

2017

Managerial Labor Mobility in the National Football League

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Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College

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MANAGERIAL LABOR MOBILITY IN THE NATIONAL FOOTBALL LEAGUE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The School of Kinesiology

by

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August 2017

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving family who made countless sacrifices that allowed me to complete this doctoral degree.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Though only one name will appear on my diploma, this dissertation and the doctoral degree that will follow are representative of accomplishments by several contributors. These contributors consist of family members, professors, and friends whom assisted me in my progression from birth until now, and hopefully into the future. Furthermore, I hope to repay the favors granted to me from the people mentioned below as well as the unnamed contributors to my success.

First, I would like to acknowledge my family, both immediate and extended. My family has helped me through a variety of situations by providing me with life lessons, keeping me out of trouble, encouraging me to constantly seek improvement, and dealing with me when I was not my best self. More specifically, I would like to thank my children for their patience, my wife for her unwavering commitment to my goals, my brother for always looking out for me, my mother for her optimism, and my father for his compassion. Not only have I appreciated and benefited from these traits which my family has exemplified, I also learned from them and tried to incorporate them into my life as well as they have in theirs—though the struggle continues. I wish I could name all my family members whom contributed to my life and success, however, I would much rather be spending this time with my family than writing these acknowledgements. So, know that I love you and am looking forward to spending more time together.

Second, I made several connections with professors whom assisted me through my education and motivated me to continue pursuing formal education. Perhaps most notably in my undergraduate career, Dr. Nestor Ruiz showed me the benefits of pursuing graduate education and encouraged me to excel in academia. Additionally, Drs. Bruce Brown, Lynda Rush, and Tara Sethia, thank you for your support, mentoring, and teaching you provided me as an

undergraduate within and outside the classroom. Drs. Thomas Zuehlke and Jeffery James substantially helped me pursue my graduate education through uncertain and unstable times.

I would specifically like to acknowledge and thank Drs. Brian Soebbing and Chad Seifried whom agreed to be my doctoral advisors and assisted me in several ways. They were both always available to assist me in research, teaching, coursework, and life. I spent countless hours in each of their offices discussing a variety of issues to increase my chances of success in academia and life. Drs. Kwame Agyemang and James Garand were also always available to me. I learned so much from you both and am very grateful to have you on my committee. Lastly, I would like to thank Kristine Thompson for agreeing to be on my committee, despite being given very short notice. I am very grateful for you all and hope this is only the beginning of our academic relationships.

In addition to my committee, other university employees have assisted me through various hardships throughout my educational career. Dr. Melinda Solmon provided me support through various obstacles I faced as a new teacher. I am very grateful to her for her advice, assistance, and integrity. I hope when I am a senior faculty member, I can assist young students and faculty as she did for me. Dr. Dorothy Jacobsen has also been extremely supportive of my family and I. In addition to supporting my family, she has always been available to discuss teaching, academic life, and personal life with me, and for those countless hours, as well as her dedication to her craft, I greatly admire and appreciate her. Similarly, Dr. J. Michael Martinez has been forced to endure countless hours of conversations with doctoral students. He was always around when I needed to vent and provided sound advice as he supported us through our life as lowly doctoral students.

Also providing support in various tasks which often went far beyond their job descriptions, Miss Ellen Albarado and Miss Donna Smith have put up with me the entire time I have been here, which is not an easy task. Thank you for your administrative and emotional support. You made life in the halls of Huey P. Long Field House much more fun and I cannot image how much harder life would have been without socializing with you and relying on your expertise to complete all the paperwork I filled out while I was here. Also, thank you to Miss Darlene Ainsworth, Dr. Chris Barnhill, and Dr. Per Svennson. Though we did not get to spend as much time together, I appreciate the time you devoted to me. You were always willing to spend time with me to discuss life and careers. Due to being employed outside the university throughout my educational career, I must also thank my supervisors, especially Kelly Smith whom has been very supportive of my educational pursuits and lenient when I needed time.

As with family members, university employees, and non-university supervisors, I have too many friends to thank than I have time. However, I would like to specifically thank Khirey Walker for being there for my family and I throughout this rollercoaster ride of a Ph.D. program. Additionally, I would like to thank Ben Downs, Min Kang, Yoseph Mamo, Marcella Otto, and James Hines for creating an environment in our office which was both fun and cordial and I hope to continue developing our relationships for many years.

From my undergraduate studies, I would like to thank my classmates who helped me get where I am today. I really enjoyed our intellectually stimulating conversations, the motivation you provided me to do my best in school, and how welcoming you were of my family. Specifically, to Mariano Baez, Victoria Elias, Keith Koda, Vinson Manalo, Joyce Ng, Stephen Padilla, Chris Savella, Jeff Tu, and Vincent Van, I love you guys and I will always consider you family. Most importantly, for those whom I stepped on or hurt along the way, I apologize.

Lastly, I would like to express my appreciation to taxpayers, especially the willing supporters of public education, as they assisted in funding my education. I hope to repay my debt to society manifold as I educate the future of our society, improve our education system, and contribute to the growing body of knowledge in my academic discipline.

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ABSTRACT

Within the present dissertation, determinants of leader dismissals, promotions, and demotions are explored. A model of CEO dismissals is adapted to the context of the National Football League (NFL), whereby head coaches represent CEOs. Building upon empirical studies of the CEO dismissal model, a proxy is established which is representative of actual candidates to replace an executive rather than proxies based on industry and firm characteristics. Using the proxy for candidates provided statistically insignificant results that challenge the theoretical relationship between candidate availability and executive dismissals. Additionally, the present dissertation proposed and found empirical justification for incorporating an additional socio-political force within the empirically tested CEO dismissal model. Interestingly, within the deviant culture of the NFL, deviant behavior may increase or decrease executive dismissal likelihood depending on the type of deviant behavior, punishments received for deviant behavior, and implementation of institutional policies regarding deviant behavior. Finally, the present dissertation emphasized the relationship between executive dismissals and candidates available to succeed executives, and therefore, examined determinants of managerial promotions within the NFL. Specifically focusing on race and centrality as promotion and demotion determinants, the present dissertation found race and centrality to be statistically significant factors in promotions and demotions, though the influence of these variables depends on whether the manager is being considered for promotion or demotion as well as their current rank within the organization (i.e., upper- or lower-level management). Implications for practitioners and scholars as well as future research opportunities are also discussed.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leadership and managerial ability are important topics to scholars and practitioners (Farkas & De Backer, 1996; Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009; Kippenberger, 2002). The substantial interest garnered by leaders, managers, and the activities of leaders and managers is a result of their potential influence on organizations (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Huson, Parrino, & Starks, 2001; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Parrino, 1997; Pedace & Smith, 2013), shareholders (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Farquhar, 1995; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Karpoff, Lee, & Vondrzyk, 1999; Kesner & Sebor, 1994), firm employees (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Simpson, 2002), customers (Geis, 2007), taxpayers (Gobert & Punch, 2007; Rosoff, 2007) and local residents (Ermann & Lundman, 1982). Though leadership research in the past century primarily focused on leader qualities and how leaders interact with followers, some scholars argue that an understanding of the context and role of leadership must first be understood (Hall et al., 2004; Selznick, 1957). Early literature by Selznick (1957) provided a framework for much of the recent research examining previously neglected leadership factors, especially in the fields of strategic management and executive turnover (e.g., Chen, Luo, Tang, & Tong, 2014; Cowen & Marcel, 2011; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Gomulya & Boeker, 2015).

In forging the framework for leadership in strategic management, Selznick (1957) defined leadership as an activity which revolves around critical decision-making as opposed to routine interactions between leaders and followers. Therefore, Selznick (1957) proposed the “executive becomes a statesman as he makes the transition from administrative management to institutional leadership” (p. 4, 154). Selznick (1957) used the notion of an executive as a statesman to demonstrate the political nature of leadership activities. He described how political

power struggles between organizational units and personnel form within organizations. Often these political contests are among personnel vying for top management team promotions. Moreover, promotions, and the dismissals that pave the way for others' promotions, are decided, in part, by the institutionalization of rules and values within the organization as a result of current and past leaders whom have infused their values within the organization (Selznick, 1957). Selznick's (1957) ideas of political competitions for promotions and dismissals being determined by organizations embodying the values of their leaders have led many scholars to the connection between politics and executive dismissals and promotions (e.g., Boeker, 1992; Daily & Johnson, 1997; Finkelstein, 1992; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Frederickson et al., 1988; Gomulya & Boeker, 2015; Ocasio, 1999).

Following Selznick (1957), research regarding executive departures has been identified as an important area of research (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). The importance of executive departures stems from the CEO being viewed as the most powerful member of an organization (Daily & Johnson, 1997; Farkas & De Backer, 1996) and responsible for organizational results (Farkas & De Backer, 1996; Soebbing & Washington, 2011). Despite research findings to the contrary by some scholars (e.g., Day & Lord, 1988; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985), it is widely believed CEOs can have a substantial impact on organizational performance (Crossland & Hambrick, 2011; Daily & Johnson, 1997; Hambrick & Quigley, 2014), which could lead to their departure from the organization (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Finkelstein et al., 2009).

Executive Departures

A substantial portion of the extant literature examining executive successions failed to identify whether the predecessors' departures were voluntary prior to examining the causes of

those departures or subsequent organizational performance following the departure (Bennett et al., 2003; Boeker, 1992; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Friedman & Singh, 1989; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991). Voluntary and involuntary executive departures occur as a result of retirements, resignations, deaths, or dismissals (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Furtado & Kuran, 1990). More specifically, Weisbach (1988) identified 13 reasons CEOs voluntarily resign according to an examination of *Wall Street Journal* reports. Some of these reasons include departing due to compulsory retirement policies, poor performance, disagreements with board of directors, and personal reasons. However, during the process of a succession, the true reasons for the succession are often not revealed (Brown, 1982; Haynes et al., 2015; Maxcy, 2013; Weisbach, 1988).

Executive retirements, specifically, have received a marginal amount of attention from scholars. Weisbach (1988) found a high correlation between the likelihood of a planned resignation and CEO age by connecting a substantial amount of resignations to CEOs' 65th birthdays. Specifically, Weisbach (1988) found about 38% of CEO turnover from 1974 through 1983 to be a result of retirement. Similarly, Maxcy's (2013) study of college football coaches from 2002 through 2011 found 25% of head coach turnover was a result of retirements. Though all successions can have organizational performance implications (Cannella & Rowe, 1995), there is little mystery in many retirement decisions. Therefore, it appears retirement decisions are of less theoretical interest than dismissals (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

CEO Dismissals

Fredrickson et al. (1988) defined a CEO dismissal as a "situation in which the CEO's departure is ad hoc (e.g., not part of a mandatory retirement policy) and against his or her will" (p. 255). Frick et al. (2010) defined a dismissal as "the result of a premature termination of a

contract of employment. It can be by mutual consent or without the explicit approval of both parties to the contract” (p. 151). Between Fredrickson et al. (1988) and Frick et al. (2010), there seems to be a difference of opinion with regard to the consent of the dismissed party. This difference of opinion may be cleared up through understanding the individual(s) who make dismissal decisions. Puffer and Weintrop (1991) explained board of directors are typically responsible for making CEO turnover decisions. For the similar position of head coaches in college football, it is the athletic director (Marburger, 2015).

Dismissals are a tool used to hold CEOs accountable (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993; Crossland & Chen, 2013). In making the decision to dismiss a CEO, a board must evaluate the ability of that CEO and sometimes compare that CEO's ability to that CEO's compensation in order to decide if the CEO is still valuable to the firm. Ertgrul and Krishnan (2011) stated boards of directors assess the ability of their CEOs by examining various facets of their work (e.g., investment proposals, strategy initiatives, short and long-term decisions). Borland and Lye (1996) argued board of directors will acquire private information on the CEO's ability. Since those stakeholders outside the firm typically do not have access to this private information, the market for CEOs will assume that CEOs retained by a firm are high-ability CEOs, which causes the CEOs wages to increase until the board of directors deems it unprofitable to retain the CEO relative to that CEO's ability (Borland & Lye, 1996).

Boards of directors appoint CEOs as leaders of their organizations to control and manage the outcomes of their organization (Soebbing & Washington, 2011). However, these organizational outcomes are often multidimensional which can be measured a variety of ways (e.g., stock price, sales growth, return on assets, profit; Day & Lord, 1988; Donohue, Reed, & Storrud-Barnes, 2007; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994). As a result of particular

organizational performance criteria, the overall consensus among scholars is poor performance results in higher dismissal probabilities (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994).

Though organizational performance is a significant factor, it has only been moderately effective in predicting dismissals (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Pitcher, Chreim, & Kisfalvi, 2000). For instance, Ertugrul and Krishnan (2011) found 49% of CEO dismissals occurred without evidence of poor stock performance in their industry which is one of many measures of organizational performance. Similarly, other scholars concluded organizational performance accounts for less than half of the variance in the dismissal decision (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Pitcher et al., 2000; Warner et al., 1988). Nevertheless, when a CEO is dismissed, a replacement is required whom is often promoted from lower managerial ranks (Foreman & Soebbing, 2015)

Managerial Promotions

A firm seeking a candidate to replace their CEO may choose to search for the replacement using several different criteria depending on the situation. These criteria may be based on whether to the firm should seek an internal candidate, a former CEO, a candidate with specific or general management experience, or a candidate whom possesses certain physical or personality traits. Different circumstances will dictate whom the board of directors will seek to replace the CEO.

When organizational performance within a firm is high, firms are more likely to promote top managers internally (Fee, Hadlock, & Pierce, 2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Furthermore, as time passes, more firms seek external candidates (Huson et al., 2001). The trend toward external hiring is likely a result of top internal candidates not having internal promotion opportunities because top management turnover in more successful firms is less likely (Fee et al.,

2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988), internal promotions in a given firm decrease the likelihood of future promotions within that firm (Acosta, 2010), and top candidates who are not promoted to CEO when opportunities arise often depart from the organization (Cannella & Shen, 2001).

Successors with more general management experience typically have more relevant expertise to CEO positions than executives from more specialized backgrounds such as marketing (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989). However, consistent with the idea that better performing firms have fewer opportunities for upward mobility (Fee et al., 2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988), non-former CEOs typically come from firms with better performance than successors with CEO experience (Elsaid, Wang, & Davidson, 2011). Nevertheless, the stock market reacts more favorably to firms that appoint former CEOs as opposed to successors with no CEO experience (Elsaid et al., 2011). Additionally, this positive reaction occurs despite the fact that former CEOs may be hindered by past experiences or reliant on past experiences that occurred in different contexts (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2015). Since the contexts changed, but the CEOs decisions are based on the old context, the new decisions may be detrimental to firm performance (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2015).

Top management promotion criteria may also be based on a candidate's physical or personality traits. For instance, hiring demographically homogenous candidates (i.e., candidates with the same demographic characteristics as the board of directors) increases acceptance and ease of communication (Kanter, 1977). Therefore, powerful people tend to promote people similar to themselves (Useem & Karabel, 1986; Zajac & Westphal, 1996).

One of the most studied physical characteristics examined by scholars in the fields of economics, management, and sociology is race (Cook & Glass, 2014; Kanter, 1977; Solow, Solow, & Walker, 2011). Overall, the consensus among the literature is there is a bias against

racial minorities in top management positions, sometime referred to as the glass ceiling (Cook & Glass, 2014; Kanter, 1977; Solow et al., 2011). However, many of the studies which have examined racial bias in the labor market rely on survey data or labor force statistics which may not accurately reflect the capabilities of candidates or data regarding the supply of applicants (Solow et al., 2011). Therefore, many scholars use sport as an empirical setting for examining racial discrimination in the labor market.

Sport as an Empirical Setting

A number of studies examined various issues of importance related to management, economics, organizations, and leadership using sport (Day et al., 2012; Kahn, 2000; Wolfe et al., 2005). Sport has been used to examining non-sport-related phenomena for either its data or unique context (Day et al., 2012; Wolfe et al., 2005). Data from the sport industry are particularly advantageous because sport provides an ample amount of observable and accurately measured individual and organizational performance data spanning extended time periods (Borland & Lye 1996; Day et al., 2012; Wolfe et al., 2005). Moreover, data from sport comes from a setting which often uses highly incentivized and motivated participants which is a limitation faced by many researchers conducting traditional laboratory research (Goff & Tollison, 1990).

Research on managerial turnover and promotions in the corporate world is one area where access to information is often limited or poorly measured (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Pitcher et al., 2000; Solow et al., 2011). However, sport has been used as a viable empirical alternative to managerial turnover and promotion studies conducted in corporate settings (Day et al., 2012; Holmes, 2011; Solow et al., 2011; Wolfe et al., 2005). Several studies examined racial discrimination in the labor market

using sport as an empirical setting (e.g., Braddock, Smith, & Dawkins, 2012; Holmes, 2011; Madden, 2004; Solow et al., 2011).

Holmes (2011) adapted Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) model of CEO dismissals to college football head coach dismissals. Within, Holmes (2011) incorporated organizational performance, along with three of Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) four socio-political forces, to a model of head coach dismissals. However, Fredrickson et al. (1988) warned "[t]hose interested in testing the present model should be aware that its *ceteris paribus* argument requires all variables to be included" (p. 268). The one socio-political force identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) that was missing in the Holmes (2011) model was the availability of qualified candidates to replace the CEO which was not present due to data limitations.

The empirical setting used in the dissertation is the National Football League (NFL). Given sociologists opine that sport reflects the greater society in which it exists, sport behaviors and practices seen in the NFL can also be observed in society (Coakley, 2015; Eitzen & Sage, 1997). For example, the implementation of the Rooney Rule in the NFL, which was established to provide minorities with more equal access to upper management positions, has been likened to affirmative action policies (Pike, 2011) and other organizational policies (Frier, 2015; Haselton, 2017). Another example comes from the NFL's personal conduct policy which is representative of a growing trend of organizations holding their employees accountable for deviant behavior committed within and outside the workplace (Lyons et al., 2016). Due to the availability of quality data from the NFL, combined with interesting policies established by the NFL, the NFL has proven an ideal setting for many labor and personnel studies that can be generalized to non-sport industries (e.g., Lyons et al., 2016; Madden & Ruther, 2010). The remainder of the

dissertation focuses on using data from the NFL to examine labor and personnel issues occurring within and outside sport.

Dissertation Chapters

To fulfill the three-paper dissertation format set forth by the School of Kinesiology and in accordance with the Graduate School, this dissertation explores three separate research questions to further understand the leadership activities of dismissal and promotion of the executives. Similar to Holmes' (2011) adaptation of the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model of CEO dismissals to football head coaches, I adapt the model for CEO dismissals to NFL head coaches in Chapter 2. In doing so, the focus is specifically on the pool of qualified candidates for head coaching positions. In Chapter 3, I propose a fifth socio-political force of deviance to be incorporated within the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model of CEO dismissals and empirically test the model, as well as an NFL policy change regarding deviant behavior, using data from the NFL. In Chapter 4, I examine determinants of coach promotions in the NFL, specifically focusing on issues of race and centrality. Finally, Chapter 5 summarizes the findings of the three studies within this dissertation while offering overall contributions, implications, and avenues for future research for practitioners and scholars.

CHAPTER 2

THE ROLE OF CANDIDATE AVAILABILITY IN CEO DISMISSALS: AN EXAMINATION OF THE NATIONAL FOOTBALL LEAGUE¹

Dismissing a chief executive officer (CEO) is a major event for an organization (Fredrickson, Hambrick, & Baumrin, 1988; Kesner & Sebor, 1994) and one of the most important actions a board of directors takes (Haleblian & Rajagopalan, 2006; Huson, Parrino, & Starks, 2001) as a CEO can represent part of the firm's strategic resources (Keller, 2014). Fredrickson, et al. (1988) defined a dismissal as involuntary, where "[...] the CEO's departure is ad hoc (e.g., not part of a mandatory retirement policy) and against his or her will" (p. 255). These CEO dismissals, and subsequent successions, may result in short-run financial losses for the firm and shareholders (Weisbach, 1988), long-run financial and organizational implications (Huson et al., 2001; Parrino, 1997), and organizational disruptions within the firm (Shen, 2003). In addition, "the dismissal of the CEO is particularly important to organizational theory because this form of succession most requires the understanding of organizational factors" (Fredrickson et al., 1988, p. 255).

Little is known about the factors influencing decisions to dismiss CEOs (Haleblian & Rajagopalan, 2006). Organizational performance is a significant factor, however, it has only been moderately effective in predicting dismissals (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Pitcher, Chreim, & Kisfalvi, 2000). Fredrickson et al. (1988) stated dismissing a CEO is not always a rational decision based on organizational performance and proposed a theoretical model for CEO dismissals incorporating socio-political constructs, those factors dealing with "interpersonal relations, coalitions, and power" (Fredrickson et al., 1988, p. 256). These

¹ This chapter previously appeared as Foreman & Soebbing, The Role of Candidate Availability in CEO Dismissals: An Examination of the National Football League, *Journal of Management Policy & Practice*, 2015. It is reprinted by permission of North American Business Press.

constructs identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) were the (a) board's expectations and attributions, (b) board's allegiances and values, (c) power of the incumbent CEO, and (d) availability of qualified candidates. Furthermore, they warned "[...] those interested in testing the present model should be aware that its *ceteris parabis* argument requires all variables to be included" (p. 268). Data limitations prevented many researchers from including all four socio-political constructs in their models, predominantly excluding the availability of qualified candidates (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993). Due to data limitations providing only partial empirical tests of the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model, "we are not yet in a position to test the whole model with large sample methods" (Pitcher et al., 2000, p. 626).

The purpose of this study is to empirically test the comprehensive Fredrickson et al. (1988) model, specifically examining the role of candidate availability in CEO dismissals. Candidate availability is differentiated from other proxies such as firm and industry size and utilizes findings from previous research to develop a measurement of actual qualified candidates to fill CEO vacancies. To test the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model, NFL head football coaching involuntary dismissals from 1978 through 2012 are examined. Previous research noted many similarities between the role and responsibility of an NFL head coach and a CEO (e.g., Ndofor, Priem, Rathburn, & Dhir, 2009). Estimating a logistic regression model, the present research finds candidate availability does not impact dismissals. This result challenges previous research using proxies for candidate availability which showed a significant impact. As a result, the present research contributes to the literature by challenging the existing literature regarding the role that candidate availability plays in regards to organizations deciding to dismiss their CEO.

Literature Review

Fredrickson et al. (1988) argued, in addition to organizational performance, socio-political factors help explain boards' decisions to retain or dismiss CEOs. Three of the four socio-political factors identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) have been examined extensively in the literature. Board's expectation, proxied by financial analysts' earnings and earnings per share forecasts, provided empirical evidence in support of CEO dismissals occurring after an organization, and by extension a CEO, achieves results which fail to meet expectations (Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991). Boards of directors who have allegiances toward CEOs will likely be less critical of the CEO's performance, especially for directors who appointed the CEO (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993). Additionally, longer tenures shared between the directors and the CEO result in enhanced trust, and therefore, stronger allegiances (Kosnik, 1990; Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). CEO dismissals were also less likely to occur when CEOs hold power in a firm, whether through ownership (Boeker, 1992; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1980), CEO duality (Wiersema & Zhang, 2011), or CEO tenure (Lausten, 2002).

The fourth socio-political factor identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) is the availability of qualified candidates. Fredrickson et al. (1988) theorized if a supply of qualified candidates exists to replace the incumbent CEO, a dismissal is more likely to occur, holding constant all other socio-political factors. Directly examining the link between candidate availability and CEO dismissals is a difficult task. The hiring process of firms is secretive, further limiting the abilities of researchers to examine its effect on dismissals (Tian, Haleblan, & Rajagopalan, 2011). Therefore, researchers examined the availability of qualified candidates by utilizing characteristics pertaining to country-specific industry and firm sizes (e.g., Crossland & Chen, 2013; Parrino, 1997) or omitted the variable altogether (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993).

One justification for excluding candidate availability from CEO dismissal models is the assumption that a Board of Directors would not dismiss a CEO if a pool of qualified candidates were not readily available (Crossland & Chen, 2013). Neglecting candidate availability in the CEO dismissal model by assuming Board of Directors competence challenges the framework and warning brought forth by Fredrickson et al. (1988). Furthermore, assuming Board of Directors' competence instead of including qualified candidate availability in a model can be challenged by the irrationality in the succession decision making process (Khurana, 2002). Another discrepancy in assuming the existence of a qualified candidate pool is the pool of candidates with the necessary leadership experience is limited and may be further limited when searching for candidates with experience within the particular industry (Davidson, Ning, Rakowski, & Elsaid, 2008).

Dalton and Kesner (1983) stated larger firms have more potential candidates. Therefore, it is commonplace for researchers to proxy for internal candidates availability by using measures of firm size such as number of employees in a firm (Farrell & Whidbee, 2003) or sales figures (Huson et al., 2001). These proxies often neglect the availability of external candidates and are highly correlated with other factors such as size of the Board of Directors (Huson et al., 2001), which may be linked to CEO dismissals due to decreases in profitability (Eisenberg, Sundgren, & Wells, 1998) or lack of consensus among directors (Pfeffer & Moore, 1980). Thus, these factors are not necessarily due to increased candidate availability.

Though many studies have either neglected candidate availability or attempted to proxy for candidate availability without examining the quantity of actual available and qualified candidates, researchers have been able to produce information regarding candidates for CEO vacancies. Parrino (1997) stated "CEOs at firms in homogeneous industries are more likely to be

forced from their positions and are more likely to be replaced by executives from other firms in their industries” (p. 195). Jalal and Prezas (2012) contributed to Parrino’s (1997) findings by revealing firms from larger industries (i.e., industries with larger numbers of firms) were more likely to appoint successors from within their industry. Greve (2009) stated the labor market for CEOs is a national one, prompting Crossland and Chen (2013) to operationalize the availability of qualified candidate in their international research to a country-specific candidate pool.

Previous research identified organizational performance, expectations, allegiances and values, CEO power, and candidate availability as possible causes of CEO dismissals. The availability of qualified candidates is often neglected in empirical models, however, variables such as firm size are used as a proxy which does not necessarily reflect availability. The NFL is examined to look at the role that candidate availability impacts decision to dismiss the CEO.

Empirical Setting

To test the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model, data on head coaching dismissals in the NFL from 1978 through 2012 is used. Fredrickson et al. (1988) compared NFL head coaches to CEOs in terms of tenure. Previous research cited the usefulness of data available using sport as an empirical setting to quantitatively examine economic and managerial theories and phenomena, with executive turnover and succession being a common area of research (Day, Gordon, & Fink, 2012).

Formed in 1920, the NFL grew to become the most popular professional sport in the United States. For the 2014-2015 season, the NFL has 32 teams in 30 U.S. Government defined Metropolitan Statistical Areas. According to *Forbes* magazine, the average franchise value for an NFL team in 2013 was \$1.17 billion. In terms of examining involuntary dismissals, the NFL provides homogenous industry (i.e., specific to elite football) in which firm sizes (i.e., rosters and

coaching staffs) are similar and industry size is relatively stable (28 teams in 1976 to 32 teams in 2014). Contrary to other industries, the league, its member clubs, and its coaches represent a relatively closed group of individuals whereas one does not see a movement out of the industry (e.g., football coach to automobile company) compared to other industries.

Method

To examine coaching dismissals in the NFL, secondary data are utilized covering a sample period from the 1978-1979 season through the 2012-2013 season regarding head coach turnover and team and coach characteristics. The unit of observation is a team-season. The 35 season sample period yields 1,041 team-season observations. The binary dependent variable of involuntary dismissal (*DISMISS*) was coded with the value of 1 if the head coach who began the season was involuntarily dismissed from the team's head coach position. To decipher whether a coach left voluntarily or involuntarily, a review of newspaper articles was utilized through Factiva (academic license) where key terms synonymous with *fired*² were used to separate voluntary from involuntary dismissals.

Independent Variables

The independent variables revolve around the pool of available and qualified candidates who would be likely replacements for a dismissed head coach. Most NFL head coach successors are already employed by an NFL team as offensive and defensive coordinators. In addition, former NFL head coaches who departed from their previous position are also available to be hired (Mielke, 2007; Solow, Solow, & Walker 2011). As a result, variables for available and qualified candidates for both NFL coordinators and former NFL head coaches are used. The assumption made in the present research is NFL offensive and defensive coordinators aspire to

² Other keywords used to differentiate dismissals from voluntary departures were dismissed, ousted, and forced to resign.

secure NFL head coaching positions, and are, therefore, available per the criteria established by Fredrickson et al. (1988). Fee, Hadlock, and Pierce (2006) found NFL coordinators promoted to NFL head coaches were often high performing individuals on high performing teams. Therefore, NFL coordinators are deemed to be available and qualified if they meet both of the following criteria. First, in the observed season, they were on a team which exhibited sustained organizational performance defined by an average team winning percentage within the top 20 percent of the NFL (which would be the top six teams in the current NFL structure, including any additional teams who are tied for a top six position) over the three year period prior to the observed season. Second, in the observed season, their team had a top 20 percent offense (defense) in terms of points scored (allowed). If an offensive (defensive) coordinator satisfies both of these criteria, he is included in the offensive and defensive coordinator pool (*OCDCPOOL*).

For the pool of available and qualified former head coaches, head coaches who were involuntarily dismissed (e.g., did not retire or otherwise voluntarily leave the organization) in the observed or previous season and who were not hired as head coaches at the end of the observed season are considered to be available candidates for head coaching positions. Since former head coaches already demonstrated their abilities as head coaches, and some of the uncertainty associated with promotions is reduced (Longley & Wong, 2011), coaches can be evaluated based on their head coaching performance. Former head coaches are identified as qualified if they: (a) had more winning seasons (i.e., full seasons in which they won more games than they lost) than non-winning seasons or (b) won more than half of their games in their career as a head coach. If a former head coach is available, qualified, and involuntarily dismissed in the previous season, he is included in the *PREVYRHC* pool of candidates and if the available, qualified head coach

was dismissed in the observed season, he is included in the *CURRYRHC* pool of candidates.³ For teams dismissing their winning head coach during the season, one candidate is subtracted from *CURRYRHC* since the dismissing team is not likely to rehire the same head coach dismissed during the observed season. The three aforementioned independent variables (i.e., *OCDCPOOL*, *PREVYRHC*, and *CURRYRHC*) are tabulated to form a fourth variable, the entire NFL head coach candidate pool (*CANDPOOL*).

Control Variables

To control for other confounding factors, 21 control variables are utilized. These control variables fall into the following categories: (a) organizational performance, (b) the other three socio-political factors identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) (i.e., expectations and attributions, values and allegiances, and incumbent power), (c) candidate-related controls, (d) ownership types, and (e) demographic variables. Regular season winning percentage in the observed season (*WINPCT*) is used to measure organizational performance.

Expectations can be based on previous organizational performance, which may have established a standard for the organization, as well as current expectations. Performance expectations are modeled in two ways. The first way is based on historical organizational performance similar to Holmes (2011), accounting for performance in terms of regular season win percentage from the previous season ($WINPCT_{j-1}$), two seasons prior to the observed season ($WINPCT_{j-2}$), and three through 10 seasons prior to the observed season ($WINPCT_{j-3 \rightarrow 10}$). For teams which have not been in existence one, two, or three years prior to the observed season, the observation is removed from the sample. For $WINPCT_{j-3 \rightarrow 10}$, if a team has not been in existence

³ There was no significant difference between the raw number of fired head coaches and the number of head coaches standardized by the number of teams per season.

for the full 10 years prior to the observed season, the average for the available years in that time span is used.

The second way looks at evaluations by outside individuals. In non-sport businesses, these expectations generally come from outside investment analysts (Puffer & Weintrop, 1991). These outside analysts provide estimates regarding key performance measures and “mediate information flows between companies and other market participants who may invest in or do business with these firms” (Pollock & Gulati, 2007, p. 347). Previous research found upper managers of organizations not performing relative to the expectations are more likely to be dismissed (e.g., Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991).

To model outside performance expectations, the percentage of regular season games a team covered against the point spread as established by the betting markets (*COVERATS*) is used. A point spread is a prediction regarding the closeness of the game when including all relevant information (Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw, 2010). Despite various biases found in betting markets (e.g., sentiment bias), point spreads are still efficient predictors of actual game outcomes (Sauer, 1998). In addition, unlike non-sport CEOs who actively manage external performance expectations (Farrell & Whidbee, 2003), NFL coaches do not actively manage point spreads.

Frederickson et al. (1988) noted that board’s allegiances and values were also important indicators of a CEO dismissal. Board’s allegiances and values are operationalized in three ways. The first allegiances and values variable accounts for the observed head coach’s win percentage against conference opponents which was also used by Holmes (2011). Due to the scheduling differences between college football and the NFL, examining games against division opponents in the NFL would be highly correlated with overall winning percentages since for a large portion of this sample, half of a team’s opponents were from within their division. Another allegiances

and values variable Holmes (2011) used was a bowl games variable which subtracts the number of bowl game losses from bowl game. Holmes found this variable to be statistically insignificant. Bowl games, which are postseason games typically played by highly visible and top performing college teams, are similar to playoff games in the NFL. A head coach's playoff success in this study was calculated in the same fashion as in the Holmes model with playoff losses subtracted from playoff wins (*PLAYOFFS*).

The board of directors makes the CEO dismissal decisions (Mintzberg, 1983). Therefore, if a relationship has been established and concurrent tenures have forged a partnership in which both parties have agreed on the desired direction of the organization, allegiances will be strong and CEO dismissal will be less likely (Mizruchi, 1983; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980). To model this relationship, Holmes (2011) used a dichotomous variable indicating if the college had a new athletic director. Athletic directors are responsible for making personnel decisions in athletic departments such as the dismissal of a head coach (Marburger, 2013). In the NFL, a general manager who may also be responsible for personnel decisions regarding the hiring and firing of athletes (Brown, Farrell, & Zorn, 2007). Instead of using a dichotomous variable to establish whether a new general manager was hired for an observed season, the present research uses a variable that subtracts the number of seasons the general manager has been employed by the team from the number of seasons the head coach has been employed by a team (*HCGMDIFF*).

The remaining major factor influencing CEO dismissal according to Fredrickson et al. (1988) is incumbent power. In the NFL, it is possible for the head coach to hold an additional position within the organization which allows him to make direct decisions on matters such as the hiring and firing of athletes such as a general manager or director of player personnel position. A dichotomous variable (*DUALROLE*) in this study is used to identify whether a head

coach has this additional role and is coded with the value of 1 if he does have a dual role.

Fredrickson et al. (1988) also stated that, due to the increasing power of the CEO over time, there is an inverse relationship between CEO tenure and the likelihood of dismissal. Therefore, a variable for head coach tenure (*TENURE*) is included. Additionally, to account for a possible reluctance to dismiss a CEO with less than one year of tenure, a dichotomous variable indicating whether a CEO is in his first year (coded with the value of one) or not (coded with the value of zero) is included in the models (*FIRSTYR*).

