expressed in his article a positive reaction from one of the USPV's players regarding the business plan. She said: "But they showed me the whole business plan and I was like, whoa, they have their act together" (Rittenberg, 2002, para. 17). The situation changed after the first season because the owners realized that the business model had not been profitable. Merking (2003) wrote: "Trouble began when an expected $3 million in investment capital fell through in late November" (para. 1). Miazda, the public relations director for the USPV, suggested that "if the league survives, it would follow a different business plan" ("USPV's Second," 2002, para. 1).

Achieving External Visibility

Each of the leagues desired to achieve external visibility through marketing, sponsorship, newspapers, and TV viewership. While some of the leagues were more successful than others, the leagues seemed to struggle to be accepted by their stakeholders.

Marketing.

The MLV and NVA both experienced problems regarding marketing, while the USPV seemed to be more successful. The MLV focused on marketing teams in Chicago, New York, and Los Angeles, which did not translate into profit (Southwell, 1989). Southwell (1989) writes:

> We were playing during the right time of the year, and I think Chicago, New York and Los Angeles would have made it. But they are big cities and needed a lot more time to establish a following. The first two seasons were really wasted from a marketing standpoint (para. 5).

It was difficult to market the team in Los Angeles, because marketing campaigns were too expensive in the area. On the other hand, the teams in Minnesota and San Jose did much better, because they focused on grassroots marketing and community relations (Interview with A3). The team in San Jose often reached out to local colleges, schools, volleyball programs, booster clubs, and industrial leagues. Additionally, the team's marketing strategies of bringing local celebrities to the games, players interacting with fans, and frequent fans' contests paid off.

Some of the NVA's teams put effort into marketing, but the teams in general struggled to make a profit. B2 discussed in his interview that his team went to different club tournaments in order to promote the league (Interview with B2). Some people from these tournaments came to see the NVA's games, but interest in watching the NVA's games was not that high. Additionally, the league itself did not have enough time and money to do marketing and advertising, but planned to do more in the future (Ferolie, 1997).

The managers of the USPV took a slightly different approach. They hired Ibach & Associates, a public relations firm, to market the league. The league's promotions included free T-shirts, movie tickets, mini-volleyball giveaways, a serving accuracy contest, and team programs sold at the USPV games. The athletes signed post-game autographs, visited boys' and girls' clubs and Division I Final Four, and represented the league on TV. McGraw (2003b) states that this player-fan interaction was unique in professional sports and that it helped to connect the fans with the athletes.

Sponsorship.

The first and second league (MLV, NVA) struggled to obtain long term sponsors. A newspaper columnist Feldman (1987a) wrote that sponsors hesitated to sponsor the MLV because they were worried about the MLV's demise. While securing sponsorship was difficult, the MLV was sponsored by smaller companies and was able to secure sponsorship with DHL Worldwide Express (Interview with A1). However, the relationship between the league and DHL was short-lived. The original CEO of DHL was very supportive of volleyball, and he gave more money to MLV than what the original contract stipulated (Interview with A1). However, DHL experienced a change in ownership, and the newly-hired CEO decided not to support the MLV. Batinovitch, the main owner of the league, was not able to support the league anymore, nor were the owners of the teams, and the league ceased activity shortly after DHL pulled out.

Similarly, the NVA had a hard time obtaining sponsorship. Witherspoon (1995) said:

> It's tough to get sponsor dollars, said Gary Wyma, Spikers owner. I've got the best product in the world, I've got the right ages watching the games, and we've got the TV deal, but the sponsors haven't come along yet. (para. 22)

B1 and B2 partially blamed the NVA owners for the sponsorship issues. Both of the interviewees mentioned that the owners could have approached companies or businesses at the location of each team as potential sponsors (Interview with B2). A few companies in each team location might have then donated some money to the NVA. Having just a couple thousand dollars from four or five companies would have made a difference, and the league could have survived longer. The NVA was able to secure sponsorship with Gary Wyma's insurance company, but this relationship did not last long and the league experienced its demise when the insurance company withdrew. B2 stated: "Once they pulled out, that was pretty much the end of it" (Interview with B2).

Contrary to the MLV and NVA, the USPV did not seem to have problems securing investors. The league proudly proclaimed that it was able to secure sponsorship and eight figure financial backing ("Dallas Awarded," 2002, para. 14). The league was sponsored by Royal Neighbors of America, Wilson Sporting Goods, ASICS TIGER Corporation, Russell Athletic, Schelde North America, SportCourt, and Beyond DDB ("Dallas Awarded," 2002, para. 14). Not only did the league secure several sponsors, the league itself also sponsored the class A and AA championship matches, which were broadcasted on CLTV (Chicagoland Television) (Akouris & Brozynski, 2002). Interestingly, however, the USPV still

followed in the steps of the MLV and NVA, as the league was not able to maintain their main sponsors or other smaller investors. The league lost a few investors in 2002 (McGraw, 2003a, para. 2), and it ceased its operations in spring 2003 because of financial struggles ("Rochester, Minn.," 2002, para. 3). McGraw (2003b) wrote:

> Yet, despite all of those reasons for optimism, two major sponsors elected not to further invest for a second season. USPV officials said last November the league was experiencing financial difficulties but the 2003 season was still a go. A month later, the decision to cancel the season was made. (para. 11-12)

TV.

TV exposure was discussed in the MLV and NVA archival articles. The managers of the MLV secured a TV deal with ESPN and the NVA had eight games broadcasted on FoxSportsnet, SportsChannel and Prime Tickets ("Expansion hits," 1996). Hanley (1987) wrote that the MLV "did an excellent job on television with ESPN last year and they are very interested in expanding their coverage next year" (para. 8). Although the MLV had a contract with ESPN, some of the games were tape delayed. This was not "exactly the healthiest sign for a fledging league," Lidz (1987, para. 12) noted. Additionally, the MLV games were broadcasted at midnight on the west coast and 3 am on the east coast, therefore many people did not watch the league's games (Interview with A1). The NVA also experienced problems with TV exposure, and when the owner ran out

of money, the owner decided not to expose the NVA's games on TV in the late 1990s (Boyce, 1998, para. 10). Boyce (1998) wrote:

> His passion developed into a five-team league on the West Coast. He had two partners and even had matches televised. But his partners left him last year, his television package dried up, and he relocated the league to the Midwest. (para. 1)

Newspapers.

Teams in the first and second league (MLV and NVA) tried to obtain newspaper coverage, but obtaining it was challenging as many quotes demonstrate. The newspaper editors did not pay attention to the leagues because they did not believe in them. They considered the leagues as something strange and not noteworthy. Breining (n.d.) wrote: "We look at you like Disney on Ice, said one sports editor, in explaining his paper's almost total lack of coverage of women's Major League Volleyball" (para. 21). The media started writing a few more articles about the leagues once the teams proved themselves. An interviewee of the MLV mentioned that she constantly called the San Jose Mercury News to report the team's score(s) or met with sports editors to promote the league (Interview with A1). The newspapers started noticing the San Jose team after two long years of its existence. The Colorado Thunder team that played in the NVA had a similar experience with the media in Denver ("Colorado Thunder," para. 3). The Denver Post would usually report the team's results, but initially the newspapers would never include full articles, interviews with players or team's pictures (Interview with B2) even after B2's constant calls. The reporters started

to get more interested in the team by the end of the 1998 season, which was a little too late. B2 said: “They’d come to us once our popularity had reached a critical mass.”

Achieving external visibility seemed to be difficult for the MLV and NVA. These two leagues experienced problems with marketing, obtaining and securing sponsors, TV exposure and newspaper interest. The USPV, in contrast, did better in terms of teams’ marketing and obtaining sponsorship but still did not succeed.

Chapter 6: Discussion of the U.S. Cases

The process of institutional entrepreneurship is dependent on multiple factors. The same applies to the failed institutional entrepreneurship. I found that multiple activities went wrong, which eventually caused the leagues’ failures. The leagues in the United States failed because they did not have clear or prioritized objectives, experienced struggles with teams’ expansions and relocations, and had issues with ownership.

Framing

Institutional entrepreneurs often engage in framing as they seek to choose preferred institutional arrangements (Pacheco et al., 2010). Framing is the entrepreneurs’ attempt to create legitimacy for their practices. Organizations obtain legitimacy from their surrounding environments and this process can help them to achieve their goals (DiMaggio, 1988; Ashforth & Gibbs, 1990; Durand & McGuire, 2005). DiMaggio (1988) found that institutional entrepreneurs can legitimize a new organizational form if they convince the organization’s stakeholders that the form is necessary, valid and useful. The institutional

entrepreneurs can be engaged in three types of framing: diagnostic, prognostic, and motivational (Battilana et al., 2009). Diagnostic framing includes identifying a specific problem concerning an organization or broader field, and exposing problems with present institutional practices (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005). The institutional entrepreneurs of the past volleyball leagues were aware of the high number of athletes that compete at high schools and universities; therefore the institutional entrepreneurs wanted to create a league where these graduating athletes could continue playing volleyball (Dedic, 1987; Witherspoon, 1995). Not having a sustainable league was a problem because the athletes did not have a place in the United States where they could compete. These athletes therefore had to quit playing indoor volleyball or go to play professional volleyball oversees. Thus, the managers of the leagues decided to create a professional volleyball league in the United States, and this idea served as a diagnostic frame.

When institutional entrepreneurs use prognostic framing, they legitimate institutional arrangements to their stakeholders and allies (Dejean et al., 2004; Demil & Bensedrine, 2005). The institutional projects should be congruent with the stakeholders' values and interests. The institutional entrepreneurs of the failed leagues framed their story through several missions such as providing opportunities for players, emphasizing the sports product, athletes acting as role models, and focusing on making a profit. The MLV and NVA wanted to provide opportunities for college and national team players. Dedic (1987) wrote about the first league, the MLV: "This league is giving girls the opportunity to continue their careers" (Dedic, 1987, para. 23). Similarly, one of the NVA's players said in

her interview for newspapers: “For women’s volleyball players, this is just such a great opportunity…to keep playing instead of their careers ending when they’re 21. It’s a chance for them to continue something they love” (“Abbinante Rallies,” 1998, para. 11).

The MLV’s and USPV’s goal was to show that female volleyball players are role models for young athletes (Major League Volleyball, n.d.). An author of “Major League Volleyball” (n.d.) wrote: “The pro team…serves as role models for the junior players. The pros will be there to show the junior players how a lot of hard work can pay off.” The USPV athletes often served as role models at a variety of volleyball camps. Patch (2002) commented in the newspapers: “Marshall (USPV player) also is grateful for the opportunity to be a role model for the campers” (Patch, 2002, para. 9).

All of the leagues were also proud of their athletes and their athletic abilities. The quality of the product was many times mentioned in the archival data. For example, Escher (1995) wrote about the NVA: “It is the only professional indoor league in America and showcases the talent of the entire (Olympic) team, as well as top beach stars and local talent” (Escher, 1995, para. 2). Similarly, the NVA’s manager said the following in her interview for newspapers: We’ve got all the top players and the product is incredible” (“NVA Expansion,” 1996, para. 10).

Lastly, the owners of the leagues desired to make the leagues financially viable, for example by owning the teams and selling them to potential buyers to make profit (Interview with A2; Facer, 1996). A1 said in her interview: “The

league had the right to sell expansion rights, so if someone was interested…down in Florida…they would…buy the rights for the team from the league, so that is how the league would make money" (Interview with A1). Similarly, A2 described the situation : "I think they felt that they were on solid enough footing after years one and two that…bringing in the separate owners and allowing them to take more control [would] bring in more…financial resources (Interview with A2). Above all, "the league poured money into its three biggest markets, but couldn't parlay the investment into profits" (Southwell, 1989, para. 9). The profit-oriented behavior and the importance of obtaining finances was also evident in the case of the USPV. Merking (2003) wrote in 2003: "Trouble began when an expected $3 million in investment capital fell through in late November" (para. 1).

The failed professional volleyball leagues introduced many frames such as providing opportunities for players, sports product, role models, and profit oriented behavior. However, these frames were confusing for the league's fans because the fans misunderstood the failed leagues. The MLV (1987-1989) and NVA (1993-1998) struggled to obtain sponsors because their potential sponsors worried about the future of the leagues (Feldman, 1987a). For example, Boyce (1998) wrote:

> The NVA needs a lot more of the basics: sponsors and exposure. Lightening coach Craig Sherman, whose full-time job is coaching at Central Methodist College, calls it a Catch-22. Sponsors want to see it succeed before they put money in. (p. C-10)

Similarly Feldman (1987) wrote about the MLV: “It’s a rough road, said Rogness. I’m sure the corporate people are thinking, is this going to be like women’s basketball?” (para. 10). The sponsors were afraid that the leagues would not be successful, and therefore the sponsors thought twice before investing their money into the volleyball leagues. All three leagues eventually found sponsors; however, in all three cases the main sponsor decided to withdraw. The leagues then had to fold due to the lack of profitability. This event only re-emphasized the sponsors’ hesitance or the sponsors’ lack of trust and cooperation with the leagues.

The MLV (1987-1989) and the NVA (1993-1998) struggled to be socially accepted by newspaper editors. Breining (n.d.) writes that one of the editors stated that, “we look at you like Disney on ice,” which means they did not see women’s volleyball as an authentic sport and therefore their stories were not covered (para. 21). Although some readers, like those of Deseret News in Utah, questioned why the newspapers did not cover any stories about the NVA, their concerns were not heard. This lack of acceptance of the leagues by the editors hurt the leagues and showed that the newspapers did not perceive the two leagues, MLV and NVA, as legitimate. If the editors had accepted the leagues, the leagues would have been more covered in the local newspapers.

The attendance of all three leagues was also inconsistent. The MLV struggled in New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles, attracting only 500 spectators on average per game; the MLV teams that were located in towns with less than 700,000 people did better. The NVA was not successful in the California region (Sacramento, San Diego, Orange County, and San Jose) and did significantly

better in the Midwest. The USPV showed overall inconsistent attendance in towns and cities located in the Midwest, attracting on average 1,655 spectators per game. While some teams had high attendance, the leagues overall struggled to obtain legitimacy in the eyes of their fans.