To separate the effects of the candidate pool independent variables from often used proxies such as firm size, a firm size variable is included in the models (*FIRMSIZE*).⁴ *FIRMSIZE* is the size of the market for the metropolitan statistical area population (in millions) of the organization. Since the independent variables of interest measure the supply of qualified candidates available for head coach positions, it is also important to control for candidate demand. Consistent with Allen and Chadwick (2012), the number of head coaching vacancies in the observed season (*OPENINGS*) is included, regardless of head coach departures.⁵ This approach prevents artificially inflating the correlation among the observations with dismissals.

Different types of ownership structures can result in distinct variations in the organizational decision-making process. Carroll (1984) suggested founders of organizations typically possess characteristics which guide their decision-making differently from their successors. Andres (2008) reinforced the idea that founders operate differently by examining differences between founding-family owned organizations and family owned organizations

⁴ Another often used proxy for candidate availability is industry size. The number of franchises in the NFL was included as a control variable, but since the number of franchises remained relatively constant (only varying from 28 to 32) in the sample period and the variable is statistically insignificant and did not alter the other variable coefficients in terms of sign and significance, the variable was excluded from the model.

⁵ For the observations in which a dismissal is recorded, the *OPENINGS* variable consists of the number of vacancies minus the vacancy which is a result of the observed dismissal.

which were not founders. Therefore, a dichotomous variable indicating whether an owner was the original owner of the organization (*ORIGINAL*) is included in the model. This variable is coded with a value of 1 for original owners and 0 otherwise.

Though Fredrickson et al. (1988) focused on publicly owned organizations, the unique data set in the present study incorporates publicly owned, consortium owned, sole proprietor owned, and family owned organizations. As stated previously, different ownership structures may cause an organization to behave differently (Winfrey & Rosentraub, 2012). Thus, four dichotomous and mutually exclusive ownership variables are used in the model with the reference group being franchises that are publicly owned. The majority owner of each observed franchise is categorized as either owners by consortium (*CONSORT*), single owners (*SINGLE*), or family owners. Acknowledging the first generation of family ownership may be significantly different from subsequent generations (Villalonga & Amit, 2006), family owners are partitioned into the first generation of family ownership (*FIRSTGEN*) and subsequent generations of family ownership (*SUBGEN*). Data on ownership types were gathered from online media sites, which identified majority and original owners (primarily through pro-football-reference.com). Once majority owners were identified, media sites were used to best decipher whether the majority owner was a sole owner, consortium owner, first generation owner, or subsequent generation owner.

The final two control variables are demographic variable for the age of the head coach (*AGE*) and whether the head coach is a visible racial minority (*MINORITY*). The minority status of head coaches in relation to dismissals has been examined in previous research regarding NFL head coach employment opportunities (Holmes, 2011; Solow et al., 2011).

Model

The model takes the broad form:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{DISMISS}_{ij} = & \beta_1(\text{INDVAR})_{ij} + \beta_2(\text{WINPCT})_{ij} + \beta_3(\text{WINPCT})_{i(j-1)} + \beta_4(\text{WINPCT})_{i(j-2)} + \\ & \beta_5(\text{WINPCT})_{i(j-3 \rightarrow 10)} + \beta_6(\text{COVERATS})_{ij} + \beta_7(\text{PLAYOFFS})_{ij} + \beta_8(\text{DIVISION})_{ij} + \\ & \beta_9(\text{HCGMDIFF})_{ij} + \beta_{10}(\text{HCOWNDIFF})_{ij} + \beta_{11}(\text{DUALROLE})_{ij} + \beta_{12}(\text{TENURE})_{ij} + \\ & \beta_{13}(\text{FIRSTYR})_{ij} + \beta_{14}(\text{FIRMSIZE})_{ij} + \beta_{20}(\text{OPENINGS})_{ij} + \beta_{15}(\text{ORIGINAL})_{ij} + \beta_{16}(\text{SINGLE})_{ij} + \\ & \beta_{17}(\text{CONSORT})_{ij} + \beta_{18}(\text{FIRSTGEN})_{ij} + \beta_{19}(\text{SUBGEN})_{ij} + \beta_{21}(\text{MINORITY})_{ij} + \beta_{22}(\text{AGE})_{ij} + e_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

where i indicates team, j indicates season, and e is the error term. Since the dependent variable (*DISMISS*) is a dichotomous variable, discrete estimation techniques such as logit and probit should be used (Maddala, 1983). In the present study, a logistic regression model is estimated.

Estimation Issues

The correlation coefficients between each of the variables in the model were examined to look for multicollinearity. None of the coefficients exceeded the standard threshold of 0.8, indicating that multicollinearity is not an issue (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A Hausman test was conducted and indicated controlling for random effects was more appropriate than fixed effects.

In addition, some team-season observations are eliminated in the present research. Some teams have not been in the NFL for at least three seasons. The 1978 observations from the Tampa Bay Buccaneers and Seattle Seahawks were removed due to being established in 1976 and not having sufficient data for $\text{WINPCT}_{j-3 \rightarrow 10}$. Sufficient data were also not available for $\text{WINPCT}_{j-3 \rightarrow 10}$ for the Carolina Panthers or Jacksonville Jaguars in 1995, 1996, and 1997 since their first NFL season was in 1995. Similarly, the Cleveland Browns emerged again in 1999 and the Houston Texans' first season was in 2002, so each of these teams is missing data for

$WINPCT_{j-3 \rightarrow 10}$ for the first three seasons of their respective existences. As a result of these eliminations, the final sample has 1,027 team-season observations.

Results

Summary statistics revealing the means and standard deviations of the dependent variable, independent variables, and control variables are exhibited in Table 2.1. In this sample, the average annual dismissal rate was 15.1%. An average of five coordinators and one dismissed

Table 2.1
Summary Statistics

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Median
DISMISS	0.151	0.358	0	1	0
OCDPOOL	5.022	1.527	1	9	5
PREVYRHC	1.246	1.131	0	4	1
CURRYRHC	0.339	0.675	0	3	0
CANDPOOL	6.608	2.098	1	13	6
WINPCT	0.501	0.188	0.000	1.000	0.500
WINPCT _{j-1}	0.502	0.188	0.000	1.000	0.500
WINPCT _{j-2}	0.502	0.189	0.000	1.000	0.500
WINPCT _{j-3→10}	0.496	0.117	0.000	0.786	0.494
COVERATS	0.513	0.119	0.188	0.875	0.500
PLAYOFFS	0.455	2.257	-4	12	0
DIVISION	4.101	12.979	-18	67	2
HCGMDIFF	-2.316	7.295	-45	22	0
HCOWNDIFF	-14.844	16.567	-83	24	-11
DUALROLE	0.136	0.343	0	1	0
TENURE	3.467	4.279	0	28	2
FIRMSIZE	4.309	4.196	0.220	19.832	2.857
OPENINGS	5.828	2.251	1	11	6
ORIGINAL	0.202	0.401	0	1	0
SINGLE	0.394	0.489	0	1	0
CONSORT	0.219	0.414	0	1	0
FIRSTGEN	0.213	0.410	0	1	0
SUBGEN	0.139	0.346	0	1	0
PUBLIC	0.034	0.182	0	1	0
MINORITY	0.097	0.297	0	1	0
AGE	50.559	6.867	32	72	50
N=1,027					

head coach from the previous season were identified as for the proxy of being available and qualified for a head coach position. About one head coach per three seasons who was dismissed within the season fit the criteria of being a qualified head coach candidate.

Table 2.2 displays the random effects logistic regression results. In Table 2.2, five different models estimations are displayed. The first three models include only one of the three elements of the candidate pool explained earlier in this article. The fourth model includes each candidate pool qualification. The final model includes a combined count of these three elements. The independent variables of interest *OCDCPOOL*, *PREVYRHC*, and *CANDPOOL* have negative coefficients and are statistically insignificant in each of the models. On the other hand, *CURRYRHC* has a positive coefficient, but is also statistically insignificant.

Table 2.2
Logistic Regression Results; Dependent Variable is DISMISS

Variable	OCDCPOOL Model	PREVYRHC Model	CURRYRHC Model	All Pools Model	CANDPOOL Model
OCDCPOOL	-0.052 (0.070)	--	--	-0.055 (0.071)	--
PREVYRHC	--	-0.067 (0.097)	--	-0.043 (0.100)	--
CURRYRHC	--	--	0.156 (0.152)	0.153 (0.155)	--
CANDPOOL	--	--	--	--	-0.030 (0.052)
WINPCT	-6.194*** (0.893)	-6.149*** (0.893)	-6.165*** (0.891)	-6.162*** (0.893)	-6.177*** (0.893)
WINPCT _{j-1}	-0.638 (0.729)	-0.638 (0.730)	-0.652 (0.729)	-0.616 (0.731)	-0.638 (0.730)
WINPCT _{j-2}	0.917 (0.641)	0.890 (0.643)	0.877 (0.642)	0.874 (0.642)	0.912 (0.642)
WINPCT _{j-3→10}	1.331 (1.120)	1.310 (1.120)	1.333 (1.117)	1.385 (1.120)	1.316 (1.120)
COVERATS	-2.431** (1.211)	-2.453** (1.208)	-2.453** (1.209)	-2.457** (1.212)	-2.438** (1.209)

(Table 2.2 continued)

Variable	OCDPOOL Model	PREVYRHC Model	CURRYRHC Model	All Pools Model	CANDPOOL Model
PLAYOFFS	-0.231*** (0.077)	-0.226*** (0.077)	-0.224*** (0.077)	-0.230*** (0.078)	-0.229*** (0.077)
DIVISION	-0.044*** (0.017)	-0.044*** (0.017)	-0.044*** (0.017)	-0.045*** (0.017)	-0.044*** (0.017)
HCGMDIFF	-0.032** (0.014)	-0.031** (0.015)	-0.033** (0.014)	-0.032** (0.015)	-0.032** (0.015)
HCOWNDIFF	-0.006 (0.009)	-0.006 (0.009)	-0.005 (0.009)	-0.006 (0.009)	-0.006 (0.009)
DUALROLE	-0.432 (0.352)	-0.443 (0.351)	-0.460 (0.350)	-0.428 (0.353)	-0.435 (0.353)
TENURE	0.102** (0.046)	0.103** (0.046)	0.104** (0.046)	0.102** (0.046)	0.102** (0.046)
FIRSTYR	-1.511*** (0.358)	-1.488*** (0.357)	-1.496*** (0.357)	-1.493*** (0.358)	-1.502*** (0.357)
FIRMSIZE	-0.020 (0.027)	-0.022 (0.027)	-0.021 (0.027)	-0.020 (0.027)	-0.021 (0.027)
OPENINGS	0.010 (0.047)	<0.001 (0.049)	-0.004 (0.049)	-0.009 (0.050)	0.008 (0.047)
ORIGINAL	-0.285 (0.298)	-0.275 (0.297)	-0.264 (0.297)	-0.293 (0.299)	-0.281 (0.298)
SINGLE	0.263 (0.794)	0.266 (0.797)	0.174 (0.794)	0.269 (0.801)	0.272 (0.799)
CONSORT	0.723 (0.869)	0.718 (0.870)	0.602 (0.868)	0.707 (0.876)	0.733 (0.874)
FIRSTGEN	0.245 (0.815)	0.240 (0.815)	0.158 (0.814)	0.245 (0.819)	0.250 (0.818)
SUBGEN	0.140 (0.892)	0.147 (0.894)	0.012 (0.889)	0.143 (0.902)	0.155 (0.900)
MINORITY	0.111 (0.367)	0.129 (0.367)	0.126 (0.367)	0.129 (0.367)	0.117 (0.367)
AGE	0.013 (0.015)	0.013 (0.015)	0.014 (0.015)	0.014 (0.016)	0.013 (0.015)
Constant	0.442 (1.554)	0.340 (1.540)	0.297 (1.535)	0.509 (1.554)	0.397 (1.552)
Random Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Notes: Standard errors are in parentheses. **p<.05; ***p<.01

In all five models, the variables *WINPCT*, *COVERATS*, *PLAYOFFS*, *DIVISION*, *HCGMDIFF*, and *FIRSTYR* all have negative and statistically significant coefficients. *TENURE* is also statistically significant in each of the models, but has a positive coefficient. All of the measures of previous winning percentages, *HCOWNDIFF*, *DUALROLE*, *FIRMSIZE*, *OPENINGS*, all of the ownership types, and both demographic variables were statistically insignificant in all five models.

Robustness Checks

Several robustness checks were conducted to analyze the robustness of the findings presented in Table 2.2, especially in relation to the independent variables. Various other measures were utilized in an attempt to objectively identify and accurately measure the pool of candidates such as college coaches who were ranked in the top five of the team rankings and under the age of 50 years old, top offensive coordinators who worked under head coaches from defensive-minded backgrounds and vice versa, all head coaches who were dismissed the year prior who were unable to secure head coaching positions in the observed year rather than just those with winning records, and all head coaches who were dismissed during the observed season rather than just those with winning records. Other control variables were included in the model such as tenure squared, organization age, season (i.e., year), dummy variables for major institutional changes within the NFL (i.e., the salary cap⁶ and the Rooney Rule⁷), and a count of voluntary exits in the season. None of these variations significantly altered coefficient magnitudes or statistical significance of the independent or control variables which provides evidence for the robustness of the results presented in Table 2.2.

⁶ The salary cap was instituted in 1993 and set limits on how the collective salary of the team which could be paid by an NFL franchise.

⁷ The Rooney Rule was instituted in 2003 and requires NFL teams to interview at least one minority candidate for head coaching vacancies (Solow et al., 2011).

Discussion

Understanding the socio-political determinants of CEO dismissals is an important area of research (Fredrickson et al., 1988). The focus of the present study was to use the framework provided by Fredrickson et al. (1988) to develop a comprehensive model for dismissals which included the availability of qualified candidates by identifying actual candidates rather than a proxy for the variable such as firm or industry size. Previous research guided the formation of a pool of available and qualified candidates to quantify the degree to which candidate availability increased the likelihood of CEO dismissals. Additionally, other factors pertinent to CEO dismissal decisions were identified such as ownership types were included in this study.

Whether estimating regression models to examine the impact of each of the independent variables separately, together, or all combined in a single variable, the availability of qualified candidates, as defined in the present study, has no statistically significant effect on the likelihood of a CEO being dismissed. Furthermore, with one exception, each of the independent variables measuring candidate pools had negative coefficients which, if statistically significant, would be counterintuitive since previous literature states candidate pools and CEO dismissals should have a positive relationship (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Parrino, 1997). The statistically insignificant findings challenge the previous research which used firm and industry size to proxy for candidate availability. The insignificant results may also be a reflection of candidate pools which include unqualified candidates or exclude qualified candidates, or the irrationality of decision makers in the CEO dismissal process.

The candidate pools were proxies for dismissed CEOs and promising top managers who could likely be promoted to fill a CEO vacancy. Though necessary measures were taken to determine which candidates would be included within the candidate pools, it is probable that

candidates were included in the pool that was not being considered for any CEO vacancies, and conversely, there were candidates being considered for vacancies who were not included in the pools. However, the extent to which these instances occurred are unknown since data are limited with the information pertaining to team's candidate list. One factor which could have significantly affected the candidates being considered to fill vacancies is the preferences of the firm and possible CEO-firm matches. Fee et al. (2006) found no statistically significant difference in promotion rates between offensive and defensive coordinators, however, Solow et al. (2011) noted "[b]eing an offensive coordinator increases the probability of promotion...although [the effect is] small and only marginally significant" (p. 335). Perhaps certain firms will be more inclined to hire a specific type of CEO, whether the criterion is based on the executive's specialty, strategic philosophy, or what type of CEO the predecessor was.

Another possible explanation for the null results of the independent variables, and the explanation most supported by previous literature, is the idea of decision makers behaving irrationally. Boards of directors have been known to behave irrationally when dismissing CEOs by not acting in the best interest of the firm. These irrational decisions may come at the detriment of organizational performance (Fredrickson et al., 1988) and may not have included a complete set of information on which to base these important decisions (Khurana, 2002). Therefore, boards of director may dismiss CEOs without having a sufficient pool of candidates to secure a proficient successor.

The *FIRMSIZE* variable was also statistically insignificant in this study. Though previous studies have found significant results for this variable, the differences in the observed industries and proxies are likely the cause for the differences in results. Firms within the NFL are relatively homogenous in terms of the number of the CEOs oversees. Therefore, firm size is

largely controlled for already. In comparison to the studies which have used firm revenues as measures of firm size and therefore candidate availability, the proxy used in the present study may not be representative of firm revenues due to unique attributes of the NFL such as revenue sharing. Furthermore, even if revenue was an adequate proxy for firm size in the NFL, the data are not publicly available. Even though firm size was not measured in this study, the relative homogeneity of firms within the NFL virtually controls for this factor.

Despite evidence indicating ownership structures affect decision making, no evidence exists in the context of the present study to support this claim. This lack of supporting evidence may be attributed to the varying degrees of involvement in decision making from the firm ownership. Some NFL owners may play an active role in the decision to retain or dismiss CEOs, whereas other owners may leave this decision entirely to the discretion of general managers. The lack of owner involvement by at least some organizations may have contributed to the statistically insignificant coefficients for the *HCOWNDIFF* variable when the *HCGMDIFF* variable was significant.

The regression models did, however, produce statistically significant results for organizational performance as well as at least one variable representative of each of the other three sociopolitical factors identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988). Table 2.3 presents the actual change in the probability of dismissal. As shown in Table 2.3, going from the worst organizational performance to the best organizational performance, within the scope of this sample, decreases the likelihood of CEO dismissal by 62%, with all other variables held constant at their means. Organizational performance accounts for the most substantial change in CEO dismissal likelihood. The second most substantial factor is that of CEO tenure which, according to Fredrickson et al. (1988), represents both the board's allegiances and values and the

incumbent CEO's power socio-political constructs. CEOs with 28 years of tenure within an organization results in a 42% increase in the likelihood of dismissal when compared to a CEO with less than one year experience. This positive relationship between CEO tenure and likelihood of dismissal is contrary to the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model for CEO dismissals, however, it is a relationship found in similar studies (Holmes, 2011). Differences among previous literature and the present study may be attributable to the inclusion of a variable in the present study which measures difference in tenure between the head coach and board of directors. The coefficient on this variable is negative and significant indicating an increase in CEO tenure, relative to board of director tenure, decreases the probability of CEO dismissal. This variable represents incumbent CEO power and reduced the likelihood of dismissal by 19% when examining the difference between the maximum years of CEO tenure less board tenure (i.e., 22 years) and the minimum years of CEO tenure less board tenure (i.e., 45 years) in this sample.

The other significant variables representing the board's allegiances and values were measures of career success against close rival and elite competitors. A CEO with the maximum success against close rivals realizes a 16% decrease in dismissal likelihood when compared to a CEO with the minimum success against close rival competitors in this sample. Similarly, a CEO with the most success against elite competitors can expect a 17% decrease in the likelihood of dismissal relative to the least successful CEO in terms of competing against elite rivals. These two board allegiances and values variables are consistent with previous literature stating the more a CEO embodies characteristics valued by the board of directors, the less likely a CEO dismissal will occur. The only statistically significant variable representing the board's expectations was that of the expectations of the observed year (i.e., not expectations based on

previous organizational performance). A CEO who meets or exceeds expectations the most in this sample experiences an 11% decrease in dismissal probability compared to a CEO who most infrequently meets or exceeds expectations.

Table 2.3
Change in Dismissal Probability as Values Move from Minimum to Maximum

Variable	<i>OCDCPool</i> Model	<i>PREVYRHC</i> Model	<i>CURRYRHC</i> Model	All Pools Model	<i>CANDPool</i> Model
OCDCPool	-0.027	--	--	-0.029	--
PREVYRHC	--	-0.018	--	-0.011	--
CURRYRHC	--	--	0.035	0.035	--
CANDPool	--	--	--	--	-0.023
WINPCT	-0.620	-0.616	-0.617	-0.615	-0.619
WINPCT _{j-1}	0.042	0.042	-0.043	0.040	0.042
WINPCT _{j-2}	0.060	0.059	0.058	0.057	0.060
WINPCT _{j-3→10}	0.062	0.061	0.062	0.064	0.061
COVERATS	-0.111	-0.112	-0.112	-0.112	-0.111
PLAYOFFS	-0.167	-0.164	-0.163	-0.166	-0.166
DIVISION	-0.160	-0.161	-0.161	-0.161	-0.161
HCGMDIFF	-0.192	-0.188	-0.200	-0.194	-0.189
HCOWNDIFF	-0.050	-0.047	-0.037	-0.045	-0.048
DUALROLE	-0.024	-0.025	-0.026	-0.024	-0.025
TENURE	0.428	0.431	0.438	0.423	0.429
FIRSTYR	-0.070	-0.070	-0.070	-0.069	-0.070
FIRMSIZE	<-0.001	-0.025	-0.024	-0.023	-0.024
OPENINGS	0.006	<0.001	-0.003	0.006	0.005
ORIGINAL	-0.017	-0.017	-0.016	-0.017	-0.017
SINGLE	0.017	0.018	0.011	0.018	0.018
CONSORTIUM	0.060	0.056	0.045	0.054	0.057
FIRSTGEN	0.017	0.016	0.011	0.017	0.017
SECONDGEN	0.010	0.010	<0.001	0.010	0.011
MINORITY	0.007	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.008
AGE	0.034	0.034	0.036	0.036	0.033

Conclusion

This research examined the role of candidate availability in CEO dismissal decisions by examining NFL head coaching dismissals. The present study offered an original perspective on candidate availability in which candidates were viewed as individuals available for CEO vacancies rather than being proxied by industry or firm sizes. The unique sample of data were able to control for both industry and firm size further isolating the effects of the candidate pools. The null findings contribute to the extent literature by challenging the effect of candidate availability on CEO dismissals and providing guidance on identifying candidate pools. Organizational theorists are encouraged to build upon this study to further evaluate the effect of candidate pools separate from firm and industry size.

The present study is not without its limitations. One limitation faced revolves around how the candidate pools were measured and the boards of directors make their decisions. Limited information is available regarding which candidates are interviewed to potentially fill CEO vacancies. Furthermore, the criteria used by boards of directors to evaluate and select candidates are not disclosed to the public. Future research can work towards reducing these limitations by searching through media sources to identify which candidates were actually interviewed for which vacancies to determine how firms decide who to interview and ultimately who they select. A component of this may incorporate board's allegiances and values in determining the pool of candidates. Future research could also examine if the caliber of candidates influences decisions rather than limiting the candidate pool to a count of available and qualified candidates. Future research can examine whether boards dismiss CEOs based on herd behavior in which boards decisions are based on the actions of boards at other firms (Banerjee, 1992). Finally, future research could build on the role of ownership structures in CEO

dismissals, specifically examining the role of ownership structure and involvement in CEO dismissal decisions.

CHAPTER 3

EXECUTIVE DEVIANCE AS A SOCIOLPOLITICAL FORCE IN CEO DISMISSALS

Within Chapter 2, Fredrickson, Hambrick, and Baumrin (1988) provided a theoretical framework for understanding CEO dismissals. They defined a dismissal as “a situation in which the CEO’s departure is ad hoc (e.g., not part of a mandatory retirement policy) and against his or her will” (Fredrickson et al., 1988, p. 255). These complex events are not solely based on the organization’s performance, but also on sociopolitical forces which span several domains including the expectation of the organizational performance, the CEO’s power within the organization, coalitions formed, and relations with others (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Chapter 2 analyzed the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model, paying particular attention to the role candidate availability plays in the dismissal or retention of a CEO.

Absent from Fredrickson et al.’s (1988) model and subsequent research is a discussion regarding the impact of executive or employee deviance on CEO dismissals. This absence is particularly interesting because executive deviance is a force that affects and is effected by interpersonal relations, coalitions, and power; thus making it a sociopolitical force that may contribute to CEO dismissals (e.g., Gangloff, Connelly, & Shook, 2015; Haynes, Josefy, & Hitt, 2015; Khanna, Kim, & Lu, 2015; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013).

The purpose of this chapter is to understand executive deviance as an additional mediating sociopolitical force in the model of CEO dismissals. Executive deviance is a subset of elite deviance and encompasses executives own deviance but also the deviance of subordinates. In addition to understanding the mediating role that deviance plays in the dismissal decision, the present study explores how an institutional policy pertaining to the personal conduct of employees potentially moderates the relationship that deviance plays in executive dismissals.

To study these relationships, the present study uses data regarding coaching dismissals from the National Football League from 2000 through 2016. During this sample period, not only are data on deviance inside and outside of the workplace available, but the league also instituted and modified a personal conduct policy outlining punishments for acting in such a way that is detrimental to the league.

To analyze coaching dismissals, the present research estimates a hazard model. The results indicate dismissals of executives based on executive deviance are not limited to the direct deviant actions of the executive, but also the deviant behaviors of subordinates within a given executive's organization. Empirical support indicates head coaches are held responsible for deviance committed by players when the players' actions result in team consequences. However, following a policy modification emphasizing personal conduct in which team consequences are more prevalent following acts of deviance, head coaches may be able to forestall their dismissal by using player suspensions as an excuse for poor performance. Furthermore, prior to the institutional emphasis on personal conduct, head coaches were more likely to be retained if they had deviant players, however, after the increased emphasis on personal conduct, head coaches were more likely to be dismissed when players were being fined or incurring on-field penalties for their deviant actions. Therefore, head coaches may be able to strategically utilize deviant behaviors and the PCP modification to forestall their dismissal.

The findings in the present study make a number of contributions. First, while previous research explored various elements of employee and organizational deviance and misconduct (e.g., Lyons et al., 2016; Michalak & Ashkanasy, 2013; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), limited research explores the reactions by internal and external stakeholders to these behaviors. While Barnett (2014) explored the complexity related to the punishment of stakeholders, he noted that

“stakeholders’ attention is directed in certain ways that bound where they look, limit what they notice, bias their assessment, and constrain their willingness to act” (p. 694). As such, my findings explore many of these bounds.

Second, previous research explored the role of social control agents as it relates to deviance and misconduct among individuals and organizations (e.g., Greve, Palmer, & Pozner, 2012). While social control agents have the legitimate authority to define specific conduct as right or wrong, little is known how misconduct or deviance defined by the social control agent is reacted to by other top executives. The present study examines reactions of executive dismissal decision makers to deviance committed within and outside the organization and finds the likelihood of executive dismissals to increase following instances of deviance committed by the executive, subordinates engaging in job duties, and subordinates outside the workplace.

Finally, the findings are important for scholars examining corporate governance or leader turnover because an understanding of the effects of leader turnover must begin with an understanding of the causes (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Both scholars and practitioners can benefit from the present study when considering the effects, whether intended or unintended, of implementing a policy emphasizing personal conduct within organizations.

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

The “most theoretically interesting type of CEO exit is the dismissal” (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009, p. 168). Understanding the limited role of organizational performance in executive dismissal decisions, Fredrickson et al. (1988) developed a model consisting of four sociopolitical forces in combination with organizational performance to provide a comprehensive theoretical model of CEO dismissals. The first sociopolitical force they presented was the effect of the board of directors’ expectations and attributions of the

CEO's performance on CEO dismissals (Fredrickson et al., 1988). The rationale behind this sociopolitical force is simple: a CEO's probability of dismissal increases with the board's beliefs that the CEO can affect performance and perform at a high level. The second sociopolitical force identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) was the boards' allegiances and values. Because the board of directors decides whether to dismiss or retain a CEO (Puffer & Weintrop, 1991), and may be motivated by self-interest (Fredrickson et al., 1988), they may choose to retain (dismiss) a poor (high) performing or low (high) ability CEO based on their individual interests or pressures they may face to make a particular decision (Mintzberg, 1983). These biases, both conscious and unconscious, affect the perspectives of board members as they seek information regarding the CEO's performance and ability (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993; Dahl, 1994; Fredrickson et al., 1988). These self-interest directed CEO dismissal decisions may be based on how the CEO will affect directors' fees, the overall personal wealth of the director, the status and reputation of the director, or directors' various relationships (including the relationship with the CEO; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) third sociopolitical force was the availability of qualified candidates to replace the CEO. Fredrickson et al. (1988) reasoned the CEO dismissal decision was at least partly contingent upon the pool of available and qualified candidates whom could replace the CEO. Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) fourth sociopolitical force in their CEO dismissal model is the incumbent CEO's power. A CEO's power may be derived from numerous sources including personal characteristics (e.g., charisma, prestige, founding CEO), control over resources (e.g., key relationships, intellectual property), and voting control (Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Using Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) model, several scholars empirically investigate the components. Puffer and Weintrop (1991) concluded CEO dismissals to be more affected by gaps in financial analysts' earnings expectations and actual earnings than by organizational performance. Boeker (1992) found when an organization is exhibiting low organizational performance, directors whom were more closely tied to the organization and CEO were less likely to dismiss the CEO. Following Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) assertion that industry size represents available candidates to replace an executive, Crossland and Chen (2013) found boards of directors of poor performing firms to be more inclined to dismiss a CEO when the CEO labor market is more developed (e.g., more firms in the industry). Finally, CEO power was analyzed in terms of experience in the upper echelons of corporate structures and found to assist CEOs in protection from dismissal (Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994; Hambrick & Fukutomi, 1991; Ocasio, 1994).

Within sport, several studies incorporate some of or all the sociopolitical forces outlined by Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) research. Holmes (2011) examined college football head coach dismissals using three of Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) four forces of CEO dismissals, excluding the availability of qualified candidates due to data limitations. Holmes (2011) found negative relationships between head coach dismissals and head coach experience as well as post-season and rivalry game victories. Consistent with Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) proposition that prior organizational performance is a determinant of executive expectations, Holmes (2011) found a negative relationship between past organizational performance and head coach dismissals. Similarly, using the NFL salary cap as a proxy for performance expectations, Allen and Chadwick (2012) found head coaches experience a higher probability of dismissal since the salary cap was instituted. Though focused on the role of organizational structures and candidates

available to replace NFL head coaches on head coach dismissals, Foreman and Soebbing (2015) empirically examined all four of Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) socio-political forces of executive dismissal. However, Foreman and Soebbing (2015) discovered no evidence to support their hypotheses of organization structures or candidate availability influencing head coach dismissals.

In addition to the socio-political forces identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988), Holmes (2011) included a measure of deviance in the dismissal decision, namely, sanctions imposed on the program from a college football governing body. He observed infractions increased the probability of head coach dismissal. However, research regarding the effect executive deviance, whereby executives are responsible for their own deviance as well as the deviance of their subordinates (Simon & Eitzen, 1990), has on dismissals is limited. At face value, the allegiances and values force within Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) model may seem to encompass deviant behavior, however, allegiances and values do not refer to moral values or laws within the legal system, but to relationships between the board of directors, the CEO and the CEO's predecessor. Therefore, the present study proposes the addition of a fifth socio-political force, executive deviance, to the Fredrickson et al. model of CEO dismissals.

Executive Deviance

Corporate scandals and routine wrongdoing within firms are acts of elite deviance which includes financial, physical, or morally harmful behavior committed by elites and members of their organizations (Bangwanubusa, 2009; Simon & Eitzen, 1990). The term elite may identify people who possess elite skills or knowledge within their respective industries or societies and may be considered elite due to their high ability, status, wealth, or position (Bangwanubusa, 2009). Additionally, some elites belong to more than one of these categories, such as wealthy and influential celebrity executives (Bangwanubusa, 2009; Hall, Blass, Ferris, & Massengale,

2004; Simon, 1996). The focus of the present research is on a subset of elite deviance, namely executive deviance, whereby executives are responsible for their own deviance and the deviance of their subordinates. Furthermore, executive deviance may be committed while acting on behalf of the organization or while off-duty (Lyons et al., 2016). Within the literature on executive deviance, there are three areas of deviance important to the present study. These areas are outlined below.

Workplace Deviance of Executives. Michalak and Ashkanasy (2013) defined workplace deviance as “a form of behavior that violates organizational norms and that consequently negatively impacts the well-being of the organization and its members” (p. 20). Workplace deviance is detrimental to organizations in several ways, including damaged reputations, exposure to lawsuits, and financial loss (Dilchert, Ones, Davis, & Rostow, 2007; Litzky, Eddleston, & Kidder, 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Of the organizations faced with the aforementioned consequences of workplace deviance, executives are often responsible for several reasons such as often being directly involved with deviance or at least being aware of the deviant activities occurring within the organization (Beasley, Carcello, & Hermanson, 1999; Michel, Heide, & Cochran, 2014; Simon & Eitzen, 1990). Furthermore, executives are not only responsible for their organizations public image and financial position, but the top executives within an organization are also the most likely people within in that organization to engage in deviant acts (Daboub et al., 1995; Litzky et al., 2006).

Anecdotally, several accounts of workplace deviance committed by top executives led to dismissals at organizations such as Enron, WorldCom, and HealthSouth (Lease, 2006). Furthermore, empirical support establishing a relationship between executive deviance committed directly by the top management team and executive dismissals has been established

by a number of researchers (e.g., Gomulya & Boeker, 2015; Khanna et al., 2015; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013). Wiersema and Zhang (2013) found CEO dismissal likelihood to increase instances of stock option backdating, a specific form of executive deviance committed directly by the top management team. The likelihood of dismissal following instances of stock option backdating was further increased by the pervasiveness of the deviance and the media attention devoted to the deviance (Wiersema & Zhang, 2013).

Khanna et al. (2015) examined fraud measured by instances of CEOs being named as respondents in lawsuits pertaining to corporate fraud. They found, following instances of corporate fraud, stronger relationships with boards of directors can decrease the likelihood of CEO dismissal. However, relationships between boards of directors and CEOs often become strained following instances of executive deviance (Gomulya & Boeker, 2015). Due to the substantial implications of deviance and the often direct responsibility of top management in their organization's workplace deviance and the effect of deviance on relationships between boards of directors and CEOs, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1. Workplace deviance committed by an organization's top management team increases the likelihood of CEO dismissal.

Workplace Deviance of Employees. Even when top executives were not charged with a criminal violation or did not directly engage in wrongdoing, they were often aware of the illegal activities (Daboub et al., 1995; Litzky et al., 2006). Additionally, top executives establish the culture, incentives, and reporting procedures which not only influence the ethical conduct of subordinates, but also help to reduce the link between the top executives and the unethical behavior (Daboub et al., 1995; Ferrell & Ferrell, 2011; Litzky et al., 2006).

Due to the leadership and responsibilities of CEOs, they may be held accountable for the transgressions of their subordinates and organization (Daboub et al., 1995; Simon, 1996). In the Volkswagen scenario, the CEO was forced to resign as a result of workplace deviance committed by subordinates (Puzzanghera & Hirsch, 2015). Executives may be held accountable for the deviant behaviors of their organizations because they are often held responsible for establishing the culture of their organization and disciplining subordinates (Daboub et al., 1995; Lease, 2006; Litzky et al. 2006, Lyons et al., 2016; Zahra et al., 2005). Furthermore, executives may be used as scapegoats following instances of workplace deviance committed by employees, despite evidence that the CEO did not contribute nor had knowledge of the misconduct (Gangloff et al., 2015).

Deviance among employees may be categorized in two, often very different, types of deviance: minor workplace deviance and serious workplace deviance (Litzky et al., 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The distinction between minor and serious violations is essentially a distinction between poor ethical behavior and minor policy violations, as opposed to more severe and excessive behavior which may even result in physical harm (Litzky et al., 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Furthermore, some instances of workplace deviance could be acts committed by subordinates under the direction of executives (Daboub et al., 1995; Zahra et al., 2005), whereas other transgressions result from behavioral issues, which often are a result of environmental and leadership issues within the organization (Litzky et al., 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2. Minor workplace deviance committed by organizational members under the direction of a given CEO increases the likelihood of that CEO's dismissal.

Hypothesis 3a. Serious workplace deviance that is attached with a punishment only for the individual deviant actor increases the likelihood of CEO dismissal.

Hypothesis 3b. Serious workplace deviance resulting in punishment that impacts the function of the organization increases the likelihood of CEO dismissal.

Off-Duty Deviance. Lyons et al. (2016) defined off-duty deviance (ODD) as “behaviors committed by an employee outside the workplace or off-duty that are deviant by organizational and/or societal standards, jeopardize the employee’s status within the organization, and threaten the interests and well-being of the organization and its stakeholders” (p. 464). Research regarding ODD and its implications is limited, despite over 10% of Fortune 500 companies publicly provide information on their websites regarding their company ODD policies – and likely many more companies provide this information via internal documents (Lyons et al., 2016). Of the organizations that provided justification for company ODD policies, 82.8% of the organizations identified the reputation of the organization as a justification for the policies, however, several other justifications were provided such as employee safety or ability to perform at work. Given that executives are ultimately responsible for their organizations’ reputations and subordinates’ work performance, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4. Off-duty deviance committed by organizational members under the leadership of a given CEO increases the likelihood of that CEO’s dismissal.

In summary, executive deviance can be partitioned into three types: workplace deviance by executives and top management teams, workplace deviance by employees, and off-duty deviance. Figure 3.1 outlines these types along with the associated hypotheses. The present study uses data from the NFL to test these hypotheses as well as the moderating relationship of the league’s policy governing personal conduct.

Empirical Setting

Head coaches in professional and amateur sports leagues around the world have been a popular profession to study managerial and organizational theories and phenomenon, including issues of succession such as dismissals (Day, Gordon, & Fink, 2012; Frick, Barros, & Prinz, 2010; Wolfe et al., 2005). Both Soebbing et al. (2015) and Soebbing, Wicker, and Watanabe (2016) outlined some of the commonalities between head coaches and non-sport executives, including decisions regarding on-field tactics and off-field administration of players and members of the coaching staff. In addition, head coaches must operate within hierarchical organizational structures (Brown, 1982; Keidell, 1987; Maxcy, 2013) where they are responsible for optimizing performance while being constrained by resources and rules (Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Rowe, Cannella, Rankin, & Gorman, 2005). These factors are particularly true for NFL coaches, who both hire and delegate responsibilities to coordinators and assistant coaches under their authority (Ndofor, Priem, Rathburn, & Dhir, 2009). Thus, examining head professional football coaches represents an interesting setting to explore the likelihood of dismissals. Furthermore, the NFL adopted and modified its policy regarding personal conduct of employees. This policy is explained below.

NFL Personal Conduct Policy

NFL Commissioner Paul Tagliabue (1989-2006) implemented a Personal Conduct Policy (PCP) in 2000 to deter off-field deviance in response to negative public attention from the media, fans, and politicians (Benedict & Yaeger, 1998; Edelman, 2008). However, research reviewing the PCP noted many limitations and viewed the policy as insignificant in deterring behavior (e.g., Mahone, 2008). For example, Mahone (2008) discussed that the policy was constructed to allow the commissioner to punish an individual only after all the legal proceedings had

concluded for an incident (e.g., trial and appeal) and the individual was found guilty. He concluded that the initial policy not only failed to deter behavior but also protect the overall image of the league (Mahone, 2008).

Since current Commissioner Roger Goodell was appointed in 2006, he placed an increased emphasis on NFL personnel (i.e., players, coaches, team staff, team owners, and administrators) conducting themselves properly off the field (Ambrose, 2007). In response to growing concerns regarding NFL personal conduct deemed detrimental to the league, a modified PCP was adopted in April 2007 (Mahone, 2008). The modified policy provided the commissioner with the power to act unilaterally to punish any person associated with the league if his/her conduct was deemed to harm the brand of the league in the eyes of the public and stakeholders, regardless of criminal charges being filed (Ambrose, 2007).

While much of the research directly examining the NFL's PCP examined the policy and commissioner power from a legal perspective (e.g., Mahone, 2008), recent empirical research looked at the impact the policy plays in team decisions. Allen (2015) examined rookie NFL Draft positions and the number of days veterans spent on the free agent market. Results from his research indicated neither a rookie nor a veteran's personal conduct impacts draft position or days on the free agent market, respectively. Palmer, Duhan, and Soebbing (2015) also looked at the impact personal conduct had on NFL rookies' draft positions. Their findings suggest players who were in trouble the year prior to the draft were selected lower in the draft. This result was particularly true for players labeled as defensive skill players. The league's increased efforts to police off-field personal conduct provide an interesting dynamic to empirically examine how off-field player misconduct impacts dismissals of head coaches. Given the increased media attention devoted to personal conduct and increased emphasis on holding personnel accountable in the

NFL, dismissal decisions based on executive and employee deviance may be more prevalent starting in the 2007-2008 season than in seasons prior.

Football coaches engaged in deviant acts including the promotion of dangerous behavior and violations of public trust (Ambrose, 2007; Coakley, 2015; Harary, 2002; Kidwell, 2004). For example, violating public trust involves falsifying injury reports and violating league rules that are intended to deter unfair competitive advantages (e.g., unapproved surveillance of opponents; Ambrose, 2007; Mahone, 2008; Statz, Cordell, Ham, Karcher, & Shukie, 2007). In the corporate world, executives are more likely to be dismissed for similar acts of executive deviance in regards to violations of public trust, such as releasing deceptive financial documents (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013). Coaches typically promote dangerous behavior in two ways: by engaging in violent or aggressive acts themselves or condoning dangerous acts committed by subordinates. For example, New Orleans Saints' Defensive Coordinator Gregg Williams coordinated an incentive system whereby players received bonuses for injuring opponents (Pfleegor, 2013). Though these incidents may initially result in fines if discovered by the league, evidence from the corporate world indicates dismissals may eventually occur, particularly in the wake of a modified policy regarding personal conduct (Haynes, Josefy, & Hitt, 2015; Karpoff, Lee, & Vondryk, 1999; Khanna, Kim, & Lu, 2015; Persons, 2006).

Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 5. Deviance committed by the team's coach and its staff will increase the likelihood of a CEO dismissal following a change in the corporate personal conduct policy.

Due to the leadership and responsibilities of CEOs, they may be held accountable for the transgressions of their subordinates and organization (Daboub et al., 1995; Simon, 1996).

Notably in sport, coaches rewarded and coerced players to engage in deviant acts which often lead to fines or suspensions by the NFL (Ambrose, 2007; Harary, 2002; Pfleegor, 2013). Furthermore, the NFL's PCP may raise additional concern and emphasis on employee deviance in the workplace. Thus,

Hypothesis 6. Minor workplace deviance committed by organizational members under the direction of a given CEO increases the likelihood of that CEO's dismissal following a change in the corporate personal conduct policy.

Hypothesis 7a. Serious workplace deviance that is attached with a punishment only for the individual deviant actor increases the likelihood of CEO dismissal following a change in the corporate personal conduct policy.

Hypothesis 7b. Serious workplace deviance resulting in punishment that impacts the function of the organization increases the likelihood of CEO dismissal following a change in the corporate personal conduct policy.

In the NFL, issues regarding off-field behavior of players have become increasingly salient for the league and its teams (Ambrose, 2007; Statz et al., 2007). A study by Benedict and Yaeger (1998) of the 1996-1997 NFL season found 21 percent of NFL players sampled were either arrested or indicted for a minimum of one crime in which the authors determined was a serious crime. Ambrose (2007) commented that the perception in the 1990s was that "'murder' was the only criminal offense said to bar an athlete from playing in the NFL" (p. 1071).

Recent research examined trends in player off-field misconduct and their impacts on players and organizations. Leal, Gertz, and Piquero (2015) compared player arrest rate to the arrest rate of the general population by three types of crime: property, public order, violent. Their findings indicated the arrest rate for NFL players for what they determined as property and

public order crimes were lower than the general population, while violent crime arrest rate was higher compared to the general population. Subsequent research by Leal, Gertz, and Piquero (2016) found that a small percentage of NFL players were arrested multiple times over a 14 year period (2000 to 2014). Those players that were repeatedly arrested, however, generally engage in violent crimes compared to players who are only arrested once during the sample period. As per performance impacts, Stair, Mizak, Day, and Neral (2008) found the number of player arrests did not impact organizational performance measured by the number of regular season wins. Weir and Wu (2014) found a player's deviance in the final year of college may have an adverse effect on draft position. Once in the NFL, they found that arrests where the player was subsequently not charged along with the total arrests (regardless of if they were charged with an offense) had a positive effect of the number of starts per season in the NFL. Specifically for running backs and wide receivers, total arrests led to an increase in total yards per season and touchdowns.

Operating in contrast to league policies, some coaches have discussed, condoned, and even encouraged criminal activity off the field (Ambrose, 2007; Harary, 2002). Due to the increased concern among the league and teams regarding negative publicity (Ambrose, 2007; Statz et al., 2007) in combination with the role of the coach to instill discipline within the organizational culture of the team (Harary, 2002; Seifried, 2008; Statz et al., 2007), the transgressions of players occurring outside the workplace may result in the dismissal of a head coach. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 8. Deviance committed by the team's players outside the workplace will increase the likelihood of CEO dismissal following the modification of the corporate personal conduct policy.

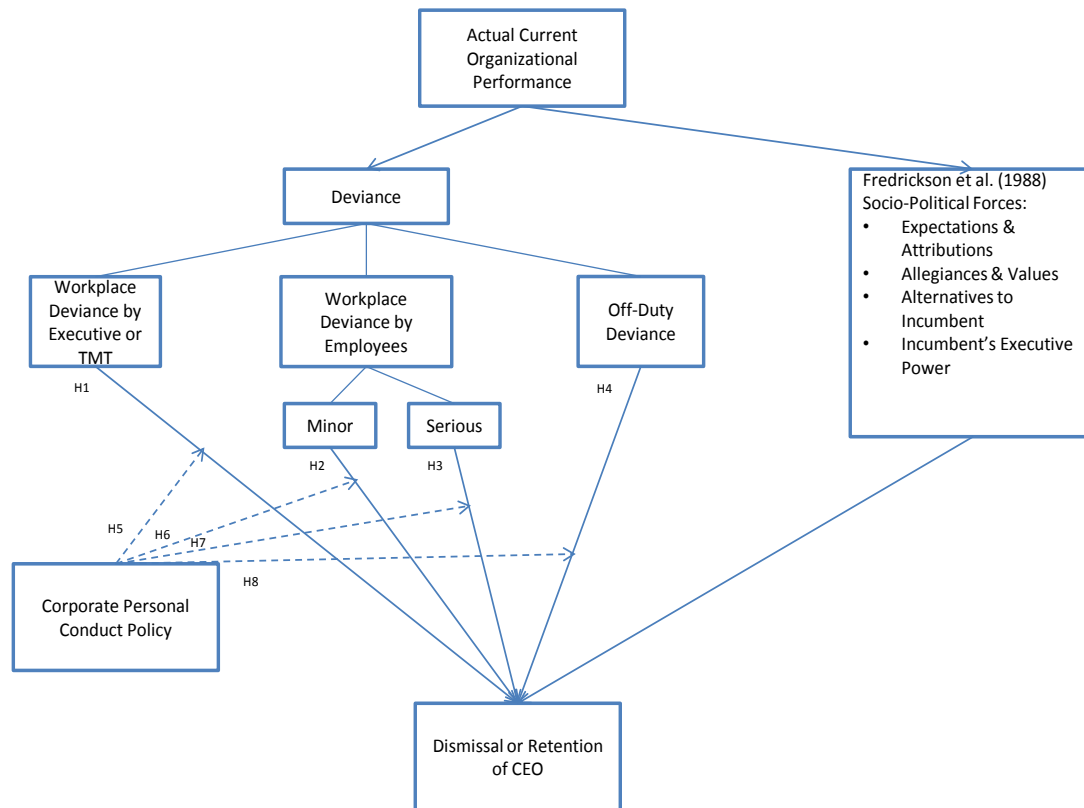


Figure 3.1. Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

In summary, literature and empirical evidence suggest deterring deviance is important to organizations and the organizational leader, or in the sport team context, the head coach, is responsible for deviance committed by organizational members (Lyons et al., 2016; Statz et al., 2007; Seifried, 2008). Given the wealth of attention devoted to post-succession organizational performance in Sport Management (e.g., Dohrn et al., 2015; Roach, 2016; Soebbing et al., 2015), there is a need to understand dismissal causes prior to understanding their effects (Fee et al., 2006; Maxcy, 2013). Within the literature, there is limited examination regarding deviance as a potential dismissal determinant (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Ferrell & Ferrell, 2011; Kidwell, 2004; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013), and the presence of institutional policies which may be

affecting the deviance dismissal relationship (Lyons et al., 2016). The present study hypothesizes expected behavior covering these two areas. These hypotheses are tested below.

Method

To examine the impact of executive deviance on CEO dismissals, the present research examines NFL head coach dismissals from the 2000-2001 season through the 2015-2016 season. The unit of observation is a team-season. For each of the 16 seasons, there is one observation per team that creates a unit observation of a team-season. Each of the current 32 NFL teams were active throughout this 16 season period with the exception of the Houston Texans—a franchise which was established in the 2002-2003 season. Therefore, the 16 season sample period yields 510 team-season observations. To best account for when a given executive is responsible for a given organization, a team-season begins the day following the previous season's final game and ends the final day of the observed season due to head coach turnover often occurring around the final game of a team's season. Therefore, team-season observations will be longer for teams with post-season games.

Dependent Variable

The dichotomous dependent variable is whether the head coach of the team-season was dismissed (*DISMISS*), which is coded with the value of 1 to represent a head coach dismissal and 0 otherwise. To determine if a head coach was dismissed, I examine whether there was a change in head coach after the beginning of the observed season and prior to the beginning of the first regular season game of the following season. If the head coach of the observed season is different from the head coach of the following season, a head coach departure is noted. To determine whether the departure was voluntary or involuntary (i.e., a dismissal), a review of

newspaper articles was conducted through Factiva (academic license) where key terms such as *fire, oust, dismiss, or forced resignation* were used to indicate a dismissal.

Independent Variables

To isolate the effects of executive deviance from the other four sociopolitical forces of CEO dismissals, the present research utilized data regarding (a) workplace deviance committed directly by the executives, (b) workplace deviance committed by employees, and (c) off-duty deviance committed by employees. The data are aggregated for team-season units of observation.

Hypothesis 1 examines deviance of the management staff. To identify deviance committed by the coaching staff, I use the total amount of monetary fines assessed against the team's coaching staff by the National Football League standardized by season (*CFINEAMT*). To standardize the *CFINEAMT* variable by season, the mean coaching fine amount during the season in which the observation took place is subtracted from the observed coaching fine amount. Then, the difference is divided by the mean coaching fine amount during the season, thus creating a standardized variable. These fines can be attributed to various transgressions including verbal and physical altercations, falsifying injury reports, or off-field criminal activity. By standardizing the independent variables by season, comparisons may be made across seasons and variations in independent variables over time, such as increases in fines, can be analyzed within the context of the seasons in which they occurred.

Hypothesis 2 examines minor workplace deviance. To examine minor workplace deviance, penalties yards for the observed team are used and standardized by season (*PENYDS*). Data regarding penalty yards were obtained from *Pro Football Reference* (i.e., <http://www.pro-football-reference.com/>). Hypotheses 3a and 3b examine serious workplace deviance. To

examine serious workplace deviance committed by players whereby only the individual player is affected by the punishment (H3a), player fines are included in the model and measured using the total dollar amount of monetary fines resulting from league violations for all the players on the team (*PFINEAMT*). Similarly, serious workplace deviance committed by players with punishments having the potential to affect the performance of the organization (H3b) are measured by player suspensions using the total weeks players of a team were suspended due to violating league rules (*SUSPWKS*). Data regarding player fines and suspensions were collected from the same sources as the coaching fine data (i.e., <http://www.justfines.com/> and <http://www.sportrac.com/>). Like *CFINEAMT*, both *PFINEAMT* and *SUSPWKS* are standardized by season.

Hypothesis 4 examines employee behavior outside of the workplace measured by the total number of separate player incidents with law enforcement officers (*LAW*). To examine outside of the workplace behavior, data were collected on all off-field player incidents through the *San Diego Union Tribune* website. The website recorded any player incidents beyond a standard parking violation. These incidents were confirmed and checked through various other secondary sources including national and local newspapers as well as sport websites such as ESPN.com to ensure the completeness of the database. Similar to the variables regarding on-field incidents, the total number of separate player incidents for the team are used and standardized by season (*LAW*).

To examine the PCP's impact on deviance and executive dismissals, the variable *GOODELL* is incorporated into the present research. This variable is coded 1 for the 2007-2008 season and subsequent seasons, and 0 for seasons prior to the 2007-2008 season. This variable is then interacted with the above deviance variables. To test hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8, the variables

CFINGOOD, *PFINGOOD*, *SUSPGOOD*, *PENGOOD*, and *LAWGOOD* are used respectively.

Control Variables

Consistent with previous theoretical and empirical research involving executive and coaching dismissals, numerous control variables are included in the present study to control for organizational performance, socio-political factors, and other demographic characteristics. As recent head football coach dismissal models used (e.g., Foreman & Soebbing, 2015; Holmes, 2011), I control for current organizational performance using regular season winning percentage in the observed season (*WINPCT*). In addition to overall regular season performance, I also look at the performance against close rivals (*DIVISION*) and in the postseason (*PLAYOFFS*). Following previous studies, *DIVISION* and *PLAYOFFS* are measured by subtracting career division or playoff losses from career division or playoff wins, respectively (Foreman & Soebbing, 2015; Holmes, 2011).

Per the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model for CEO dismissals, each of the four socio-political forces are accounted for in the present model. Expectations and attributions are modeled by past organizational performance and evaluations by external analysts. Past organizational performance is measured using regular season win percentages from the previous season ($WINPCT_{j-1}$), two seasons prior to the observed season ($WINPCT_{j-2}$), and the mean of three through 10 seasons prior to the observed season ($WINPCT_{j-3 \rightarrow 10}$; Foreman & Soebbing, 2015; Holmes, 2011). External analysts' expectations are measured by the percentage of regular season games a team covered against the point spread in the observed season (*COVERATS*; Foreman & Soebbing, 2015; Humphreys, Paul, & Weinbach, 2016; Soebbing et al., 2015).

Allegiances and values are modeled by the relationship between the executive and the executive dismissal decision maker (Fredrickson et al., 1988). To operationalize this relationship

in professional football, I use the number of seasons the general manager (GM) and the head coach have worked together (*HCGMTOG*). *HCGMTOG* may also decrease the likelihood of dismissals resulting from deviance (Khanna et al., 2015).

Alternatives to the incumbent executive are modeled using Foreman and Soebbing's (2015) proxy of qualified NFL head coach candidates (*CANDPOOL*). I operationalize the candidate pool as a count of current offensive/defensive coordinators and former head coaches whom exhibited either recent or career-long success in terms of points scored/allowed for coordinators and winning seasons for former head coaches (see Foreman & Soebbing, 2015 for a more detailed discussion).

Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) final socio-political force is incumbent power. Fredrickson et al. (1988) stated CEO power increases over time and cited experience as a CEO as a determinant of CEO power which decreases the probability of dismissal. Therefore, the years of experience as an NFL head coach (*NFLHCEXP*) is included in the present model. Additionally, to control for the reluctance of decision makers to dismiss new leaders (Foreman & Soebbing, 2015) an indicator variable is included in the model which is coded 1 for head coaches in their first year with the team and 0 otherwise (*FIRSTYR*). Lastly, many head football coach dismissal studies examined demographic characteristics of head coaches (e.g., Audas, Goddard, & Rowe, 2006; Madden & Ruther, 2010; Volz, 2009). Therefore, demographic variables such as age (*AGE*) and visible racial minority status (*MINORITY*) are included in the model.

Empirical Specification

To examine whether changes in an institutional policy regarding executive deviance impact the likelihood of executive dismissal, the present research follows previous head coach dismissal models (e.g., Holmes, 2011; Volz, 2009) in using survival analysis to examine NFL

head coach dismissals from the 2000-2001 season through the 2015-2016 season. Survival analysis has many benefits over cross-sectional and panel data when examining factors that change over time and their effects on the likelihood of an event occurring over time. For example, cross-sectional and panel data approaches are limited in their abilities to establish direction of causality, examine the time associated with reaching an event (e.g., dismissal), or estimate the function of the relationship between time and the dependent variable following a change in the independent variable (Blossfeld, Golsch, & Rohwer, 2007). However, similar studies examining determinants of leader dismissals used limited dependent variable models, such as logit, probit, and tobit models (Wiersema & Bowen, 2009). Therefore, a probit model is estimated so results can be compared between the two techniques, but the results and discussion will focus primarily on the survival analysis results.

The unit of observation in survival analysis is an episode occurring prior to the event. However, when using time-dependent independent variables, episodes may be split into shorter durations (Blossfeld et al., 2007). Therefore, to account for independent and control variables changing within a coaching episode in the present study, coaching episodes are split into NFL seasons and the unit of observation will be a team-season. Within the 16-season sample period, 505 team-season observations exist.

The dismissal hazard function takes the following form:

$$h(t) = h_0(t)\exp(\beta_0 + \beta_1\mathbf{X}_{it} + \beta_2\text{GOODELL} + \beta_3\mathbf{X}_{it}\text{GOODELL}_t + \beta_4\mathbf{Z}_{it} + \theta_t)$$

where i indexes individual coaches, t indexes seasons, and θ denotes season fixed effects. The vectors \mathbf{X}_{it} and \mathbf{Z}_{it} represent vectors of independent and control variables, respectively, and θ_t denotes season fixed effects.

Estimation Issues

There are several estimation issues to acknowledge and potentially correct. To ensure the use of season fixed effects was appropriate for the analysis, the Wald test was used to test the collective statistical significance of each season fixed effect and the result indicated season fixed effects are statistically significant (i.e., $p < 0.01$) and appropriate for the analysis. The second estimation concern is multicollinearity, which I examine in two ways. An examination of the correlation coefficients between each of the variables in the model were found to not exceed 0.7, indicating there is no need to omit variables to correct for multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, none of the variance inflation factors for the independent and control variables exceeded a value of six. This result further indicates multicollinearity is not an issue of concern in this model (Menard, 2002).

Finally, I estimate parametric hazard models with exponential, Weibull, and Gompertz distributions as well as a semi-parametric Cox proportional hazard model. These estimations are consistent with previous research by Volz (2009). To determine the most appropriate model, I perform graphical checks of the models' pseudo residuals against the Cox-Snell residuals and find the difference in residuals to be minimized under the Weibull distribution, indicating the Weibull distribution provides the best fit for the data in the given model (Blossfeld et al., 2009).

Results

Table 3.1 reports the descriptive statistics for each of the variables in the model. In this sample, 17.6% of head coaches were dismissed. Within the sample period, 57% of the observations occurred after the implementation of Goodell's PCP. Among the independent variables, the mean fine amount attributable to the coaching staff, adjusted for inflation and

reported in 2015 dollars, is \$2,650 with a maximum of \$571,561.¹ Among the observations in the sample, 95.6% had no coaching fines.

The mean player fines accrued by a team in the sample in 2015 dollars is \$225,866 with a maximum of \$5,267,276 and 31.3% of the observations had no player fines. The mean number of weeks players on a given team were suspended is 2.5, with a maximum of 48, and 65.3% of the observations had no player suspensions. The mean number of penalty yards in the sample is 843 with a minimum of 418 and a maximum of 1,313 yards. The mean number of legal incidents in which players of a given team were involved is 1.6, with a maximum of 10, and 25.9% of observations had no players involved in legal incidents.

Exploring the performance, sociopolitical and demographic variables, average regular season winning percentage is 0.502 with the coaches in the sample winning an average of three divisional games. On average, head coaches and GMs worked together for 2.45 seasons. The average age of head coaches is 51 and they have an average of 5.5 years of head coaching experience. In the sample, 16% of head coaches are visible racial minorities.

Table 3.2 presents the results. Within Table 3.2, a probit estimation is included for comparison against the survival analysis results. For the purposes of the present research, the survival results will be the ones used for interpretation and discussion. Hypothesis 1 looked at deviance of the head coach and top management team, operationalized by coaching fines. The results indicate a positive and statistically significant effect on head coach dismissals. Thus, one can fail to reject Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 examines minor workplace deviance through the

¹ Monetary fines were transformed to account for inflation by calculating the real value of the fines in 2015 dollars based on the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) urban consumers price index (CPI-U) non-seasonally adjusted annual average. See http://www.bls.gov/regions/midwest/data/consumerpriceindexhistorical_us_table.pdf

Table 3.1
Summary Statistics ($n=505$)

Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Median
DISMISS	Head coach is dismissed (1=dismissed)	0.176	0.381	0	1	0
GOODELL	Goodell's personal conduct policy in effect (1=in effect)	0.570	0.496	0	1	1
CFINEAMT	Sum of coaching staff fines standardized by season	<0.001	0.744	-0.393	5.480	-0.177
PENYDS	Sum of penalty yards standardized by season	-0.004	0.988	-3.151	3.012	-0.071
PFINEAMT	Sum of player fines standardized by season	<0.001	0.985	-1.275	5.249	-0.301
SUSPWKS	Sum of weeks players were suspended standardized by season	0.001	0.928	-0.958	5.292	-0.240
LAW	Sum of legal incidents involving players standardized by season	-0.003	0.979	-1.522	3.751	-0.284
WINPCT	Team win percentage in observed season	0.502	0.193	0	1.000	0.500
DIVISION	Head coach's career division wins less losses	3.350	9.161	-16	46	2
PLAYOFFS	Head coach's career playoff wins less losses	0.537	2.425	-7	13	0
WINPCT _{$j-1$}	Team win percentage in previous season	0.502	0.192	0	1.000	0.500
WINPCT _{$j-2$}	Team win percentage two seasons prior	0.501	0.193	0	1.000	0.500
WINPCT _{$j-3 \rightarrow 10$}	Mean team win percentage from 3 to 10 seasons prior	0.497	0.106	0.125	0.789	0.500
COVERATS	Percent of games team covered against the spread	0.511	0.118	0.188	0.875	0.500
HCGMTOG	Years head coach and GM simultaneously employed by team	2.450	2.807	0	15	1
CANDPOOL	Estimated count candidates to replace head coach	7.626	1.868	5	11	7
NFLHCEXP	Years of NFL head coach experience	5.568	5.209	0	22	4
FIRSTYR	Head coach s in first year with team (1=first year)	0.214	0.410	0	1	0
AGE	Current age of head coach	51.123	6.783	32	69	51
MINORITY	Head coach is a visible minority (1=minority)	0.160	0.367	0	1	0

accumulation of penalty yards. Penalty yards do not have a statistically significant effect on head coach dismissals, thus, Hypothesis 2 is rejected.

Hypothesis 3 separates serious workplace deviance into penalties associated only with the individual (H3a) and penalties associated with the organization (H3b). The present study uses player fines to operationalize Hypothesis 3a, which has a negative and statistically significant effect on head coach dismissals. Thus, Hypothesis 3a is rejected. Player suspension weeks are used to operationalize penalties that can hurt the organization. Results from Table 3.2 show that player suspensions have a positive and statistically significant effect on head coach dismissals. As a result, one can fail to reject Hypothesis 3b. Finally, Hypothesis 4 examines players' off-duty deviance measured by the cumulative number of player run-ins with law enforcement officers. These incidents are not statistically significant, thus, Hypothesis 4 is rejected.

Hypotheses were also developed to understand the potential changes that the NFL's Personal Conduct Policy has on the decision to dismiss head coaches due to deviance by players, coaches, and the coaching staff. Recall, the deviance variables are interacted with the GOODELL variable in order to understand this relationship. There is no statistically significant separate effect of coaching fines assessed after the PCP modification, thus, Hypothesis 5 is rejected. One can fail to reject Hypothesis 6 as penalty yards have a positive and statistically significant effect on head coach dismissals. Player fines are positive and statistically significant following the modification of the league's policy, failing to reject Hypothesis 7a. The effect of suspensions on dismissals is negative and statistically significant. As a result, Hypothesis 7b is rejected. Run-ins with law enforcement officers are not statistically significant following the policy change. Thus, Hypothesis 8 is rejected.

Table 3.2
Model Results (Dependent Variable: DISMISS)

Variable	Weibull Distribution Survival Model			Probit Regression Model	
	Hazard Ratio	Coefficient	Std. Error	Coefficient	Std. Error
GOODELL	0.760	-0.274	0.620	-0.332	0.529
CFINEAMT (H1)	1.433**	0.360**	0.184	0.367***	0.127
CFINGOOD (H5)	0.750	-0.288	0.225	-0.242	0.170
PENYDS (H2)	1.100	0.095	0.181	-0.008	0.126
PENGOOD (H6)	1.358*	0.306*	0.181	0.381**	0.171
PFINEAMT (H3a)	0.464***	-0.767***	0.288	-0.444	0.320
PFINGOOD (H7a)	1.908**	0.646**	0.300	0.358	0.333
SUSPWKS (H3b)	1.873**	0.628**	0.312	0.405	0.294
SUSPGOOD (H7b)	0.488**	-0.718**	0.346	-0.539*	0.326
LAW (H4)	1.056	0.054	0.242	0.109	0.150
LAWGOOD (H8)	0.992	-0.008	0.282	-0.060	0.176
WINPCT	0.056***	-2.879***	0.907	-3.078***	0.793
DIVISION	0.934***	-0.068***	0.025	-0.041**	0.019
PLAYOFFS	0.899	-0.106	0.076	-0.140**	0.056
WINPCT _{j-1}	0.126***	-2.068***	0.697	-1.194*	0.714
WINPCT _{j-2}	0.988	-0.012	0.804	1.063*	0.571
WINPCT _{j-3→10}	13.708*	2.618*	1.363	2.059**	0.822
COVERATS	0.014***	-4.292***	1.200	-4.648***	1.170
HCGMTOG	0.786***	-0.241***	0.051	-0.041	0.054
CANDPOOL	1.147	0.137	0.093	0.115	0.083
NFLHCEXP	0.930	-0.073	0.045	0.019	0.022
FIRSTYR	3.295***	1.192***	0.331	-1.320***	0.261
AGE	1.051**	0.050**	0.024	0.024**	0.011
MINORITY	1.387	0.327	0.258	0.143	0.211
Constant	0.009**	-4.694**	2.126	-0.086	1.211
ρ	--	3.020***	0.234	--	--
Log Likelihood	--	-40.273	--	-134.941	--
McFadden's R ²	--	--	--	0.426	--
Count R ²	--	--	--	0.877	--

Note. Significance at 10% level denoted by *, 5% level denoted by **, and 1% level denoted by ***. Season fixed-effects statistically significant at the 1% level for both models (i.e., $p \leq 0.001$). Hypotheses addressed are in parentheses next to their corresponding variable.

Examining organizational performance, the results indicate career playoff performance does not have statistically significant effect on head coach dismissal, however, career

performance in the division does have a significant and negative effect. Examining overall regular season performance, I find negative and significant effects on regular season winning percentage in the current and the previous season. Regular season winning percentage two seasons prior has no statistically significant effect on dismissal. The average regular season winning percentage three to 10 seasons prior to the observed season has a positive and marginally significant impact on dismissals.

The percent of games covered and the seasons the head coach and GM were simultaneous employed by the team are negative and significant. Variables for first-year head coaches and the age of the head coach are positive and significant. Finally, the number of qualified candidates for a head coach position, the years of NFL head coaching experience, and whether a head coach is a visible minority are not statistically significant.

Discussion

This dissertation chapter is designed to increase the understanding of executive deviance as a sociopolitical force in CEO dismissals as well as the mediating role of an institutional emphasis on personal conduct represented by a policy modification. Previous research suggested deviance may affect executive dismissal decisions (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Ferrell & Ferrell, 2011; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013). However, it is unclear how institutional policies governing deviance impacted dismissal decisions. The present research asked the question of whether the modification of the NFL policy moderated team behavior as it related to deviance and the likelihood of a head coach dismissal. I looked at three types of deviance outlined within the literature: executive deviance, workplace deviance, and outside of the workplace deviance. Looking at head coaching dismissals in the NFL over 16 seasons, the findings yield some interesting insights. Broadly, they indicate deviance does affect dismissals and its effects are

contingent upon the type of deviant behavior and an institutional emphasis on personal conduct as represented by the implementation of a more stringent PCP.

Looking at Hypothesis 1 regarding executive deviance, measured by fines levied by the league against the head coach and members of his staff (*CFINEAMT*), I found an increase chance of dismissal. In Table 3.2, I calculate the hazard rates for each variable. The interpretation of the hazard ratio is an increase/decrease of the chance of getting dismissed relative to the baseline hazard rate (1.000). Thus, a one standard deviation increase in coaching fines for a given season increases the risk of head coach dismissal by 43.3%. This finding is consistent with prior research regarding the role of executive deviance committed directly by the CEO or top management team in CEO dismissals (Daboub et al., 1995; Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Ferrell & Ferrell, 2011; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013).

Examining Hypothesis 5 and the corresponding statistically insignificant relationship after the policy modification in regards to executive deviance, the result could be explained by the increased regulatory rules satisfying the organization in terms of adequate punishment being taken against the coaching staff. Thus, the decision-makers responsible for dismissing the coach may be satisfied in terms of the actions already taken by the league. In other words, teams may feel that the punishment received by coaches after modification of the policy is sufficient. Therefore, Goodell's policy may have some unintended consequences which may be allowing head coaches and their staffs to engage in deviant acts without the head coach being held accountable beyond a coaching staff fine which is only a small fraction of the head coach's salary.