The prognostic frame(s) that the failed leagues introduced were not clear and they were misunderstood by the leagues' stakeholders such as sponsors, newspaper editors, and fans. Thus, the institutional entrepreneurs of the U.S. leagues failed to create legitimacy for their new practices. Additionally, the managers of some of the teams did not put enough effort into marketing or promoting their league. The MLV teams that were placed in Chicago and Los Angeles at one point did not do any marketing (Southwell, 1998). Similarly, some of the NVA teams did not perceive marketing as important or did not do the right marketing. Boyce (1998) writes: With the right marketing, Larson (coach) believes the NVA could blossom into a league with teams throughout the country" (p. 1). The lack of marketing efforts seemed to hurt the leagues rather than benefit them.

Battilana et al. (2009) suggest that institutional entrepreneurs as opposed to entrepreneurs should have a higher level of framing skills because their projects diverge from taken-for-granted practices. The institutional entrepreneurs also have to frame their vision in the way that others are able to understand it and endorse it. The institutional entrepreneurs in the U.S. cases did not possess the higher level of framing skills needed for the professional volleyball leagues to survive.

Resources

The literature on institutional entrepreneurship shows that successful institutional entrepreneurs can take advantage of their financial and organizational resources (Greenwood & Suddaby, 2006; Demil & Bensedrine, 2005). The Big Five accounting firms benefited financially through their efforts at cross-selling a diversified range of services or through their emphasis on commercial acumen (Greenwood and Suddaby, 2006). The Big Five also used organizational resources to seek public approval of their services. They created specialized full time management positions and a formal management system utilizing the organizational resources.

All three leagues took advantage of organizational resources: the skilled and talented volleyball players. For example, one of the interviewees stated: "It really was a fabulous product . . . it was . . . the best that the country had to offer as far as volleyball" (Interview with A3). The NVA took advantage of the local players and this was evaluated positively by the league's stakeholders because these players attracted the local fans (Billhartz, 1998, para. 9).

The MLV and USPV decided to pay high salaries to their players. An MLV (1987-1989) player made 5,000 dollars base salary and up to 22,000 dollars depending on her individual performance (Melvin, 1988, para. 8). The salary covered four months of the leagues' competition (January to April). The USPV players made from 22,000 to 28,000 dollars per six months contract.

The findings of this study differ from the findings about professional football and basketball. Players in early professional football and basketball leagues did not make a lot of money. Peterson (1996) points out that athletes

playing for professional football teams in the 1900s received only five or ten dollars per game, so these semiprofessional athletes had to find themselves other jobs. Football players in the 1940s made more money than an average worker, but players did not make hundreds of thousands of dollars until the 1980s.

The other resources that the professional leagues sought were TV contracts. The MLV, NVA, and USPV each had a TV contract in their first few years of operation, and the leagues paid for these contracts. Also, not all exposure is good exposure. In particular, the MLV showed their games when people were not awake, and therefore the league was not able to always capture new customers. Lidz (1987) wrote:

> Rather than watch MLV games in person, they would just as soon catch the delayed broadcast on ESPN, which isn't exactly the healthiest sign for a fledgling league. There is cause for concern over the league's long-term prospects. (para. 12)

The viewership of the televised MLV games was often low (Interview with A1). This low TV viewership is consistent with the early TV exposure of the NBA. The early NBA showcased only games that would attract the least number of fans (Kirchberg, 2007). The NBA's reasoning was that fans might be more inclined to watch these games at home for free rather than come to the stadium and pay for their tickets. The result was that only a few people watched the game on TV and those that watched could see the low attendance at the game. Similarly, the NFL was not profitable on TV in the 1950s. Coenen (2005) describes how the game is ideal for television because a single camera can capture

all twenty-two players, but in the early days "television did not provide much revenue for stations or pro football owners, and some stations shied away from the unprofitable broadcast" (p. 153). Professional football and basketball struggled in the early days with TV broadcasting, and a new professional volleyball league might experience similar difficulties. A new league could therefore wait until the league became more stable before seeking TV exposure.

The leagues were in a constant search for financial resources, because they had a hard time turning investments into profits. Instead of taking advantage of what the leagues initially had, the MLV, NVA, and USPV constantly sought more resources. The leagues kept expanding and changing the teams' locations. The MLV (1987-1989) and NVA (1993-1998) relocated their teams after only a few years of their operations. The MLV sold its teams to individual owners in various locations after only its second year of operations (Interview with A2). In the NVA case, a series of relocations took place. For example, the Orange County team was transferred to Tucson (AR) and the San Diego team to Omaha in 1996 (Facer, 1996, para. 2). The USPV (2002-2003) had plans to expand and recruit new owners. They planned to have 8-10 teams by 2003, 20 teams by 2005 and 24-30 teams by 2020 ("USPV Business," n.d.).

The sport of baseball also experienced team expansions and relocations, though to a significantly lesser degree. In between 1876 and 2008, 29 franchises joined the American League (AL) and the National League (NL) (Jozsa, 2010). Seven of these entered the American League between 1961 and 1998 and 22 entered the National League between 1878 and 1998. Additionally, nine

American League teams relocated between 1901 and 2008; at least one club moved every 12 years during the 108 year history of the league. The relocations and team expansions that took place in professional baseball were done at a much smaller rate than teams' relocations and leagues' expansions in the case of the professional women's volleyball leagues. Constant search for financial resources is important, but if changes happen too quickly, they might negatively influence the new sport league.

Formal Authority

Formal authority is another concept that arose from the institutional entrepreneurship literature (Phillips et al., 2000). Formal authority is "an actor's legitimately recognized right to make decisions" (Phillips et al., 2000, p. 33). In Fligstein's (2001) study, actors within the European Commission (the formal authority) used their authority to create a Single Market Project and restructure the state actors' choices. In this study, the owners of the leagues had the authority to make changes and took advantage of their authority. The leagues had central ownership (either multiple or individual owners) and similarly to the actors in Fligstein (2001), these owners made decisions on behalf of the organization (the new league). The advantage of this approach was that the owners had control over the league and prescribed changes that many times were smoothly adopted. In this manner, the MLV, for example, implemented its complex salary structure (Feldman, 1987a, para. 6).

The disadvantage of having a controlling ownership is that the teams that compete in the league might lose freedom because they have to adopt practices

that are prescribed to them. If the teams do not agree with the prescribed practices, they might face difficulties, as there is often no room for negotiation between the teams and the league's owners. The NVA owner was authoritative and did not always allow the teams to do what they wanted to do (Interview with B1). B1, for example, wanted to raise the team's banner to the roof before their match in order to recognize his team for the previous season. However, the owner of the league would not let B1 do it.

On the other hand, if the product is not established, teams/clubs might make unsound decisions or lose control over their teams if power is in the hand of each individual owner. The MLV was sold to the individual owners in its third year, and the league became suddenly disconnected as the individual owners were not on the same page (Interview with A2). Some of the owners lacked commitment to their team and some were not willing to financially secure their teams. The failure of the MLV was not solely dependent on the ownership structure, but the league would have been better off if a group of owners and managers was responsible for the league's decisions rather than one person making decisions on behalf of the league.

Ownership played a role in the development of early professional baseball (Lowenfish, 2010). There were always different parties such as owners, commissioner, and players' groups (e.g. Brotherhood of Professional Baseball Players, American Baseball Guild) involved in the decision making. The owners and some of the commissioners of early professional baseball leagues also often attempted to be controlling, but negotiations and communication played a role in

creating a more balanced league. These negotiations might not have always been successful and might not have always accommodated all parties, but constant communication and decision making was present between a variety of managers and owners, which helped the professional baseball leagues to survive.

Social Capital and Collaboration

Social capital refers to actors' positions within the social network, and it allows institutional entrepreneurs to obtain needed information and political support (Battilana et al., 2009). Maguire et al. (2004) found that institutional entrepreneurs, Turner and Roberts, "skillfully combined their connections in the HIV/AIDS community and the pharmaceutical industry with their knowledge of the issues and ability to articulate those issues so that a wide variety of stakeholders could accept their interpretations and suggestions" (Maguire et al., 2004, p. 676).

The U.S. leagues did not seem to have connections from which they could benefit. The connection that the most of the U.S. leagues had with outside organizations seemed to be limited. The MLV worked with some organizations such as AVCA (American Volleyball Coaches Association) and had support of the USA Volleyball regions; however, the league initially experienced some struggles. The national team's coach Liskevych did not want the national team to play in the MLV (Lidz, 1987, para. 11) and the MLV was initially a threat for USA Volleyball due the MLV's professional status (Interview A1).

The USPV was endorsed by USA Volleyball, Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB), however, the data does not mention if or how the league

benefited from these relationships. The institutional entrepreneurs in the U.S. cases did not seem to benefit as much from their social capital.

Institutional Entrepreneurship versus Entrepreneurship

While some of the organizers cared about the players and wanted to provide playing opportunities for them, profit-oriented behavior seemed to be more dominant. Most of the leagues measured their success by making profit, which was very difficult to do. The leagues in the U.S. eventually failed because the owners were not able to pay for the leagues' expenses and sustain their financial losses. This entrepreneurial behavior is consistent with Shane and Venkatraman's (2000) descriptions of entrepreneurship, which highlight success and profitability of entrepreneurial projects. The organizers of the volleyball leagues were therefore more involved in entrepreneurship rather than institutional entrepreneurship, which emphasizes gaining social acceptance for a particular product (Zimmerman & Zeitz, 2002).

The profit orientation of the volleyball entrepreneurs did not help the failed leagues. Early professional football and basketball owners seemed to own their teams more so for their enjoyment. The owners of the early NFL teams were millionaires who worked in bookmaking and the radio industry, or they had inherited their money. These owners were young professionals who liked the sport, and they wanted to gain publicity rather than profit through owning an NFL team (Coenen, 2005). Bert Bell inherited his money from his wife, and he became the owner of the Philadelphia Eagles in 1933. He lost $80,000 from 1933 to 1936 and even more money in the following years. Arthur Rooney made as much as

$256,000 in a single day betting on horses, and he became the owner of the Pittsburg Steelers in 1933. Rooney, however, lost money every single season. He once said: "I'd pay to lose money just to keep in this game. I love it that much" (p. 83). He also added: "We might lose a lot of money, but we'll have a lot of laughs" (Coenen, 2005, p. 83). Similarly, the owners of the early NBA franchises were not profit seekers. In the early 1950s most NBA franchises lost money. Even the three-time World Champion Lakers lost more than $11,000 per season in the early 1950s (Kirchberg, 2007). While the football and basketball owners wanted to own teams for their own enjoyment, the volleyball owners were much more profit-oriented. The leagues' focus was often on salaries, TV contracts, and sponsorships. For example, the television contracts were very important to the league organizers. An article named "NVA Expansion Hits Midwest" mentions how the NVA obtained its first television deal with SportsChannel, which was a success for the league. Similarly, Hanley (1987) states about the MLV: "We did an excellent job on television with ESPN last year and they are very interested in expanding their coverage next year" (Hanley, 1987, para. 8). Also, many quotes concerning the sponsorship appeared in the newspapers, indicating that searching for and sustaining sponsorship activities was a very important goal of the leagues. Altogether, 17 quotes showed that sponsorship was difficult to obtain for the MLV and NVA, and 27 quotes highlighted how the USPV lost its main sponsor.

This finding was different from the finding of Fidler (2006) who discussed the rise and decline of the All-American Girls Professional Baseball League (1943-1954). The league was created by Phillip K. Wrigley at the time when the

existence of men's Major League Baseball was threatened. Many American men had to leave the country to go to fight in World War II. To keep the sport alive, a women's baseball league was established, which provided recreation and leisure opportunities for women (Fidler, 2006). The organizers of the All-American Girls Professional Baseball League were therefore involved in institutional entrepreneurship focusing on the survival and social acceptance of women's professional baseball. Similarly, the National Pro Fastpitch (NPF) seems to emphasize institutional activities over strictly entrepreneurial ones. The league started its operation in 2004 and it focuses on family entertainment and providing positive role models for younger people ("National Profastpitch," 2013). Additionally, the NPF athletes are "prominent people within their communities and appreciate and embrace the fans that follow their play through NPF action" ("National Pro Fastpitch," 2013, para. 2). Institutional entrepreneurship again plays an important role in the operations of the NPF.

Chapter 7: Results of the Czech Case

Over the years, the league experienced structural changes that were many times implemented to improve the quality of women's volleyball. The league sustained its operations with the help of the Czech Volleyball Federation and the state. Even the change of regime in 1989 did not destroy the already established structure of the women's game.

Structural Changes and Adjustments: Length of the Season and National Team

Many structural changes appeared over the years. One of them was the adjustment of the length of the season, which changed very frequently as time progressed. In the early years, teams played more so in the spring and summer as opposed to the later years teams competed from the late fall to early spring. During the early years (1930s-1950s) archival data suggest that the women's competition started in May ("Liga Odbijene," 1946) with the finals being towards the end of September ("Volleyball and Basketball," 1931; "Bejvavalo pred," 1946). Since mid 1950s, the league competition began in April (Tobolka, 1955) and it lasted 3-6 months. In the 1970s the sports committee of the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation decided that the teams will play from January to May ("Ve Volejbalove," 1972). The editor of the article called "Ve volejbalove extralize. Novy system-vic utkani" wrote: "The competition will start in January and end in May. There will be a scheduled break after the ninth round of competition and in the middle of April" (p. 1). In the 1980s and 1990s the competition went from October/November to February/April ("Volejbaliste na Plenarnim," 1980). Teams now still play the competition from early fall until spring.

The length of the season was not always set and it was many times adjusted based on the schedule of the Czech women's national team. There was a constant need to accommodate the national team players/competitions. Many times the league play interfered with international competition or with a training season for international competition. The federation decided to keep a balance and accommodate both the national and international competitions without

significantly hurting either one. For example, in 1958 the season ended early, in the beginning of July, so the national team players would receive enough rest and at the same time would be able to prepare for the World Championships, which started at the end of August (Tobolka, 1957). Similarly, in 1967 and 1989 the league's seasons were shortened because the men's and women's national teams needed to prepare for a qualifying tournament for the Olympic Games in Mexico in 1967 (Nejezchleb, 1967) and the World Championship in Spain in 1989 ("Volejbalistky Dostaly," 1989). The editor of an article called "Volejbalistky dostaly prednost" wrote in the *Czechoslovakian Sport*:

> The competition will start earlier and finish earlier. The champion of the league will be known by the third of February 1990 and the final play offs will not be played. This is because the athletes competing for the national team will start training with the national team at that time to prepare for the World Championship, which will take place in Spain. ("Volejbalistky Dostaly," 1989, p. 2)

Improve the Level of Play: Structure, Gyms vs. Outside, Additional Tournaments

There was a constant need to improve the level of play of women's competition because the level of play was not always satisfying (Krumpehanzl, 1953). This was done in several ways to make sure that the level of play was as high as possible. The following procedures were implemented: changing the structure of the competition, moving competition to the gyms, and providing additional playing opportunities for the teams.