As an example, Mike Tice, who was the head coach for the Minnesota Vikings in 2005 won nine out of 16 games, following a season in which the Vikings only won half their games,

but was dismissed at the end of the season after the coaching staff accrued \$120,000 in fines (\$145,633 adjusted for inflation). The fines accrued by the 2005 Vikings coaching staff were over 5.48 standard deviations above the mean in 2005 which increases dismissal risk by 618%, whereas winning nine out of 16 games only decreases dismissal risk by 80%. However, if the coaching fines were accrued after the PCP modification, there would be no additional statistically significant increase or decrease in head coach dismissal risk.

The second type of deviance I look at is deviance in the workplace. Recall, the prior literature separates workplace deviance into minor and serious (Litzky et al., 2006; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). In the present study, I examined serious workplace deviance in two ways: player fines and player suspensions. Contrasting results show head coach dismissal risk decreased with player fines, contrary to Hypothesis 3a, but increased when those fines are incurred during the Goodell era, confirming Hypothesis 7a. A head coach's risk of dismissal reduces 53.6% following a one standard deviation increase in player fines accrued by the team. However, when the player fines are accrued after the PCP modification, head coaches are less protected against dismissal. Under Goodell's PCP modification, the head coach of a team with player fines one standard deviations above the mean only experiences a 11.4% reduction in dismissal risk.

Contrary to the effect of serious workplace deviance measured in the form of purely individual punishments, suspended players increase the risk of head coach dismissal by 87.3% for a one standard deviation increase in player suspensions, but decrease head coach dismissal risk by 8.7% after the PCP modification. These results affirm Hypothesis 3b, but are contrary to Hypothesis 7b. A possible explanation for the increased job retention of head coaches of teams with suspended players following the PCP modification is that suspensions may have been used as an excuse for poor on-field performance during the Goodell era (Palmer et al., 2015). In

essence, the coaches were not able to use all their resources. Given suspensions after the PCP modification in 2007 were more prevalent, team owners and GMs may view suspensions under the policy modification as being excessive, unavoidable, or forgivable, thereby excusing poor organizational performance resulting from suspensions. Similar to coaching fines, the potential ability of head coaches to forestall their dismissal by having deviant players on their teams may be indicative of an unintended consequence of a PCP modification that allows for more player suspensions.

The second type of workplace deviance, minor deviance, is measured by the total team penalty yards. Similar to player fines, penalty yards increase head coach dismissal risk following the PCP modification, thus confirming Hypothesis 6. However, prior to the PCP modification, penalty yards are not a statistically significant determinant of head coach dismissals, and therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supported in the present study. Deviant behavior associated with on-field penalties is similar to deviant behavior which would result in player fines. This similarity is because both forms of punishment were used to decrease the perception of the NFL as being dangerous, thus creating a more marketable product. With recent concerns regarding injuries to players, more rules have been implemented, and with the rise in media coverage, there is likely increased pressure on teams and their head coaches to decrease penalties associated with deviant behavior in the form of injury-causing actions or undesirable attitudes.

The final area of deviance is actions that occur outside the workplace. Here, I examined the number of off-field incidents of players. The results from Table 3.2 show both variable coefficients for incidents and incidents under the modified policy to not impact coaching dismissals, thus Hypotheses 4 and 8 are unsupported in the present study. This finding is surprising given one of the main reasons for the modification of the policy was to curb off-field

behavior (Mahone, 2008). While the policy provided more power to the commissioner to punish employees of the league and its member clubs, one would have anticipated that incidents would reflect back on the head coach and potentially lead to his dismissal. However, the results show that player misconduct outside of the workplace does not impact dismissal decisions. The lack of significance may also be a result of the type of legal incidents in which the players were involved and potentially the action taken by league or team executives in regards to that behavior.

Looking at the variables operationalizing the socio-political forces outlined by Fredrickson et al. (1988), there are several interesting results. First, meeting or exceeding expectations (as measured by wins against the final point spread) led to a significant decline in the likelihood of being dismissed. This finding as it relates to expectations playing a prominent role in coaching decisions is consistent with prior work examining coaching related activities such as dismissals (e.g., Humphreys et al., 2016) and compensation (e.g., Soebbing et al., 2016).

I find stronger allegiances and values, defined as the number of seasons the GM and head coach have worked together, has a significant and negative impact on dismissals. Specifically, a single season increase in cohesion between the GM and the head coach decreases head coach dismissal risk by 21.4%. This finding supports previous findings by both Holmes (2011) and Foreman and Soebbing (2015). Contrary to Foreman and Soebbing (2015), whom found a negative relationship between being a first-year head coach for a team and head coach dismissals, I find a strong positive relationship that increases dismissal risk by 229.5%, *ceteris paribus*. Because Foreman and Soebbing (2015) used a sample period extending from 1978 through 2012, this contradictory result may be indicative of an increased willingness to dismiss head coaches within their first year of tenure within the present study's sample period of 2000

through 2015. The trend of an increasing willingness to dismiss executives is consistent with previous management literature (e.g., Farquhar, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Hambrick & Fukutomi, 1991).

I find that both the pool of qualified and available coaching candidates along with incumbent power have no significant effect on head coach dismissal risk. While the insignificant relationship regarding candidate pools is consistent with earlier findings by Foreman and Soebbing (2015), it is surprising that power is insignificant. While there are many sources of power including access to resources, leadership characteristics, and external status (Fredrickson et al., 1988), it was expected that head coaching experience would encompass some of these sources. In the end, the insignificant variable coefficient may signal that power in the organization may be with the owner or through the entire front office.

Though some researchers found no evidence of age affecting head coach dismissal (e.g., Foreman & Soebbing, 2015; Volz, 2009), results from the present study are consistent with previous studies that found positive relationships between head coach age and dismissal (e.g., Allen & Chadwick, 2012). More specifically, a one year increase in age increases dismissal risk by 5.1%, *ceteris paribus*. Dissimilar to Madden and Ruther (2010) and Holmes (2011) but consistent with Foreman and Soebbing (2015), the present study found no statistically significant evidence of racial discrimination in the head coach dismissal decision.

Conclusion

The present study examined the effects of different levels and types of deviance on the risk of dismissal faced by the head coach before and after a policy change emphasizing personal conduct. The evidence from this study indicates deviance may have both positive and negative effects on dismissals depending on the type and timing of deviant behavior. Direct deviant

actions committed by the coaching staff increase head coach dismissal likelihood, as does minor workplace deviance, measured by penalty yards, committed after the PCP modification.

The effect of serious workplace deviance on head coach dismissals depends on both the punishment type and whether the PCP was modified to be more stringent. When punishments for serious workplace deviance only adversely affected the individual responsible for the deviant behavior, the deviance appears to have been welcomed, as evidenced by the probability of job retention for the head coach. However, following an emphasis on personal conduct represented by the PCP modification in 2007, serious workplace deviance with punishments affecting only the deviant player increased the likelihood of head coach dismissal. In contrast, when punishments for serious workplace deviance affected organizational performance in the form of player suspensions following the PCP modification, the policy may be used as a viable excuse for poor organizational performance, thus resulting in lower dismissal probabilities for head coaches of deviant teams. Therefore, the modified PCP may have some unintended consequences that can promote deviant behavior if suspensions are used as punishments or deter deviant behavior by using player fines and penalty yards as punishments.

The present study provides a number of theoretical and practical implications. While dismissals have been of interest to many academic scholars both inside and outside of sport, empirical challenges exist to fully understanding the dismissal decisions. Though data limitations have hindered many scholars from empirically testing the Fredrickson et al. (1988) dismissal model and introducing concerns regarding the validity of those studies, the present study examines all four socio-political forces together with various deviance variables. The inclusion of deviance variables within the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model is important given the

interplay between deviant behavior and the socio-political forces of dismissal (Khanna et al., 2015).

Another important reason to examine a comprehensive model of deviance and Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) four socio-political forces is to separate the effects of each due to the similarities in determinants of deviance (Daboub et al., 1995) and the four socio-political forces (Fredrickson et al., 1988). For example, studies in the corporate setting have used firm size, which is a determinant of deviance (Daboub et al., 1995), to operationalize the availability of candidates to replace an executive, as proposed by Fredrickson et al. (1988). The present study separates the deviance variables from the socio-political forces for a better understanding of both issues.

Though retention resulting from deviant behavior of subordinates prior to the PCP modification may seem counterintuitive, it makes sense within the empirical context. Prior to the PCP modification, coaches and owners benefited from, and therefore wanted, excessively violent and aggressive players whom commit deviant acts (Ambrose, 2007; Coakley, 2015; Harary, 2002; Statz et al., 2007). However, as public awareness of deviance increased with media attention and various platforms (e.g., websites, talk radio, and television shows) dedicated to topics related to professional football, NFL administrators placed increasing value on deterring conduct deemed detrimental to the league (Ambrose, 2007; Rose et al., 2007). Furthermore, there may be higher expectations of head coaches to instill an organizational culture conducive to the new emphasis on personal conduct (Ambrose, 2007; Rose et al., 2007; Seifried, 2008; Statz et al., 2007). Therefore, head coaches of deviant players whom were punished as individuals could forestall their dismissal prior to the PCP modification, but experience less protection since the modification.

More specifically with respect to understanding the role of deviant behavior within organizations on the dismissal of organizational leaders, the present study develops an empirical test of the deviance-dismissal relationship. Similar to attempts of scholars to empirically test the full Fredrickson et al. (1988) dismissal model, scholars face data limitations when trying to understand the deviance-dismissal relationship (Lyons et al., 2016). However, the present study analyzes multiple levels of deviant behavior within an organization, namely, (a) deviance by management, (b) serious workplace deviance whereby only the perpetrator is punished, (c) serious workplace deviance whereby the organization is punished, (d) minor workplace deviance, and (e) deviance external to the organization. Knowing the causes of dismissal is the first step in understanding how successions effect organizations (Fee et al., 2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Maxcy, 2013) and knowing the causes and effects of institutional policies, such as the NFL PCP, can assist institutions in implementing and modifying their policies to create the most beneficial situation for the institutions.

The findings from the present study may be useful for league administrators, GMs, coaches, current and prospective athletes, and scholars of executive dismissals and successions. As it relates specifically to the NFL policy, the insignificant findings related to off-field deviance are potentially concerning to the league. While the league developed the policy to punish employees for their conduct off-the-field, the belief that a team with numerous players running into issues off-the-field would reflect on the coach was tested. The findings do not suggest that team owners and GMs take players' off-field personal conduct into account when deciding to fire the head coach. For a policy that league executives brand as looking out for the league, they may have to adjust the policy in penalizing head coaches and teams for players' misconduct.

The visibility of professional sports may affect the relationship between executive deviance and dismissals. However, I believe results of executive deviance increasing dismissal likelihood within the NFL to be especially robust due to deviance-specific issues related to “locker room culture,” the promotion of violence, and the widespread media attention from numerous stakeholders (Coakley, 2015). Therefore, studies examining the effect of executive deviance on dismissals outside violent industries (e.g., NFL, military) may be even more likely to see a positive relationship between deviance and dismissals. A limitation of the present study was the fact fines were not separated into team fines and league fines, but combined which could be problematic in this study if teams fine their players in an attempt to establish a non-deviant culture. Similarly, I do not possess data regarding actions taken after deviant acts, for example, if a coach or team rehabilitated or released a deviant player or member of the coaching staff.

The present study found player suspensions may be used as an excuse for poor performance, but that effect may dissipate as teams become more aware of signing players whom have engaged in misconduct (Palmer et al., 2015). Future research could examine the effect player deviance has on head coach dismissals when the head coach holds a front office position and has player personnel responsibilities. Because an understanding of dismissal causes is required to understand post-succession organizational performance (Fee et al., 2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Maxcy, 2013), future research could also examine how organizational performance following a succession differs for dismissals based on different types of deviant behavior. Due to the limitation in this study pertaining to unobserved coach reactions to deviant behavior, future research could examine how coaches react to deviance within their organizations and how their reactions mediate the executive deviance-dismissal relationship.

The present study found the inherently deviant culture of the NFL and the media attention the NFL receives may be contributing to the dismissal decisions of head coaches whom lead deviant organizations. Future research could examine the effects of varying types and degrees of executive deviance in other sports, leagues, or industries which may have less deviant cultures or different levels of public exposure. Similarly, changing public perceptions of certain legal incidents may have resulted in insignificant coefficients for the external deviance variables, so future research could examine head coach dismissals based on the type of legal incidents in which players are involved.

Lastly, this study examined the effects of various types and levels of negative executive deviance on head coach dismissals, therefore, future research can focus on how head coach dismissals are affected by positive forms of executive deviance. Positive deviance includes behaviors that exceed expected norms (Heckert & Heckert, 2015). Examples of positive deviance include selfless behaviors and extend to conscientiousness in rule-breaking such as allowing players to transfer, or missing games to be present for a child birth (Martin, Lopez, Roscigno, & Hodson, 2013). Such positive deviant behaviors committed by coaches or players may be instrumental for organizational performance (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990; Shoenberger, Heckert, & Heckert, 2012), and therefore may affect head coach dismissal decisions.

CHAPTER 4

EXAMINING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MANAGERIAL CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND CENTRALITY, RACE, AND THE ROONEY RULE

Chapters 2 and 3 specifically explored dismissals, which prior research identified as an important area to examine (Crossland & Chen, 2013). Research regarding the determinants and subsequent performance of the organization is common (Day, Gordon, & Fink, 2012). Using the model developed by Fredrickson, Hambrick, and Baumrin (1988), Chapter 2 operationalized the qualified pool of available candidates across several dimensions. Across these various dimensions, the availability of qualified candidates did not statistically impact the likelihood of a head coaching dismissal.

Chapter 3 expanded the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model to understand the mediating role that executive deviance plays in the likelihood of a head coach dismissal. Head coaches are more likely to be dismissed if they engage in deviant behavior themselves or if their players' deviant behaviors result in team punishments, however, individual player punishments may help head coaches forestall their dismissal. Furthermore, the chapter explored the potential moderating influence that the National Football League's (NFL) modified Personal Conduct Policy has on the relationship between deviance and dismissal. Following the increased emphasis on personal conduct, more player fines or penalty yards increase head coach dismissal probabilities, however, suspensions may be viewed as an excuse for poor performance used by coaches to forestall their dismissal.

While dismissals are a popular area of research both within and outside of the sport context, the research on promotions receives limited inquiry (Solow et al., 2011). Promotions are defined as "...any increases in level and/or any significant increases in job responsibilities or job scope" either internal or external to the individual's current organization (Seibert, Kraimer,

& Crant, 2001, p. 858). Several determinants of promotions are provided in the literature (e.g., Fee, Hadlock, & Pierce, 2006). One important feature is diversity.

Diversity and discrimination are important topics which have garnered substantial interest among Sport Management scholars (e.g., Agyemang & DeLorme, 2010; Cunningham, 2014; Finch, McDowell, & Sagas, 2011). Within the realm of diversity and discrimination in sport, scholars revealed the presence of discrimination based on demographic characteristics (e.g., Braddock, Smith, & Dawkins, 2012; Day, 2015; Finch et al., 2011; Madden, 2004).

Attempting to rectify the disproportionately low number of minority head coaches in the league, the NFL implemented the Rooney Rule in 2003. The Rooney Rule is a league-level intervention directive intended to increase racial diversity in the head coaching ranks through requiring teams without named successors to interview minority candidates for vacancies (Solow, Solow, & Walker, 2011). The impact of the rule on the diversity of NFL head coaching hires is mixed (Fee et al., 2006; Madden & Ruther, 2010; Solow et al., 2011).

The current research regarding discrimination in the NFL led several scholars to suggest racial disparities may be occurring earlier in coaches' careers, such as, prior to being considered for a head coach position (Braddock et al., 2012; Rider, Wade, Swaminathan, & Schwab, 2016; Solow et al., 2011). For instance, racial disparities in the head coaching ranks may be a product of central position coaches, whom are predominantly White, being preferred head coach candidates (Braddock et al., 2012; Day, 2015). While numerous studies examined racial discrimination among NFL head coaches and the effects of the NFL's diversity initiative, the conflicting results and lack of research examining racial discrimination earlier in coaches' careers demonstrate the need for further research.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the relationships between race, centrality, and an institutional diversity initiative on coach promotions and demotions throughout the NFL coaching ranks. The present study examines the NFL from the 1984-1985 season through the 2015-2016 season. During the sample period, the NFL implemented its Rooney Rule diversity initiative in 2003 to increase diversity among NFL head coaches (Solow et al., 2011).

Estimating logistic regression models examining coach promotions and demotions, empirical support of both racial disparities and preferences for central position coaches is found in the NFL during the sample period. Additionally, no empirical support is found for the Rooney Rule increasing promotions of Black coaches in the NFL during the sample period. The findings within the present study yield insights into how and when discrimination is occurring and the effectiveness of institutional policies intended to increase diversity among organizational leaders. The present study builds upon previous literature examining racial disparities in coach career advancement and practitioners can use the results of the present study when attempting to implement diversity initiatives.

Literature Review

For over 50 years, issues of racial disparities and central position preferences in the sport industry have been examined (e.g., Day, 2015; Grusky, 1963; Massengale & Farrington, 1977; Scully, 1989; Singell, 1991). Earlier literature focused on central positions in baseball (e.g., Grusky, 1963; Scully, 1989), however, later research examined football, racial disparities in coaching labor markets, and the effectiveness of the Rooney Rule in increasing diversity (e.g., Braddock et al., 2012; Solow et al., 2011). Though many studies have examined coach labor market issues related to race, centrality (i.e., central position preferences), and the Rooney Rule, findings have been mixed.

Centrality Preferences in Coach Promotions

Early research pertaining to managerial promotions in sport originated around the idea of position centrality. Centrality is defined in terms of interactions, whereby persons occupying more central positions within an organization interact more with peripheral members of that organization (Bavelas, 1950; Leavitt, 1951). Due to increased interactions resulting from position centrality, central position occupants receive benefits from their positions such as increased communication skills, leadership skills, and access to information (Grusky, 1963).

Grusky (1963) applied the idea of centrality to baseball players who became team managers and found position centrality to increase the likelihood of players becoming managers. More specifically, players in central positions requiring more interactions with other players on the baseball field, such as second basemen and catchers, were more likely to become managers following their playing careers (Grusky, 1963). Similar to Grusky's (1963) findings in professional baseball, Scully (1989) found a disproportionate number of infielders from states in the northern United States to be hired as professional baseball managers. Interestingly, Black professional baseball players were often from southern states and occupied non-central positions, such as outfielder (Scully, 1989). Confirming the findings of Grusky (1963) and Scully (1989), Singell (1991) found centrality to increase the likelihood of players becoming managers. Additionally, consistent with Scully (1989), Singell (1991) found evidence of Black players being less likely to become baseball managers.

Race, Centrality, and Promotions in Football

Though the early literature regarding centrality and race as determinants of managerial promotions in sport has its origins in professional baseball, recent research explores the football context (e.g., professional and college). Massengale and Farrington (1977) examined which

players became college football coaches in 1975 and found most head and assistant coaches to have previously played central positions such as quarterback, interior offensive lineman, or linebacker, suggesting centrality to be a determinant of the coach hiring or promotion decision in college football. A similar study by Anderson (1993) focusing on college football coaches and athletic directors found centrality to be a determinant of who becomes coaches as well as evidence that Blacks are much more likely to play peripheral (i.e., non-central) positions in college—indicating a potential relationship between centrality and access to coaching positions for Blacks. Anderson (1993) stated the lack of diversity among football coaches, which may be a result of Blacks not playing central positions in college, “is likely to continue in the absence of meaningful interventions” (p. 61).

As Anderson (1993) provided an update to Massengale and Farrington’s (1977) study, , Finch et al. (2010) provided an update to Anderson’s (1993) research by examining college football 15 years later using 2005 data. As predicted by Anderson (1993), Finch et al. (2010) confirmed a continuation of diversity lacking in the college football coaching ranks, likely due to centrality and a lack of meaningful interventions. However, one potentially meaningful intervention which was proposed for college football is modelled after the NFL’s Rooney Rule (Gordon, 2008; Pike, 2011).

Race and the Rooney Rule in NFL Coach Career Advancement

Descriptive statistics contrasting the stark differences between the low percentage of minority head coaches and high percentage of minority players in the NFL are well documented (Lapchick, n.d.). Furthermore, some scholars found additional evidence of racial discrimination in the NFL coaching labor market (Braddock et al., 2012; Finch et al., 2011; Madden, 2004); however, the broader scholarly research focused on uncovering preferential hiring and exit

discrimination among NFL coaches has presented mixed conclusions (Fee et al., 2006; Madden, 2004; Malone, Coach, & Barrett, 2008; Braddock et al., 2012). The Rooney Rule was designed and ultimately established based on the work of scholars (Solow et al., 2011). For example, Madden (2004) examined NFL head coaches from the 1990-1991 season through the 2002-2003 season and found evidence that Black coaches outperformed White coaches in their first year of tenure, throughout their tenures based on average performance in that period, and in their final year of tenure. Based on the aforementioned findings, Madden (2004) concluded Blacks must work harder to secure and retain their head coaching positions. Using information from Madden's (2004) study, the Rooney Rule was implemented in 2003.

Since Madden's (2004) study, many scholars studied the role of race in NFL coaching career advancement as well as the effectiveness of the Rooney Rule (e.g., Braddock et al., 2012; Fee et al., 2006; Madden & Ruther, 2010; Rider et al., 2016; Solow et al., 2011). Malone et al. (2008) presented a contrary view of Madden's (2004) data. Though not intending to study race as a factor in NFL promotions, Fee et al. (2006) included race as a control variable and found no statistically significant evidence of bias against Black coaches in the NFL labor market between 1970 and 2001. However, in two of the eight logistic regression models estimated by Fee et al. (2006), evidence of Blacks having a higher likelihood of promotion along with a lower likelihood of demotion emerged.

Several other studies criticized Madden's (2004) methods for examining racial bias in the coaching labor market without controlling for several pertinent factors or including partial seasons in the model (e.g., Fort et al., 2008; Malone et al., 2008). Improving upon Madden's model, Malone et al. (2008) included partial seasons in their logistic regression models to study

racial bias in the decisions to hire or fire NFL head coaches. They found no statistically significant effect of race on head coach dismissals.

Continuing work on potential racial bias in the NFL coaching labor market, Madden and Ruther (2010) analyzed the effectiveness of the NFL's Rooney Rule. Examining the NFL before and after the Rooney Rule, Madden and Ruther (2010) found first year performance, average performance throughout tenure, and likelihood of being fired are similar for Black and White coaches after the Rooney Rule, however, not before. Based on these findings, Madden and Ruther (2010) concluded the Rooney Rule was effective in rectifying the racial disparities in NFL coach hiring and firing decisions.

Taking a different approach, Goff and Tollison (2009) examined determinants of teams hiring a Black head coach from 1987 through 2007. They found city characteristics such as the population, per capita income, and percentage of Blacks in the city to be significant determinants of whether a Black head coach is hired. Furthermore, longer tenured team owners are less like to appoint a Black coach to the head coach position. However, Goff and Tollison (2009) did not examine the effects of the Rooney Rule in their study.

Solow et al. (2011) examined the NFL from 1970 through 2009 and found that “conditional on a coach reaching coordinator status, there is no evidence that race influences head coach hiring decisions” (p. 332). Furthermore, Solow et al. (2011) found no evidence of the Rooney Rule increasing diversity in the head coach ranks. Despite insignificant findings of relationships between race and promotions to head coach, as well as insignificant findings of the Rooney Rule increasing head coach diversity in the NFL, Solow et al. (2011) agreed with Malone et al. (2008) that other discrimination or bias may be occurring at lower levels of the coaching ranks.

Complimenting Solow et al.'s (2011) examination of the NFL head coach pipeline, Braddock et al. (2012) analyzed the NFL from 2000 through 2006. Braddock et al. (2012) found, relative to their White counterparts, Black coaches to be 60% less likely to be head coaches, 63% less likely to be offensive or defensive coordinators, and 56% less likely to hold central coaching positions. Furthermore, Braddock et al. (2012) found central position coaches more likely to be offensive or defensive coordinators, however, no significant effect was found for Black or White position coaches when separated by race. Despite selecting a sample in which the Rooney Rule was implemented in the middle of the sample period, Braddock et al. (2012) did not attempt to examine the effects of the Rooney Rule.

More recently, Rider et al. (2016) examined the NFL from 1985 through 2011 and did examine the effects of the Rooney Rule on increasing coach diversity. Though Rider et al. (2016) found no significant evidence of the Rooney Rule increasing racial diversity among NFL coaches, significant evidence of racial disparities in coach hiring decisions was found. More specifically, Rider et al. (2016) found Whites to be more likely to secure coaching positions than minorities. In addition, Rider et al. (2016) provided no indication of central positions being an important factor in securing coaching positions.

Given the contradictory results found in the studies discussed herein, the present study seeks to shed light on the relationship between Black coaches and promotions and demotions before and after the implementation of the Rooney Rule. Additionally, the present study seeks to determine whether central position coaching experience is related to promotions and demotions, and whether this relationship is contingent upon the coach being Black. Previous literature which accounts for race, centrality, and the Rooney Rule is scarce and much of the previous literature related to the aforementioned topics have not analyzed more than seven years

following the implementation of the Rooney Rule. The present research is intended to address these concerns.

Method

To examine coach promotions and demotions, data from NFL seasons spanning from the 1984-1985 season through the 2015-2016 season are used. Though data were collected for the 2016-2017 season, it is used to determine whether coaches were promoted or demoted in the season prior. Consistent with Deephouse and Suchman (2008) and Seifried and Katz (2015) who recommended the use of media publications to understand organizational activities and decision-making processes, NFL Record and Fact Books from 1984 through 2016 are utilized to classify promotions and demotions. These NFL Record and Fact Books are official publications of the NFL and present brief biographies of each team's coaching staff prior to the beginning of the season. The biographical information includes coaching position titles, birth dates and places, and previous teams coached by year. The unit of analysis is a coach-season, whereby each coach is observed for the duration of a season and characteristics of the team for the season are attributed to the coach who began the season with the team, according to the NFL Record and Fact Books.

The binary dependent variables indicate whether the coach was promoted (*PROM*) or demoted (*DEMO*) from their current NFL position to a new NFL position. Therefore, only observations in which the coach was coaching in the NFL in the observed season, as well as the following season, are included in the sample. The dependent variable *PROM* is coded with the value of 1 to represent a promotion and 0 otherwise. Similarly, the dependent variable *DEMO* is coded with the value of -1 to represent a demotion and 0 otherwise. The coding of *PROM* and *DEMO* allow for an ordinal third dependent variable to be incorporated into the present study

which indicates whether a coach was promoted, demoted, or neither (*PRODEM*). The ordinal dependent variable *PRODEM* is calculated as the sum of *PROM* and *DEMO*, and is, therefore, coded 1 for a promotion, -1 for a demotion, and 0 otherwise.

To determine if a head coach was promoted or demoted, changes in coaches' job titles from the observed season to the following season are identified as consistent with the definition of Seibert et al. (2001). Each job title is divided into a category: Level 1 (i.e., head coaches), Level 2 (i.e., assistant head coaches and offensive/defensive coordinators), Level 3 (e.g., position coaches, special teams coordinators), and Level 4 (e.g., assistant position coaches, offensive/defensive assistants, and quality control coaches). Based on the aforementioned levels, coaching changes to higher levels (i.e., moves from Level 4 to Levels 3, 2, or 1; Level 3 to Levels 2 or 1; and Level 2 to Level 1) are considered promotions and *PROM* is coded with the value of 1. Similarly, coaching changes to lower levels (i.e., moves from Level 1 to Levels 2, 3, or 4; Level 2 to Levels 3 or 4; and Level 3 to Level 4) are considered demotions and *DEMO* is coded with the value of -1. Finally, lateral moves or no changes in coaching positions are coded with the value of 0 for *PROM*, *DEMO*, and *PRODEM*.

Independent Variables

To examine the effects of potential racial disparities, central position preferences, and the Rooney Rule on coach promotions and demotions in the NFL, three independent variables are used and interacted with the race variable. To analyze potential racial discrimination against in NFL coach promotions and demotions, a binary variable indicating whether a coach appears to be Black is included in the model (*BLCK*). The indicator variable *BLCK* assumes a value of 1 if the coach appears to be Black and 0 otherwise. Consistent with Fort et al. (2008), race was

verified from popular sources and the variation in race among NFL coaches is not so great where there exists a large portion of, for example, dark-skinned Hispanics.

To examine the effects of the Rooney Rule on promotions and demotions in the NFL, a binary indicator variable is used to indicate whether the Rooney Rule is in effect during the observed season (*ROON*). Therefore, the indicator variable *ROON* takes a value of 1 if the Rooney Rule is in effect (i.e., from the 2003-2004 season through the end of the sample period) and 0 otherwise. To analyze possible central position preferences, a binary variable indicating whether a position or assistant position coach is primarily responsible for the performance of a central position (*CENT*). The binary variable *CENT* is coded with the value of 1 if the coach is an assistant position or position coach for quarterbacks or linebackers and 0 otherwise. To assess the effect of the Rooney Rule and preferential hiring for central position coaches on Black coaches, *BLCK* is interacted with *ROON* (*BLCK*ROON*) and *CENT* (*BLCK*CENT*).

Control Variables

Consistent with previous empirical research regarding coaching promotions, several control variables are included in the present study to control for human capital. Current and previous coaching experience is controlled for by with variables numerically describing the amount of coaching experience in college football, other non-NFL professional football leagues, lower-level NFL coaching positions, the coach's current coaching level, and higher-level NFL coaching positions. Previous college football coaching experience is calculated using the sum of football seasons spent coaching college football at any level (e.g., head coach or assistant position coach) prior to the observed season (*COLL*). Similarly, previous football coaching experience in other professional football leagues (e.g., arena football, Canadian Football League,

United States Football League) is calculated using the sum of seasons spent coaching non-NFL professional football at any level prior to the observed season (*OTHR*).

Higher-level NFL coaching experience is measured using the sum of seasons spent in NFL coaching positions deemed higher than the current position (*HLVL*). For example, if a coach currently holds a Level 3 coaching position as a wide receivers coach, but previously spent three seasons as a head coach and seven seasons as an offensive coordinator, the value of *HLVL* for this coach in the observed season would be 10. Current-level NFL coaching experience is measured using the sum of seasons spent in NFL coaching positions deemed to be the same level of the current position (*CLVL*). For example, the hypothetical wide receivers coach in the previous example may be in his ninth season as a wide receivers coach, and therefore, his *CLVL* for the observed season would be 9. Consistent with *HLVL* and *CLVL*, lower-level NFL coaching experience is measured using the sum of NFL seasons the coach spent coaching as a lower-level assistant coach relative to the current coaching position (*LLVL*). For example, *LLVL* is the sum of seasons as an assistant position coach for position coaches, as an assistant position coach and position coach for coordinators/assistant head coaches, and in non-head coach coaching positions in the NFL for head coaches.

Also accounted for within the present study are the performance of the organization and the performance of the individual in the observed season. To measure organizational performance, regular season winning percentage in the observed season (*ORGP*) is used. To measure individual performance, the standardized performance metrics for a given coaching position are used (*INDP*). For head coaches, individual performance is the same as organizational performance; however, the variable is expressed in standard deviations. More specifically, to calculate the standardized winning percentages, the mean winning percentage for

the league in a given season is subtracted from each observed team's winning percentage. Then, the difference between the league mean and the observed winning percentage is divided by the standard deviation of the winning percentage for the observed season.

The *INDP* variable for non-head coaches is calculated in a manner consistent with the aforementioned method, however, using different performance metrics based on coaching responsibility. For offensive coordinators, the amount of points scored by the team in the observed season is used and standardized by season. Similarly, for defensive coordinators, the amount of points scored by the teams' opponents in the observed season is multiplied by -1 and standardized by season. For assistant coaches at all levels without specified offensive/defensive responsibilities in their position title (e.g., assistant head coach or coaching assistant), standardized winning percentages are used. Likewise, for assistant coaches only with offensive or defensive designations (i.e., not specific position coach primary responsibilities), standardized points scored and points allowed variables are used, respectively, consistent with coordinator individual performance measures.

The *INDP* variable for position coaches and assistant position coaches varies by position coached. Table 4.1 provides a description of individual performance measures used; separated by coach position title and the level that the title is associated with from the above discussion. As examples, for quarterback and wide receiver coaches, individual performance is measured by net yards per pass attempt, which is calculated as the difference of passing yards and sack yards divided by the sum of pass attempts and sacks. For defensive backs coaches, individual performance is measured by opponents' net yards per pass attempt multiplied by -1. Consistent with the head coach and coordinator variables, each of these performances measured are aggregated at the season level to allow for cross-position comparisons.

Related to organizational performance is penalty yards. Because coaches are responsible for the conduct of their players, especially on-field conduct and discipline (Seifried, 2008; Statz et al., 2007), penalty yards are controlled for in the present study and standardized by season to account for rule changes and other seasonal differences (*PNYD*). When head coach turnover occurs, newly hired or promoted head coaches often assemble new coaching staffs, thus creating an environment in which entire coaching staffs lose their positions and are more likely to be

Table 4.1
Individual Performance Measures by Position Title

<u>Level</u>	<u>Position Title</u>	<u>Individual Performance Measure</u>
1	Head Coach	Winning percentage
2	Assistant Head Coach	Winning percentage
2	Defensive Coordinator	Points allowed
2	Offensive Coordinator	Points scored
3	Quarterbacks	Net yards per pass attempt
3	Wide Receivers	Net yards per pass attempt
3	Running Backs	Rushing yards per attempt
3	Tight Ends	Offensive yards per play
3	Offensive Line	Offensive yards per play
3	Defensive Line	Opponents' rushing yards per play (negative)
3	Linebackers	Opponents' offensive yards per play (negative)
3	Secondary	Opponents' net passing yards per play (negative)
3	Special Teams	Yards per punt return
4	Assistant Quarterbacks	Net yards per pass attempt
4	Assistant Wide Receivers	Net yards per pass attempt
4	Assistant Running Backs	Rushing yards per attempt
4	Assistant Tight Ends	Offensive yards per play
4	Assistant Offensive Line	Offensive yards per play
4	Assistant Defensive Line	Opponents' rushing yards per play (negative)
4	Assistant Linebackers	Opponents' offensive yards per play (negative)
4	Assistant Secondary	Opponents' net passing yards per play (negative)
4	Assistant Special Teams	Yards per punt return
4	Coaching Assistant	Winning percentage
4	Defensive Assistant	Points allowed
4	Defensive Quality Control	Points allowed
4	Offensive Assistant	Points scored
4	Offensive Quality Control	Points scored

demoted, a variable for head coach turnover (*HCTO*) is included in the model. Additionally, coach age, which is calculated by subtracting the coach's birth year from the year of the first regular season game for the given observation (*AGE*) is included in the model. Lastly, season fixed effects are included in the model to account for changes internal and external to the NFL which may impact promotions and demotions in the NFL.