Major changes in the structure of the league were made by the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation and its committees in 1953. One of the changes included the decision that teams from each region (Moravia, Bohemia and Slovakia) will play against each other. In the previous years, teams would not play teams from other regions. The interaction of the teams from all three regions allowed teams from Moravia and Slovakia to play stronger teams from Bohemia. This contributed to the overall improvement of the level of play (Broz, 1953). Similarly, major changes were made in 1966. These changes were supposed to better prepare players for their national team's responsibilities. Pikrtova (1966) commented: "These changes were supposed to help to develop top quality players who would eventually join the Czech national team" (p. 14). The changes that were made included the addition of four rounds of competition, omission of the final tournament, and establishment that two teams will go up and two last teams will move to a lower league (Pikrtova, 1966). Lastly, in 1972 the league (approved by the federation's sports committee) adopted the Polish system of play. One of the articles published in the *Czechoslovakian Sport* that year stated that under the Polish system the league will have two rounds of competitions, each team will play with every other team and each team will have the same opponent on Saturday and Sunday ("Ve Volejbalove," 1972, p. 1). Also, the number of matches increased from 26 to 36 allowing each team to play more matches and improve their performance. Josef Suchan, a member of the committee of the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation stated at that time: "I personally think that changes in the Czech league will allow those players who do

not play frequently to gain some valuable playing time" ("Ve Volejbalove," 1972, p. 1).

In the early 1960s international competitions such as the Olympic Games and European and World Championships were played indoors. However, the Czech volleyball committees did not agree with this idea because they wanted to keep the sport outdoors (Dobiasova, 1961). They perceived the outside environment healthy and refreshing and they thought that more people (beginners or advanced) would prefer to play volleyball outside as opposed to inside.

During the 1960s a slow movement from the outdoor to the indoor environment took place. The indoor environment was seen as predictable (in a good way) and it allowed for a better development of players' skills, which contributed to the overall increase of players' performance (Nejezchleb, 1967). Nejezchleb (1967), an editor of Volleyball magazine commented the situation:

> The league moved from outdoors to indoors because major international competitions such as the Olympic Games, World Championships, and European Championships are played indoors. The indoor environment allows for a development of volleyball technique. Players especially improved their attacking skills while competing indoors. (p. 1)

In 1966 the first two rounds of competitions were played inside and the second two rounds were played outside because some teams still searched for a facility to play in (Nejezchleb, 1967). In the early 1970s the coaches association suggested to take volleyball back to the outdoor environment ("Ve Volejbalove," 1972). Jebacek (1972) stated that "an unbelievable confusion appeared" (Jebacek,

1972, p. 2). The players historically fought for keeping volleyball indoors and after all these efforts the federation wanted to keep the competition outdoors (Jebacek, 1972). Above all, there were more cons to keeping volleyball outside, unpredictable weather being one of them, so the league started playing indoors from the 1972/1973 season.

Apart from the participation in the elite league, teams in the 1960s were encouraged to participate in the tournaments, which took place during the break in between the league play or after the league was finished (Marek, 1962; Krizova, 1964). By competing in additional tournaments, players would maintain or even improve their fitness and overall performance.

From the early 1970s, a new competition called "Pohar Volejbaloveho Svazu" (A Troffey of the Volleyball Federation) was established by the federation to provide teams more games and more playing time ("Volejbaliste o Pohar," 1972, p. 7). An article published in the *Czechoslovakian Sport* stated:

> On Saturday volleyball players are starting a new completion Pohar, which is essentially a substitution for the third and fourth round of the Extraleague, which is not played due to the national team's preparation for the upcoming Olympic Games. ("Volejbaliste o Pohar," 1972, p. 7)

This arrangement allowed the selected players to practice with the national team, while the rest of the players continued to play volleyball at a high level. Pohar was played every year since 1972.

External Control: Federation and the League, State and the League

The elite competition did not operate on its own. The Czechoslovakian/Czech Volleyball Federation and the state significantly influenced the operation of the league. Since its beginning volleyball life in the Czech Republic was governed by the Czech Volleyball Federation, which was also in charge of the league. As early as 1931 (the 19th and 20th of September) the final tournament of the women's elite league was organized by the Czechoslovakian Volleyball and Basketball Federation ("Volleyball and Basketball," 1931). At that time Professor Smotlacha (president/leader of the Czechoslovakian Volleyball and Basketball Federation) along with Fotoservice (a Czech company) donated prizes for winners of the league's final tournament.

The federation made significant decisions about their well-being and well-being of the league. For example, in 1946 they decided to separate from their sister sport basketball. At times the employees of the Czechoslovakian Volleyball and Basketball Federation lacked enthusiasm to work hard, so there was a push from employees who took care of volleyball administration only to separate from basketball ("Volleyball and Basketball," 1931). The newspapers stated at that time: "The members of the Czech Volleyball Federation built a good teamwork in a short time, registered all the competitive players, and established new competitions" ("Rekreace a Zavodivost," 1946, p. 11). The federation also took control of which teams to include in the elite league. In 1946 the federation made an agreement with the following organizations: COS, DTJ, Orel, and SCM to include their teams in the competition ("Bejvavalo pred," 1946).

The federation also made sure that coaches and speakers/commentators are properly trained and a doping control is established. To ensure that coaches are properly trained the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation along with the Board of School Government organized courses to train coaches. The courses included fields/areas such as volleyball rules, history and development of volleyball, coaching, how to build a volleyball court, and others ("Bejvavalo pred," 1946). The federation also agreed in 1973 that a graduate from the Faculty of Physical Education at Charles University will be able to receive a level I coaching certification provided that he/she fulfills additional requirements of the federation ("Dalkove Studium," 1973). Additionally, the educational committee of the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation organized seminars to properly train play by play commentators. "The Czechoslovakian Federation was proud to organize these types of seminars for commentators because the commentators without any training might face difficulties" ("Volejbaliste Skolili," 1973, p. 2). The seminar included an educational speech of Karel Cervinka and practical assignments, where each of the attendees was recorded while doing play by play announcements. The attendees could later listen to the recorded tape ("Volejbaliste Skolili," 1973).

Evidence suggests that volleyball was also supported by the Czech state. In 1948 physical education and sport committees united into one organization and the sport of volleyball received support from the state. Fiedler (1950) wrote:

> After the unification, all areas of physical education were supported by the Czech state. According to the new law, the Czech state is responsible for looking after the well-being of physical education and sport. (p. 99)

In a similar manner, Tobolka, the author of the article called "Deset Let" wrote: "The Czech state looks after the development of physical education in Czechoslovakia and it largely supports it" (Tobolka, 1958, p. 26).

This state's help was important for a development of volleyball in Czechoslovakia (Dobiasova, 1961). The philosophy of the government at that time was to use physical education as a vehicle to build socialism. According to the philosophy, physical education would help to create a better person, a person who would be not only physically fit, but also a good citizen and defender of the Czech Republic. The role of physical education in Czechoslovakia was also to develop fit individuals who would fight for a piece in the world if needed. Volleyball was people's sport/activity at that time as majority of people played the sport (Baumruk, 1951), and it did not resist in any way to the state' philosophy; therefore, the government provided financial support when the sport needed it.

The Czech Volleyball Federation and the state from its beginning cared about the Czech league. They wanted to develop a good quality national team that can represent the country. Thus, it was important that the league existed because it could develop players who could then play in the future for the national team (Interview with D1, D3). Similarly D1 mentioned that the federation is proud to have the elite competition because this elite league, which is connected to the

lower level leagues, is a pinnacle and keeps the momentum of the sport going. If the league would disappear, then there is a probability that the sport would disappear because it is not integrated in the Czech school system at the competitive level (Interview with D1).

Media and Sport

From relatively early (1946), it was decided that newspapers called *Nase Cesta* (*Our Road*) will become an official magazine for the sport of volleyball ("Rekreace a Zavodivost," 1946). Additionally, newspapers called *Czechoslovakian Sport* and a magazine *Volleyball* was supposed to feature articles regarding development of the sport, techniques, history, etc. ("Odbijena," 1954). However, some initial struggles appeared regarding the early newspaper coverage. The managers of the previous *Czechoslovakian Sport* (=*Our Road* magazine) did not like that volleyball was becoming popular amongst Czech people. They, therefore, decided to write articles in which they expressed that volleyball is a second rate sport, inferior to sports such as boxing, track and field, and canoeing ("Odbijena Hra," 1948). Similarly, the newspaper columnists of the *Czechoslovakian Sport* did not want to write or publish articles about volleyball; therefore, the *Czechoslovakian Sport* brought only a limited number of articles about the competition (Tobolka, 1957). Lastly, the magazine *Volleyball* encouraged coaches and other administrators to send them articles about volleyball teams that played in the competitions organized by the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation. However, this magazine received a very little attention from writers who were not employed by the magazine ("Odbijena,"

1954). Nevertheless, the magazine was published approximately every two months for a twenty-year period.

The women's league waited with the TV exposure. It was not until 1965 when we get to know from archival data that men's and women's volleyball was broadcasted on TV. At that time only a few matches appeared on TV. Pikrtova (1966) wrote:

> In 1965, 226 sport activities/events were broadcasted on TV. Volleyball appeared on TV three times and basketball six times. This year (1966) 98 life sports events will be broadcasted on TV from January 1st to May 31st, out of which basketball will appear on TV seven times and volleyball four times. (Pikrtova, 1966, p. 11)

Volleyball was not a TV friendly sport due to many disadvantages that TV broadcast faced in the past. The first of them was the timing of the game. Some of the games were given two hours time slots, however, some of the matches were finished in 50 minutes (Jebacek, 1970). The other disadvantage was the lack of stands in the gymnasiums (Pikrtova, 1966). Thus, "it was hard to find places where cameras could be placed so the cameras could capture the detailed picture of the players as well as the whole team" (Pikrtova, 1966, p. 11). Lastly, many games were pre-played or postponed, which caused that they were not able to be broadcasted on TV as it was originally planned.

It is interesting to note that although women's volleyball appeared on TV throughout the history, but only a few matches would be televised every year

("Volejbalova Seslost," 1992, para. 1). D4 said: "Until 2010, volleyball competition appeared on TV only sporadically" (Interview with D4).

Professionalization: Finances, the Professional Athlete, Players' Transfers, Team Deposits and Salaries

The elite league that existed functioned as an amateur league, but as time went on, the league was becoming more professional. Before 1989 some clubs started to have their own sponsors, some players received salaries for their athletic performance, and some clubs were financially supported by their cities. Although the professionalization was kept secret before 1989, it appeared in the Czechoslovakian league. The state decreased its financial support after 1989, but the Czechoslovakian league was stable at that point that it could comfortably operate.

Before 1989 the state had an interest in sport and physical education; and therefore, the state provided financial support for sport including volleyball (Stepan, 1952). Dobiasova (1961), for example, wrote:

> In 1948 physical education and sport departments united into one organization. Volleyball was at that time supported financially by the Czech government. This significant help from the government allowed for the growth of the sport in Czechoslovakia. (Dobiasova, 1961, p. 1)

Similarly, Tobolka (1958) mentioned: "The Czech state looks after the development of physical education in Czechoslovakia and it largely supports it" (Tobolka, 1958, p. 26).

The finances were supposed to be spread evenly in between the clubs, so everybody would obtain the same amount of money (Interview with D1), but many times this was not the case. The clubs were sponsored by institutions such as the Ministry of Internal Relations, Education and Defense, Industrial, Engineering, Food-Processing industries/organizations and Universities under which the clubs competed (Interview with D3). If the clubs did not have enough money from these institutions, they would try to search for finances elsewhere.

Except for receiving revenues from the previously mentioned institutions, the clubs would receive revenues from towns where they were located (Interview with D1). The amount of money they received was dependent on how skilled the organizers of each club were and how much money they lobbied from the town representatives.

It was probably rare occasion but some clubs already had their own sponsors before 1989. D4 stated in his interview that "KP Brno had Austrian and Italian sponsors since 1987" (Interview with D4). The club kept this sponsorship secret because public exposure of these sponsors could negatively influence the club.

The situation changed after 1989 when the support of the state decreased significantly (Interview with D1). Each club became more independent and had to look for their own sponsors (Interview with D3). For example, an article published in 1991 stated that Olymp Praha (a volleyball club) was economically secured for the upcoming season; however, it was still seeking more sponsors ("Volejbalova Liga," 1991):

> The club is financially secured for the season; however, it is still looking for sponsors. The sponsors that the club secured are companies called Peclinovsky and Pommer, who are preparing interesting activities/offers for fans. ("Volejbalova Liga," 1991, p. 2)

Before 1989, each club did not have to worry about its survival (Interview with D3) while after 1989 the existence of each club was not secured. D3 mentioned in her interview that "the Czech volleyball clubs had to find their own sponsors after 1989, and some clubs who cannot find a long term sponsors might face difficulties" (Interview with D3). However, the number of clubs has not changed significantly from the 1988/89 season to the 2012/203 season, so the change of the regime did not have a significant impact on the league. This was because some clubs were already semi-professional before the Velvet Revolution in 1989. After 1989 some clubs have also been supported by the cities/towns/regions. And again the process of lobbying has played a role in obtaining money from the cities/towns/regions. Overall, after 1989 the clubs have mostly been dependent on the money that sponsors bring in (Interview with D1).

The notion of what it means to be a professional athlete was viewed differently before 1989 and after 1989. The state was, for example, using the following structure to pay the players in the sport in the 1970s (Interview with D1). The athletes in the clubs were employed by bigger enterprises/factories but instead of working in the company, the players would receive a salary for playing sports. Some of the clubs also played under bigger institutions such as the Ministry of Internal Relations, Education and Defense, Industrial, Engineering, or

Food-Processing industries/organizations and Universities which would then "employ" the athletes (Interview with D1 and D3). The state/ministries then pretended that the athletes received money for actual work in the company (Interview with D1). The athletes acted as amateurs but they were professionals. An article from 1991 states that "similar things happened in the past as many sports instructors existed in Ruda Hvezda. This type of employment was a covering label for a professional athlete" ("Volejbalova Podnikatelka," 1991, p. 5). It was the interest of the state before 1989 to hide the idea of professionalization because the idea of having professional athletes in Czechoslovakia did not coincide with the socialist philosophy.

An article published in 1991 describes the life of one of the players called Marcela Ritchelova who became a professional athlete highlighting that the notion of what it means to be professional changed in 1989. The player mentioned that she received a base salary and her rent was covered as well by her club. The article made a comment that "a volleyball professional does not pretend anything and calls herself a professional athlete" ("Volejbalova Podnikatelka," 1991, p. 5) making a reference to the era before 1989 when players pretended that they were somebody (instructors, employees of companies) that they were not.

Many of the players competing in the Czech league were not as lucky as Marcela and the newspapers commonly discussed the departure of players into foreign countries (Italy, Austria, Germany) ("Nevydareny Start," 1991) to seek better financial opportunities (Interview with D1). In the 1991 season, 60 players decided to leave the Czech Republic and play volleyball in a foreign country

("Volejbalove Sampionaty," 1991). Hronek, the president of the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation said in his interview for newspapers in 1991:

> 60 male and female players will play volleyball starting this fall in a foreign country. Most of them, however, were sold for a lower price than they are worth, which is a mistake of our clubs. Perhaps only a player called Obrucova has received a solid contract. ("Volejbalove Sampionaty," 1991, p. 2)

Similarly, foreign players started playing in the Czech league after 1989, which was not common in the era before 1989 ("Volejbalistka Kralova," 1991). Before 1989, players would transfer from one club to the other within the country ("V Soutezi," 1977), but the media do not discuss players' transfers to foreign countries or revenues related to the players' transfers. An editor of an article published in the *Czechoslovakian Sport* said:

> Siplakova, Bendeova, and Orazaghova will not compete anymore for the club called UK Bratislava. After a year break, Moravcova-Gronova will play again. The players that will join our club are Skulcova who is coming from Zilina and Sadecka who is transferring from Nitra. ("V Soutezi Zen," 1977, p. 5)

Lastly the increased professionalization was seen via increased team deposits and team salaries. In 1946 each team that wanted to compete in the league had to pay 2,000 Kc ($103 CAD) ("Liga Odbijene," 1946). In 1990 each team had to pay 15,000 Kc ($775 CAD) in order to play in the league ("Liga Volejbalistek," 1990). Similarly, average player salary tripled (Interview with

D3). One of the interviewees that actively played in the league received "2,000 Czech Crowns ($106.11 CAD) per month in 1975, but believes that salaries tripled since the time she played volleyball" (Interview with D3).

Chapter 8: Discussion of the Czech Case

The elite league in the Czech Republic battled to gain legitimacy; however, the league became socially accepted over the years. The Czech league became sustainable because the Czech Volleyball Federation gave the league a needed structure and resources. The clubs followed the procedures of the federation, but they could make their own decisions, which influenced the clubs' well being.

Framing

The organizers of the Czech league had a vision that they followed. The federation implemented many structural changes to improve the level of competition. For example, teams from regions where volleyball had a lower quality started competing against higher quality teams from other regions (Broz, 1953). The other structural change that was implemented was that the league moved from outdoors to indoors, mainly because the indoor environment was more predictable and it allowed for a better development of the players' skills (Nejezchleb, 1967). An article published in 1967 in the Czechoslovakian Sport stated: "The Czechoslovakian league moved to gymnasiums because the major competitions such as the Olympic Games and World Championships were played indoors at that time. The quiet environment in the gymnasiums allowed for a better development of players' skills, especially the skill of hitting" (Nejezchleb,

1967, p. 5). So, improving the level of play was very important for the league and the federation. Revenues and expenses and how each team will survive did not seem to be as much of a concern before 1989, because the state took care of any existential concerns at that time. After 1989 more so each club had to take care of their own financial matters, so managing revenues and expenses became then a concern for most of the clubs. But overall, the federation seemed to be clear on what it wanted to accomplish. The federation wanted to improve the level of women's volleyball and the audience was not against this plan as fans wanted to see the best volleyball possible.

Institutional entrepreneurs who frame will often choose institutional arrangements that are appealing to their audience (Pacheco et al., 2010). When institutional entrepreneurs use prognostic framing, they are able to legitimize their ideas to their stakeholders and potential allies (Dejean et al., 2004; Demil & Bensedrine, 2005). The institutional entrepreneurs of the Czech league framed their ideas, so they were appealing to their audience and the ideas were consistent with the stakeholders' interests. The organizers were therefore involved in prognostic framing. Additionally, the institutional entrepreneurs of the Czech league were able to create connections with the state, clubs, and federation, who actively promoted the league via articles frequently published in the newspapers and in the federation's brochures. Connecting with the state and others who are interested in the project is consistent with motivational framing described in the literature (Fligstein, 1997). Thus, the organizers of the Czech league were involved in motivational framing.

Overall, the managers of the Czech league framed their ideas in the way that they were understood by their fans, which contributed to the sustainability of the Czech league. This idea was very similar to Dejean et al. (2004). Dejean et al. (2004) in his study found that institutional entrepreneurs were able to create a vision, which was accepted by the financial community. The institutional entrepreneurs developed the first social rating agency (ARESE), which was similar to how organizational performance was evaluated previously, and therefore ARESE was soon after integrated by the financial managers. Similar to my case, their mission was clear, free of conflicts, and understood by their audience.

Legitimacy

A struggle with external visibility appeared also in the Czech league. The newspapers initially did not want to accept the sport. The administrators of *Our Road* magazine expressed in the late 1940s in their articles that volleyball is a second rate sport ("Odbijena Hra," 1948). Similarly, the newspaper columnists of the *Czechoslovakian Sport* wrote only a limited number of articles about the competition in the 1950s due to the columnists' lack of interest in volleyball (Tobolka, 1957). However, as time went on the situation changed. In the 1990s I found 740 articles that were published in the *Czechoslovakian and Czech Sport* (only 54 articles were published in the 1940s). Over the years the sport seemed to find a way to fill the pages of Czech newspapers and become legitimate in the eye's of the readers of the newspapers.

Suchman (1995) discusses that organizations can gain legitimacy by conforming to the dictates of their environments, selecting among multiple environments, and manipulating environments. It does not seem that the league would select or manipulate their environments, but rather roughly conformed to the existing environments. Managers conform to their environments in the way that they position their organization within existing institutional regime (Suchman, 1995). In the Czech league, I do not think that the managers would intentionally position the league within the regime. Rather a natural fit appeared over time that benefitted the league. Volleyball became popular due to the tramping movement in Czechoslovakia in the late 1930s as many players enjoyed playing in the outdoor tournaments ("45 Let," 1966). In addition, the philosophy of the state (from the 1950s to 1980s), the focus on healthy and active individuals, coincided with the created product of the elite volleyball league. Individuals competing in the league were encouraged to be active and fit, which fueled the state's philosophy. Naturally, the state then supported the fledging sport of volleyball and over the years the sport became legitimate as evidenced by the amount of articles published in the 1990s. A similar fit appeared in the United States at the end of the 19th century. By the 1890s students were tired of university curriculums which focused on traditional subjects (Gorn & Goldstein, 2004). At that time students were excited about extraculicular activities such as clubs and athletic organizations. Football became a dominant sport because it required institutional loyalty, teamwork, character-building and it was "an antidote to physical softness" discouraged by many (Cremin & Rudoph, 1962, p. 377).

The Czech league became legitimate due to the natural fit that appeared during the early and later development of volleyball in the country. This fit then contributed to the sustainability of the league.

Resources

The Czech league was successful because it benefited from the organizational (players) and financial resources. The league did not seem to struggle to attract players. The motto of volleyball from the 1930s to the 1950s was that volleyball is an activity for everybody, so many people started playing recreational and competitive volleyball at that time (Fiedler, 1949; Sieger, 1938).

The Czechoslovakian federation provided other organizational resources to the league. The federation organized courses to train play-by-play commentators ("Divise Odbijene," 1946) and the federation also made it possible for the graduates of the Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation at Charles University to receive a coaching certification ("Dalkove Studium," 1973). So, the federation helped the sport because the federation made sure that people are properly trained to be referees or commentators.

The league also obtained financial support/resources from the state. Dobiasova (1961) wrote:

> In 1948 physical education and sport departments united into one organization. Volleyball was at that time supported financially by the Czech government. This significant help from the government allowed for the growth of the sport in Czechoslovakia. (Dobiasova, 1961, p. 1)

The state also created a system through which the players obtained salaries for their athletic abilities ("Volejbalova Podnikatelka," 1991, p. 5). In reality, the salaries were given to players for their work. The federation or the state did not go out of their way to hunt for resources that would make them richer or benefit them in any way. The state's financial support decreased in 1989; however, the structure was so institutionalized that the change of the regime did not destroy the league. After 1989 the teams were destined to find their own sponsors, but many of the clubs were already stable and had connections with sponsors and other financial backers, so the change of regime in 1989 did not significantly impact the league.

Formal Authority: State, Federation, and Clubs

The federation has played a role of a formal authority, but also each club has had its own rights. Similarly to Maguire et al. (2004), this formal authority of the federation was helpful for the institutional entrepreneurs because it was easier for them in that way to legitimize their ideas. The federation set up a structure for the league and was, for example, in charge of the coordination of the competition. Nevertheless, the clubs has had their own rights and freedom and have been involved in the decision-making about the structure of the competition and league's issues. There seemed to be a working relationship between the federation and the clubs. So, the federation the formal authority has had a working relationship with the clubs, its stakeholders.

The clubs from its beginning could decide how much money each of their players gets, lobby money from town representatives, and find ways to search for

more resources (sponsors). Each club has also taken control over finding their own sponsors (especially after 1989) (Interview with D2). D2 stated: "Since 1989 clubs have searched for their own sponsors; the Czech Volleyball Federation does not have a control over the clubs' financial situation" (Interview with D2). The clubs searched for their own sponsors after 1989, which led to the fact that some clubs became more professional, because the clubs with better financial backing and sponsors would attract better quality players and this would then help the clubs with their overall ranking. For example, one of the clubs, VK Prostejov, became in the mid 2000s fully professional and managed to win the Czech league several times in a row ("VK Agel Prostejov," 2013).

The clubs have worked on their own issues but also co-worked with the federation. The federation has co-worked with representatives of each club who have been members of the Association of Volleyball Clubs (AVOC) (Interview with D2). The Association of Volleyball Clubs has discussed at their meetings the dates of the elite competition, dates of international competitions of the elite clubs and other issues that have been prevalent in the elite league and the clubs' international competition (Interview with D3). This association then would give a written report to the Czech federation and the federation would either sign it or adjust it accordingly. So, currently mostly the individual clubs and their representatives can provide their opinions on how the elite league should be running. Overall, while each club has had its own rights, the clubs have over the years worked with the federation, the formal authority.

Social Capital and Collaboration

Fligstein (1997) in his study found that institutional entrepreneurs might perform the role of neutral brokers who act on behalf of their groups. In his study Delores, the future president of EU, toured European capital cities to show them the importance of the European Union. Similarly to Fligstein (1997), the Czech Volleyball Federation was able to use their social capital. The Czech Volleyball Federation capitalized on the relationship it had with the state committees and the clubs. Although not discussed in the results, there must have been a positive relationship between the federation and state through which the league financially benefited.

The federation made agreements with organizations such as COS, DTJ, Orel, and SCM in 1946 and included these teams or clubs in their competition ("Bejvavalo pred," 1946). The federation also developed a system of competitions over the years for men and women (1st league, 2nd league, 3rd league, etc.) and the federation interconnected these competitions. The winners of the competitions would move up while the teams that lost would move down to the lower league. The federation would then govern all of these competitions and keep their clubs under control.

Overall, the federation played an important role in setting up the league's competition and was able to capitalize on the relationship it had with the state and teams/clubs.

Sustainability (Institutional Entrepreneurship)

In the Czech case, profit making did not matter that much, there was not an urgent need for it. Financing of the league was discussed in the data in terms of

the state's support, sponsorship, and players' salaries, but this information appeared secondary. The league and federation had a long term plan and the federation wanted to build stability around it. The organizers were concerned more with people being active, doing physical activities (including volleyball) and they wanted to give them a structure (a model) where any athlete (all the way from beginners to advanced) could compete and enjoy the activity. Additionally, the Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation decided when the league will be played and it also implemented structural changes such as moving the competition from outdoors to indoors in order to improve the quality of play. Thus, the organizers of the Czech league went more after sustainability, value creation and having a long term competition for players rather than making immediate profit. This finding is similar to the findings of Leblebici et al. (1991), Hardagon and Douglas (2001), Munir and Phillips (2005) who found that legitimacy of their products was crucial in the development of a new product/industry. Hardagon and Douglas (2001), for example, described how Edison created a legitimate product that people could use for many years as opposed to a product that would make him an immediate profit. Similarly, Munir and Phillips (2005) found that Kodak produced texts in order to institutionalize the new roll-film photography. This new photography would document people's holiday memories and it would become an essential (must have) item for men and women.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

The leagues in the United States struggled to obtain legitimacy, failed to clarify or prioritize their objectives (frames), experienced struggles with teams'

expansions and relocations, and experienced issues with ownership. It is not surprising then that the leagues did not last longer than five years. The elite league in the Czech Republic, similarly to the U.S. leagues, initially struggled with legitimacy, but the league became socially accepted over the years. The Czech league was able to create a proper structure, obtain resources and have clubs that developed a working relationship with the federation, which positively influenced the development of the league.

Framing

Framing plays an important role in legitimizing practices of institutional entrepreneurs. Creating a variety of frames such as diagnostic, prognostic, and motivational has been present in the literature on institutional entrepreneurship (Battilana et al., 2009). If institutional entrepreneurs make the projects appealing to their stakeholders, then there is a higher chance that the institutional entrepreneurship will be successful. The Czech federation from early on decided, which teams were included in the volleyball competition, moved the competition from outdoors to indoors, and added tournaments in order to improve the level of play. The fans were not against this plan of improving the quality of the Czech league, as they wanted to see the best volleyball possible. Additionally, the Czech league created connections with the state, federation, and clubs through which the league benefited. Thus, the Czech league could pride itself on executing successful diagnostic and motivational framing. On the other hand, if the institutional entrepreneurs frame their project in the way that it is misunderstood by their stakeholders, then there is a higher chance that the institutional

entrepreneurship will fail as it appeared in the U.S. cases. Too many inconsistent frames existed in the U.S. cases. The managers of the U.S. leagues introduced frames such as providing opportunities for players, emphasizing the sports product, athletes acting as role models, and focusing on making a profit. A clear frame that would emphasize the leagues' visions was missing in the U.S. cases. Thus, the sponsors, newspaper editors, and fans had hard time understanding the purpose of the league. Additionally, the league's organizers lack of marketing efforts did not help to establish the leagues' legitimacy. Overall, the U.S. leagues failed to create a successful (prognostic and motivational) frame and this process contributed to the failure of the leagues.