Empirical Specification

To examine potential racial disparities and central position preferences as well as effects of an institutional policy regarding preferential hiring and promotion practices has on promotions and demotions, the present study follows previous coach promotion models (e.g., Braddock et al., 2012; Madden & Ruther, 2010; Malone et al., 2008; Rider et al., 2016; Solow et al., 2011) in using logistic regression models to analyze the NFL from the 1984-1985 season through the 2015-2016 season. The unit of observation is a coach-season in which each coach has no more than one observation per season. Within the 32-season sample period, 12,548 team-season observations exist in which an NFL coach remained in the NFL the following season.

From the above sample, 12 team-season observations spanning four coaches were removed due to limitations identifying birth years or pictures. Three of the four coaches removed from the sample never experienced an NFL promotion or demotion, based on the criteria within this study, and remained Level 4 coaches for the duration of their NFL careers. The other coach removed from the sample spent three years in the NFL and was a Level 4 coach promoted to a Level 3 tight ends coach. Therefore, the final number of team-season observations within the sample is 12,536.

The logistic regression model takes the following form:

$$L = \log(P/1-P) = \beta X_{it}$$

where L is the log odds ratio, P is the probability of promotion or demotion, and \mathbf{X}_{it} is a vector of independent and control variables indexed by coach (i) and seasons (t). To address and potentially correct for multicollinearity, correlation coefficients and variance inflation factors were examined. With the exception of interaction terms and their components, an examination of the correlation coefficients between each of the variables in the model were found to not exceed 0.6, indicating there is no need to omit variables to correct for multicollinearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, none of the variance inflation factors for the non-interacted independent and control variables exceeded a value of eight. This result further indicates multicollinearity is not an issue of concern among non-interacted independent and control variables in this model (Menard, 2002).

Results

Table 4.2 reports the descriptive statistics for each of the variables in the models. In this sample, an average of 8.9% of coach-season observations included a promotion, whereas 3.8% of coach-season observations resulted in demotion within the NFL during the sample period. Among the observations, 26.2% represented coaches identified as Black and approximately half (i.e., 50.4%) of the observations occurred while the Rooney Rule was in effect. Central position coaches compose 12.5% of the observations in the sample. The average amount of college coaching experience is 8.7 seasons with a maximum of 40 seasons. Other professional football league coaching experience is less common with a mean of 0.4 seasons and a maximum of 17 seasons.

Most coaches have no coaching experience at ranks above their current position with a median of zero and a mean of 0.6 seasons. Coaching experience at the coach's current level extends to a maximum of 29 seasons, but has a mean of 5.5 seasons. Coaching experience at

Table 4.2
Summary Statistics ($n=12,536$)

Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max	Median
PROM	Coach is promoted for the following season (1=promoted)	0.089	0.284	0	1	0
DEMO	Coach is demoted for the following season (-1=demoted)	-0.038	0.191	-1	0	0
BLCK	Coach appears to be Black or African-American (1=Black)	0.262	0.440	0	1	0
ROON	Rooney Rule is active in the observed season (1=Rooney Rule)	0.504	0.500	0	1	1
COLL	Sum of seasons spent coaching college football at any level	8.723	7.481	0	40	8
OTHR	Sum of seasons spent coaching other football leagues	0.422	1.332	0	17	0
CENT	Coached central position (QB or LB) as primary responsibility in observed season (1=central position coach)	0.125	0.331	0	1	0
HLVL	Sum of NFL seasons spent in a higher-level coaching position	0.569	1.956	0	28	0
CLVL	Sum of NFL seasons spent in the current coaching level	5.452	4.726	1	29	4
LLVL	Sum of NFL seasons spent in a lower-level coaching position	1.957	3.555	0	29	0
ORGP	Team performance measured by observed season win percentage	0.512	0.186	0	1	0.500
INDP	Individual performance measured in standard deviations	0.063	0.973	-2.944	3.441	0.094
PNYD	Sum of yards accrued against a team in the observed season	-0.019	0.995	-3.424	3.343	-0.056
HCTO	Head coach did not retain position the following season (1=turnover)	0.174	0.379	0	1	0
AGE	Coach age calculated as year of first game less birth year	46	10	19	79	46

lower levels is also possessed by less than half of the coach-season observations with a median of zero seasons and a mean of 2 seasons. Head coach turnover occurred following 17.4% of the observations and the average age of coaches within the coach-season observations is 45.9, which spans from 19 to 79 years old.

Table 4.3 presents the ordered logistic regression results for (a) all the observations, (b) all Level 2 and 3 coaches, (c) only Level 2 coaches, and (d) only Level 3 coaches. The coach level is presented for the coach during the observed year (i.e., not the level the coach was promoted/demoted to). For the full model with all observations included, the variable for Black coaches is negative and marginally significant, central position coaches is positive and statistically significant, and Black central position coaches is negative and marginally significant.

Because the central coach variable is positive (i.e., 0.637) and the Black central coach variable is negative (i.e., -0.408), the joint effect of the two central coach variables, irrespective of the Black coach variable, is the sum of the two effects (StataCorp, 2013), which is positive (i.e., 0.229). To examine the statistical significance of the effect of the central coach variable irrespective of the Black coach variable, a joint significance test of the joint coefficient was conducted and found to be statistically insignificant (i.e., $p=0.307$). Similarly, the joint significance of the Black coach variable, irrespective of the central coach variable, was examined and the joint coefficient of -0.607 is statistically significant (i.e., $p=0.012$). Thus, being a Black coach, irrespective of being a central coach, has a negative and statistically significant effect on the upward career mobility of coaches.

Regarding the control variables in the full ordered logistic regression model, higher level coaching experience, organizational performance, and individual experience are positive and statistically significant. In contrast, lower level coaching experience, head coach turnover in the

Table 4.3
Ordered Logistic Regression Model Results (Dependent Variable: PRODEM)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Full</u>	<u>Level 2</u>	<u>Level 3</u>
BLCK	-0.200* (0.102)	-0.487* (0.264)	-0.177 (0.148)
ROON	0.120 (0.254)	0.019 (0.552)	-0.998*** (0.379)
BLCK*ROON	0.160 (0.129)	0.460 (0.341)	0.145 (0.195)
CENT	0.637*** (0.083)	--	0.991*** (0.108)
BLCK*CENT	-0.408* (0.239)	--	-0.486 (0.303)
COLL	-0.002 (0.005)	-0.024** (0.010)	0.016** (0.007)
OTHR	-0.019 (0.022)	-0.007 (0.044)	0.002 (0.031)
HLVL	0.162*** (0.013)	0.097** (0.043)	0.155*** (0.018)
CLVL	0.009 (0.008)	0.022 (0.021)	0.049*** (0.012)
LLVL	-0.143*** (0.009)	-0.032* (0.018)	-0.064** (0.027)
ORGP	1.243*** (0.168)	2.800*** (0.350)	0.741*** (0.268)
INDP	0.102*** (0.029)	0.020 (0.057)	0.243*** (0.047)
PNYD	-0.046* (0.028)	-0.018 (0.061)	-0.095** (0.043)
HCTO	-0.525*** (0.083)	-1.150*** (0.159)	0.152 (0.120)
AGE	-0.0345*** (0.005)	-0.026** (0.010)	-0.026*** (0.008)
Cut1	-4.619 (0.300)	-2.465 (0.649)	-4.718 (0.451)
Cut2	1.577 (0.292)	2.784 (0.652)	2.216 (0.440)
Observations	12,536	2,021	7,113
McFadden's R ²	0.085	0.104	0.058

(Table 4.3 continued)

	<u>Full</u>	<u>Level 2</u>	<u>Level 3</u>
Log Likelihood	-5241.007	-1099.023	-2306.138
Joint BLCK+(BLCK*CENT)	-0.607**	--	-0.663**
Joint CENT+(BLCK*CENT)	0.229	--	0.505*
Season FE P-value	0.006	0.955	0.085
<i>Note.</i> Significance at 10% level denoted by *, 5% level denoted by **, and 1% level denoted by ***. Standard errors are displayed in parenthesis below coefficients.			

following season, and age are negative and statistically significant. Penalty yards are also negative, but only marginally significant.

For the model limited to Level 2 coaches, only 2,021 observations are used and the only variable of the independent variables of focus in this study which is even marginally significant is the Black coaches variable, which is negative and marginally significant. Variables representing higher level coaching experience and organizational performance are positive and statistically significant, whereas college coaching experience, head coach turnover, and coach age are negative and statistically significant in this model. Lower level coaching experience is also negative in this model, but only marginally significant.

The last ordered logistic regression model presented in Table 4.3 isolates Level 3 coach observations. Within this model, the variable representing the Rooney Rule being active is negative and statistically significant, whereas the central position coach variable is positive and statistically significant. The joint effect of the two Black coach variables is negative and statistically significant and the joint effect of the two central coach variables is positive and marginally significant. College coaching experience, higher level coaching experience, current level coaching experience, organizational performance, and individual performance are positive and statistically significant. In contrast, lower level coaching experience, penalty yards accrued, and coach age are negative and statistically significant.

Table 4.4 presents the logistic regression model results for promotions only. Analyzing all observations in which promotion is possible (i.e., not head coaches), the results of the logistic

Table 4.4
Logistic Regression Model Results (Dependent Variable: PROM)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Full</u>	<u>Level 2</u>	<u>Level 3</u>	<u>Level 4</u>
BLCK	-0.453*** (0.128)	-0.575 (0.558)	-0.481** (0.189)	0.013 (0.208)
ROON	-0.010 (0.291)	0.897 (0.944)	-1.005** (0.437)	-1.180** (0.586)
BLCK*ROON	0.247 (0.160)	0.714 (0.674)	0.243 (0.240)	0.006 (0.249)
CENT	0.557*** (0.087)	--	1.076*** (0.113)	0.463** (0.216)
BLCK*CENT	-0.045 (0.248)	--	-0.060 (0.300)	0.123 (0.548)
COLL	-0.001 (0.006)	-0.026 (0.018)	0.014* (0.008)	0.018* (0.010)
OTHR	-0.031 (0.029)	0.032 (0.075)	0.002 (0.036)	-0.147** (0.067)
HLVL	0.166*** (0.014)	0.143** (0.059)	0.177*** (0.020)	0.083*** (0.022)
CLVL	-0.015 (0.010)	0.036 (0.037)	0.056*** (0.015)	-0.007 (0.021)
LLVL	-0.104*** (0.016)	-0.087** (0.035)	-0.034 (0.033)	--
ORGP	0.965*** (0.198)	3.157*** (0.590)	0.657** (0.311)	0.406 (0.303)
INDP	0.108*** (0.034)	-0.004 (0.096)	0.251*** (0.054)	0.021 (0.052)
PNYD	-0.022 (0.033)	0.226** (0.101)	-0.099** (0.050)	0.013 (0.053)
HCTO	0.572*** (0.086)	1.650*** (0.241)	0.642*** (0.125)	0.226 (0.146)
AGE	-0.035*** (0.006)	-0.066*** (0.018)	-0.047*** (0.009)	0.016* (0.009)
Constant	-1.359*** (0.334)	-1.790 (1.130)	-1.349*** (0.494)	-1.443** (0.648)

(Table 4.4 continued)

	<u>Full</u>	<u>Level 2</u>	<u>Level 3</u>	<u>Level 4</u>
Observations	11,674	2,021	7,113	2,541
McFadden's R^2	0.071	0.140	0.091	0.049
Count R^2	0.905	0.941	0.932	0.802
Log Likelihood	-3408.552	-396.463	-1609.631	-1203.472
Joint BLCK+(BLCK*CENT)	-0.497**	--	-0.541*	0.136
Joint CENT+(BLCK*CENT)	0.512**	--	1.016***	0.586
Season FE P-value	<0.001	0.992	0.117	0.096

Note. Significance at 10% level denoted by *, 5% level denoted by **, and 1% level denoted by ***. Standard errors are displayed in parenthesis below coefficients.

regression estimation shows the Black variable to be negative and statistically significant and the central position coach variable to be positive and statistically significant. The joint effects of the two Black coach variables and the two central coach variables are statistically significant, but the joint Black coach variable is negative and the joint central coach variable is positive. The positive and statistically significant variables are those that represent higher level coaching experience, organizational performance, individual performance, and head coach turnover, whereas lower level coaching experience and coach age are negative and statistically significant.

Table 4.4 also presents the model for Level 2, 3, and 4 coaches with the dependent variable of promotions. Within the model for Level 2 coaches, only six variables are statistically significant. Higher level coaching experience, organizational performance, penalty yards, and head coach turnover are positive and statistically significant, whereas lower level coaching experience and coach age are negative and statistically significant. Within the Level 3 coaches model, the Black and Rooney Rule variables are negative and statistically significant, but the central position coach variable is positive and statistically significant. The joint effect of the two Black coach variables is negative and marginally significant and the joint effect of the two central coach variables is positive and statistically significant.

Table 4.5
Logistic Regression Model Results (Dependent Variable: DEMO)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Full</u>	<u>Level 1</u>	<u>Level 2</u>	<u>Level 3</u>
BLCK	-0.471** (0.198)	-0.284 (1.964)	0.513 (0.325)	-0.635** (0.316)
ROON	0.355 (0.456)	-0.915 (2.458)	0.308 (0.690)	0.921 (0.729)
BLCK*ROON	0.006 (0.260)	-0.193 (2.342)	-0.401 (0.418)	0.168 (0.405)
CENT	-0.782*** (0.213)	--	--	-0.116 (0.235)
BLCK*CENT	1.373*** (0.454)	--	--	1.022** (0.482)
COLL	0.003 (0.009)	0.143 (0.090)	0.029** (0.013)	-0.032** (0.015)
OTHR	-0.008 (0.036)	-0.092 (0.236)	0.032 (0.055)	-0.008 (0.069)
HLVL	-0.045 (0.040)	--	-0.061 (0.057)	-0.071 (0.077)
CLVL	-0.082*** (0.018)	-0.452* (0.240)	-0.023 (0.028)	-0.047 (0.029)
LLVL	0.138*** (0.014)	0.177 (0.135)	0.018 (0.023)	0.080** (0.039)
ORGP	-1.889*** (0.327)	55.342 (40.746)	-3.020*** (0.453)	-0.872 (0.561)
INDP	-0.083 (0.055)	-11.930 (7.983)	-0.021 (0.074)	-0.238** (0.099)
PNYD	0.111** (0.052)	0.842 (0.540)	0.123 (0.078)	0.122 (0.089)
HCTO	1.933*** (0.118)	--	1.839*** (0.167)	1.124*** (0.203)
AGE	0.011 (0.009)	-0.020 (0.083)	0.010 (0.013)	-0.034** (0.017)
Constant	-3.594*** (0.547)	-27.317 (20.687)	-2.081** (0.824)	-2.251** (0.925)
Observations	9,995	68	2,021	7,113
McFadden's R ²	0.225	0.439	0.222	0.122
Count R ²	0.955	0.779	0.882	0.980
Log Likelihood	-1481.368	-25.859	-609.691	-604.719

(Table 4.5 continued)

	<u>Full</u>	<u>Level 1</u>	<u>Level 2</u>	<u>Level 3</u>
Joint BLCK+(BLCK*CENT)	0.902**	--	--	0.386
Joint CENT+(BLCK*CENT)	0.591	--	--	0.906**
Season FE P-value	0.877	0.979	0.874	0.793
<i>Note.</i> Significance at 10% level denoted by *, 5% level denoted by **, and 1% level denoted by ***. Standard errors are displayed in parenthesis below coefficients.				

Regarding the control variables for the Level 3 coaches model, higher level coaching experience, current level coaching experience, organizational performance, individual performance, and head coach turnover is positive and statistically significant, whereas penalty yards and coach age are negative and statistically significant. In the Level 4 coach promotion model, the central position coach and higher level coaching experience variables are positive and statistically significant, whereas the Rooney Rule and non-NFL professional football coaching experience variables are negative and statistically significant.

Table 4.5 presents the logistic regression results for the model with demotions as the dependent variable. In the full model, the Black coach and central position coach variables are negative and statistically significant, while the Black central position coach variable is positive and statistically significant. The joint effect of the Black coach variables is positive and statistically significant and the joint effect of the central coach variables is positive, but statistically insignificant.

Regarding the control variables in the full demotion model, lower level coaching experience, penalty yards, and head coach turnover are positive and statistically significant, whereas current level coaching experience and organizational performance are negative and statistically significant. When estimating the demotion model with head coaches, no variables are statistically significant. For the assistant head coaches and coordinators, college coaching experience and head coach turnover are positive and statistically significant, whereas

organizational performance is negative and statistically significant. Finally, in the demotion model for Level 3 coaches, the Black variable is negative and statistically significant, whereas the Black central position coach variable is positive and statistically significant. Additionally, college coaching experience, individual performance, and coach age are negative and statistically significant, while lower level coaching experience and head coach turnover are positive and statistically significant.

Discussion

The purpose of this study is to examine potential disparities by race, before and after the Rooney Rule, and position title in NFL coach promotions and demotions. The results of the logistic regression models indicate the existence of disparities in NFL coach promotions and demotions based on race and position title. Furthermore, the results of the logistic regressions also reveal interesting promotion and demotion determinants other than race and position title. The present study begins the discussion of the logistic regression results with commentary regarding racial disparities in promotions and demotions, the ineffectiveness of the Rooney Rule in significantly increasing head coach diversity, and disparities in promotions and demotions by position title. Then, the present study discusses other findings of interest pertaining to promotion and demotion determinants such as coach age, penalty yards accrued, head coach turnover in the following season, organizational and individual performance, football coaching experience outside the NFL, and NFL coaching experience at various levels relative to the current position level.

In both the promotion and demotion models for Level 3 coaches, Black coaches appear to experience more difficulty securing higher ranking NFL coaching positions, as well as retaining their current coaching positions. More specifically, holding all other variables constant at their

means, Black coaches are 2.2% less likely to be promoted and 0.7% more likely to be demoted than their non-Black counterparts during the sample period. Though, perhaps, 2.2% may seem trivial, the difference in promotion likelihood for Black coaches relative to non-Black coaches is greater than the difference in promotion likelihood for coaches whom won two out of 16 games relative to 13 out of 16 games. Therefore, the finding that a significant disparity in promotions exists between Black and non-Black coaches is consistent with previous research by Rider et al. (2016).

In addition to finding disparities in promotions and demotions by race, the Rooney Rule was ineffective in increasing the ability of Black coaches in the NFL to be promoted, even to the rank of head coach. This finding is consistent with previous research by Solow et al. (2011) and Rider et al. (2016), but contradicts the conclusions drawn by Madden and Ruther (2010). Furthermore, the evidence presented in this study and similar studies before the present study (e.g., Rider et al., 2016; Solow et al., 2011) indicates similar policies implemented in other organizations, such as Facebook (Frier, 2015), Uber (Haselton, 2017), or college football (Gordon, 2008; Pike, 2011) may not be an effective means of increasing racial diversity.

Regarding centrality, the findings in the present study indicate central position coaches are more likely to be promoted, and consistent with previous research (e.g., Braddock et al., 2012). Notably, few Blacks in the sample are central position coaches. For instance, Blacks comprise 31.1% of Level 3 coaches and 27.4% of Level 4 coaches in the sample. However, among the 1,418 central position coaches and 152 assistant central position coaches in the sample, only 12.5% of central position coaches and 14.5% of assistant central position coaches are Black, which may be surprising given 71% of players and 38% of assistant coaches in the NFL in 2015 were Black (Lapchick, n.d.). Therefore, if central position coaches experience an

increased rate of promotion relative to non-central position coaches, the disparity in promotions by race could be due in part to a preference toward central position coaches or pigeonholing minorities into non-central positions.

Central position coaches (i.e., quarterback and linebacker coaches) in the sample experienced a 7.4% increased promotion likelihood and assistant central position coaches experienced an 8.8% increased promotion likelihood. Though Black position coaches are less likely to be promoted and central position coaches are more likely to be promoted, *ceteris paribus*, the present study found no significant increased or decreased likelihood of promotion for Black central position coaches. However, Black central position coaches are less likely to be demoted by 1.9%. Though Braddock et al. (2012) found central position coaches to have an advantage in promotions, examinations of Black central position coach promotion prospects have been limited, and studies examining demotions of non-head coaches are even more scarce. Therefore, the present study supports previous research findings of increased promotion probabilities for central position coaches (Braddock et al., 2012), and adds to the literature by finding no statistically significant difference in promotion opportunities for Black position coaches, but a decreased probability of demotion for Black central position coaches.

In addition to disparities in promotion and demotion by race and organizational role, the present study found older coaches are less likely to be promoted relative to their younger counterparts, even after controlling for years of football coaching experience in the NFL, college, and other professional leagues. Previous research also concluded older coaches have diminished career prospects (e.g., Fee et al., 2006; Rider et al., 2016; Solow et al., 2011). The age ranges of Level 2 coaches in the sample span from 27 to 78 and a 78 year old coach experiences a 14.2% lower likelihood of promotion to head coach than a 27 year old coach. For Level 3 coaches, ages

range from 21 to 79 and, similar to Level 2 coaches, a 79 year old Level 3 coach experiences a 14.8% decreased likelihood of promotion relative to a 21 year old Level 3 coach. Additionally, older Level 3 coaches in the sample were more likely to be demoted, however, a 79 year old Level 3 coach only faced a 2.4% increased likelihood of demotion relative to a 21 year old Level 3 coach.

Penalty yards have varying effects on promotions and demotions among NFL coaches. For Level 3 coaches, too many penalty yards accrued by a team could decrease the likelihood of promotion by up to 3.4%. However, for Level 2 coaches, more penalty yards accrued by a team could increase promotion likelihood by 5.8%. This substantial difference in promotion probabilities between Level 3 and 2 coaches could be a result of Level 3 coaches being more closely associated with the primary perpetrators of the penalties, and therefore, if the penalties are not reduced by the players, more direct blame could be attributed to the Level 3 coaches.

Moreover, Level 2 coaches may be able to use penalty yards as an excuse for poor performance to increase their likelihood of promotion by also placing blame on position coaches whom are closer to the penalty perpetrators, or placing the blame on the organizational leader—the head coach—whom is responsible for the overall culture and discipline of the team (Seifried, 2008; Statz, Cordell, Ham, Karcher, & Shukie, 2007). Similarly, the excuse for poor performance could also be used as a means to prevent demotion, which is consistent with the results from the full demotion model, whereby penalties may decrease the probability of demotion by up to 1.5%.

Interestingly, head coach turnover the following season is actually beneficial for promotions and helps protect against demotions after controlling for performance-related factors such as winning percentage. More specifically, Level 2 coaches in the sample experienced a

10% increase in promotion likelihood while Level 3 coaches experienced a 3.9% increase in promotion likelihood. Additionally, Level 2 coaches were 23.4% less likely to be demoted while Level 3 coaches were 1.9% less likely to be demoted following head coach turnover. Though head coach turnover may be thought to increase the likelihood of demotions and decrease the likelihood of promotions, Fee et al. (2006) found internal promotions to be more prevalent when head coach turnover occurs within successful organizations. Therefore, the effect presented in the present study of head coach turnover increasing promotion probabilities and decreasing demotion probabilities may be due to head coaches being replaced by internal candidates.

Consistent with previous research, higher organizational performance increases the likelihood of promotion (e.g., Fee et al., 2006; Goff & Tollison, 2009; Malone et al., 2008; Rider et al., 2016; Solow et al., 2011). However, increases in organizational performance may not increase promotion probabilities for Level 4 coaches. For Level 2 coaches, organizational performance could increase promotion likelihood by up to 14.3%, whereas Level 3 coaches can experience a 3.3% increase in promotion likelihood attributable to organizational performance.

Interestingly, organizational performance also increases Level 2 coach demotion probabilities by up to 28.5%. Similarly, Level 3 coaches experience an increased likelihood of promotion when individual performance is high, but also an increased likelihood of demotion. More specifically, high individual performance could increase the probability of promotion by up to 8.8%, but could increase the probability of demotion by up to 1.8%.

Collegiate and non-NFL professional football coaching experience also influences promotion and demotion probabilities for NFL coaches. Though, like Rider et al. (2016), the present study did not find statistically significant evidence of college coaching experience increasing the likelihood of promotion, an effect was found for demotions. College coaching

experience assists Level 2 coaches in preventing their own demotion, however, Level 3 coaches with more college coaching experience are more susceptible to demotion.

The aforementioned contradictory finding may be a result of the level of college coaching experience, which was not examined in the present study, but could be assumed based on the position level within the NFL. For example, Level 2 NFL coaches likely held higher level college coaching positions than Level 3 NFL coaches. Therefore, the higher level of experience in college may be what is assisting Level 2 NFL coaches in preventing demotion, and lower level college coaching experience accrued by Level 3 NFL coaches may be viewed as less meaningful and contribute to increased demotion probabilities.

Similarly, Level 4 NFL coaches with professional football coaching experience outside the NFL are less likely to be promoted. During the sample period, non-NFL professional football league coaching experience decreased Level 4 coach promotion probabilities by up to 17.8%. The negative relationship between non-NFL professional football coaching experience and promotions for Level 4 coaches may be more profound for Level 4 coaches than other NFL coach ranks due to expanding coaching staffs allowing for more Level 4 coaches to secure NFL positions later in the sample period (Mielke, 2007). The rise of Level 4 coaches later in the sample period coincides with the rise of less competitive non-NFL professional football leagues to rival the NFL (e.g., the United States Football League), thus devaluing non-NFL professional football league coaching experience.

Similarly, too much coaching experience at lower levels within the NFL can also adversely impact a coach's career advancement. Level 2 coaches may experience a decrease in promotion likelihood of up to 52.1% for 29 years of coaching experience as a Level 3 or 4 coach.

However, for Level 3 coaches, having 19 years of coaching experience as a Level 4 coach could reduce the probability of demotion by 3.7%.

Though the two aforementioned findings may seem contrary, they could be product of the level of advancement team owners, general managers, and head coaches are comfortable with pertaining to amount of experience at various levels of an organization. For example, team owners and general managers may not feel comfortable relying on a head coach with little experience in the higher coaching ranks (i.e., Levels 1 and 2), however, position coaches with many years of experience as assistant position coaches may be valuable right where they are. This finding of more experience decreasing career advancement opportunities may be why some previous studies (e.g., Fee et al., 2006; Rider et al., 2016) found statistically insignificant results when not differentiating between the levels of previous NFL coaching experience.

Position coaches with too much experience as assistant position coaches may not be too desirable for promotion to assistant head coach or coordinator, unless they secure more experience at their current level. More experience in current coaching levels is advantageous for Level 3 coaches seeking promotion and could increase their chance of promotion by up to 12.6%. This finding is consistent with previous studies which used years of experience as a measure of human capital accumulated on the job (e.g., Braddock et al., 2012; Malone et al., 2008; Rider et al., 2016).

As lower levels of coaching experience may be devalued, higher levels of coaching experience may be highly valued. In fact, for all three levels of NFL coaches eligible for promotion (i.e., non-head coaches), experience at the next higher level is a significant determinant of promotion. Within the sample, Level 2 coaches increased their probability of promotion by up to 19.7% for 15 years of head coach experience. Level 3 coaches increased

their probability of promotion by up to 66.6% for 22 years of assistant head coach or coordinator experience.

Level 4 coaches increased their probability of promotion by up to 52.3% for 28 years of Level 3 coaching experience. Therefore, it appears if the coach was trusted to perform a higher level job in the past, and may have secured additional human capital relative to his peers, he is more likely to be trusted with the job again in the future. This finding is consistent with previous findings related to both human capital accumulation (Braddock et al., 2012; Malone et al., 2008; Rider et al., 2016) and the positive relationship between previous promotions with future promotions (Acosta, 2010; Malone et al., 2008).

Though many interesting, confirmatory, and contradictory results were found in the present study, the predictive abilities of the promotion models, as evidenced by the pseudo- R^2 of each promotion model was not high. The low predictive abilities of the models are indicative of the difficulty of determining, not only who would be a good candidate for promotion (Longley & Wong, 2011), but also who good candidates for promotion are. Therefore, studies which examine candidate pools as determinants of dismissals (e.g., Foreman & Soebbing, 2015) may experience difficulty when estimating qualified candidates for promotions. Finally, based on the decreasing pseudo R^2 values of the promotion models from Level 2 coaches to Level 4 coaches, there appears to be more difficulty in determining promotions further down the organizational hierarchy.

Conclusion

The present study was designed to contribute to the present literature regarding the statistical relationships between managerial career advancement in the NFL and race, centrality, and the Rooney Rule. It found no evidence of racial disparities in the head coach or

coordinator/assistant head coach ranks as well as no evidence of the Rooney Rule increasing racial diversity, even among head coaches. However, the findings in the present research indicate Black Level 3 coaches may experience more career advancement and job retention difficulty than their non-Black counterparts.

Additionally, central position coaches, who are predominantly White, are more likely to be promoted; however, the findings in the present study do not support the conclusion that Black central position coaches experience more career advancement difficulty than their White central position counterparts. The present study also found older coaches to be more likely to be promoted and penalty yards accrued by a team help the career advancement of Level 2 coaches but simultaneously harm the careers of Level 3 coaches. Next, head coach turnover the following season helped coaches get promoted and decreased the likelihood of demotion and too much lower-level coaching experience adversely impacted career advancement.

The present study has implications for organizational practitioners and scholars. With other organizations, inside (Gordon, 2008; Pike, 2011) and outside (Frier, 2015; Haselton, 2017) sport, looking to the NFL's Rooney Rule to increase diversity among their employees, the present study concurs with previous literature (e.g., Rider et al., 2016; Solow et al., 2011) that indicates the Rooney Rule is an ineffective policy for increasing diversity. Therefore, organizations seeking to adopt a policy similar to the Rooney Rule should not implement a policy such as the NFL's with the expectations that it will increase diversity.

Though many interesting findings resulted from the present study, the promotion models within the study demonstrated the difficulty of determining how promotion decisions are made by practitioners. Therefore, studies attempting to examine candidates for promotion (e.g., Foreman & Soebbing, 2015) may experience substantial difficulty in determining which

candidates are being considered for promotion. To increase the ability of promotion models to identify actual candidates, future studies can incorporate socio-political forces (Foreman & Soebbing) as well as social ties (Brandes, Brechot, & Franck, 2015; Fast & Jensen, 2006) into the model. Additionally, future promotion models can incorporate efficiency by examining inputs, such as player ability, into the model (Fort et al., 2008). Another determinant to consider concerns the level of coaching success and responsibility in college and other professional leagues.

Pertaining to issues of race, future research could examine if racial disparities exist based on the promotability of the position or the difficulty level of retaining a position within a certain organization (Cook & Glass, 2014). Future research could also examine whether minority head coaches are more likely to hire or promote minority assistant coaches relative to their White counterparts. Finally, research could examine the probability of coaches securing subsequent head coaching positions after being dismissed from a head coaching position in the past, and whether factors such as race or age affect those subsequent head coaching opportunities.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

Executive dismissals and successions can be difficult to accurately examine for several reasons. The sport industry provided important data to assist in examining executive dismissals and successions; however, difficulties still exist in identifying factors related to dismissals, and subsequently, successions. Fredrickson et al. (1988) developed a framework to better understand executive dismissals, which, in turn, provides for a better understanding of successions but this model of CEO dismissals is not perfect. As an example, research based on their four socio-political forces of CEO dismissals often resulted in inconsistent or contradictory results. Inconsistent or contradictory results may be due to misinterpretations of the model, difficulties operationalizing the four socio-political forces, errors in accurately measuring organizational performance or any of the four socio-political forces, or an incomplete model proposed by Fredrickson et al. (1988).

Executive dismissals and successions are also contingent upon successors, candidate pools, and determinants of promotions. Though executive successions require an understanding of executive dismissals, executive dismissals require an understanding of candidate pools, and candidate pools require an understanding of promotions from the lowest rung of the career ladder, they are often disjointed in the literature. Executive dismissal research typically identifies candidate pools based on firm and industry size proxies, which are often based on sales figures, number of employees in a firm, or number of firms in an industry (e.g., Crossland & Chen, 2013; Parrino, 1997). These proxies do not consider how tall or wide organizational structures are or how qualified candidates to replace executives are.

A large body of previous literature examines issues such as executive successions, executive dismissals, and career trajectories (Fee et al., 2006; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Foreman & Soebbing, 2015; Ward, Sonnenfeld, & Kimberly, 1995), however, without understanding the antecedents of executive successions, fully understanding executive successions themselves may not be possible (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) model of CEO dismissals remained a leading theory for understanding executive dismissals for almost three decades and has been influential in molding research questions and empirical examinations. Yet, minimal revisions or additions to the dismissal model have been proposed in that time.

The present dissertation improved upon empirical studies using the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model of CEO dismissals by establishing a proxy for actual candidates to replace an executive rather than proxies based on industry and firm characteristics. Using the proxy for candidates provided statistically insignificant results that question the theoretical relationship between candidate availability and executive dismissals. Additionally, the present dissertation proposed and found empirical justification for incorporating a fifth socio-political force within the Fredrickson et al. (1988) CEO dismissal model. Interestingly, within the deviant culture of the NFL (Coakley, 2015; Statz et al., 2007), deviant behavior may increase or decrease executive dismissal likelihood depending on the type of deviant behavior, punishments received for deviant behavior, and implementation of institutional policies regarding deviant behavior.

Finally, the present dissertation emphasized the relationship between executive dismissals and candidates available to succeed executives, and therefore, examined determinants of managerial promotions within the empirical setting examined (i.e., the NFL). Specifically focusing on race and centrality as promotion and demotion determinants, the present dissertation found race and centrality to be statistically significant factors in promotions and demotions,

though the influence of these variables depends on whether the manager is being considered for promotion or demotion as well as their current rank within the organization (i.e., upper- or lower-level management).

Generalizability of Findings and Limitations

Though the findings within this dissertation were conducted within the context of sport, they can largely be generalized to broader corporate contexts for several reasons (Day et al., 2012; Kahn, 2000; Wolfe et al., 2005). Studies using NFL data are beneficial due to amount of accurately measured data available (Borland & Lye 1996; Day et al., 2012; Wolfe et al., 2005). More specifically, findings such as deviance increasing the likelihood of executive dismissal are especially robust given the increased acceptance of deviant behavior within the culture of the NFL (Coakley, 2015). Furthermore, the specific NFL policies examined in the dissertation (i.e., Rooney Rule and personal conduct policy) are relevant to non-sport industries (Frier, 2015; Haselton, 2017; Lyons et al., 2016; Pike, 2011), though, due to data limitations, pose difficulties with empirical examinations (Day et al., 2012; Lyons et al., 2016; Wolfe et al., 2005). Therefore, the NFL has provided an ideal setting to examine organizational phenomena regarding managerial labor mobility and policies affecting managerial labor mobility. Still, the empirical setting of the NFL is not without generalizability concerns.