Resources and Formal Authority

Resources and formal authority played an important role in both cases. Battilana et al. (2009) said: "We, maintain that financial resources and resources related to social position, such as formal authority and social capital, play a key role in helping institutional entrepreneurs convince other actors to endorse and support the implementation of a vision for divergent change" (p. 83). In the Czech case, there was a connection between the organization's resources and formal authority. The Czechoslovakian Volleyball Federation, the formal authority was able to provide resources for the league and this process contributed to the legitimizing the new league. For example, the federation organized courses to train play by play commentators and made sure that coaches are being properly trained ("Divise Odbijene," 1946; "Dalkove Studium," 1973). Similarly, the state provided financial resources to support the league's operation (Tobolka, 1958).

Tobolka (1958) wrote: “The Czech state looks after the development of physical education in Czechoslovakia and it largely supports it” (p. 26). This leads us to a conclusion that there is a higher chance that institutional entrepreneurship will be successful if the formal authority is able to gather resources that are useful for the new venture. Through the resources that the federation and the state provided, it was easier for the league to become socially accepted.

In the U.S. cases, the variety of owners played the role of formal authority. The concentrated ownership of the MLV in the first two years was the one that was the most beneficial ownership (Feldman, 1987b). The U.S. owners; however, struggled to obtain the league’s resources. While the owners took advantage of skilled ex-collegiate athletes that were available to play in the professional league (Interview with A3), the leagues were not successful while pursuing expansion (“Pro Scene,” 2003) and seeking for financial resources (Interview with A2). The formal authority, therefore, was not able to provide sufficient resources to sustain the leagues’ operation. This leads us to a conclusion that if the formal authority is lacking or is not able to provide sufficient resources, then there is a higher chance that the institutional entrepreneurship will fail as it happened in the U.S. cases. This statement agrees with Battilana et al. (2009) who highlights the importance of resources and formal authority, which help the institutional entrepreneurs to legitimize their projects.

Social Capital and Collaboration

Social capital refers to actors’ positions within the social network, and it allows institutional entrepreneurs to obtain needed information and political

support (Battilana et al., 2009). For example, Jacques Delores, President of European Commission, took advantage of his central position in the European Union (Fligstein, 1997). Before he became president, he decided to travel the major European cities in order to push for the creation of the Single Market Program (SMP). Additionally, collaboration and constant communication is a requisite function for institutional entrepreneurship. Wijen and Ansari (2007) found that the institutional entrepreneurs in the field of climate policy were able to collaborate and communicate through creation of common ground, application of ethical guidelines, and use of media exposure. Thus, institutional entrepreneurs are more prone to success if they collaborate and/or take advantage of their social capital. The U.S. leagues did not occupy specific positions or have connections from which they could benefit. The connections that the most of the U.S. leagues had with outside organizations were limited. The MLV worked with some organizations such as AVCA (American Volleyball Coaches Association) and had support of the USA Volleyball regions, USA Volleyball, and Federation Internationale de Volleyball (FIVB); however, the archival data mostly does not mention if or how the league benefited from these relationships. The owners of the failed U.S. leagues struggled to position itself in the social network where they could obtain needed information and support. The owners also did not create relationships with organizations through which they could benefit. Thus, the institutional entrepreneurs of the U.S. leagues were more prone to failure because they failed to collaborate and/or take advantage of their social capital. On the other hand, institutional entrepreneurs are more prone to success if they

collaborate and/or take advantage of their social capital, as it happened in the Czech case. The Czech league was able to take advantage of its social capital and collaboration efforts. The Czech Volleyball Federation capitalized on the relationship it had with the state committees and the clubs. The federation made agreements with organizations such as COS, DTJ, Orel, and SCM in 1946 and included these teams or clubs in the competition ("Bejvavalo pred," 1946). As mentioned previously, the federation also had a positive relationship with the Czech state through which the league benefited. The efforts of the Czech Volleyball Federation were similar to the efforts of the institutional entrepreneur (small nongovernmental organization) in Pakistan that successfully collaborated with organizations such as the University of Oslo, The World Food Program, and CARE International in order to achieve their goals (Lawrence, Hardy, & Phillips, 2002).

Proper Fit

Successful institutional entrepreneurship is not only dependent on the product that is being created, but also on the environmental conditions. If the environmental conditions are suitable as they were in the Czech case, then the institutional entrepreneurs' job is much easier. If the environment is not receptive or blocks the developed activity, then there is a higher chance that the activity will fail as was the case with the three failed leagues.

The successful cases of institutional entrepreneurship presented in the literature (Leblebici et al., 1991; Hardagon & Douglas, 2001) suggest that in order for the institutional entrepreneurship to be successful, the external environment

needs to be receptive to the institutional entrepreneurs' behavior. Not only is the environmental receptivity crucial, but there should also be a fit between the created product and the external environment. In the Czech league, a proper fit existed. The sport was initially successful because of the tramping movement, which popularized men's volleyball as an outdoor activity ("45 Let," 1966). Also, the state focused on having healthy and active individuals, and people playing volleyball in the elite league were becoming more fit and active. For this reason, the government supported the league and helped to sustain it. Thus, a natural fit appeared in the Czech case.

There was a big environmental jolt in 1989 because many clubs became private at that time. However, the league reached the level of legitimacy prior to 1989, so this environmental condition did not negatively influence the operation of the league. As an evidence serves the similar number of clubs present in the league in the 1988/89 and 2012/13 seasons. In the 1988/89 season there were eight teams spread over six cities (Vit, 2006) and in the 2012/13 season there were ten teams spread over eight cities ("Czech Volleyball," 2013). Overall, the environmental fit still existed even after the event of Velvet Revolution in 1989.

It seems that there was a lesser fit between the environment in North America and the professional volleyball leagues. The sport in the United States developed out of the muscular Christianity movement (Dearing, 2007, p. 32; Putney, 2001), and during the 20th century it was more popular among girls and women. In the 1980s, colleges and universities had to comply with Title IX, and women's volleyball received a priority status when universities started to comply

(Christensen et al., 2001). Women's volleyball has since enjoyed success at the college level due to the high number of female participants. So, the fit of the sport and the environment existed at the college level (NCAA); however, the fit was not quite there at the professional level. At the professional level the sport suffered. There was not an issue with the sport itself, but the environmental conditions were missing to allow for sustainable women's volleyball leagues in the United States. If suitable environmental conditions had existed, the leagues would have survived more easily.

The NBA, NFL and their predecessors lost money, but the NBA and NFL were able to absorb their financial losses, and the environmental conditions helped them to do so. Professional football started gaining acceptance during the Great Depression and World War II (Kirchberg, 2007). There were less job opportunities in the United States at that time, so many players tried out for professional teams. Additionally, colleges were getting rid of their football teams to save money, so players joined professional teams. Limited employment opportunities in the U.S. and colleges dropping their football teams were the supportive conditions that helped the professional football to be successful. Additionally, in the 1950s, the appeal of football's violent nature, short season and televised games also helped the sport. In the case of women's professional volleyball, the appropriate environmental fit was not present, and conditions were also not quite right to support a professional volleyball league in North America.

Professionalism

The definition of professional sport is: “Any activity or skill for which the athlete is compensated. Compensation can be in the form of salary, reimbursement for expenses, or any other type of direct payment” (Pederson, Parks, Quaterman, and Thibault, 2011, p. 122). What it means to be professional needs to be re-considered, because our study showed that the definition varied in our two cases. The traditional notion of professionalism showed up in the U.S. cases where the owners were profit seekers who focused on obtaining a high profile sponsorship, TV contracts, and salaries.

The U.S. professional sports have been dominated by high profile men’s professional sports leagues such as the NFL, NHL, NBA and other leagues. These leagues can be considered as models to follow for many starting sports leagues in the U.S. The U.S. leagues followed this idea and it did not seem to quite work for them. People often forget that professional men’s basketball, football, and baseball once struggled and that it took the sports a while to become successful. Early professional basketball did not have a standard set of rules and guidelines; the size of the court varied by league; some leagues used cages, some did not (Kirchberg, 2007). The inconsistent rules and guidelines confused fans. Thus, the public instead attended college games because they knew what to expect from them. Before the formation of the NBA on August 3, 1949, 24 men’s professional basketball leagues operated and failed in the United States. Early professional football experienced similar difficulties as did early professional basketball (Coenen, 2005). At the end of the 19th century college football games were associated with violence and corruption of men’s morals. Players competing in an

early professional football league had low salaries, sponsors hoped to break even, and media initially ignored professional football. While the NFL formed in 1920, the league did not become popular until several decades later.

Based on the history of men's basketball, football, and baseball, it might not have been effective for the women's professional volleyball leagues to model themselves after the current NBA, NFL, and MLB, because even those leagues went through years of struggles to become sustainable.

According to the definition of institutional entrepreneurship, institutional entrepreneurs are those that desire to legitimize their norms, values, expectations (Battilana et al., 2009). In the U.S. cases, the institutional entrepreneurs went after profit and the leagues desired to be professional in a short period of time. This leads us to a conclusion that institutional entrepreneurship might fail if the institutional entrepreneurs deviate and focus on profit rather than legitimizing their practices.

In the Czech case the word professional did not appear until 1989 in the historical documents. The players were paid before 1989 and some teams had a sponsorship before 1989, but the notion of professionalism did not guide the discourse (newspaper articles). Professionalization of the Czech league appeared much more after 1989 when each team was forced to search for its own sponsors and funding. Since 1989 more and more players became professional athletes. In the Czech case, the institutional entrepreneurs developed an amateur league that slowly became professional. Legitimizing the league was therefore more important than making immediate profit out of the new league. Thus, as

evidenced in the Czech case, institutional entrepreneurship will be more successful if the institutional entrepreneurs promote their practices so they are socially accepted by their audience (Battilana et al., 2009).

Institutional Entrepreneurship and Time

Battilana et al. (2009) in their paper show and discuss a diagram of institutional entrepreneurship, which starts with the enabling conditions for institutional entrepreneurship. The enabling conditions can then cause the possible emergence of institutional entrepreneurship or lead to the divergent change implementation. The divergent change implementation might result in the institutional change. Many different elements of institutional entrepreneurship such as vision creation, resource mobilization or formal authority are discussed as subconcepts; however, the amount of time that institutional entrepreneurs take to become legitimate is not considered in their paper. Other studies demonstrate that institutional entrepreneurship usually happens over a longer period of time. Leblebici et al. (1991) in their study focused on the development of the broadcasting industry in the United States. Important transactions were negotiated between different parties over a period of five decades (1910s-1960s). Munir and Phillips explained how Kodak changed photography from a highly specialized activity to one that is used by public every day (Munir & Phillips, 2005). Similarly to the radio industry, it took Kodak almost five decades (1882-1930s) to institutionalize their new technology. Lastly, Thomas Edison transformed his innovation (electric lightning) into an institution over almost 15 years (1878-1892) (Hardagon & Douglas, 2001). Our Czech case study seemed to follow a

similar trend. It took the Czech league several decades to become a sustainable and socially accepted league. Additionally, the league became institutionalized and taken for granted over time. When I asked two interviewees why they think the Czech league survived over a longer period, one of them answered that "he does not understand the question because the league is the most elite league in the Czech Republic and it is played automatically" (Interview with D4). The interviewee could not image that the league would not exist, which shows that the league has been institutionalized over the years and it has been deeply taken for granted.

The organizers of the U.S. leagues wanted to develop a polished product (a professional volleyball league) in a short period of time, which might have been a little too naive considering the struggles professional men's and women's leagues had in the last few decades. Five women's professional basketball leagues failed from 1979 to the 2000s, and the WNBA has only been successful because of the NBA's financial support (Pederson et al., 2011). Similarly, the cases in the literature suggest that institutional entrepreneurial projects take, in general, a long time to develop, as social acceptance does not happen over night. The timing and the leagues' entrepreneurial activities were additional reasons why the women's volleyball leagues failed in a short period of time.

Chapter 10: Limitations and Future Research

The challenge with historical analysis is that it is difficult to describe historical events accurately as they happened in reality. A researcher can only as best as he/she can collect all the available data and create his/her story based on the historical data. In this study I used archival data and interviews to minimize

the possibility of having inaccurate information. This data triangulation provided me with enough insights to be able to accurately reflect on the historical events that happened in relation to the examined volleyball leagues.

Kieser (1994) states: "The identification of actual organizational problems and of their appropriate remedies is often not free of ideology" (p. 1). The texts produced in the United States and the Czech Republic were also not free of ideology. The data surrounding the U.S. leagues was influenced by the democratic system that existed in the United States. The discussion surrounding the leagues did not seem to be limited and the issues that were discussed there needed to be discussed at that point of time. On the other hand, the Czech text seemed to be skewed slightly. Some of the text was influenced by the socialist regime that was prevalent in the Czech Republic until 1989. The text appraised anything that was related to Russia and degraded any U.S. activity/event. Additionally, expenses of organizations were not discussed in the Czech data. If they were, the discussion was not detailed. Again, I decided to use two sources of data: interviews and historical documents to prevent the influence of ideology in the texts.

The other limitation of this study was that the results of this study cannot be generalized to leagues that have been created in countries other than the United States. The United States and their specific system of education (including sport teams at high schools and universities) is very unique and not quite the same anywhere else in the world. Thus, it would be very difficult to generalize my results to leagues starting in other countries than the United States.

This research studied three failed women's professional leagues that existed in the 1980s, 1990s, and early 2000s. Some of the subjects (e.g. team owners) that I planned to interview were not available or able to be interviewed. While this can be considered as a limitation of my study, I was able to get hold of other subjects (e.g. team managers) who provided me with relevant information.

This study explored three failed women's professional volleyball leagues in the United States and a sustainable league in the Czech Republic. Future studies can look at the rest of the failed women's professional volleyball leagues (Professional Volleyball League-PVL, Women's Western Volleyball League-WWVL) to have a complete picture of the failed leagues.

Future research can also examine failed women's professional sports leagues in other women's sports than volleyball, such as soccer (Women's Professional Soccer-WPS), softball (Women's Professional Fastpitch-WPS), or basketball (American Basketball League-ABL). Studies can examine if the failure of these women's professional leagues or absence of a sustainable league is connected to external issues other than legitimacy. The failed U.S. leagues were to some extent connected to the NCAA, but most of the times the leagues operated on their own. Women's soccer, has been connected to FIFA Women's World Cup over the years. The United States hosted FIFA Women's World Cup in 1999 and 2003. The U.S. women's team won the World Cup in 1991 and 1999, was a runner up in 2011, and finished third in 1995, 2003, and 2007 ("FIFA Women's," 2013). Future research can explore why the success of the American team at FIFA

Women's World Cup did not spur a sustainable professional women's soccer league in the United States.

Several women's professional basketball leagues existed (Ladies Professional Basketball, Liberty Basketball Association, and American Basketball League) prior to the creation of the WNBA. The U.S. women's national team consistently brought gold medals from many Olympic Games since 1984 ("Women's Basketball," 2013). Future research, can explore the relationship between the success of the U.S. women's national team and failure of the women's basketball leagues.

Additionally, women's professional volleyball leagues can be explored in other countries than the Czech Republic. The successful Italian (A1), Russian or Polish leagues can be considered for future research. The operation of the Czech league was influenced by the Czech state and federation. The role of the state and federation and their connection to legitimacy can be examined in other women's volleyball leagues in Europe. Sponsors have played an important role in sustaining a women's Polish volleyball league (Interview with D1). Future research can explore the relationship between the sponsorship and sustainability of the Polish league.

Chapter 11: Practical Contributions

Managers of a new professional women's volleyball league would benefit if they could learn from the Czech case. In the best scenario, the NCAA and Title IX could create state level funds that would help to get a new league off the ground. If this would not be possible, the managers of the new league could

affiliate the league with USA Volleyball, take advantage of local clubs, and have clear objectives, as it was found in the Czech case.

Affiliation with Other Organizations

A new American professional volleyball league should have an active and long-lasting relationship with any organization that would oversee the league. The Czech elite league had a working relationship with the Czech Volleyball Federation since early days. The federation separated volleyball from basketball in 1946, properly trained coaches and commentators, helped to shape the structure of the league, and has promoted the league on its website. Volleyball in the United States is run by USA Volleyball who could get involved in running a professional volleyball league rather than just giving the league a verbal support. The employees of USA Volleyball could not only be actively involved in the league's decision making, but the new league could also be promoted on the federation's website, so people who visit the website would get to know about the league.

USA Volleyball is in charge of a variety of youth and adult leagues and the new professional volleyball league could tap into this market. The professional players could run clinics for junior high and high school teams where the promotion of professional volleyball could take place. There is a higher chance that the children (parents) attending camps would go to see the professional players competing if they knew who the players were and if the children (parents) interacted with the players previously. These athletes-children

interactions could help to spread the word about the new league and help to legitimize it.

Club System

The Czech league has been a club based league and it became a sustainable league over time. Many volleyball clubs exist in the United States that help to prepare athletes for competing at the NCAA, and therefore managers of a new professional league could take advantage of the junior clubs. The managers can place their teams into the areas where strong clubs or junior national programs exist. The league could pride itself on recruiting local athletes who played for the area junior clubs, went to play to the NCAA, and came back to play volleyball for a professional team. Having these athletes in the league would increase visibility of the new league and also it is more likely that the new league would become socially accepted.

Some of the teams in the NVA were successful because they recruited the local players (Coleman, 1997, para. 4). The NVA fans were familiar with these players, and therefore the fans attended the NVA games and supported the athletes. The new league can consider recruiting local athletes who played for the local clubs, as the public would be familiar with the athletes and would more likely support them.

Placement of Teams

Teams that competed in the failed leagues were placed in different areas. The first league, the MLV, placed their teams in areas that had more and less than 700,000 people. The NVA started in California and slowly relocated to the

Midwest where it was more successful. Lastly, the third league, the USPV, was based in towns and cities in the Midwest. The teams that were placed into larger areas (Chicago, New York, Los Angles) and California region seemed to struggle. My finding is consistent with the NFL's early placement of teams. The NFL's teams were placed in the 1920s into smaller markets such as Green Bay and Canton and these teams were successful there (Peterson, 1996). Peterson (1996) states that "in Green Bay, Canton, and other smaller hotbeds of pro football, the local papers covered the pro games exhaustively, but in Chicago, Philadelphia, and Cleveland, teams had to beg for pre-game publicity" (p. 83). It is crucial that organizers of a new league do their research and select the towns for each team carefully. Apart from placing teams into the areas with strong clubs, smaller to medium size towns in the Midwest might be the best option for a new league. The league organizers are also suggested to stay away from the California region where beach volleyball is prevalent and the failed professional volleyball leagues mostly were not successful there.

Objectives

The next U.S. professional volleyball league or professional women's league can consider developing an amateur league or semi-professional league that would later turn into a professional league. Starting a low cost grassroots league and developing it over time in the current U.S. environment might be a better option rather than creating immediately a fully professional league. The Czech league functioned as an amateur league for a long time, which helped to legitimize the sport in the country. Over the years, people read newspaper articles

about the league, came to support the women's games, and therefore the sport was becoming socially accepted in the Czech Republic. The same type of league can be developed in the United States.

The owners of the failed women's volleyball leagues in the United States focused on providing opportunities for players, emphasizing the sports product, and emphasizing profit, among other things. A clear vision that would emphasize the leagues' goals was missing in the U.S. cases. The future league entrepreneurs should ensure that the league's objectives are clear and consistent with the product. The Czech league had clear objectives focusing mostly on the competition itself by making many structural changes (Broz, 1953). The product was understood by its fans and there did not seem to be any issues or controversies. This clear objective helped the public to understand the league better, and the league became socially accepted over time.

Product Visibility

Future league entrepreneurs should also consider when and if their product should be broadcasted on TV. Although positively evaluated by an interviewee of the MLV, signing a contract with TV early might actually negatively influence the league. A professional league that is lacking a TV audience would not benefit from TV exposure. The entrepreneurs might spend a lot of money on TV exposure and this exposure might not translate into profit. The Czech league waited with its TV exposure and its games did not appear on TV until later. Professional football and basketball struggled in the early days with TV broadcast and many times the leagues had to pay to be on TV (Coenen, 2005; Kirchberg,

2007). A new professional volleyball league might be experiencing similar problems. A new league could therefore wait with TV exposure until the league becomes more financially stable and known by people.

National Team

The top players that competed in the Czech league trained with the national team and the Czech league helped to develop these national team players. The new U.S. professional women's volleyball league can also help to further develop volleyball players who would represent the country. Many players end their indoor volleyball careers after graduating from a college. If a professional league existed, the league would provide opportunities for many college graduates who would not have to play volleyball overseas. It would be then easier for the coaches of the national team to monitor the talent in the United States and these coaches could select the national team players from this professional league.

Conclusion

Several women's professional volleyball leagues emerged in the United States in the last few decades; however, every women's professional league ceased activity within five years of its creation. The Czech Republic, on the other hand, has had a sustainable club league for over eighty years. This study raised two questions: Why did women's professional volleyball leagues fail in the United States? Why did the women's professional volleyball league not fail in the Czech Republic? I used the theory of institutional entrepreneurship to discover why the U.S. leagues failed and the Czech league sustained. The U.S. cases followed Yin's (1994) multiple-case study design and the Czech study was guided

by Yin's (1994) single-case study design. The collected data of both projects included archival data, newspaper/magazine articles, and textbooks regarding the leagues. I collected Czech newspaper articles from 1931 (women started to play in the women's league at that time) to early 1990s (1992). I stopped my data collection and analysis when I reached early 1990s because the league was stable by that time. Additionally, interviews were conducted with ten interviewees, six for the U.S. cases and four for the Czech case.

Research within institutional entrepreneurship examines only successful cases of institutional entrepreneurship (Battilana et al., 2009). The failed cases have received only a limited attention within the institutional entrepreneurship literature. My research showed that the institutional entrepreneurs of the U.S. leagues failed to create a clear frame, gather needed resources, and collaborate with others. Thus, the lack of appropriate framing, ability to collaborate and gather resources can lead to failed institutional entrepreneurship. Additionally, the failed leagues experienced environmental misfit and wanted to become professional in a short period of time, which contributed to the failure of the leagues. The Czech league was able to create and maintain a clear mission, obtain resources and have clubs that developed a working relationship with the federation. The managers of a new professional volleyball league in the United States are suggested to connect the new league with USA Volleyball, create teams in the areas where strong clubs are located, and have clear objectives that are consistent with the product.

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Appendix A

Data Overview (U.S. Cases)

Major League Volleyball

Number of newspaper articles: 126
Number of pages for the newspaper articles: 230
Number of books: 0
Number of pages for the books: 0
Number of interviews: 3
Number of transcribed pages: 125

National Volleyball Association

Number of newspaper articles: 154
Number of pages for the newspaper articles: 208
Number of books: 1
Number of pages for the books: 1
Number of interviews: 2
Number of transcribed pages: 73

United States Professional Volleyball League

Number of newspaper articles: 312
Number of pages for the newspaper articles: 663
Number of books: 0
Number of pages for the books: 0
Number of interviews: 1
Number of transcribed pages: 23

Appendix B

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation

E488 Van Vliet Centre
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada T6G 2H9

Initial Contact Letter

Sir/Madam,

My name is Iva Docekalova and I am a PhD student at the Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation at the University of Alberta. My research explores the institutional entrepreneurship of women's professional volleyball league(s) in the United States and Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic.

You have been contacted because you were involved in one of the professional volleyball leagues in the United States. If you decide to participate in this study, you will have an opportunity to answer several research questions during the interview. The estimated time of this procedure is no more than 45 minutes. The interview will be conducted over the phone or Skype and it will be audio-recorded. The audio tapes will be retained until the completion of this research and then they will be erased. If you feel uncomfortable anytime during the interview, you will have the option not to answer any of the questions, stop the tape recorder, or decline the interview without penalty. Your participation in the study is strictly voluntary, and you can refrain from answering any question without penalty or explanation. The anticipated risks to you are no greater than those normally encountered in daily life.

We want to protect your privacy and therefore all the received data will be analyzed by the principal investigator, who will remove personal identifiers from the results of the study. To further protect your privacy, the data will be stored in a locked cabinet by supervisor of this study, Dr. Marvin Washington, for five years after the completion of this research.

All the assembled data might be utilized for my PhD dissertation as well as possible publication. Although all the identifiers will be removed from the final study, it is possible that general public might guess your identity due to the limited amount of people employed by the professional leagues. To secure your privacy, every participant will be assigned a pseudonym/label that will be used by the principal investigator throughout the study. We strongly encourage you to participate in this study because your input can provide crucial information necessary for future entrepreneurs of women professional volleyball leagues in the United States.

Thank you for your consideration of participating in this study. I will contact you by phone or email to schedule an interview that suits your time. Additionally, the questions asked during the interview will be emailed to you in advance of the interview for your review.

If you would like to further inquire about this project, please respond to this email or to the addresses below. If you preferred to discuss this study with someone who is not

conducting this research, you can call University of Alberta Research Ethics Office at 780-492-2615.

Sincerely,

Iva Docekalova
Ph.D. Student
University of Alberta

Dr. Marvin Washington
Supervisor, Associate Professor
University of Alberta

Iva Docekalova, Doctoral Student, Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB T6G 0R2. Phone: (780) 691-5370 Email: docekalo@ualberta.ca

Marvin Washington, Associate Professor, Faculty of Business, 3-40E, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB T6G 2R6. Phone: (780) 492-2311 Email: washingt@ualberta.ca

Appendix C

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation
E488 Van Vliet Centre
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada T6G 2H9

Information Letter

Sir/Madam,

This letter provides a brief overview of the study along with information regarding potential risks and benefits, confidentiality, voluntary participation, and contact information.

The aim of the research is to examine professional volleyball league(s) in the United States and Czech Republic/Czechoslovakia.

Female volleyball experienced a slow initial development in the United States; however, the game gained major popularity in the 1980s under the umbrella of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) (NCAA, 2010). In the last three decades, several women's professional volleyball leagues emerged in the United States. Unfortunately, every single women's professional league that operated in the United States closed within five years of its opening. What is surprising regarding this failure is that a pool of athletes exists in the United States and volleyball, as we believe, is an aesthetically appealing sport due to the players' physique, attire, and style of play, signaling that a professional league should have its place in the country. Incidentally, the struggle concerning the development of a women's professional league has been mostly absent in the European environment, where volleyball spread two decades after its invention in the United States (Stibitz, 1958). The Czechs, in particular, were able to quickly establish their own volleyball federation and a national league (Stibitz, 1958). This raises two broad questions: Why did women's professional volleyball leagues fail in the United States? Why did the women's professional volleyball league not fail in the Czech Republic/Czechoslovakia? To answer the research questions, the inquiry will draw on the theory of institutional entrepreneurship, which has received increased attention in the previous decade (Hardy & Maguire, 2008). The research follows Yin's (1994) single- and multiple-case study approaches as a template and uses interviews and archival analysis. The outcome of the research will not only provide information for North American entrepreneurs designing a future women's league, but also will allow for a better understanding of the sport in both regions.

Risks and Benefits

It must be noted that the anticipated risks to you are no greater than those normally encountered in a daily life.

As a participant in this study, you will have a choice to review the completed research and discover how the institutional entrepreneurship of your particular league compared to the other professional volleyball leagues that existed in the United States.

Confidentiality

Information that you provide will be attempted to remain confidential and your identity will not be revealed. We would like to emphasize that we cannot guarantee total confidentiality using Skype technology. If this is a concern to you, a landline phone could be an option for our communication.

The interviews will be transcribed word for word. However, any names mentioned in the study or any circumstances that could be used to identify you will be omitted or coded in the written transcripts of the interviews. A pseudonym/label will be selected for you to secure your confidentiality. Only members of the research team will have access to the information that the subjects provide. After completion of the research, all the data will be properly destroyed.

Voluntary Participation

You are free to withdraw from the research study at any time and for any reason.