Though numerous benefits emerge from using sport as an empirical setting for organization and management studies, the setting of sport is not flawless. In particular, many scholars identified key differences between sport and non-sport industries which may pose problems when attempting to generalize results. As identified above, though they generate millions of dollars annually, sport teams are not large multi-faceted organizations in terms of personnel or operating divisions (Brown, 1982; Maxcy, 2013), therefore, Wright, Smart, and

McMahan (1995) advised caution when attempting to apply sport-related organization studies to these larger organizations.

Another warning came from Wolfe et al. (2005) regarding results of diversity research within the sport context being generalized outside of sport, stating that social norms and regulations are especially unique in sport. However, because sport is a less progressive social world (Nelson, 1994), results which indicate a lack of discrimination become more robust. Cannella and Rowe (1995) also noted some generalizability differences based on the unique sport context by expressing how sports teams, confined by tight regulations and more difficulties associated with changing organizational performance, yield conservative, rigorous inferences when investigating the effects of new executives. Cannella and Rowe (1995) also stated sport teams are very similar organizations within the same industry and “inferences about the relationship between independent and dependent variables are stronger than may be the case with some other types of organizations” (p. 73).

Sport teams are also unique based on various elements affecting entry-level employees (i.e., players) which may pose problems for generalizing results outside of the sport context. Entry-level employees in sport are unique because their salaries are substantially higher than salaries of entry-level employees in other industries and greater than their executives (Harder, 1992). Further, the performance of employees (i.e., players) could be affected by the wealth of public information available about them (Harder, 1992).

Another unique characteristic of entry-level employees in sport involves the high degrees of loyalty to their work groups relative to the loyalty of work groups in most non-sport industries (Adler & Adler, 1988). Yet, Adler and Adler (1988) identified other work groups may exhibit high degrees of loyalty, but also share other characteristics of professional athletes such as high

initial compensation (e.g., surgical teams) or a substantial degree of media attention (e.g., astronaut work groups). Therefore, results may be more generalizable to the aforementioned work groups with similar characteristics to professional sport teams. Performance teams are also unique in structure (Wolfe et al., 2005). Wolfe et al. (2005) explained that members of performance teams are the primary drivers of organizational performance. As the primary drivers of organizational performance, it is the responsibility of others in the organization to shield performance teams from external disturbances so the performance team can perform their duties free of distraction to achieve higher levels of organizational success (Wolfe et al., 2005).

Wolfe et al. (2005) identified the differences in time among various types of teams (i.e., performance teams and non-performance teams) as being either temporary task forces or at least somewhat permanent teams or crews. Wolfe et al. (2005) stated crews, such as airline cockpit crews, use members for short periods of time to conduct specific tasks and inferred that the high prevalence of player mobility indicates that sports teams are most similar to crews. However, this seems like a quite subjective choice to classify a sport team as a crew due to player mobility. One could argue that cohesion within an elite, highly talented and competitive performance team would require more time together in order to remain or become competitive in their sport than an airline cockpit crew which does not have to compete against rival airline cockpit crews in order to produce a quality product. Most non-sport work teams are also accustomed to a relatively stable work pace; however, performance teams expend much of their effort during their training and performances which typically deviate from the consistent pace of work experienced in most occupations (Wolfe et al., 2005).

Additionally, Wolfe et al. (2005) described how sport teams differ from other non-performance teams in terms of boundaries. Boundaries are much different for sport teams and

their members than teams in other industries for two reasons: they (a) perform in the public eye and (b) are often exposed to the public, usually through the media, even when not performing (Wolfe et al., 2005). Issues revolving around attention outside the field of play may be compounded due to the size of the team's metropolitan area or fan base as well as the fact that members of sport performance teams are also often responsible for off-field public relations, merchandise sales, and advertising, rather than simply producing a scripted performance product.

Though Wolfe et al. (2005) identified multiple potential problems with the generalizability of sport studies to non-sport industries, they also stated sport research remains an attractive and beneficial empirical setting despite these issues. In many instances, there still exists sufficient contextual overlap for results to generalize outside of sport. Though there are peculiarities associated with any industry, and generalizability is never perfect for all organizations, sport research, similar to research in other industries, is useful for providing insight into similar industries and positions being examined (Brown, 1982; Humphreys et al., 2011).

Lastly, though data are available in sport for examining social networks (e.g., Brandes, Brechot, & Franck, 2015; Fast & Jensen, 2006), the studies within this dissertation did not incorporate social networks with the models. However, opportunities for coaches to be among a pool of candidates for a given position may be stronger when a social connection exists between the potential candidate and the employer. Furthermore, within minority coaching communities, networks may be even more useful for securing higher ranking positions in the NFL, which is likely the motivation behind the Rooney Rule.

Therefore, limitations studies in Chapters 2 and 4 may face limitations when examining the role of candidate availability on head coach dismissals, or determinants of external

promotions, respectively, when excluding analyses of social networks. Therefore, future research opportunities exist for analyzing social networks in conjunction with candidate pools and visible minority status when examining managerial labor mobility in the NFL. However, several other future research opportunities stemming from the present dissertation also exist.

Future Research Opportunities

There are several opportunities for future research stemming from the research contained in this dissertation. Regarding the influence of candidate availability on executive dismissal decisions, future research could explore candidate quality rather than quantity, candidate-firm fit, and which candidates decide to secure employment at certain firms. Regarding the relationship between deviance and executive dismissals, future research could examine other empirical settings with varying levels of deviance and perceptions of deviance, media exposure related to deviance, whether executives with personnel decision responsibilities are held to higher standards, and what type of leaders are more likely to lead deviant organizations.

Furthermore, future research regarding dismissals and successions could examine whether dismissal decisions based on different socio-political forces may affect post-succession organizational performance. Regarding managerial promotions and demotions, future research could examine if minority or non-central position coaches are disproportionately assigned to more precarious managerial positions, whether minority head coaches are more likely to hire or promote minority assistant coaches, or if demographics influence the ability of previously dismissed head coaches to secure future head coach positions. Lastly, future research could examine the dynamic between internal employees being more likely to be promoted when organizational performance is high (Fee et al., 2006), more internal promotions positively influencing future promotions within the same organization (Acosta, 2010), and interim CEOs

being more likely to leave their organization after not being selected as CEO (Cannella & Shen, 2001).

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APPENDIX A

CANDIDACY MATERIALS

The two areas of executive dismissal literature consist of understanding why executives are dismissed and determining the effect of dismissals on organizational performance (Holmes, 2011). However, to truly understand the effects of dismissals, an understanding of why executives are dismissed is also required (Fredrickson, Hambrick, & Baumrin, 1988). In an attempt to better understand executive dismissals and successions, researchers have utilized the context of sport (Day, Gordon, & Fink, 2012; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Wolfe et al., 2005). This literature review begins with a review of sport as an empirical setting, followed by a brief overview of leadership, which includes leadership styles and leadership as an activity. Following the review of leadership, I present a review of the literature regarding top executive dismissals and successions. This literature review concludes with some brief insight into elements which are currently missing from the literature and a few avenues for future research.

Sport as an Empirical Setting for Executive Dismissal and Succession Research

A number of studies examined various issues of importance related to management, economics, organizations, and leadership using sport (Day et al., 2012; Kahn, 2000; Wolfe et al., 2005). Sport has been used to examining non-sport-related phenomena for either its data or unique context (Day et al., 2012; Wolfe et al., 2005). Sociologists often opine that sport reflects the greater society in which it exists, indicating sport behaviors and practices seen can also be observed in society (Coakley, 2015; Eitzen & Sage, 1997). For example, the implementation of the Rooney Rule in the NFL, which was established to provide minorities with more equal access to upper management positions, has been likened to affirmative action policies throughout society (Pike, 2011). Furthermore, scholars identified several ways in which sports parallel

work, especially with regard to performance, adhering to rules, organizational structures (Keidel, 1987).

Data from the sport industry are particularly advantageous because sport provides an ample amount of observable and accurately measured individual and organizational performance data spanning extended time periods (Borland & Lye 1996; Day et al., 2012; Wolfe et al., 2005). Moreover, data from sport comes from a setting which often uses highly incentivized and motivated participants which is a limitation faced by many researchers conducting traditional laboratory research (Goff & Tollison, 1990). The data advantages available in sport may be particularly useful for studying events and environments where information may be hard to obtain or often inaccurate such as sensitive executive dismissals and successions.

Research on executive dismissals and successions in the corporate world is hindered due to access to information often being limited or poorly measured (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Kesner & Sebora, 1994; Pitcher, Chreim, & Kisfalvi, 2000; Solow, Solow, & Walker, 2011). One factor limiting data collection in this field is that obtrusive instruments (e.g., surveys) for examining executive dismissals would cause too much measurement error and response bias to be useful (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Furthermore, Fredrickson et al. (1988) noted the difficulties associated with obtaining enough board members as research participants needed to conduct legitimate research. Even more specific to the executive dismissal data issue is the difficulty in determining the types of dismissals (e.g., retirement, firing) as well as the reasons of the decision makers (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Haynes, Josephy, & Hitt, 2015; Koning, 2003; Weisbach, 1988). These data limitations led numerous researchers to advocate for better proxies in evaluating executive dismissal decisions (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Kesner & Sebora, 1994; Pitcher et al., 2000). Sport data provide

clarity regarding overall measures of organizational performance (Borland & Lye, 1996; Day et al., 2012; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986), expectations for that organizational performance (Allen & Chadwick, 2012; Humphreys, Paul, & Weinbach, 2011), and the circumstances of the executive turnover (Borland & Lye, 1996; Holmes, 2011; Koning, 2003). Scholars using sport data to gain insight into non-sport settings often viewed team head coaches as executives (e.g., Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Giambatista, 2004; Holmes, 2011)

Head Coaches as Executives

In many of the contexts in which sport managers are used to examine managerial and organizational theories, head coaches of team sports are often viewed as non-sport industry executives due to the many similarities between the two positions (Day et al., 2012; Frick, Barros, & Prinz, 2010; Wolfe et al., 2005). Both head coaches and non-sport executives analyze competition and industry changes (Hughes, Hughes, Mellahi, & Guermat, 2010), implement competitive strategies (Brown, 1982; Hughes et al., 2010; Humphreys et al., 2011; Maxcy, 2013; Rowe, Cannella, Rankin, & Gorman, 2005) and devise tactics (Brown, 1982; Hughes et al., 2010; Humphreys et al., 2011) to gain a competitive advantage in their respective industries. Head coaches and non-sport executives are also often responsible for acquiring (Brown, 1982; Hughes et al., 2010; Humphreys et al., 2011; Maxcy, 2013; Rowe et al., 2005; Soebbing & Washington, 2011) and developing (Hughes et al., 2010; Rowe et al., 2005) personnel.

Head coaches and non-sport executives are also similar in the way they are viewed by the public. Part of the responsibilities of the head coach and the corporate executive is to manage public relations (Hughes et al., 2010; Humphreys et al., 2011). Given their public relations responsibilities and position atop their organization, head coaches and executives often receive media attention akin to pop culture celebrities (Hall, Blass, Ferris, & Massengale, 2004).

Furthermore, many corporate executives believe head coaches are similar occupations to corporate executives and studying head coaches through various media outlets can provide information generalizable to the corporate world (Giambatista, 2004; Rowe et al., 2005).

Specific to dismissals and successions, head coaches and corporate executives are also similar in several capacities. Both head coaches and executives must operate within hierarchical organizational structures (Brown, 1982; Keidel, 1987; Maxcy, 2013) where they are responsible for optimizing performance while being constrained by resources and rules (Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Rowe, et al., 2005). However, if organizational performance declines, head coaches and non-sport executives may be held responsible and subsequently dismissed (Cannella & Rowe, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Rowe, et al., 2005). The frequency of successions in both sport and the corporate world are also similar (Bennett, Phillips, Drane, & Sagas, 2003; Fredrickson et al., 1988) along with the tools for increasing organizational performance (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993). Therefore, to acquire future positions, both head coaches and non-sport executives rely on their reputations which vary based on their abilities, previous experiences, and performance of their organizations (Cannella & Rowe, 1995).

Multiple scholars also advocated head coaches are not just similar to non-sport executives, but actually positioned them as chief executive officers (CEOs) (e.g., Frick et al., 2010; Maxcy, 2013). Though Hughes et al. (2010) pointed out English Premier League (EPL) managers are involved with external and strategic activities analogous to CEOs, they also suggested EPL managers could be more akin to chief operating officers (COOs) due to the focus on internal duties (e.g., solving workplace problems and nurturing talent) shared by both positions. Similarly, Day and Lord (1988) claimed head coaches are more comparable to middle-level managers than top executives because head coaches are not solely responsible for

long-term strategies regarding personnel and the quality of players is the primary determinant of on-field success. Further, Day and Lord (1988) suggested changes in team ownership would constitute a more comparable top executive for succession literature. However, Giambatista (2004) specifically addressed Day and Lord's (1988) suggestion that team owners are more like executives than head coaches by finding that leader life cycles and team performance are stronger fits with head coaches than team owners in professional basketball.

Generalizability of Sport Research

Though numerous benefits emerge from using sport as an empirical setting for organization and management studies, the setting of sport is not flawless. In particular, many scholars identified key differences between sport and non-sport industries which may pose problems when attempting to generalize results. As identified above, though they generate millions of dollars annually, sport teams are not large multi-faceted organizations in terms of personnel or operating divisions (Brown, 1982; Maxcy, 2013), therefore, Wright, Smart, and McMahan (1995) advised caution when attempting to apply sport-related organization studies to these larger organizations.

Another warning came from Wolfe et al. (2005) regarding results of diversity research within the sport context being generalized outside of sport, stating that social norms and regulations are especially unique in sport. This unique social environment in sport can be both advantageous and disadvantageous. As mentioned earlier in this section, the Rooney Rule which is an NFL-specific regulation does not exist in most industries, however, it is useful to study for a better understanding of bias and discrimination within society. Some differences in sport, such as in discrimination research may be especially useful for generalizing outside of sport. Since sport is a less progressive social world (Nelson, 1994), results which indicate a lack of

discrimination in sport become more robust. Cannella and Rowe (1995) also found some generalizability based on the unique sport context by expressing how sports teams, confined by tight regulations and more difficulties associated with changing organizational performance, yield conservative, rigorous inferences when investigating the effects of new executives. Cannella and Rowe (1995) also stated since sports teams are very similar organizations within the same industry, “inferences about the relationship between independent and dependent variables are stronger than may be the case with some other types of organizations” (p. 73).

Sport teams are also very unique based on various elements affecting entry-level employees (i.e., players) which may pose problems for generalizing results outside of the sport context. Entry-level employees in sport are very unique because their salaries are substantially higher than salaries of entry-level employees in other industries and greater than their executives (Harder, 1992). Further, the performance of employees (i.e., players) could be affected by the wealth of public information available about them (Harder, 1992). Another unique characteristic of entry-level employees in sport involves the high degrees of loyalty to their work groups relative to the loyalty of work groups in most non-sport industries (Adler & Adler, 1988). Yet, Adler and Adler (1988) identified other work groups may exhibit high degrees of loyalty, but also share other characteristics of professional athletes such as high initial compensation (e.g., surgical teams) or a substantial degree of media attention (e.g., astronaut work groups).

Wolfe et al. (2005) explained sport teams are performance teams which produce the organization’s primary product of entertainment similar to a concert or play. Wolfe et al. (2005) further stated performance teams differ from other types of teams in training and development, structure, time, and boundary conditions. In terms of training and development, Wolfe et al. (2005) argued in performance teams, innate abilities are emphasized more than effort and their

time is mostly spent on coordinating rather than strategizing, innovating, or learning. However, these characteristics were probably more specific to scripted performers as opposed to open-sport performers whose product promotes uncertain outcomes, such as in professional football.

Performance teams are also unique in structure (Wolfe et al., 2005). Wolfe et al. (2005) explained that members of performance teams are the primary drivers of organizational performance. As the primary drivers of organizational performance, it is the responsibility of others in the organization to shield performance teams from external disturbances so the performance team can perform their duties free of distraction to achieve higher levels of organizational success (Wolfe et al., 2005).

Wolfe et al. (2005) identified the differences in time among various types of teams (i.e., performance teams and non-performance teams) as being either temporary task forces or at least somewhat permanent teams or crews. Wolfe et al. (2005) stated crews, such as airline cockpit crews, use members for short periods of time to conduct specific tasks and inferred that the high prevalence of player mobility indicates that sports teams are most similar to crews. However, this seems like a quite subjective choice to classify a sport team as a crew due to player mobility. One could argue that cohesion within an elite, highly talented and competitive performance team would require more time together in order to remain or become competitive in their sport than an airline cockpit crew which does not have to compete against rival airline cockpit crews in order to produce a quality product. Most non-sport work teams are also accustomed to a relatively stable work pace, however, performance teams expend much of their effort during their training and performances which typically deviate from the consistent pace of work experienced in most occupations (Wolfe et al., 2005).

Lastly, Wolfe et al. (2005) described how sport teams differ from other non-performance teams in terms of boundaries. Boundaries are much different for sport teams and their members than teams in other industries for two reasons: they (a) perform in the public eye and (b) are often exposed to the public, usually through the media, even when not performing (Wolfe et al., 2005). Issues revolving around attention outside the field of play may be compounded due to the size of the team's metropolitan area or fanbase as well as the fact that members of sport performance teams are also often responsible for off-field public relations, merchandise sales, and advertising, rather than simply producing a scripted performance product. Though Wolfe et al. (2005) identified multiple potential problems with the generalizability of sport studies to non-sport industries, they also stated sport research remains an attractive and beneficial empirical setting despite these issues. In many instances, there still exists sufficient contextual overlap for results to generalize outside of sport. Though there are peculiarities associated with any industry, and generalizability is never perfect for all organizations, sport research, similar to research in other industries, is useful for providing insight into similar industries and positions being examined (Brown, 1982; Humphreys et al., 2011).

Recent Organization and Management Studies Using Sport

Bennett et al. (2003) advocated for an analysis of the work using sport as an empirical setting. Shortly after, Wolfe et al. (2005) published an examination of research related to Sport Management from five leading non-sport journals: *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Journal of Management*, *Organization Science*, and *Strategic Management Journal*. Day et al. (2012) later examined studies published from 1963 through 2011, without limiting the search to specific journals. In their examination, they identified three themes which the articles reviewed were associated with: (a) manager/leader successions, (b)

motivation (e.g., pay dispersion and goal-setting), and (c) analyses of performance over time (for individuals and/or teams). Though Day et al. (2012) also encountered studies outside of these three themes, they limited their review and analyses to the studies associated with these themes.

As an update to these two studies (i.e., Day et al., 2012; Wolfe et al., 2005), I searched 60 journals ranked as an A* and A by the Australian Business Dean's Council. The five journals identified by Wolfe et al. (2005) were included within the list (i.e., *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Journal of Management*, *Organization Science*, and *Strategic Management Journal*). The 60 journals were selected based on the relevance of their topic areas to typical sport-related studies. The sample period began with 2012 to continue from where Day et al.'s (2012) study finished and extended through 2015. Only published journal issues were examined and no online first (i.e., in press) articles due to not all journals providing access to in press articles. Of the 60 journals, 38 published sport-related articles. In total, the 38 highly ranked non-sport specific journals published 177 sport-related articles in the four-year sample period.

The majority (n=101) of the sport-related articles were published in journals with the word *Economic* in the title. Thirty-six of the 101 sport-related articles in specifically economic journals were from *Applied Economics*, followed by 17 in *Economic Inquiry*, 15 in *Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization*, 10 in *Economics Letters*, and the remaining 23 dispersed among 10 other Economics journals. The only other journal with at least eight sport-related articles published in the four-year sample period is *European Journal of Operational Research* (n=15). The complete breakdown of articles, ordered alphabetically by journal, can be found in Appendix B.

Similar to Day et al. (2012), I divided the 177 articles into broad categories. To devise article categories, I build on Day et al.'s (2012) four primary categories of (a) Manager Succession and Organizational Performance; (b) Rewards, Motivation, and Performance; (c) Performance Over Time; and (d) Sport Science. However, since Day et al. (2012) reviewed a narrower scope of articles that fit nicely in these four categories, I broaden the scope of each category to be more inclusive of the 177 articles I am categorizing. Therefore, instead of limiting successions to managers, I use a broader category of Labor and Personnel Issues, which includes turnover of both managers and employees, as well as related issues regarding recruitment, staffing, discrimination, diversity, training, scheduling, health insurance, and well-being.

Day et al.'s (2012) category Rewards, Motivation, and Performance included studies about goal-setting, incentives, and pay equity. Due to the many articles dedicated to the related issues of competitive balance and uncertainty of outcomes which can affect performance incentives and pay dispersion, the revised category I use includes articles about competitive balance and uncertainty of outcomes. Day et al.'s (2012) Performance Over Time category was used to classify articles that predict and model performance and changes in performance. I use the same category, however, I broadly identify performance as sport, financial, or betting market performance. Additionally, a few studies examine sport or Sport Management changes through history which I include in Day et al.'s (2012) Performance Over Time category that I re-label as Modeling Change/Performance.

Day et al.'s (2012) final category Sport Science was dedicated to psychology-based studies on topics such as choking under pressure, momentum, loyalty, passion, and career-transitions. Therefore, I re-label the Sport Science category as Psychology and include the same

types of studies in the category, as well as one other study regarding athletes engaging in violence after competitions. Finally, I add a fifth category which is not considered by Day et al. (2012) that I label as Venues which includes articles related to facilities, mega events, and other sport and recreation sites. Though many articles contain elements of multiple categories, I categorized each article into its most contextually appropriate category so no article is in more than one category.

Of the 177 articles, 44% (n=78) fit into the Modeling Change/Performance category. Within this category, the topics most frequently studied revolved around gambling markets (n=11), bias in officiating and judging sports contests (n=8), predicting or improving rankings in sports (n=7). An interesting and emerging area of scholarly interest within this category is related to deviant behavior (n=6) where issues of such as penalties, criminal behavior, and sabotage are central themes.

Following the Modeling Change/Performance category, the Labor and Personnel Issues category has the second most articles with 29% (n=51) of the 177 articles. Though a broader category than Day et al.'s (2012) Managerial Successions and Organizational Performance is used, it is important to note 8% (n=14) of the 177 articles specifically addressed leadership (e.g., top managers, coaches) and several others discussed implications for leaders and managers. Other issues frequently discussed among the articles in the Labor and Personnel Issues category include labor movement and personnel decisions (n=17), racial or gender issues in the labor market (n=14), human or social capital accumulation or benefits (n=9), and employee compensation (n=6).

Twelve percent (n=22) of the articles belong to the Rewards and Motivation category and 11% of the articles are in the Psychology category. Among the articles in the Rewards and

Motivation category, uncertainty of outcomes (n=8) and competitive balance (n=7) are the most discussed topics and are typically in reference to attendance (n=6). Venues is the category with the least amount of articles with the remaining 4% (n=7) articles. Within this category, publicly funded spaces are discussed in three articles and mega events in two of the articles. Also, three of the four articles from journals that have the term *urban* in the title are in this Venues category.

Conclusions from Examination of Recent Sport Studies

With at least 177 sport-related articles being published in top-tier non-sport-specific management-related journals in the past four years, several opportunities exist for sport management scholars. Sport management scholars can use the information produced by Wolfe et al. (2005), Day et al. (2012), and within this literature review to gauge areas of interest to the greater management community as well as identify sport-related studies which may not receive attention in sport-specific journals. By analyzing sport studies published in non-sport journals, sport management scholars may also identify journals in which their studies may fit. These journals outside sport management may offer a broader audience for applied and theoretical contributions. Furthermore, sport management scholars who publish both within and outside of sport-specific journals may be able to increase the attention and legitimacy of both sport-specific journals as well as sport-related research overall.

Though the authors of these 177 articles have been able to contribute to the body of scholarly literature within the sport management and general management fields, they also provide numerous opportunities for future research. Due to the substantial breadth of subjects discussed in these 177 articles, I will limit the discussion of future research opportunities from these articles to a couple topics which are relevant to this literature review: the effect of status on performance and human capital accumulation following employee mobility.

Status is often associated with job mobility and performance in several ways (e.g., Finkelstein, 1992; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Flickinger, Wrage, Tuschke, & Bresser, 2015; Fralich, 2012; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Westphal & Khanna, 2003). Within the 177 articles examined in this section, Bothner, Kim, and Smith (2012) examined the effect of status on individual performance in professional golf and stock car racing and Marr and Thau (2014) examined performance following declines in status among professional baseball players. Their results indicate high status individuals perform below their maximum ability (Bothner et al., 2012), especially following a decline in status (Marr & Thau, 2014). While these results may have substantial implications for management and sport management scholars and practitioners, many questions arise from these studies. Future research regarding the nature of status and its effects on performance could examine (a) individuals occupying various levels within an organization (e.g., supervisory, middle, and top managers), (b) how status is distributed among groups (e.g., normal, flat, bimodal, zero-sum), (c) whether status loss generally occurs abruptly or slowly over time, (d) if status and the effects of status are affected differently by different behaviors (e.g., on-field performance, off-field deviance), or (e) if individual status behaves in a similar manner as organizational status with respect to all of the aforementioned considerations.

In a study of EPL teams, Pazzaglia, Flynn, and Sonpar (2012) found firms can capitalize on employee mobility due to human capital accumulated in a given firm and used against another firm. Kahane, Longley, and Simmons (2013) also examined the effects of employee mobility on human capital accumulation and subsequent organizational performance improvements, but this time in professional hockey. Kahane et al. (2013) concluded teams that hire multiple European players from the same country are able to increase their human capital without causing too much

disruptions from language and cultural differences which may occur on teams with European players from different countries.

In the 2014 special issue of the *Journal of Management* on the topic of strategic human capital, two articles use sport to delve deeper into human capital theory. Crocker and Eckardt (2014) discovered that the relationship between individual human capital and individual performance is dependent on unit-level human capital. Specifically, they found the ability of MLB pitchers to convert their knowledge and skills to lower earned run averages (ERAs) was dependent on the human capital of the coaching staff. Campbell, Saxton, and Banerjee (2014) examined the effects of employee mobility on the human capital of movers and incumbents in an organization. Similar to Kahane et al. (2013), Campbell et al. (2014) concluded that, though mobility causes initial performance to decrease, when mobility occurs with colleagues, the performance declines diminish.

Most recently, among the 177 aforementioned articles, those published in 2015 related to mobility and human capital build on the works of Kahane et al. (2013) and Campbell et al. (2014) by emphasizing the importance of heterogeneity in work teams. Smith and Hou (2015) noted performance benefits from diversity can decrease over time as groups become more homogenous and diverse groups experience more difficulties due to communication and culture barriers. Additionally, Smith and Hou (2015) used evidence from the NBA to propose the use of redundant heterogeneity for improving diversity benefits in organizations. They found that when team members move up a hierarchical structure and experience similar levels of diversity, at both the lower and higher hierarchical level, the impacts of diversity are improved. Similarly, Brandes, Brechot, and Franck (2015) examined mobility which occurred in conjunction with

social ties and found trades among managers with social ties were detrimental to team performance, which may be a result of increasing homogeneity within a group.

These studies regarding the relationships between human capital, mobility, and organizational performance provide several opportunities for future research. For example, future studies could examine various forms of heterogeneity and the human capital derived from these diverse organizations. More specifically, how do differences in demographics (e.g., age, race, sex, hometown, education, family status), deviant behavior, types of work experiences, or organizations affect future performance? Furthermore, can employees with similar characteristics come together to be more cohesive and which characteristics would make them less cohesive? Do networks affect cohesion or human capital benefits from heterogeneity? Additionally, examining how human capital, mobility, and organizational performance interact with each other at various organizational levels would be interesting, especially in executive positions where industry knowledge is especially important and could be obtained through interviews with candidates.

Not only does this literature review provide sport management scholars with a list of potential outlets to submit research and viable areas of future research relevant to sport management and general management scholars, but sport management could also benefit from the theoretical and empirical contributions of the greater management community. Reciprocally, the greater management community may be able to benefit from the theoretical and empirical contributions of sport management scholars, as evidenced by the large number of sport studies in the management literature. Additionally, early work by Grusky (1963) using baseball data to examine managerial successions has established a foundation for much of the empirical managerial succession research conducted today. Furthermore, sport studies which have been

widely cited within top management journals (e.g., Giambatista, 2004; Rowe, Cannella, Rankin, & Gorman, 2005) demonstrate the continued applicability of sport research to the greater management community. The literature reviewed in the *Sport as an Empirical Setting for Executive Dismissal and Succession Research* section has highlighted the contributions sport can provide non-sport scholars and practitioners and the following sections of this literature review will continue to demonstrate the mutually beneficial research which has, or can be, established between sport and non-sport scholars, particularly with respect to leadership, dismissals, and promotions.

Leadership

Managers are responsible for the performance of others (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Kippenberger, 2002), whereas, leaders influence groups toward common goals (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Hall et al., 2004; Kippenberger, 2002). Though many subtle distinctions have been drawn between the two terms, they are very similar. Both leadership and management typically involve influence, interpersonal relations, and goal accomplishment and both leaders and managers often operate in the capacity of the other (i.e., managers often perform leadership tasks and leaders often perform management tasks) (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011). Therefore, an examination of managers would not be complete without a discussion of leadership.

Two overarching approaches to examining leadership exist: focusing on the downward influence of leaders on followers and leadership as an activity (Hall et al., 2004). The leadership literature in the last century has primarily focused on how leaders influence followers (Hall et al., 2004), however, leadership as an activity is an important area of research which can inform and provide context to research regarding leaders influencing followers (Selznick, 1957).

The Influence of Leaders on Followers

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) described three types of leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. Using the aforementioned leadership styles, Lewin et al. (1939) categorized groups based on behaviors such as dominance and control asserted by the leaders. These basic styles of leadership lead to the emergence of behavior-based leadership styles which dominated the leadership styles literature until the 1960s (Kippenberger, 2002).

Building upon the work of Lewin et al. (1939), various researchers developed more complex versions of leadership styles. For instance, Stogdill and Shartle (1955) used Lewin et al.'s (1939) leadership styles to theorize a continuum of leadership styles based on leaders' consideration of followers where more considerate leaders were similar to Lewin et al.'s (1939) democratic leaders and less considerate leaders were similar to autocratic leaders. Blake and Mouton (1964) contributed to both Lewin et al.'s (1939) behavior-based leadership styles and Stogdill and Shartle's (1955) leadership style continuum by devising a nine-by-nine grid. Within this two dimensional continuum, leadership styles can be classified based on concern for people and results. Additionally, Blake and Mouton (1964) stated leaders are able to use different leadership styles depending on the situation.

Likert (1967) dichotomized Lewin et al.'s (1939) autocratic leadership style into benevolent authoritative and exploitative authoritative while providing more clarification into two other styles: democratic and participative. Likert's research showed participative and democratic styles to be more successful than the authoritative styles, however, it received criticism for not accounting for situational factors (e.g., crisis situations where autocratic styles are often viewed as essential). Based on the criticism of Likert's (1967) research and Blake and Mouton's (1964) idea that leaders may use different leadership styles depending on the situation,

a new era of leadership styles research evolved which was situation-based rather than solely behavior based.

Though studies concerning behavior-based leadership styles were still prevalent through the 1960s, situation-based leadership styles research began to emerge around the late 1950s when Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) proposed managers can employ various leadership styles based on the situation. To Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), situational factors included aspects such as the leader's personality, followers' personalities, and culture of the organization. However, Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1958) model was still largely behavior-based with the leader positioned as the sole controller of power in the group.

Building on the situation-based ideas of followers' personalities influencing leader decisions proposed by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), Fiedler (1967) developed a model of leadership effectiveness that examined leader power, relationships between leaders and followers, and characteristics of tasks undertaken by the group. Dependent on these various situational factors, Fiedler (1967) determined there is an optimal leadership style—either task-oriented leadership or people-oriented leadership.

Adding to Fiedler's (1967) leadership style framework, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) examined the competence and commitment of followers and ultimately found there to be optimal leadership styles for certain characteristics of followers which involved leadership styles with varying degrees of direction and support provided to followers. Vroom and Yetton (1973) advanced Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) research by developing a decision-making model based on five choices of leadership styles (i.e., autocratic I and II, consultative I and II, and group consensus). Similar to Hersey and Blanchard (1969), these five leadership styles were based on optimal ways of leading followers depending on follower competence and commitment.

Following Vroom and Yetton (1973), Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) developed a decision-making model for leadership styles among sport coaches which was later updated (see Chelladurai, 1990). As previous researchers outside of sport did in this field, Chelladurai's (1990) model is based on athletes' preferred leadership styles among coaches as well as the leadership styles which are most conducive for task completion—two outcomes which are highly correlated according to Chelladurai (1990). Also consistent with Vroom and Yetton (1973) as well as numerous other scholars of leadership styles, Chelladurai (1990) based the leadership style preferences around autocratic, consultative, and participative themes.

More recently than the situation-based leadership models, various other types of leadership styles have been proposed such as charismatic and transforming leadership (Kippenberger, 2002). Charismatic leadership is characterized by a confident and assertive personality, powerful vision, and strong conviction (Kippenberger, 2002). Charismatic leaders are especially effective in periods of crisis or change, however, their charisma also has the power to be dangerous if their powerful vision is not an optimal one (Kippenberger, 2002). A key distinction between charismatic leadership and previous leadership styles presented is that charismatic leadership is not a leadership style which can be selected from a range of leadership style options because only leaders with charisma can be charismatic leaders (Kippenberger, 2002).

Burns (1978) paved the way for research addressing transforming leadership, as opposed to transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is based on reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers in which leaders reward followers for their production by compensating them with external rewards such as bonuses, promotions, or praise (Burns, 1978). However, Burns (1978) argued transactional leadership alone was insufficient since people need to be

empowered instead of controlled by hierarchical organizational structures. In contrast to transactional leadership, Burns (1978) described transforming leadership as leadership based on mutual support rather than leaders as an authority with resources to bestow upon compliant followers without seeking followers' motivations. Burns (1978) further argued transforming leadership, which is based on characteristics such as trust, understanding, and commitment, attempts to merge organizational members' motivations with the mission of the organization, thereby creating a more ethical and moral environment.

Although leaders may come from several occupations and organizational levels (e.g., coaches, managers, work team leaders), Farkas and De Backer (1996) identified five leadership styles adopted by specifically by CEOs. Farkas and De Backer (1996) call these five styles the strategic, human assets, expertise, box, and change approaches. CEOs who use the strategic approach are often concerned with the overall organization as a whole, the direction the organization is going, and how the organization can compete against industry rivals. CEOs using the strategic approach spend the vast majority of their time obtaining and analyzing information while delegating day-to-day operations to others (Farkas & De Backer, 1996). Though most CEOs view many of the characteristics associated with the strategic approach as part of their duties, only about 20% of CEOs in Farkas and De Backer's (1996) sample of CEOs in large companies viewed this strategic approach as the defining role of their position.