Thank you for reviewing this information,

Iva Docekalova
Ph.D. Student
University of Alberta

Dr. Marvin Washington
Supervisor, Associate Professor
University of Alberta

Iva Docekalova, Doctoral Student, Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB T6G 0R2. Phone: (780) 691-5370 Email: docekalo@ualberta.ca

Marvin Washington, Associate Professor, Faculty of Business, 3-40E, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB T6G 2R6. Phone: (780) 492-2311 Email: washingt@ualberta.ca

Appendix D

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation
E488 Van Vliet Centre
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada T6G 2H9

Consent Form

You are being asked to voluntarily participate in the research study entitled: ***Institutional entrepreneurship of women's professional volleyball league(s), the United States and Czech Republic***. This research is conducted by graduate student Iva Docekalova at Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation at the University of Alberta.

The results of the study will reveal the reasons why the past professional volleyball league(s) failed in the United States and sustained in Czechoslovakia/Czech Republic. This information will serve to any individuals who attempt to design a women's professional volleyball league in the United States. Additionally, this research will inform the employees of the Czech Volleyball Federation about the entrepreneurship of the Czechoslovakian/Czech league.

Do you understand that you have been asked to get involved in a research study?
Yes / No
Have you read and obtained a copy of the information sheet?
Yes / No
Do you understand the benefits and risks of participating in this study?
Yes / No
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss the study?
Yes / No
Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study at any moment without providing explanation or receiving a penalty?
Yes / No
Has the issue of confidentiality been clarified to you?
Yes / No
Do you understand who will access the information that you provide?
Yes / No
Do you consent to being interviewed and audiotaped?
Yes / No
Do you approve the use of a third party transcription company of this interview?
Yes / No

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this research study, please email Dr. Kelvin Jones, Chair, Ethics Review Committee, Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, at kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca

By signing the informed consent form, you are stating that you have read this document, your questions were answered and you agree to participate in the study. You will be provided with a copy of the consent document.

Signature of Participant_____ Date_____

Are you willing to participate in follow-up questions regarding this research?
Yes / No

Would you like to receive the results of this study upon its completion?
Yes / No

Principal Investigator: Iva Docekalova; PhD Student
Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation
University of Alberta
docekalo@ualberta.ca

Research Supervisor: Marvin Washington, PhD; Associate Professor
Faculty of Business
University of Alberta
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Appendix E

Interview Questions

1. Why did you decide to get involved with the professional women's league? What was it like to be part of the professional league?
2. Could you tell me a little bit about the league that you were involved in? What steps did you take to get the league off the ground and/or keep it going? Can you evaluate these steps?
3. What actions did your colleagues take to get the league off the ground and/or keep it going? Can you evaluate these steps?
4. What were the strengths and weaknesses of the league?
5. Can you identify and describe in detail the implemented strategies that were beneficial for the league? Why were they beneficial?
6. Can you identify and describe in detail the implemented strategies that were not beneficial for the league? Why were they not beneficial?
7. Were there any organizational or environmental forces that influenced the league's operation? If so, what were they? Please describe them.
8. How did these forces influence the league's operation?
9. Did you or your colleagues collaborate with any other organizations? If so, with which organizations and how would you evaluate this collaboration?
10. Who were your major competitors and how did you deal with this competition?
11. Why do you think that the league you were involved in failed?
12. Were there any indicators of the league failure early on?
13. Could the league's failure be prevented?
14. If you had an opportunity to organize or help to organize again a professional volleyball league, what would you do the same based on the information that you know now?
15. If you had an opportunity to organize or help to organize again a professional volleyball league, what would you do differently based on the information that you know now?
16. There are people out there who are trying to organize a women's professional league, what advice would you give them?
17. Is there any other information regarding the professional league that you would like to share with me?
18. Do you own any documents regarding the particular league that you could share with me?

Appendix F

Appendix F- Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Themes: Selection of areas for each team	
Bigger versus smaller markets	A.1 Attendance figures are uneven throughout the league. The same night that the Liberties drew their 386 on Long Island, 2,490 showed up at the Edina (Minn.) Community Center, which has also never been big volleyball country. Meanwhile in Los Angeles, where people really play the game, the average attendance has been around 750. The league says the break-even point for MLV is an average attendance of 1,500 a game (Lidz, 1987, p. 181).
	A.2 Those losses were in large part because of the failure of teams in the three major media markets, New York, Chicago and Los Angeles. Each of those teams averaged about 500 spectators a game, league officials said. Teams in smaller markets, San Jose (1,900), Minnesota (2,000) and Portland, Ore. (1,500), have been the league's best draws (Lowery, 1989b, para. 6).
California versus Midwest	A.3 But while Californians love to play volleyball, they were not inclined to watch it. Despite rosters filled with national reputations and Olympic medals, attendance was dismal. Founding partner Gary Wyma, who made his money in real estate, was losing it in a hurry on volleyball ("Recapturing the Spirits," 1997, para. 10).
	A.4 The Utah Predators averaged over 2,000 people last season. In the right places it's been very successful ("NVA Expansion," 1996, para. 11).
Cities located in the Midwest	A.5 The USPV is appealing to markets of all sizes, said Hawkins. Our first season showed that our

product is a hit not only in small markets like Rochester, Minnesota, but in big markets like Chicago as well ("Dallas Awarded," para. 13, 2002).

A.6 Once they started the league, you know, there wasn't that many people in the stands every day. They might promote a tournament for 3 or 4 months, they might be able to have that many [spectators], but on day in and day out, day-to-day, they couldn't draw, they couldn't draw big, big crowds on a regular basis cause there wasn't that much support in the volleyball community (Interview with C1).

Appendix F-Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Themes: Leagues' missions	
Providing opportunities for players	B.1 I really believe in the mission of the league, which is to create post-collegiate career opportunities for female athletes, Hawkins said. In the past there weren't many opportunities like that. As a father of three daughters, I'm pretty sensitive to that, which makes it easy for me to be passionate and committed to the league (McGraw, 2001, para. 20).
Role models	B.2 The 6-foot-4 Kennedy, who was cut from her junior high school team, is looking forward to showing what she can do at the professional level. She wants to be part of a league that gives girls role models other than men. It really is exciting to be part of something like that, Kennedy said. When I was younger I really looked up to Michael Jordan. There really wasn't anything like this. That is what we are doing and I think you're seeing the WNBA do that a bit. It is great to be a part of something like this for that reason alone (Martinez, 2000, para. 6, 7).
Other aims of USPV	B.3 Showing girls that professional volleyball can be a career option for them. Provide competitive entertainment. Position the U.S. to win Olympic medals (feed the national team) (Rittenberg, 2002).

Appendix F-Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: The sport product	
Type of players including local players and level of play	C.1 It really was a fabulous product. I mean it was, it was the best that the country had to offer as far as volleyball and that was a totally win combination (Interview with A3). C.2 It is the only professional indoor league in America that showcases the talent of the entire national (Olympic) team, as well as top beach stars and local talent (Escher, 1995, para. 2). C.3 Having…the local…talent here was…beneficial because you kept more people involved in local community…, so if you had 15 year olds on the team that were from St. Louis area, then if you had a couple family members, then a couple friends coming from each one, you kind of had a base, from which to grow (Interview with B2).

Appendix F-Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Ownership	
Concentrated ownership	D.1 Once again, I thought the premise of being a wholly owned league was… a good premise (Interview with A3). D.2 I think the league wants to have owners eventually, said Butler. But it wants stability first. Right now its a good concept, because you've got direct policy all the way down the line. You don't have owners bickering. You don't have one owner paying his team more than another owner can pay his team (Feldman, 1987b, para. 15).
Individual owners	D.3 Well, the one I keep kind of pointing to is year three when…the individual ownership came into effect. They thought [it] was a good strategy, but in the end…because they [the owners] didn't have the same commitment to the success of the league possibly…as Mr. Batinovich…we ended up you know having a couple of the owners pull the plug (Interview with A2).
One-man ownership	D.4 I'm pretty sure a pro sports league is something that one person cannot do, period…it just needs a greater diversity of people, money, and support than what we had in the late '90s (Interview with B1).

Appendix F- Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Expansion	
Early expansion and relocation	E.1 At one point, the league looked to the 2003 season to feature two divisions of five teams playing 26 matches. In two more years, it wanted to have 20 teams. In August 2002, lonestarvolleyball.com announced expansion teams were awarded to Dallas, Columbus, Milwaukee, and Philadelphia. By November, no one was talking expansion. A lot of leagues make the mistake of expanding too quickly, Cavalli said ("Pro Scene," 2003, p.1). E.2 In August, USPV announced expansion…Those plans, though, were put on hold shortly thereafter (Radtke, 2002, para. 6).

Appendix F- Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Struggle for profitability	
Budgeting and finances	F.1 They overbudgeted the amount of income and severely underestimated the amount of expense... And so my thoughts were [for] the league in the future, they better get those projections a little bit closer to reality (Interview with A1). F.2 The league poured money into its three biggest markets, but couldn't parlay the investment into profits (Southwell, 1989, para. 9).
Business plan	F.3 Miazga added that if the league survives, it will be with a different business model, as the USPV has operated as a single entity, with all four teams owned by the league (SportsBusiness, 2002, p. 1).

Appendix F-Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the U.S. Leagues

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Achieving external visibility	
Marketing	G.1 The main reason it failed was they just didn't spend their money right, said Breeze general manager Lisa Ann Mikolai. We were playing during the right time of the year, and I think Chicago, New York and Los Angeles would have made it. But they are big cities and needed a lot more time to establish a following. The first two seasons were really wasted from a marketing standpoint (Southwell, 1989, para. 5).
	G.2 According to Wyma, the NVA -- which has featured several players from the U.S. national team -- is averaging about 1,200 fans per match this season with teams in Iowa, Colorado, St. Louis, Utah, Nebraska and Arizona. That's without any advertising, Wyma said. We plan on doing a lot more advertising and marketing next year ("Madison Nets," 1997, para. 7).
Obtaining and maintaining sponsors	G.3 It's tough to get sponsor dollars, said Gary Wyma, Spikers owner. I've got the best product in the world, I've got the right ages watching the games, and we've got the TV deal, but the sponsors haven't come along yet (Witherspoon, 1995, para. 22).
	G.4 Yet, despite all of those reasons for optimism, two major sponsors elected not to further invest for a second season. USPV officials said last November the league was experiencing financial difficulties but the 2003 season was still a go. A month later, the decision to cancel the season was made (McGraw, 2003b, para. 11-12).
TV	G.5 Volleyball fans on both coasts have displayed a similar apathy. Rather than watch MLV games in

person, they would just as soon catch the delayed broadcast on ESPN, which isn't exactly the healthiest sign for a fledgling league. There is cause for concern over the league's long-term prospects (Lidz, 1987, para. 12).

G.6 His passion developed into a five-team league on the West Coast. He had two partners and even had matches televised. But his partners left him last year, his television package dried up, and he relocated the league to the Midwest (Boyce, 1998, para. 1).

Newspapers

G.7 Meade attributes most of the league's problems to the fact that he could not generate much in the way of newspaper coverage. We look at you like Disney on Ice, said one sports editor, in explaining his paper's almost total lack of coverage of women's Major League Volleyball (Breining, n.d., para. 21).

G.8 Your Jan. 29 sports section carried many interesting stories and facts. We could read about the fight schedule at both the Great Western Forum and Huntington Hilton. There was also information about an equipment manager being called up to Las Vegas in the International Hockey League. But why was there no information concerning the Utah Predators? Your paper did not even carry a line score from the game. Your staff is missing many great stories. If you want to see what is right with sports in America, look no further than the National Volleyball Association (Escher, 1995, para. 1, 2).

G.9 And, of course, I'd greatly increase our outreach through league & team websites (which were bare-bones at best back then) and social media (which hadn't even been invented yet), community involvement, etc. I'd do this instead of harassing

> mainstream media outlets (like I did before), and feel that they'd come to us once our popularity had reached a critical mass (Interview with B1).

Appendix G

Data Overview (Czech Case)

Women's Extraleague

Number of newspaper articles: 325
Number of pages for the newspaper articles: 350
Number of books: 22
Number of pages for the books: 150
Number of interviews: 4
Number of transcribed pages: 46

Appendix H

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Fakulta tělesné výchovy a rekreace

E488 Van Vliet Centre
Edmonton, Alberta, Kanada T6G 2H9

Oslovovací Dopis

Vážený pane / vážená paní,

Jmenuji se Iva Dočekalová a jsem studentka PhD na Fakultě tělesné výchovy a rekreace Albertské univerzity. Můj výzkum je zaměřen na institucionální podnikání v oblasti profesionálních ženských volejbalových soutěží ve Spojených státech amerických a v Československu / České republice.

Obracím se na Vás, protože jste se angažoval/a v profesionální volejbalové soutěži v Československu / České republice. Pokud se rozhodnete této studie účastnit, budete mít možnost odpovědět v rámci rozhovoru na několik výzkumných otázek. Odhadovaná délka rozhovoru nepřesahuje 45 minut. Rozhovor bude probíhat živě, telefonicky nebo prostřednictvím aplikace Skype a jeho zvukový záznam bude nahráván. Audionahrávky si ponecháme pouze do doby, než bude výzkum ukončen, a následně je smažeme. Pokud se kdykoli během rozhovoru budete cítit nepříjemně, budete mít možnost neodpovídat na pokládané otázky, zastavit nahrávání, případně bez jakýchkoli sankcí rozhovor odmítnout. Vaše účast na studii je zcela dobrovolná, přičemž můžete bez sankcí či vysvětlení odmítnout odpověď na kteroukoli otázku. Předpokládaná rizika Vaší účasti nejsou větší než ta, se kterými se běžně setkáváte ve svém každodenním životě.

Chceme chránit Vaše soukromí, a proto veškeré obdržené údaje budou prozkoumány hlavním řešitelem, který z výsledků studie odstraní osobní identifikátory. Abychom Vaše soukromí ještě více ochránili, budou údaje uloženy v uzamčené skříňce vedoucího této studie, pana Dr. Marvina Washington (docent sportovního managementu na obchodní fakultě Albertské univerzity v Edmontonu), a to po dobu pěti let od ukončení výzkumu.

Veškeré shromážděné údaje mohou být použity pro účely mé disertační práce i její případné publikace. Přestože budou z výsledné studie odstraněny všechny identifikátory, je možné, že veřejnost Vaši totožnost vzhledem k omezenému počtu lidí angažujících se v československé/české profesionální soutěži uhodne. Abychom zabezpečili Vaše soukromí, bude každému účastníkovi přidělen pseudonym (či jiné označení), který bude hlavním řešitelem používán v celé studii. Velmi Vás žádáme o to, abyste se této studie zúčastnil/a, neboť Vaše informace mohou přinést zásadní poznatky, jichž následně budou moci využít budoucí organizátoři profesionálních ženských volejbalových soutěží.