The human assets approach revolves around personnel. CEOs who adopt the human assets approach place emphasis on hiring strategies, knowing the strengths and weaknesses of their personnel, developing skills and traits in their personnel, empowering personnel, and rewarding personnel. Human assets CEOs typically spend the majority of their time talking to their employees and ensuring company objectives, standards, and values are being upheld.

About 22% of CEO's in Farkas and De Backer's (1996) sample primarily used the human assets approach.

About 15% of Farkas and De Backer's (1996) sample was composed of CEOs whom favor the expertise approach. Expertise CEOs believe a specific, proprietary expertise should provide focus to the organization, and therefore, these CEOs spend most of their time investigating new technologies and advancing the technical knowledge of employees. CEOs using the expertise approach often increase research and development budgets and rely heavily on the recruitment and feedback of engineers, scientists, and other technical experts.

The most prevalent approach CEOs in Farkas and De Backer's (1996) sample used was the box approach, which included about 25% of the sample. CEOs that employ the box approach place emphasis on controlling the organization and ensure compliance with procedures, organizational culture and values, and numerical goals and targets. CEOs using the box approach spend their time ensuring the right boundaries are set for the organization and following up on instances when boundaries were crossed (e.g., missed deadlines or financial goals). Though the box approach is practiced by CEOs in numerous industries, this approach is most prevalent in highly regulated industries.

The final approach identified by Farkas and De Backer (1996) is the change approach which is the predominant approach of about 18% of the sample of CEOs. CEOs using the change approach view organizational transformation as central to the organizations mission. Change can occur in operating procedures, compensation programs, or even water cooler conversations. CEOs employing the change approach spend most of their time inspiring change by communicating with and motivating personnel at all organizational levels. Though CEOs

often use elements of each of more than one approach, Farkas and De Backer (1996) found most CEOs to focus on one, or sometimes two, approaches.

Similarly, Hanin (2007) described four types of head coaches which are the player developer, emergency leader, national team head coach, and international-level coaches working abroad. Similar to the CEO using the human assets approach (Farkas & De Backer, 1996), the player developer is often very analytical and creative, but also very skilled in interpersonal relations with their players, team leaders, and team management (Hanin, 2007). The emergency leader is often more task oriented and skilled in inspiring change within the team, however, the emergency leader is often motivated by challenge and may experience difficulties forging relationships with players and team management (Hanin, 2007). Successful national team head coaches need strong communication skills as well as the ability to forge strong interpersonal relationships with both internal and external stakeholders (Hanin, 2007). Additionally, national team head coaches need sensitivity to lead key players (Hanin, 2007). Finally, international-level coaches working abroad require, in addition to professional skills and coaching experiences, cross-cultural competence, an appreciation for diversity, and a strong understanding of management practices in the host country.

Hanin (2007) described the four types of head coaches, in part to acknowledge the unique skillsets required for certain types of coaches to influence their followers, but also to characterize the context in which different types of coaches lead. Hanin (2007) stated the player developer, whom is skillful in developing relationships as well as players, experience success over longer durations and typically stay with a team for longer than most coaches (i.e., five to six years). In contrast, the emergency leader is a short-term answer to a crisis situation (Hanin, 2007). The emergency leader, inept at forging long-term relationships and motivated by excitement and

challenges, must regularly transfer from team to team in order to achieve success and fulfill internal desires (Hanin, 2007). More unique in terms of tenure and mobility are the national team head coaches and the international-level coaches working abroad. National team head coaches and international-level coaches working abroad can be especially vulnerable to dismissal based on their abilities to communicate with and understand various internal and external stakeholders (Hanin, 2007).

Leadership as an Activity

Often the lines between leadership styles and leadership as an activity can be blurred due to the substantial overlap that exists between the two areas of leadership research. For example, the behaviors, human capital, and social/political abilities of leaders contribute to both leadership styles and activity (Hall et al., 2004; Soucie, 1994). These various aspects of both leadership styles and activities can contribute to interactions between leaders and followers, organizational outcomes, and even the promotion or retention of leaders (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Hall et al., 2004; Olafson & Hasting, 1988; Selznick, 1957; Soucie, 1994; Thoroughgood & Padilla, 2013).

Though the bulk of leadership research in the past century focused extensively on leader qualities and how leaders interact with followers, some scholars argued that an understanding of the context and role of leadership must first be understood (Hall et al., 2004; Selznick, 1957). Largely neglected due to the greater research attention on leadership styles were “factors like the analytic and perceptual ability of leaders, their intelligence and experience, or their capacity to differentiate good from bad decisions are not incorporated into frameworks that focus only on style” (Day & Lord, 1988, p. 459). Early literature by Selznick (1957) provided a framework for much of the recent research examining these aforementioned neglected leadership factors,

especially in the field of strategic management and executive turnover (e.g., Chen, Luo, Tang, & Tong, 2014; Cowen & Marcel, 2011; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Gomulya & Boeker, 2015).

In forging the framework for leadership in strategic management, Selznick (1957) defined leadership as an activity which revolves around critical decision-making intended to address the needs of social situations. Selznick's (1957) definition of leadership differs from definitions based on routine interactions between leaders and followers due to the emphasis on critical decision-making as opposed to routine decision-making. Therefore, Selznick (1957) proposed the "executive becomes a statesman as he makes the transition from administrative management to institutional leadership" (p. 4, 154).

Selznick (1957) used the notion of an executive as a statesman to demonstrate the political nature of leadership activities. He described how political power struggles between organizational units and personnel form within organizations. Often these political contests are among personnel vying for top management team promotions. Moreover, promotions, and the dismissals that pave the way for others' promotions, are decided, in part, by the institutionalization of rules and values within the organization as a result of current and past leaders whom have infused their values within the organization (Selznick, 1957). Selznick's (1957) ideas of political competitions for promotions and dismissals being determined by organizations embodying the values of their leaders have led many scholars to the connection between politics and executive dismissals and promotions (e.g., Boeker, 1992; Daily & Johnson, 1997; Finkelstein, 1992; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Frederickson et al., 1988; Gomulya & Boeker, 2015; Ocasio, 1999).

Following Selznick (1957), research regarding executive departures has been identified as an important area of research (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). The

importance of executive departures stems from the CEO being viewed as the most powerful member of an organization (Daily & Johnson, 1997; Farkas & De Backer, 1996) and responsible for organizational results (Farkas & De Backer, 1996; Soebbing & Washington, 2011). Despite research findings to the contrary by some scholars, it is widely believed powerful CEOs have a substantial impact on organizational performance (Crossland & Hambrick, 2011; Daily & Johnson, 1997; Day & Lord, 1988; Hambrick & Quigley, 2014).

Executive Departures

A substantial portion of the extant literature examining executive successions failed to identify the whether the predecessors' departures were voluntary prior to examining the causes of those departures or subsequent organizational performance following the departure (Bennett et al., 2003; Boeker, 1992; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Friedman & Singh, 1989; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991). Voluntary and involuntary executive departures occur as a result of retirements, resignations, deaths, or dismissals (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Furtado & Kuran, 1990). More specifically, Weisbach (1988) identified 13 reasons CEOs voluntarily resign according to an examination of *Wall Street Journal* reports. Some of these reasons include departing due to compulsory retirement policies, poor performance, disagreements with boards of directors, and personal reasons. However, during the process of a succession, the true reasons for the succession are often not revealed (Brown, 1982; Haynes et al., 2015; Maxcy, 2013; Weisbach, 1988).

Executive retirements, specifically, have received a marginal amount of attention from scholars. Weisbach (1988) found a high correlation between the likelihood of a planned resignation and CEO age, which he attributed to being largely due to a substantial amount of resignations occurring on CEOs' 65th birthdays. Weisbach (1988) found about 38% of CEO

turnover from 1974 through 1983 to be a result of retirement. Similarly, in Maxcy's (2013) study of college football coaches from 2002 through 2011, 25% of head coach turnover was a result of retirements. Though all successions can have organizational performance implications (Cannella & Rowe, 1995), there is little mystery in many retirement decisions, therefore, retirement decisions are of less theoretical interest than dismissals (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

CEO Dismissals

Fredrickson et al. (1988) defined a CEO dismissal as a "situation in which the CEO's departure is ad hoc (e.g., not part of a mandatory retirement policy) and against his or her will" (p. 255). Frick et al. (2010) defined a dismissal as "the result of a premature termination of a contract of employment. It can be by mutual consent or without the explicit approval of both parties to the contract" (p. 151). Between Fredrickson et al. (1988) and Frick et al. (2010), there seems to be a difference of opinion with regard to the consent of the dismissed party. This difference of opinion may be cleared up understanding the individual(s) who make dismissal decisions. Puffer and Weintrop (1991) stated boards of directors are responsible for making CEO turnover decisions. For the similar position of head coaches in college football, it is the athletic director (Marburger, 2015).

Dismissals are a tool used to hold CEOs accountable (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993; Crossland & Chen, 2013). In making the decision to dismiss a CEO, a board of directors must evaluate the ability of that CEO and sometimes compare that CEO's ability to that CEO's compensation in order to decide if the CEO is still valuable to the firm. Ertgrul and Krishnan (2011) stated boards of directors assess the ability of their CEOs by examining various facets of their work (e.g., investment proposals, strategy initiatives, short and long-term decisions).

Borland and Lye (1996) argued boards of directors will acquire private information on the CEO's ability. Since those stakeholders outside the firm typically do not have access to this private information, the market for CEOs will assume that CEOs retained by a firm are high-ability CEOs, which causes the CEOs wages to increase until the board of directors deems it unprofitable to retain the CEO relative to that CEO's ability (Borland & Lye, 1996).

Boards of directors appoint CEOs as leaders of their organizations to control and manage the outcomes of their organization (Soebbing & Washington, 2011). However, these organizational outcomes are often multidimensional which can be measured a variety of ways (e.g., stock price, sales growth, return on assets, profit; Day & Lord, 1988; Donohue, Reed, & Storrud-Barnes, 2007; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994).

As a result of particular organizational performance criteria, the overall consensus among scholars is poor performance results in higher dismissal probabilities (Allen, Panian & Lotz, 1979; Boeker, 1992; Coughlan & Schmidt, 1985; Eitzen & Yetman, 1972; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Finkelstein & D'Itri, 1997, 1999; Frick et al., 2010; Friedman & Singh, 1989; Gamson & Scotch, 1964; Grusky, 1963; Pieper, Nüesch, & Franck, 2014; Puffer & Weintrop 1991; Warner, Watts, & Wruck, 1988; Zhang, 2006). Though organizational performance is a significant factor, it has only been moderately effective in predicting dismissals (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Pitcher, Chreim, & Kisfalvi, 2000). For instance, Ertugrul and Krishnan (2011) found 49% of CEO dismissals occurred without evidence of poor stock performance in their industry which is one of many measures of organizational performance. Similarly, other scholars concluded organizational performance accounts for less than half of the variance in the dismissal decision (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Pitcher et al., 2000; Warner et al., 1988). One potential confounding factor reducing the effect of

organizational performance on CEO dismissal could be the relationship between financial fraud and organizational performance (Black, 2005). Other factors could be explained by Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) CEO dismissal model which incorporates four key socio-political factors (i.e., the allegiances and values of the board of directors, incumbent CEO's power, expectations and attributions of the CEO, and availability of alternative candidates to replace the CEO) to explain the non-performance based portion of the CEO dismissal decision.

Socio-Political Dismissal Forces

The dismissal process is an informal, sociopolitical process, more than it is a formal process (Hall et al., 2004) and dismissals can be best explained by social and political forces (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Selznick, 1957). Fredrickson et al. (1988) modelled CEO dismissals using four socio-political forces. The four sociopolitical forces identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) are the (a) allegiances and values of the board of directors, (b) incumbent CEO's power, (c) expectations and attributions of the CEO, and (d) availability of alternative candidates to replace the CEO. Fredrickson et al. (1988) defined these socio-political forces as pertaining to interpersonal relationships, coalitions, and power. Interpersonal relationships, coalitions, and power are key factors in dismissals because board members are self-interested actors with concerns for wealth, reputation, and friendships—all of which are often considered in a CEO dismissal decision (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Therefore, several factors associated with the board or directors, the CEO, the former CEO, the firm, and the industry all interact to play a role in the dismissal decision (Flickinger et al., 2015; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Fredrickson et al. (1988) further explained these four socio-political forces, in conjunction with organizational performance, affect the likelihood of CEO dismissals in a *ceteris paribus* fashion.

Boards of Directors' Allegiances and Values

Since the board of directors decides whether to dismiss or retain a CEO (Puffer & Weintrop, 1991), and may be motivated by self-interest (Fredrickson et al., 1988), they may choose to retain (dismiss) a poor (high) performing or low (high) ability CEO based on their individual interests or pressures they may face to make a particular decision (Mintzberg, 1983). These biases, both conscious and unconscious, affect the perspectives of board members as they seek information regarding the CEO's performance and ability (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993; Dahl, 1994; Fredrickson et al., 1988). These self-interest directed CEO dismissal decisions may be based on how the CEO will affect directors' fees, the overall personal wealth of the director, the status and reputation of the director, or directors' various relationships (including the relationship with the CEO) (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Additionally, board members who are involved in governance changes that may be detrimental to the interests of executives are more likely to become increasingly socially isolated, both in the firm experiencing governance changes and in external firms (Westphal & Khanna, 2003). The increased isolation experienced by board members is especially evident for those board members whom do not already possess a high social status (Westphal & Khanna, 2003). Furthermore, board members who previously experienced social distancing are less likely to engage in governance changes that are incongruent with the interest of the firm's executives (Westphal & Khanna, 2003).

Acknowledging the difficulty in directly measuring the allegiances and values of the board of directors, Fredrickson et al. (1988) identified several possible determinants of boards of directors' allegiances and values. Additionally, through examining head coaches in college and professional football using the Fredrickson et al. (1988) CEO dismissal model, a few additional

insights can be provided based on the wealth of accurately measured and available data in sport. Further, examining the sport industry and non-sport industry perspectives of allegiances and values in dismissal decisions may be helpful in providing a more complete picture of the effect of allegiances and values in executive dismissal decisions.

Interpretations of allegiances and values from sport. In Holmes' (2011) examination of college football head coach dismissals, Holmes stated the college's allegiances and values are based on the coach's win-loss record in rivalry and bowl games. With this interpretation of allegiances and values in college football dismissal decisions, Holmes (2011) found a negative relationship between team performance in rivalry games and dismissals, however, a bowl game win was no more significant than a regular season win. Therefore, Holmes (2011) concluded that allegiances and values (measured by success against rival teams) was a significant factor that was negatively related to executive dismissals, as hypothesized. Though not specifically identified by Holmes (2011) as allegiances and values for dismissal decision makers, race and alumnus variables for the head coaches are included within the dismissal models and could affect network, status, and reputation building for athletic directors.

Personal connections. Holmes (2011) found alumni hired as head coaches are less likely to be dismissed within their first three years of tenure at their alma mater. He explained universities may benefit from hiring an alumnus coach as a result of favorable media attention or improved alumni relations—each having a potential financial benefit. Additionally, Holmes (2011) noted an alumnus head coach may enjoy personal connections to university decision makers which could decrease the head coach's dismissal probability. He suggested alumni head coaches may be better at their positions because they are more willing to give up opportunities to coach at more prestigious schools so they could coach at their alma mater.

Cohesion among boards of directors. The more cohesive a board of directors is, the less likely dissenting opinions will arise regarding the CEOs lack of ability or low performance (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). This cohesion could be measured by the size of the board of directors, the average tenure of board members, or the variation in tenure among board members (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Larger boards of directors (i.e., more board members) are less manageable because they become more factionalized, and therefore, less cohesive (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Thus, as the size of a board of directors increases, so does the rate of CEO dismissals at that firm (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Board member tenure can represent cohesion among board members in a similar way as the size of the board of directors (Fredrickson et al., 1988). A board of directors' average tenure represents board member cohesion based on board members who have shared a long period of service together (Daboub, Rasheed, Priem, & Gray, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Boards of directors with too much variation in or too short of an average tenure will be too diverse and factionalized to agree on retaining a CEO (Daboub et al., 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Fredrickson et al. (1988) elaborated on this phenomenon stating that board members evaluate executives on various potentially conflicting factors, causing CEO dismissal probabilities to increase.

Donoher et al. (2007) noted firms with boards of directors possessing longer tenures, as well as substantial business experience, are less likely to produce misleading financial disclosures, which could be a confounding factor which also decreases the likelihood of CEO dismissal. Additionally, board members' tenure which is shorter than that of the CEO can represent allegiances to the CEO based on being appointed by the CEO (Cannella & Lubatkin,

1993; Daboub et al., 1995; Donohue et al., 2007; Fredrickson et al., 1988) or simply having closer ties to the CEO due to being socially integrated in an environment with that CEO (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Therefore, shorter tenures of board members are likely associated with greater allegiances to the CEO.

Board of directors' ownership interests. Another characteristic of boards of directors that may influence CEO dismissal decisions through the socio-political force of allegiances and values are boards of directors' ownership interests (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). However, contrary to common intuition that large shareholder boards of directors are more motivated to be discriminant of and dismiss CEOs (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Fredrickson et al., 1988), greater share ownership among board members does not have an adverse effect on CEO tenure (Allen, 1981). Allen and Panian (1982) found that CEOs who were not members of the firm's controlling family had shorter tenures than CEOs who were family members suggesting that some firms (e.g., family controlled) have goals which extend beyond bottom-line performance measures such as profitability. Huson, Parrino, and Starks (2001) elaborated that the large amounts of stock controlled by founding families allow family member CEOs to remain in their positions longer than non-family member CEOs. Therefore, members of exclusive controlling groups (e.g., families) represented on the board of directors may be motivated to protect CEOs from their same groups (Allen & Panian, 1982; Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). These allegiances and values are often based on motivations to preserve power, however, predecessor CEOs who maintain relationships within their former organizations may also preserve some of their power within that organization.

Predecessor's characteristics. The predecessor of a CEO may be able to affect the incumbent CEO's dismissal probability in a variety through allegiances and values (Fredrickson

et al., 1988; Gilmore & Ronchi, 1995). Fredrickson et al. (1988) identified four determinants of allegiances and values which involve the predecessor: (a) the predecessor's tenure, (b) the predecessor's departure conditions, (c) the predecessor's connectedness, and (d) whether the predecessor founded the organization. As CEO tenure increases, the board of directors will feel more allegiance for that CEO. Additionally, the performance of a CEO is often evaluated relative to the predecessor CEO (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Gilmore & Ronchi, 1995). Therefore, when a predecessor CEOs had a long tenure with the organization and board of directors, and subsequently accrued a substantial degree of allegiance from the board of directors, new CEOs will experience more difficulties when their actions or organization's performance deviates from that of the predecessor (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

CEO dismissal probabilities may also be affected by the predecessor's departure conditions. CEOs who voluntarily depart from a firm cause the perceived judgment of their former position to be deemed as inferior which may result in a smaller pool of available candidates, a rush to secure any CEO without being too discriminant, and ultimately even reduced expectations for the new CEO (Fredrickson et al., 1988). In contrast, a predecessor CEO who has been fired may have already created factions within the board of directors, uncertainty among employees, or a reluctance show allegiance to a new CEO, which could result in a higher likelihood of dismissal for that new CEO (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). That departed predecessor may also affect CEO dismissal through continued associations and connections with the firm (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). The predecessor CEO can maintain an official role with the firm by becoming chairman of the board of directors, a board member, or a consultant (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988;

Ward, Sonnenfeld, & Kimberly, 1995). A predecessor CEO taking one of these positions indicates that there is not only an experienced former CEO closely monitoring the new CEO, but there is also a highly qualified replacement for the CEO readily available (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Under these conditions, the new CEO may find it difficult to earn the support of the board of directors, thus increasing dismissal likelihood (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Predecessors who take these roles associated with the organization they once led are often major stockholders or founding CEOs.

The predecessor CEO also being a founder of the organization could further increase the dismissal rates of new CEOs due, in part, to additional disruptions which are caused when a founding CEO departs an organization or the possibility of a new CEO taking the organization in a new direction (Carroll, 1984; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Additionally, board members will be cognizant of the high abilities and performance of the founding CEO as well as all of the disadvantages to losing a founding CEO (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Subsequently, the board members may exaggerate the contributions and ability of the founding predecessor leading to a higher likelihood of dismissal for the new CEO (Fredrickson et al., 1988). All of these predecessor characteristics are early vulnerability factors and, for quantitative analyses, need to include interactions between these variables and the CEO's tenure which has been identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) as a determinant of two socio-political constructs: boards of directors' allegiances and values as well as incumbent CEO's power.

Incumbent CEO's Power

As a result of their power, some CEOs are better situated to prevent their dismissal than others (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Thus, numerous studies have examined the effects of CEO power on turnover (e.g., Allen & Panian, 1982; Boeker, 1992; Furtado & Karan, 1990; Lausten,

2002; Pi & Lowe, 2011; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1980; Wiersema & Zhang, 2011; Zhang, 2006).

This power may be derived from various sources including access to resources (e.g., clients, regulatory contacts, proprietary technology) (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Pi & Lowe, 2011), ownership/voting control (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Pi & Lowe, 2011), personal characteristics (e.g., charisma, expertise) (Finkelstein, 1992; Fredrickson et al., 1988), and prestige or external status (Finkelstein, 1992; Fralich, 2012; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Some of the effect CEO power has on CEO dismissals may be based on the strength of the firm. Though a CEO's perception of a possible relationship between his/her own reputation and his/her firm's wealth may not influence profitability (Zajac, 1990), firm performance and CEO power are interrelated and have positive effects on each other (Daily & Johnson, 1997). Additionally, Haynes et al. (2015) stated that even without stock options, CEOs are often motivated to increase the current success of their companies for the sake of their own reputations. Though power may also be viewed as authoritativeness in regard to subordinates, most studies regarding the effect of CEO power on turnover do not address this form of power. However, some insights may be drawn from related literature.

Power over subordinates. Several scholars suggested that managers who attempt to control their environments through excessive use of power may incite counterproductive workplace deviance (Griffin & Lopez, 2013; Sims, 2010). These acts of deviance may reduce an executive's power and their ability to retain their positions (Holmes, 2011). Though power may indirectly increase dismissal probability as a result of deviance, power itself directly corresponds to a lower probability of dismissal which would override the deviance effects. Therefore, a separate measure of deviance may need to be incorporated as a sociopolitical factor in the *ceteris paribus* model of CEO dismissals to separate the effects of power and deviance. Additionally,

this deviance may be reflected in an executives' reputation which also can diminish power, and therefore, increase the probability of dismissal.

Personal characteristics. In the market for elite executive talent, the perception of the executive is as important as any actual skills or attributes (Ward et al., 1995). Farquhar (1995) echoed this sentiment, stating CEO's relationships with their constituents and other top executives may be more important than proven traits or skills. Furthermore, search committees do not only look for the right CEO in terms of qualifications, but also anticipate how stakeholders' relationships will vary over time based on the CEO selected (Farquhar, 1995). Hall et al. (2004) noted stakeholders are influenced by leader reputations which include human capital, social capital, and leadership style. Some of these stakeholders are board members who make dismissal decisions (Hall et al., 2004). Therefore, when CEOs improve their reputations, they also decrease their chance of dismissal (Hall et al., 2004).

Fredrickson et al. (1988) cited personal characteristics such as charisma as sources of CEO power used to avoid dismissal. Finkelstein and Hambrick (1989) added the “[c]reation of a personal mystique or patriarchy...may induce unquestioned deference or loyalty” (p. 124). However, not all CEOs can communicate and network at the same level as these leaders with special personal characteristics (e.g., charismatic leaders). Ertugrul and Krishnan (2011) suggested early dismissals result from personality clashes or strategic disagreements, but they did not find any statistically significant evidence that this was occurring in their dataset. It is important to note their results were based on career prospects of early fired CEOs relative to late fired CEOs as well as operating performance around the time of dismissal. However, if personality clashes were really the reason for early dismissal, which Ertugrul and Krishnan (2011) admit the data would be hard to collect since dismissals based on personality clashes are

not often reported, the dismissed CEOs are likely less desirable candidates for their next jobs as well. The desirability of dismissed CEOs following personality clashes with the board of directors may be further diminished because boards of directors are often looking for likable CEOs with communication skills and charisma (Hall et al., 2004), as well as prospective CEOs within their network (Ward et al., 1995).

Personal connections were previously discussed in reference to boards of directors' allegiances and values, however, networks can also provide a CEO with additional power which can prevent dismissal, or at least provide opportunities for CEOs after dismissal (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Ward et al., 1995). There exists a relatively closed network of executives and board members who serve on interconnected boards of directors who protect the interest of one another (Ward et al., 1995). These networks may also overlap with religious, school alumni, or other club or organization networks (Ward et al., 1995) and reflect the social capital of the upper echelon of society (Flickinger et al., 2015). These networks are capable of providing access to additional resources, including human and social capital, for executives and board members (Flickinger et al., 2015). In addition to the social and human capital benefits which can be reaped from elite networks, the networks and outside directorships can positively affect executives' social status (Westphal & Khanna, 2003), prestige (D'Aveni, 1990; Finkelstein, 1992), and power (Palmer & Barber, 2001).

Prestige power and external status. CEO power derived from prestige operates differently than those sources of power derived through other means (Buchholtz & Ribbens, 1994; Fralich, 2012). Unlike other sources of CEO power, prestige power does not necessarily increase with tenure (Buchholtz & Ribbens, 1994). This is partly due to the fact that prestige

power comes from social relationships (D'Aveni, 1990) which promote loyalty and cooptation (Finkelstein, 1992).

CEOs with different levels of prestige also behave differently from one another based on these prestige levels (Fralich, 2012). CEOs with low levels of prestige often elect not to deviate too much from the central industry tendency, whereas high levels of prestige allow CEOs to be shielded by external pressure so they may differentiate themselves from industry competitors as they seek a competitive advantage and increased levels performance for their organization (Fralich, 2012). Similarly, when CEOs enjoy a higher status than the chairman of the board of directors, the CEO is more protected from dismissal, even in times of poor organizational performance (Flickinger et al., 2015). Flickinger et al. (2015) inferred a high status chairman of the board of directors may be less willing to accept extended periods of inferior performance due to the associated risks of diminishing their own status and reputation. Therefore, research examining relative statuses of CEOs and board of directors' chairmen may need to include interaction variables between the status of the chairman of the board of directors and the duration of poor firm performance. In addition to prestige, networks provide access to valuable resources (Flickinger et al., 2015).

Access to resources. Related to the socio-political force of the board of directors' allegiances and values, and more specifically, the founding CEO, is the idea of certain CEOs having additional power due to access to resources. These resources may be personal skills, contacts with major clients or regulatory agents, proprietary information, or other external resources (Fredrickson et al., 1988). When a CEO has control over these assets, he/she is able to reduce his/her probability of dismissal due to the power he/she have over the future of his/her organization. Similarly, in sport, coaches may also possess some forms of contacts and

information which may be desirable to certain teams. For example, coaches from college or who possess college connections may enjoy specific knowledge about prospective draft picks; professional coaches may own knowledge of division rival teams, or connections to those who do; coaches with family relatives coaching on different teams may be able to obtain specific information; and former players who worked with current players/coaches may have knowledge of their tendencies/tactics which could yield additional power for the coach.

CEO's tenure. Also related to the board of directors' allegiances and values is the CEO's tenure (Fredrickson et al., 1988). As CEO tenure increases, so does the cooptation of the board of directors, as well as the ability for a CEO to appoint more board members (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989; Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). However, CEO tenure also contributes to CEO power, which seems to be more prevalent in the literature than the effect of CEO tenure on the board of directors' allegiances and values (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989; Holmes, 2011; Lausten, 2002; Pi & Lowe, 2011). Other researchers concluded a negative relationship exists between executive tenure and dismissals (Cannella, 1995; Farquhar, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989; Frick et al., 2010; Lausten, 2002; Pi & Lowe, 2011; Parrino, 1997). However, it should be noted a few studies identified a positive relationship between executive tenure and dismissals (Holmes, 2011).

Interestingly, some scholars linked managerial youth with better performance. Child (1974) found younger managers are more likely to increase income, net assets, and sales for their firm. The relationship between managerial youth and organizational performance may be due to the aforementioned tendencies of younger and older workers, such as older workers' preferences for maintaining the status quo or younger workers' energy and motivation (Child, 1974).

Moreover, some researchers found the ability of CEOs to have an effect on their organizations may decrease over time (Miller, 1991; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977).

Another idea regarding the effect of tenure on dismissals is based on the personal characteristics of the executive. Holmes (2011) found tenure effected dismissals differently for executives whom had prior connections to the organization prior to securing their position, Black executives, and executives whom engaged in organizational deviance. The relationship between tenure and dismissal probabilities for Black executives was more linear, deviant executives could be characterized by an inverted-U shape, and all other executives peaked around the fourth year of tenure and stayed around that level (Holmes, 2011).

Non-linear relationships between executive tenure and dismissals are not new to the dismissal literature. Eitzen and Yetman (1972) found a curvilinear relationship between head basketball coach tenure and organizational performance. More specifically, tenure had a positive relationship with organizational performance until approximately 13 years of tenure when organizational performance began to decline (Eitzen & Yetman, 1972). Similarly, Katz (1982) found the average tenure of a group working on a research and development project effected group performance in a curvilinear fashion, peaking between two to four years of average group tenure, which was consistent with previous studies identified by Katz (e.g., Pelz & Andrews, 1966). Based on these studies of basketball coaches and research and development project groups, Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) proposed that CEOs who accumulate enough time in office will experience a peak in performance at some midway point, but performance will be lower very early and very late in their tenure.

Additionally, Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) proposed tenure would have to span five seasons, which they termed: (a) response to mandate, (b) experimentation, (c) selection of an

enduring theme, (d) convergence, and (e) dysfunction. These seasons of CEO tenure are what Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) proposed lead to this curvilinear relationship between tenure and performance. A related concept was presented by Miller (1992) called the Icarus paradox in which success may lead to failure due to forces such as routine, complacency, over-confidence, and trying to repeat success in new and different contexts. The Icarus paradox may also occur in sport, increasing the difficulty associated with winning back-to-back championships (Wolfe et al., 2005). However, dynasties, such as the 1970s Pittsburgh Steelers, may use a special form of competence termed “small wins” which allow these organizations to negate the effects of the Icarus paradox (Wolfe et al., 2005). With the exception of dynasties, this research indicates that executive tenure and firm performance may have an inverted U-shaped relationship. This relationship may lead to the dismissal of low performing executives.

Dismissal (or turnover for those studies that do not differentiate between the two) may not be based on incumbent power as much as choice of alternatives for both the firm as well as the executive (Borland & Lye, 1996). As information regarding executive-firm matches increase, boards of directors may realize the expected future output of the executive may decrease below a threshold where an alternative match would yield higher expected future output, thus increasing the rate of separation (Borland & Lye, 1996). Additionally, Borland and Lye (1996) explained after a certain amount of years in which tenure and experience accumulated, turnover will become less likely, due in part to the fact that executives are often only willing to pursue matches with higher expected output, but these opportunities tend to occur less frequently with tenure. These reasons are some insights from Borland and Lye (1996) which indicate why tenure may have an inverted U-shaped relationship with turnover. Also for those studies that do not differentiate between dismissals and turnover, the relationship may be due in

part to retirement since tenure is a significant predictor of voluntary exits (Fizel & D'itri, 1997, 1999).

Farquhar (1995) noted executives are often assumed to remain with their organization until retirement and CEO departures which occur prior to the age of 65 are often classified by researchers as early exits. The objective of CEOs often does not include remaining with a firm until they retire at the age of 65 (Farquhar, 1995). Despite this observation by Farquhar (1995), Parrino (1997) suggested CEOs with less tenure may be more vulnerable than CEOs with higher tenure because retaining a poor CEO who is further from retirement may be substantially costlier to retain a CEO who is likely to retire in the following few years. However, Parrino (1997) also provided another explanation for why there seems to be a negative linear relationship between executive tenure and dismissals. Less tenure may also be indicative of less human capital which is another explanation of why CEOs with less tenure may be more susceptible to dismissal (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Frick et al., 2010; Parrino, 1997).

CEOs with less tenure are likely to have accumulated less human capital, which makes them more susceptible to dismissal (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Frick et al., 2010; Parrino, 1997). Due to shorter tenures allowing for less human capital accumulation, there is a corresponding period of early vulnerability for CEOs (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Frick et al., 2010; Parrino, 1997). An executive's initial year in an organization is a critical learning period and challenges exhibited in this first year are strongly correlated with future performance and success (Berlew & Hall, 1966). With this period of learning for less experienced executives, firms usually ease the level of position authority slowly from the chairman of the board of directors to the new CEO (Hambrick & Fukutomi, 1991). Similarly, it may be unusual for a team to give head coaches responsibilities such as those associated with

being the general manager or director of player personnel. These dual roles and increased responsibilities often take time to earn and team owners and general managers may be weary of giving the added responsibilities to an unproven first-year head coach who may not even be the head coach the following year according to the increased vulnerability to dismissals that new CEOs and head coaches face (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Even though Berlew and Hall (1966) provided theoretical evidence in support of grooming new executives in order to reap future benefits, there seems to be increasing tendencies over time to dismiss executives in search of short-term results (Cannella, 1995; Farquhar, 1995). Or, perhaps, throughout time, information continues to be accumulated at a quicker rate to enable faster determinations of these executives' future expected outputs (e.g., Borland & Lye, 1996).

Time is an important factor in dismissals for a few different reasons. Many scholars found that executives are dismissed earlier in their tenures than in previous years (Cannella, 1995; Farquhar, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Huson et al., 2001). If these early dismissals are proactive, they may benefit organizations by limiting reductions in firm value caused by low ability CEOs (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011). Fredrickson et al. (1988) compared NFL head coaches to CEOs and explained similarities in their tenures. Fredrickson et al. (1988) noted even though the mean tenure for NFL head coaches from 1970 through 1982 was about four years, the mode was one year of tenure. Fredrickson et al. (1988) concluded that these descriptive statistics revealed the early vulnerability among executives in the professional football industry which has also been exhibited among CEOs in the food processing industry. Cannella (1995) identified a couple potential detrimental outcomes could occur as a result of this shift toward earlier dismissals: executives being reluctant to engage in risky strategies and executives experiencing difficulties building long-term relationships with stakeholders.

Contrary to earlier research regarding executives being highly susceptible to dismissal within their first year (e.g., Cannella, 1995; Farquhar, 1995; Fredrickson et al., 1988), Holmes (2011) stated head coaches are often given leeway early in their tenures to establish themselves, however, this leeway diminishes as tenure increases. He also suggested coaches whose performance starts strong then deteriorates may be more susceptible to dismissal than coaches whose performance begins poorly but improves. However, Wowak, Hambrick, and Henderson (2011) observed CEOs whom exhibit strong performance early in their tenures receive an especially high degree of job security, *ceteris paribus*.