Děkujeme Vám, že zvážíte účast na této studii. Telefonicky nebo prostřednictvím e-mailu se s Vámi spojím a domluvím se s Vámi na termínu rozhovoru, který Vám bude vyhovovat. Otázky kladené během rozhovoru Vám budou předem zaslány elektronickou poštou, abyste měl/a možnost se s nimi seznámit.

Máte-li v souvislosti s tímto projektem dotazy, použijte prosím tento e-mail nebo napište na některou z níže uvedených adres. Pokud byste si o studii raději pohovořili s někým,

kdo tento výzkum neprovádí, můžete se obrátit na Kancelář etiky výzkumu při Albertské univerzitě, tel. číslo 780-492-2615.

S úctou,

Iva Dočekalová
Studentka Ph.D.
Albertská univerzita

Dr. Marvin Washington
Vedoucí výzkumu, docent
Albertská univerzita

Iva Dočekalová, studentka doktorského programu, Fakulta tělesné výchovy a rekreace, Albertská univerzita, AB T6G 0R2. Tel.: (780) 691-5370 E-mail: docekalo@ualberta.ca

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Appendix I

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Fakulta Tělesné Výchovy a Rekreace

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Informační dopis

Vážený pane / vážená paní,

obsahem tohoto dopisu je stručný souhrn studie a dále informace o možných rizicích a přínosech, důvěrném charakteru poskytovaných údajů, dobrovolné účasti a kontaktních údajích.

Účelem výzkumu je posouzení profesionálních volejbalových soutěží ve Spojených státech amerických a v České republice / Československu.

Rozvoj ženského volejbalu byl ve Spojených státech zpočátku velmi pozvolný; v 80. letech však tento sport dosáhl velké popularity pod záštitou Národní vysokoškolské atletické asociace (National Collegiate Athletic Association, NCAA) (NCAA, 2010). Během posledních třiceti let se ve Spojených státech objevilo několik profesionálních ženských soutěží. Bohužel však všechny profesionální ženské soutěže, které byly na území Spojených států pořádány, zanikly do pěti let od svého vzniku. Překvapivá na tomto neúspěchu je skutečnost, že při počtu sportovců ve Spojených státech u hry, jakou je volejbal, tedy dle našeho mínění esteticky přitažlivého sportu vzhledem k tělesné konstituci, úboru hráček a hernímu stylu, by si profesionální soutěž v této zemi měla najít své místo. Naproti tomu Evropské státy, kam se volejbal rozšířil dvě desetiletí po svém vynalezení v USA, se podobným obtížím s prosazením profesionálních ženských soutěží povětšinou vyhnuly (Stibitz, 1958). Zejména Češi si dokázali rychle vytvořit vlastní volejbalový svaz a národní ligu (Stibitz, 1958). To vyvolává dvě zevrubné otázky: Proč se profesionální ženská volejbalová soutěž ve Spojených státech neujala? Proč se profesionální ženská volejbalová soutěž v České republice / Československu ujala? Za účelem zodpovězení těchto výzkumných otázek bude studie vycházet z teorie institucionálního podnikání, které se v minulém desetiletí dostalo zvýšené pozornosti (Hardy & Maguire, 2008). Výzkum čerpá z koncepce případových a vícepřípadových studií Roberta Yina (1994) a využívá techniky rozhovoru a archivního rozboru. Závěry výzkumu nejenže poskytnou informace severoamerickým podnikatelům při přípravě budoucí ženské soutěže, ale rovněž umožní lépe porozumět tomuto sportu v obou regionech.

Rizika a přínosy

Je třeba si uvědomit, že předpokládaná rizika nejsou větší než ta, se kterými se běžně setkáváte ve svém každodenním životě.

Jako účastník této studie budete mít možnost si provedený výzkum projít a posoudit, do jaké míry lze institucionální podnikání Vaší konkrétní soutěže srovnat s profesionálními volejbalovými soutěžemi, které existovaly ve Spojených státech.

Důvěrnost

Budeme usilovat o to, aby veškeré informace, které nám poskytnete, zůstaly důvěrné, přičemž Vaše totožnost zůstane skryta. Rádi bychom zdůraznili, že při použití technologie Skype nejsme schopni zaručit naprostou důvěrnost. V případě, že by toto pro Vás mělo být překážkou, může komunikace mezi námi alternativně probíhat prostřednictvím pevné telefonní linky.

Rozhovory budou přepisovány doslova. Veškerá jména a veškeré názvy zmíněné ve studii, případně jakékoli další údaje, na jejichž základě by Vás bylo možné identifikovat, budou v písemných přepisech rozhovorů vynechány nebo šifrovány. Za účelem zajištění důvěrnosti Vám bude přidělen pseudonym. Přístup k informacím získaným od respondentů budou mít pouze členové výzkumného týmu. Po ukončení výzkumu budou veškeré tyto údaje řádně zničeny.

Dobrovolná účast

Z účasti na výzkumné studii můžete kdykoli a z libovolného důvodu odstoupit.

Děkujeme Vám, že jste se s těmito informacemi seznámil/a.

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Appendix J

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Souhlas se Zařazením do Výzkumu

Žádáme Vás o dobrovolnou účast na výzkumné studii s názvem: ***Institucionární podnikání v oblasti profesionálních ženských volejbalových soutěží ve Spojených státech amerických a v České republice.*** Výzkum provádí postgraduální studentka Iva Dočekalová z Fakulty tělesné výchovy a rekreace Albertské univerzity.

Výsledky studie odhalí důvody, proč dřívější pokusy o zavedení profesionálních volejbalových soutěží ve Spojených státech selhaly a proč se v Československu/České republice setkaly s úspěchem. Tyto informace poslouží každému, kdo by se chtěl pokusit o organizaci profesionální ženské volejbalové ligy v Spojených státech. Kromě toho výzkumu poskytne informace zaměstnancům Českého volejbalového svazu o provozování československé/české ligové soutěže.

Rozumíte tomu, že jste byli požádáni, abyste se zapojili do výzkumné studie?
Ano / Ne
Obdrželi jste kopii informačního dopisu a přečetli si ho?
Ano / Ne
Jste srozuměni s přínosy riziky vyplývajícími z účasti na této studii?
Ano / Ne
Dostali jste možnost zeptat se, co Vás zajímá a pohovořit si o studii?
Ano / Ne
Rozumíte tomu, že můžete kdykoli z účasti na studii odstoupit,
a to bez udání důvodu a bez jakékoli sankce?
Ano / Ne
Byla Vám objasněna otázka důvěrnosti poskytovaných údajů?
Ano / Ne
Je Vám známo, kdo bude mít přístup k poskytnutým údajům?
Ano / Ne
Souhlasíte s tím, že s Vámi bude proveden rozhovor, který bude nahráván?
Ano / Ne

Máte-li v souvislosti s touto výzkumnou studií jakékoliv dotazy, pošlete je elektronickou poštou panu Dr. Kelvin*u* Jones*ovi*, předsedovi Etické komise fakulty tělesné výchovy a rekreace, na adresu kelvin.jones@ualberta.ca.

Podpisem tohoto informovaného souhlasu prohlašujete, že jste si tento dokument přečetli, Vaše dotazy byly zodpovězeny a souhlasíte s účastí na studii. Obdržíte jednu kopii dokumentu.

Podpis účastníka_____Datum_____

Jste ochotni zodpovědět doplňující otázky týkající se tohoto výzkumu?

Ano / Ne

Chtěli byste obdržet výskedky této studie po jejím dokončení?
Ano / Ne

Hlavní řešitel: Iva Dočekalová
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Vedoucí výzkumu: Marvin Washington, PhD; docent
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Appendix K

Otázky Kladené Během Rozhovoru

1. Proč jste se rozhodl/a angažovat v profesionální volejbalové ženské soutěži? Jaké to bylo / je podílet se na profesionální ligové soutěži?
2. Mohl/a byste mi něco říci o ligové soutěži, v níž jste se angažoval/a? Co jste udělal/a pro to, aby se tato soutěž ujala a udržela? Můžete svůj přínos zhodnotit?
3. Co udělali Vaši kolegové pro to, aby se tato soutěž ujala a udržela? Můžete jejich přínos zhodnotit?
4. Jaké byly / jsou silné a slabé stránky této soutěže?
5. Můžete identifikovat a podrobně popsat realizované přístupy (strategie), které byly / jsou pro soutěž přínosné? Proč byly / jsou přínosné?
6. Můžete identifikovat a podrobně popsat realizované přístupy (strategie), které nebyly / nejsou pro soutěž přínosné? Proč nebyly / nejsou přínosné?
7. Existovaly / existují nějaké organizační nebo ekologické vlivy, které se dotýkaly / dotýkají fungování soutěže? Pokud ano, jaké? Popište je, prosím.
8. Jak se tyto vlivy fungování soutěže dotýkaly / dotýkají?
9. Spolupracoval/a jste / spolupracujete nebo spolupracovali / spolupracují Vaši kolegové s některými dalšími organizacemi? Pokud ano, s jakými a jak byste tuto spolupráci ohodnotil/a?
10. Kdo byli / jsou Vaši největší konkurenti a jak jste se s touto konkurencí vypořádali / jak se s ní vypořádáváte?
11. Proč si myslíte, že se ligová soutěž, v níž jste se angažoval/a / v níž se angažujete, udržela?
12. Existoval / existuje někdo nebo něco, co k udržení soutěže přispělo?
13. Právě teď se někteří lidé pokoušejí o založení profesionální ženské soutěže. Existuje něco, co byste chtěl/a těmto lidem poradit?
14. Chtěl/a byste se se mnou podělit o další informace týkající se dané ligové soutěže?
15. Vlastníte nějaké dokumenty týkající se dané ligové soutěže, o které byste se se mnou chtěl/a podělit?

Appendix L

Appendix L-Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the Czech League

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Structural changes and adjustments	
Length of the season	A.1 During the early years (1930s-1950s) the women's competition started in May ("Liga Odbijene," 1946) with the finals being towards the end of September ("Volleyball and Basketball," 1931; "Bejvavalo pred," 1946)
	A.2 The competition will start in January and end in May. There will be a scheduled break after the ninth round of competition and in the middle of April ("Ve Volejbalove," 1972, p. 1).
National team	A.3 The competition will start earlier and finish earlier. The champion of the league will be known by the third of February 1990 and the final play offs will not be played. This is because the athletes competing for the national team will start training with the national team at that time to prepare for the World Championship, which will take place in Spain ("Volejbalistky Dostaly," 1989, p. 2).

Appendix L- Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the Czech League

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Improve the level of play	
Structure of the competition	B.1 The league will have two rounds of competitions, each team will play with every other team and each team will have the same opponent on Saturday and Sunday" ("Ve Volejbalove," 1972). Also, the number of matches increased from 26 to 36 allowing each team to play more matches and improve their performance.
Gyms versus outside	B.2 The league moved from outdoors to indoors because major international competitions such as the Olympic Games, World Championships, and European Championships are played indoors. The indoor environment allows for a development of volleyball technique. Players especially improved their attacking skills while competing indoors (Nejezchleb, 1967, p.1)
Additional tournaments	B.3 On Saturday volleyball players are starting a new completion called Pohar, which is essentially a substitution for the third and fourth round of the Extraleague, which is not played due to the national team's preparation for the upcoming Olympic Games (Volejbaliste o Pohar, 1972, p. 7). This arrangement allowed the selected players to practice with the national team, while the rest of the players continued to play volleyball at a high level.

Appendix L- Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the Czech League

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: External control	
Federation and the league	C.1 The members of the Czech Volleyball Federation built a good teamwork in a short time, registered all the competitive players, and established new competitions ("Rekreace a Zavodivost," 1946, p. 11).
State and the league	C.2 In the last ten years many changes happened in sport. The departments of physical education and sport united into one sport organization, which is free of capitalistic values. The Czech state looks after the development of physical education in Czechoslovakia and it largely supports it (Tobolka, 1958, p. 26).

Appendix L-Dimensions, Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the Czech League

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Media and sport	
The role of media including TV	D.1 The newspapers initially did not want to accept the sport. The administrators of *Our Road* magazine expressed in the late 1940s that volleyball is a second rate sport ("Odbijena Hra," 1948). However, as time went on the situation changed. In the 1990s I found 740 articles that were published in the *Czechoslovakian and Czech Sport* (only 54 articles were published in the 1940s). Over the years the sport found a way to fill the pages of Czech newspapers. D.2 In 1965, 226 sport activities/events were broadcasted on TV. Volleyball appeared on TV three times and basketball six times. This year (1966) 98 life sports events will be broadcasted on TV from January 1st to May 31st, out of which basketball will appear on TV seven times and volleyball four times (Pikrtova, 1966, p. 11). D.3 Until 2010, volleyball competition appeared on TV only sporadically (Interview with D4).

Appendix L- Themes, Concepts, and Illustrative Data of the Czech League

Themes and concepts	Representative quotations
Theme: Professionalization (before and after 1989)	
Finances-state versus sponsors	E.1 In 1948 physical education and sport departments united into one organization. Volleyball was at that time supported financially by the Czech government. This significant help from the government allowed for the growth of the sport in Czechoslovakia (Dobiasova, 1961, p. 1). E.2 The club is financially secured for the season, however, it is still looking for sponsors. The sponsors that the club secured are companies called Peclinovsky and Pommer, who are preparing interesting activities/offers for fans ("Volejbalova Liga," 1991).
The professional athlete	E.3 Before 1989 the athletes in the clubs were employed by bigger enterprises/factories but instead of working in the company, the players would receive a salary for playing sports. The athletes acted as amateurs but they were professionals (Interview with D1). E.4 A volleyball professional does not pretend anything and calls herself a professional athlete ("Volejbalova Podnikatelka," 1991, p. 5).
Players' transfers	E.5 Siplakova, Bendeova, and Orazaghova will not compete anymore for the club called UK Bratislava. After a year break Moravcova-Gronova will play again. The players that will join our club are Skulcova who is coming from Zilina and Sadecka who is transferring from Nitra ("V Soutezi Zen," 1977, p. 5). E.6 60 male and female players will play volleyball in a foreign country starting this fall ("Volejbalove Sampionaty," 1991, p. 2).

Team deposits and salaries	E.7 One of the interviewees that actively played in the league received 2,000 Czech Crowns (equals to CAD$ 106.11) per month in 1975, but believes that salaries tripled since the time she played volleyball (Interview with D3).