Recent literature provides contradictory evidence to the idea CEOs are getting dismissed earlier over time. As an example, Haynes et al. (2015) discovered CEO tenure decreased from about 10 years on average in the 1990s to about 5.5 years in 2011; however, since 2011, dismissal frequencies decreased causing CEOs of S&P 500 companies to again enjoy tenures of closer to 10 years. Therefore, even though the past few decades have shown that CEO tenures may have been decreasing, there may be a recent trend within the past few years which has begun to counter the effects of previous decades. Perhaps boards of directors became aware of the negative outcomes associated with earlier and more frequent dismissals identified by scholars such as Cannella (1995).

Time also effects dismissals in terms of the timing of performance levels. Several researchers concluded recent short-term performance is a more significant factor in the dismissal decision than the executive's career performance or future potential (Donoher et al., 2007; Farquhar, 1995; Haynes et al., 2015; Holmes, 2011; Wowak et al., 2011). Wowak et al. (2011) found marginally significant evidence that recent, though not current, poor performance increase dismissal probabilities even more when an executive has been highly overpaid previously. This

recent performance is often measured in terms of the most recent two to three years (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Holmes, 2011; Wowak et al., 2011). However, organizations characterized as high performers within their industries may look to the more distant past (e.g., five years) (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Holmes, 2011). Identifying the downside to more frequent dismissals and boards of directors' focus on recent, short-term performance, Farquhar (1995) stated that chronic occurrences of short-term leadership within an organization that emphasizes quick results with limited emphasis on the long-term future of the organization could be detrimental to the organization. These short-term expectations are often tied to stock prices which CEOs often try to inflate for personal gain due to their stockholdings.

CEO's stockholdings. Similar to ownership in family-owned firms affecting the likelihood of dismissal for family member CEOs (Allen & Panian, 1982; Furtado & Karan, 1990; Huson et al., 2001), ownership in the form of stockholdings may also affect the likelihood of CEO dismissal. Larger percentages of firm ownership through stockholdings possessed by the CEO decrease the probability of that CEOs dismissal because CEOs are able to increase their power through voting control (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Furtado & Karan, 1990; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1980; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013). Major stockholders can influence decisions regarding board of director membership, and subsequently the actions of those board members (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Therefore, if a CEO is also a major stockholder, he/she is able to decrease his/her own likelihood of dismissal (Fama, 1980; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013), especially among poor performing firms (Boeker, 1992; Finkelstein et al., 2009). Rather than merely voting for board members, the CEO often serves on the board of directors, typically as the chairman of the board of directors which provides a similar form of

insulation from dismissal (Boeker, 1992; Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994, Rechner & Dalton, 1991; Wiersema & Zhang, 2011, 2013).

CEO duality. CEO duality is the term used to describe a CEO who also holds the position of chairman of the board of directors (Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994, Rechner & Dalton, 1991). Though this duality may decrease the probability of dismissal from a voting control and board of directors influence standpoint (Boeker, 1992; Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994, Wiersema & Zhang, 2011, 2013), it may also affect dismissal through strategic risk taking. Fralich (2012) defined strategic risk taking as engaging in risky behavior for strategic change, such as substantially increasing expenditures and incurring large financial debts. Fralich (2012) found a CEO who also serves as the firm's chairman of the board of directors is less likely to take strategic risks. Therefore, these CEOs may not greatly increase firm growth, however, they may also avoid decreasing firm performance, and subsequently avoid dismissal as firm performance closely aligns with the rest of the industry.

Additionally, being a CEO as well as an outside director at another firm increases a CEO's knowledge and experience (i.e., human capital) as well as network (i.e., social capital), which both operate to further increase the prestige of a CEO (Boivie, Graffin, & Pollock, 2012). In sport, it is uncommon to observe an individual performing duties for two competing organizations; however, dual roles are very common. In college sport, many head coaches simultaneously held the role of athletic director; however, the trend of head coaches operating as athletic directors is a decreasing trend. Whether examining a coaches with administrative responsibilities or a CEO with chairman of the board of directors responsibilities, this duality increases the executive's power, largely because the executive has greater influence over their own dismissal decision (Boeker, 1992; Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994, Wiersema & Zhang, 2011,

2013). This situation (i.e., CEO duality) could be detrimental to shareholders because directors are supposed to hold executives accountable, which may not be occurring when the executive is an influential director (Finkelstein & D'Aveni, 1994, Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989; Fredrickson et al., 1988). By whatever means executives derive their power, more powerful CEOs are more likely to cast shadows which linger around their respective organizations long after they are gone (Quigley & Hambrick, 2012). These shadows can affect the expectations of the successor (Gilmore & Ronchi 1995; Quigley & Hambrick, 2012).

Expectations and Attributions

Several scholars concluded higher expectations of executives increase those executives' dismissal probabilities (Bennett et al., 2003; Farquhar, 1995; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Holmes, 2011; Pieper et al., 2014; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991). However, board members may view executives' abilities to affect performance in vastly different ways, if they believe the executive has much of an effect at all (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Lieberman & O'Connor, 1972; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985). Referring to the various cognitions in which board members draw upon when evaluating CEOs, Fredrickson et al. (1988) identified that board members may vary in their criteria for evaluating performance, awareness of industry performance, and attributions of the ability of executives to change firm performance.

Evaluating performance. Organizational performance can be measured in a number of ways (Donoher et al., 2007). A few of these ways include: bottom-line figures (e.g., profit, stock price, rankings, win percentage in sport; Donoher et al., 2007; Farquhar, 1995; Koning, 2003), degree of improvement based on past organizational performance (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Holmes, 2011), or efficiency based on resources available to the organization (Fizel & D'Itri 1997, 1999; Haleblan & Rajagopalan, 2006; Maxcy, 2013; Scully, 1994). Decision makers

charged with the responsibility of holding executives accountable do not all look at one measure of performance. With various board members using different criteria to evaluate organizational performance, the criteria for evaluating what constitutes good performance may become unclear. Additionally, third parties may assist in creating performance expectations for board members (Farrell & Whidbee 2003; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991; Wiersema & Zhang, 2011).

External monitors of organizational performance may affect boards of directors' expectations of the CEO (Farrell & Whidbee 2003; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991; Wiersema & Zhang, 2011). These external monitors provide forecasts of key performance indicators and “mediate information flows between companies and other market participants who may invest in or do business with these firms” (Pollock & Gulati, 2007, p. 347). In some instances, these external monitors are third-party investment analysts who provide legitimate evaluations of the organization and its executives (Wiersema & Zhang, 2011). Boards of directors respond to investment analysts' forecasts and recommendations because the analysts influence investors whom are the boards of directors' constituents (Wiersema & Zhang, 2011). Thus, when analysts' forecasts (e.g., reported annual earnings per share [EPS]) exceed actual firm performance, CEO turnover becomes more likely (Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991; Wiersema & Zhang, 2011). The probability of CEO turnover further increases when the firm does not meet expectations based on analysts' forecasts and either there (a) is a general consensus among analysts or (b) are many analysts devoting attention to that firm (Farrell & Whidbee, 2003). Still, board members are not the only ones who are concerned about analysts' perspectives, but executives are as well – and not only because of the effect analysts have on executive dismissals, but also due to their concern for establishing and preserving their own legitimacy among stockholders and analysts (Donoher et al., 2007). This struggle to achieve and

maintain legitimacy is also important to board members who will also make decisions to replace executives in an attempt to repair damage to the firm and its leaders' legitimacy (Wiersema & Zhang, 2013). The strong influence analysts have over executive dismissal decisions incentivizes executives to manipulate analysts' recommendations and forecasts.

Firms that manipulate analyst appraisals may do so via financial statements (Chen, Cumming, Hou, & Lee, 2014) or the media (Cotter, Tuna, & Wysocki, 2006; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Westphal & Graebner, 2010). Attempting to analyze the effects of expectations which are free of noise created by executives whom manipulate analyst appraisals, some scholars have argued head coaches as executives in sport do not actively manage expectations which are measured in the form of point spreads (Humphreys et al., 2011). Similar to analysts' forecasts, point spreads are measures of organizational performance which can be compared to a relatively efficient market-based expectation of performance (Humphreys et al., 2011).

However, betting market measures such as point spreads and odds to win sports contests are determined by gamblers who may be influenced by media statements made by internal organizational members such as head coaches. Koning (2003) stated that external influences (e.g., fans and media) are likely to be strong determinants of coach dismissals. Likewise, stock returns are a measure of firm performance that may also be influenced by stakeholder sentiment, however, in this case, instead of sports gamblers or fans, investors are the influential stakeholders (Chen et al., 2014). Since this measure can also be influenced by external stakeholders, it is another example of a firm performance measure which is not entirely reliable for evaluating the performance of a firm or its CEO (Chen et al., 2014), though some board members may still opt to rely on it.

Awareness of industry performance. Intra-industry comparisons are another area where board members may vary when developing their expectations and attributions of CEOs. Both analysts (Donoher et al., 2007) and boards of directors (Greve, 1998) compare firm performance to the performance of industry competitors to gauge that firm's performance. If a firm's performance is considerably lower than a given portion of competitor firms, the board of directors will be more likely to dismiss the CEO (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). A board of directors' awareness of industry performance may also contribute to another socio-political factor of CEO dismissals: alternatives to the incumbent CEO. A board of directors' awareness of industry performance may increase the potential candidate pool to replace the incumbent CEO because these competitor industries may have talented top managers that possess a proven track record of success and industry knowledge.

Analogous to an industry within a given economy might be a division or a conference in sports leagues which are often characterized by certain styles of play (e.g., "ground and pound," "West-Coast offense") or resources (e.g., financial, human). A few studies examined head coaches performance relative to their conference or division and found that better performance against geographically close competitors reduced the probability of executive dismissal (Holmes, 2011). Additionally, Holmes (2011) examined the relative effect of industry competitors (i.e., strength of schedule) on head coach dismissals, but did not find the variable to be statistically significant, even though variations in college football team abilities are great. However, these studies did not account for the stronger attribution to top management when performance in a given industry varies more (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Meindl et al., 1985). Therefore, when there is wider variation in an industry, low performing CEOs are even more likely to be replaced (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). However, anecdotally in

sport, Major League Baseball (MLB), which is structured for teams to be less competitively balanced than in the NFL (Vrooman, 2009), has head coaches with longer mean tenures than the NFL (Mielke, 2007).

Attributions of top management's influence. Coinciding with Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) theory of dismissals and the influence of industry variation representing management's ability to affect performance is the idea that leaders of organizations may have little effect on organizational performance (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Haveman, 1993a; Smart, Winfree, & Wolfe, 2008). The typical explanations for the ineffectiveness of leaders indicate that leaders are often constrained by various internal and external factors such as resources, pressures to conform, and regulations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Haveman, 1993a; Smart et al., 2008). Some scholars argued leader ineffectiveness only occurs in certain situations and referred to the idea of managerial discretion as affecting the impact leaders have on organizations (Hambrick & Quigley, 2014). Scholars further concluded the environment and circumstances surrounding leaders might produce varying effects across organizations and industries causing leader effects on organizational outcomes to range from minimal to substantial (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Hambrick & Quigley, 2014).

In addition to the various constraints faced by leaders attempting to influence organizational performance, boards of directors may feel specific managers are less able to affect organizational performance. Fredrickson et al. (1988) explained one situation where certain CEOs may be viewed as more responsible for organizational performance:

If an outsider is hired, the board has concluded either that the firm does not possess the necessary talent or that its intention to implement changes must be signaled to the outside world. As a result, the board may have higher expectations of this outsider than they would have of an insider, which in turn will produce unusually strong attributions of organizational performance to the CEO. (p. 265)

Outsider expectations and attributions are likely to be stronger in the early years of a CEO's tenure because as tenure increases, boards of directors will view outsider CEOs more as insiders (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Therefore, being an outsider CEO presents an additional early vulnerability to dismissal and may best be modeled quantitatively with an interaction between CEO outsidership and tenure (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Holmes, 2011). Furthermore, Huson et al. (2001) found that rates of both outside successions and dismissals both increased over time and, thus, outsidership, tenure, and the interaction between the two variables may vary over time. When boards of directors seek outsiders to fill CEO vacancies, they signal firm weaknesses to the market (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Fredrickson et al., 1988). These weaknesses, in combination with the high average level of experience among outsiders (because insiders replacing their CEOs would likely not have previously been a CEO, whereas an outsider may already have CEO experience), may lead boards of directors to more generously compensate an outsider. This higher compensation used to incentivize outsiders to take the top position within a firm with certain weaknesses may also contribute to the expectations and attributions associated with higher CEO dismissals rates (Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Star compensation. Star compensation is another variable which may contribute to boards of directors' expectations and attributions of specific executives (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Wowak et al., 2011). Star compensation may refer to extremely high initial pay packages compared to the predecessor (Fredrickson et al., 1988), other firm executives (Shen, Gentry, & Tosi, 2010), industry norms (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Frick et al., 2010), or past performance (Wowak et al., 2011). These pay packages are intended to lure candidates with strong reputations whom are believed, by the board of directors, to possess unique talents which will produce benefits in excess of the compensation (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988).

When board members decide to pay CEOs with star compensation, they are indicating their beliefs that the executive lured to the firm by the compensation will be able to directly influence firm performance (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). Therefore, when boards of directors are more inclined to attributed organizational performance to the CEO and compensate that CEO with extremely high pay packages, expectations for that CEO increase (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Wowak et al., 2011). With these higher expectations and stronger causal attributions of the CEO come higher dismissal probabilities for CEOs (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Allen & Chadwick, 2012).

Some studies found no evidence to suggest that executive overpayment alone increases the likelihood of dismissal (Frick et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2010; Wowak et al., 2011), but when CEOs are overpaid and the firm's current performance is poor, CEO dismissal probabilities increase (Wowak et al., 2011). Wowak et al. (2011) concluded boards of directors avoid dismissing CEOs whom are worth substantially more than they are compensated until current performance substantially decreases, which is when dismissal probabilities for these CEOs substantially increase. Among head coaches in German soccer, Frick et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between head coach compensation and probability of head coach dismissal, as well as probability of head coach resignation.

Overpaid CEOs, as measured by actual pay exceeding estimated pay based on well-established determinants of CEO pay, whose firm performance decreased below expectations in a previous year may elicit a retaliatory response from the board of directors which leads to CEO dismissal (Wowak et al., 2011). Fredrickson et al. (1988) proposed the relationship between executive compensation and dismissal probabilities would weaken over time as the CEO forges more personalized relationships with the board of directors and gains more power within the

firm. Though boards of directors may form expectations by comparing executive compensation of current leaders to the compensation of predecessors, comparisons to predecessors are not strictly limited to compensation.

Comparisons to predecessors. As new leaders are appointed to high posts within organizations, comparisons to predecessors are inevitable (Gilmore & Ronchi, 1995). These comparisons may be caused by leader transference – “a cognitive process whereby mental representations of previous leaders are activated and used for evaluation when new, similar leaders are encountered” (Ritter & Lord, 2007, p. 1683). Though these comparisons often dwindle over time, these new leaders face much adversity early in their tenures due to these comparisons, and some leaders even face comparisons long into their tenures (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Gilmore & Ronchi, 1995). Memories of a former leader are not the only way past leaders may have an effect, but also through a continued presence within the organization (e.g., former CEO becomes the chairman of the board of directors or an influential outside advisor). In sport, it is not unheard of for former coaches to secure front office positions (e.g., Mike Holmgren, John Idzik, Don Shula, Bill Walsh). Similar to comparing current leaders with past leaders, boards of directors may also make comparisons between current and past organizational performance to form expectations.

Previous organizational performance. Boards of directors often look to past performance for expectations of current and future performance (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Greve, 1998; Holmes, 2011). Past performance is important for evaluating CEOs, regardless of the track record of the firm (Fredrickson et al., 1988). As examples, historically high performing firms will be less likely to tolerate industry-average performance levels; historically low performing firms may see industry-average performance levels as a reason worthy of increasing

executive compensation; and recently struggling firms may not be able to tolerate a slight decrease in performance as high performing firms might be able to (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Therefore, Fredrickson et al. (1988) argued that firms are more likely to dismiss their CEOs if previous firm performance was either very high or very low.

In U.S. college football, Holmes (2011) found prior performance in the two years prior to the observed year led to a negative relationship between prior performance and dismissals. This result is consistent with the idea that better performance should reduce probabilities of dismissal. However, Holmes (2011) suggested performance beyond those two previous years would form the organizations' expectations, which were positively related to dismissals. This finding from college football emphasizes Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) idea that industries with more variation in firm performance will behave differently than industries with more similarly performing firms when dismissing executives for expectations based on past firm performance.

Dissenting opinions. With all of these various ways of forming expectations and attributions of leaders (e.g., comparisons of other firms in the industry, past leaders, and past performance in terms of generating profits, exceeding analysts' forecasts, and efficiency), it is not unlikely for board members to have differing perspectives regarding the performance of the firm and the executive. However, more dissent among board members about expectations and attributions of firm and executive performance may also increase probabilities of executive dismissal (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980). In these situations of dissenting opinions of board members, negative information is more likely to be discussed and brought to the attention of other board members, to the detriment of the executive (Finkelstein et al. 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980). These dissenting opinions may be caused or enhanced within emergent industries where there is a general lack of

information regarding what constitutes good performance in those industries and comparisons are more difficult to make (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Additionally, due to the uncertainty, lack of industry-related data for comparisons, and often extreme or highly varied performance levels among firms in these emergent industries, boards of directors are likely to attribute firm variation to the CEO, subsequently increasing dismissal likelihood (Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Alternatives to the Incumbent

The final socio-political factor affecting CEO dismissals presented by Fredrickson et al. (1988) is the availability of alternatives to the incumbent. Though identified as an important element in the executive dismissal decision by several scholars (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Holmes, 2011; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980) and a major consideration (whether implicit or explicit) among boards of directors (Fredrickson et al., 1988), this fourth socio-political factor may be the most neglected in the extant literature. The reason for the lack of attention given to the effects of available and qualified candidates is likely due mostly to data limitations which stem from the secretive nature of executive hiring processes among firms and lead to some researchers electing to omit the crucial variable from their studies (e.g., Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993; Holmes, 2011). However, most researchers utilize proxies for candidate availability which have little to do with the actual candidates, such as various industry and firm characteristics (e.g., Crossland & Chen, 2013; Parrino, 1997).

Candidate pool proxies. Early research examining the effects of qualified candidate availability on leader succession argued that larger organizations would have more potential replacements for incumbents (Dalton & Kesner, 1983; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980). The rationale behind this claim was that larger organizations would, internally, have more top managers to choose as successors (Dalton & Kesner, 1983; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980).

Additionally, firm size could represent firm prestige (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Westphal & Khanna, 2003) which may draw more or better external candidates. Since these early studies, many researchers included firm size as a variable to represent candidate availability in their managerial dismissal models (e.g., Agrawal, Knoeber, & Tsoulouhas, 2006; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Huson et al., 2001). However, rather than examining firm size in terms of the number of top managers within a firm whom may possess the requisite human capital to succeed the incumbent, researchers use measures of firm size such as the number of employees in a firm (Agrawal et al., 2006; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003) or even sales figures (Huson et al., 2001). Since sales figures are used an imperfect proxy for firm size, and firm size is used as an imperfect proxy for internal candidate availability, what may occur is a diluted representation of candidate availability which may not accurately reflect the effects of candidate availability on executive dismissals.

Though the empirical evidence predominantly shows that larger organizations experience more leader turnover than smaller organizations (Agrawal et al., 2006; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Dalton & Kesner, 1983; Grusky, 1961; Huson et al., 2001; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013), the evidence is not clear exactly why this is occurring. The relationship between firm size and executive turnover may be due in part to the availability of alternative candidates to replace the incumbent (Fredrickson et al., 1988); however, it may also be due to larger firms being more bureaucratized and complex (Grusky, 1961; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980), resistant to change (Hannan & Freeman, 1984; Fralich, 2012), scrutinized by stakeholders (e.g., media, analysts, public) (Daboub et al., 1995; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013), or likely to engage in deviant behavior (Baucus, 1990; Baucus & Near, 1991; Daboub et al., 1995; Donohoe et al., 2007).

Another proxy identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) as useful for estimating the availability of qualified candidates was the number of firms in an industry. The idea behind the number of firms in an industry as a proxy for qualified candidate availability is simple: CEOs often come from within the same industry as the hiring firm, and therefore, more firms in the industry is indicative of more available and qualified candidates (Fredrickson et al., 1988; Jalal & Prezas, 2012). However, since the labor market for CEOs is often a national one, Crossland and Chen (2013) specified the criteria for the number of intra-industry firms representing candidate availability must be country-specific. In North American sport leagues, the number of teams gradually increased throughout time, as did the number of coaches per team.

The final proxy for available alternatives to the incumbent CEO which was identified by Fredrickson et al. (1988) is the predecessor's subsequent connectedness. As previously mentioned, former CEOs may remain connected to an organization after departing as CEO in a variety of ways, including becoming the chairman of the board of directors, a board member, or a consultant (Fredrickson et al., 1988). These continued associations between the organizations and former CEOs may signal to internal and external stakeholders that a strong and able candidate is available to replace the incumbent (Fredrickson et al., 1988). Furthermore, the mere presence of the former executive in a position such as chairman of the board of directors may cause negative and dissenting opinions of the incumbent executive to arise if the incumbent's performance is anything less than flawless (Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Additional insights on candidate availability and executive dismissal. Since Fredrickson et al. (1988), few studies offered additional insight regarding the availability of qualified candidates to replace the incumbent executive. Parrino (1997) shared Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) sentiment that a strong external candidate is an important determinant of CEO

dismissals and elaborated that the potential benefit received by a firm for replacing a CEO grows with the quality of the candidate pool. Parrino (1997) also confirmed the importance boards of directors place on industry experience noting that only about 7% of fired CEOs in their sample were succeeded by new CEOs whom did not clearly possess industry-specific human capital. Similarly, examinations of sport industries note that head coaching vacancies in elite leagues are unlikely to come from external leagues (Mielke, 2007; Solow et al., 2011). Mobbs (2013) stated boards of directors can act quickly when faced with a CEO dismissal decision if they have a talented replacement whom can immediately replace the incumbent such as a board member or an internal candidate. However, the frequency of outside successions, as well as CEO turnovers, have increased throughout time (Huson et al., 2001).

Summary of Socio-Political Dismissal Forces

Fredrickson et al. (1988) established a framework for examining executive dismissals based on socio-political forces, rather than solely relying on organizational performance as a determinant. Since its publication, numerous scholars have built upon the foundation Fredrickson et al. (1988) established, often delving deeper into these four socio-political forces. Though, overall, the wealth of literature examining these four socio-political forces has contributed to the increased understanding of executive dismissals among scholars, it has also led to some confusion. For example, Holmes (2011) used performance variables as measures of the socio-political force of allegiances and values, stating that dismissal decision-makers value performance. However, Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) interpretation of values was based on motives for being on the board of directors rather than valuing high performance.

Complications within the executive dismissal literature have arisen with respect to the three other socio-political forces as well. Incumbent CEO power is viewed by most scholars as a

resource that can decrease the likelihood of dismissals, however, depending on the source and type of power (e.g., excessive control over subordinates), it could have detrimental effects (Griffin & Lopez, 2013; Sims, 2010). When discussing expectations and attributions, Fredrickson et al. (1988) identifies differences between industries with respect to executive dismissals, however, scholars often examine executives from various industries without addressing the effects different industries may have on dismissal rates. Since Fredrickson et al. (1988), additional differences in industries which may affect executive dismissals have been identified such as levels of deviant behavior (Daboub et al., 1995) or executive discretion (Hambrick & Abrahamson, 1995). Similarly, in sport, some leagues and levels of competition may be more deviant, allow for more head coach discretion, or have more variation among firms in terms of performance—all of which would be more likely to lead to dismissals. However, anecdotal evidence suggests this may not be occurring and further research is required.

Finally, the availability of qualified alternatives to the incumbent executive is an area that has been substantially lacking in the literature, mostly due to the difficulty in establishing candidates whom comprise a candidate pool for a given executive position. Firm size is often used to proxy for candidate availability, however, this method is crude and could be problematic due to being correlated with several other factors which may affect dismissals (e.g., firm prestige and attention, the complexity of a firm's structure, a firm's ability to change, executive deviance). Though several scholars have emphasized the importance of candidate availability in the executive dismissal process, very little is known about candidates who are promoted to executive positions.

Promotions

Because the availability of qualified candidates to replace an incumbent executive could be a consideration of dismissal decision makers (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988), understanding who those potential successors are is critical. Therefore, knowledge of the promotion process and from where executives may come under various circumstances is necessary for understanding executive dismissals (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Fredrickson et al., 1988). However, the process for filling executive vacancies is different than the process for filling lower level managerial vacancies due to the differences in duties of the higher and lower level managerial positions (Borman & Brush, 1993; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Selznick, 1957).

Executive Successors

Executive successors can come from many different places in terms of the successor's association with the executive-seeking firm or industry, former position held and level of success in that position, certifications or memberships, geographic location, and demographics. Furthermore, there are various ways the succession may occur in terms of planning, which may involve unexpected or planned predecessor departures. Each one of these attributes of the successor and succession event are important in terms of understanding the candidate pool available when boards of directors make dismissal decisions as well as how the succession event is going to affect performance.

Successor associations with firm/industry. Successors may be internally or externally associated with the firm or industry. In the Alternatives to the Incumbent section, the importance of industry-specific human capital and its relevance to boards of directors seeking candidates from within the industry (Crossland & Chen, 2013; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Jalal & Prezas, 2012; Parrino, 1997) was reviewed. For those boards of directors considering a successor from

within their industry, another decision exists: whether to select successors from inside or outside their own firm. Multiple factors may influence the decision to select an inside or outside successor such as firm performance and size.

Research examining executive hiring processes concluded when firms are performing well, promoting internal managers to the top post in the firm is preferred because these internal promotions are less disruptive to the organizational processes responsible for generating the increased performance levels (Carroll, 1984; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Grusky, 1961). However, when firms are not performing well, external candidates are often preferred as successors because they are viewed as more capable of implementing strategic change to increase firm performance (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Fredrickson et al., 1988; Furtado & Karan, 1990; Hamidullah, Wilkins, & Meier, 2009; Ocasio, 1999). This result, however, may be contingent upon the existence of an heir apparent to replace the incumbent executive as well as the incumbent executive's maintaining a connection with the firm after the incumbent's departure and possibly influencing the selection of the incumbent's successor (Cannella & Lubatkin, 1993). Though internal successors are more likely than external successors in firms experiencing high levels of performance, these firms often offer fewer internal promotion opportunities since executives are less likely to be dismissed in times of good performance (Fee, Hadlock, & Pierce, 2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988). However, opportunities for promotion in successful firms may also be dependent on firm size.

There is also a distinction between small and large firms' preferences for successors, whereby large firms often appoint insiders and small firms often appoint outsiders to lead their firms (Fredrickson et al., 1988). The difference in executive hiring practices between large and small firms may be a result of larger firms having more managerial depth which can be more

adequately used to select suitable candidates (Dalton & Kesner, 1983; Parrino, 1997).

Additionally, the complex and bureaucratic nature of these larger organizations may also contribute to the willingness to create and ability to withstand more frequent succession events (Grusky, 1961).

Though there is evidence that firm performance, firm size, and other socio-political factors influence whether boards of directors will appoint an insider or an outsider to their top post, firms may increasingly choose outsiders throughout time (Huson et al., 2001). These outsiders may be viewed as detrimental to potential goals of succession planning (Farquhar, 1995). The increase in outsider successions may be due, in part, to the advantage outsiders have over internal candidates for high-level managerial positions (Acosta, 2010). Acosta (2010) found previous promotions within a firm decrease the probability of future promotions within the firm. Perhaps this finding is due to a lack of diverse experiences, networks, and backgrounds which may be valued by decision makers charged with making personnel decisions. Furthermore, Acosta's (2010) conclusions may assist in explaining why talented top managers and interim CEOs often leave the firm after not being selected as CEO (Cannella & Shen, 2001). Additionally, the ability to predict future success in a given position is contingent upon positions previously held (Longley & Wong, 2011).

Former position held and level of success. Successors to CEOs are either former CEOs or have been promoted to CEO. Successors with more general management experience typically have more relevant expertise to CEO positions than executives from more specialized backgrounds such as marketing (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989). However, consistent with the idea that better performing firms have fewer opportunities for upward mobility (Fee et al., 2006; Fredrickson et al., 1988), non-former CEOs typically come from firms with better performance

than successors with CEO experience (Elsaid, Wang, & Davidson, 2011). Nevertheless, the stock market reacts more favorably to firms that appoint former CEOs as opposed to successors with no CEO experience (Elsaid et al., 2011). Additionally, this positive reaction occurs despite former CEOs being hindered by past experiences which cause decisions to be made based on past experiences that occurred in different contexts (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2015). Since the contexts have changed, but the CEOs decisions are based on the old context, the new decisions may be detrimental to firm performance (Hamori & Koyuncu, 2015).

Rather than a former CEO making a lateral move to be the CEO of another organization, boards of directors may choose to promote a non-former CEO internally or externally. Among organizations which promote internal managers to their top posts, individual performance may not be valued at all in the selection decision (Fee et al., 2006). In contrast, hiring organizations tend to promote external managers when those managers exhibit high levels of individual performance with little regard for the performance of the external managers' organization (Fee et al., 2006). However, promotions based on past performance which occurred at a lower level may not be an accurate indicator of future performance at a higher level (Longley & Wong, 2011), though they may be indicative of future movement along the career ladder (i.e., career ceilings and floors, promotions and demotions) (Rosenbaum, 1979). Therefore, understanding managerial mobility at the highest level of organizations requires an understanding of factors affecting managerial mobility at every level of an organization.

Factors Affecting Promotions

Several studies have examined determinants of promotions at various levels within the organizational hierarchy, which is important because of the differences in duties and promotion criteria at each level (Borman & Brush, 1993; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Selznick, 1957).

However, some factors influencing promotions are not unique to organizational levels, such as education (Tharenou, 1997) or demographic homogeneity (Kanter, 1977; Useem & Karabel, 1986; Zajac & Westphal, 1996). Furthermore, factors affecting promotion are not limited to duties, promotion criteria, or individual attributes, but also macroeconomic, societal, industry, organizational, and political considerations (Kanter, 1977; Ferris, Buckley, & Allen, 1992; Ng, Sorensen, Eby, & Feldman, 2007; Raelin, 1997).

Different criteria are used for evaluating prospective executives than for supervisory managers for several reasons (Selznick, 1957, Ferris et al., 1992). First, duties among executives and lower-level managers differ, and therefore, those entrusted to make the hiring or promotion decisions must consider different characteristics of the candidates as well as factors internal and external to the organization. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) separated managers into three levels: top managers, middle managers, and supervisory managers. Further, they identified skills needed for each level manager to be effective which included technical, human, and conceptual skills. While each level of management mostly needs human skill in Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) generic conceptualization of skills each level of management needs, top managers need more conceptual than technical skill, supervisory managers need more technical than conceptual skill, and middle managers need an even amount of technical and conceptual skill.

Therefore, when decision makers decide whom to hire or promote, this decision may be contingent upon the duties of the position and how well candidates display the characteristics required for those duties. Because top management positions often require more conceptual skills than technical (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969), and conceptual skill is based more on interpretation than concrete measures, top managers may rely more on networks and political behavior (Ferris et al., 1992). However, near the top of the organizational hierarchy, top

managers cannot solely rely on political behavior and networks without exposing weaknesses in their abilities, often demonstrated by past performance (Ferris et al., 1992). Therefore, a combination of political behavior and ability are required for promotion to the highest organizational ranks (Ferris et al., 1992).

Other studies have examined traits related to career advancement. Some traits are simply more likely to guide an employee towards promotions, such as ambition, desires to lead, or desires to excel in the workplace (Tharenou, 1997), whereas other traits are may be more desirable for personnel managers. Among the traits which may be more desirable to personnel managers, there are both physical and personality traits. Physical traits include traits such as sex (Tharenou, 1997) or attractiveness (Morrow, McElroy, Stamper, & Wilson, 1990), whereas personality traits include traits such as self-confidence (Tharenou, 1997).

Promotions are contingent upon several environmental factors beyond the control of the promotion candidates and hiring decision makers. Among these environmental factors are economic conditions, societal characteristics, industry differences, and organizations' staffing policies (Ng et al., 2007). Under favorable economic conditions, firms are more likely to create new positions, vertically and horizontally, which also increases opportunities for external candidates (Ng et al., 2007). In contrast, under unfavorable economic conditions, firm downsizing causes layoffs and demotions (Ng et al., 2007). Numerous societal characteristics could also affect job mobility, such as international and domestic conflicts, technological advances, civil rights issues, or public policies (Kanter, 1977; Ng et al., 2007; Rosenfeld, 1992). For example, unionization, and policies which strengthen unions, decrease involuntary exits and external mobility (Ng et al., 2007).

Societal characteristics, such as policies aimed at changing levels of diversity within organizations, may have beneficial effects on mobility for certain populations (e.g., older, minority, veteran populations), but adverse effects for others (Ng et al., 2007; Rosenfeld, 1992). Differences between industries and organizations within industries also contribute to job mobility. Both industries and specific organizations have varying reward mechanisms, employment goals, and other unique characteristics. Examples of these industry- and organization-specific characteristics include women being overrepresented in clerical positions, high-wage industries experience less job mobility due to infrequent firm departures, and organizational emphases on internal development or acquiring external talent (Ng et al., 2007).

Promotions are contingent upon several factors. Hiring and promotion decision makers must consider the needs of the organization and the qualifications of the candidates. However, economic, societal, industry, and organizational factors may also dictate job mobility. Therefore, similar to the case of executive dismissals, promotions are based on much more than just past performance. As decision makers search for candidates to replace organizational leaders, questions arise regarding the effect a succession will have on the organization.

Executive Successions

Executive successions are of great interest to organizations (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Parrino, 1997; Pedace & Smith, 2013), shareholders (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011; Farquhar, 1995; Finkelstein et al., 2009; Kesner & Sebor, 1994), and scholars (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Giambatista et al., 2005; Kesner & Sebor, 1994). Despite this great interest in executive successions, studies examining the effects of executive succession have, collectively, provided mixed or inadequate results (Farquhar, 1995; Kesner & Sebor 1994; Karaevli, 2007; Puffer & Weintrop, 1991). Faced with several executive succession studies that

often provided mixed results, Kesner and Sebor (1994) provided a review of the executive succession literature from the 1960s to the early 1990s and classified the literature into several categories. Much of the literature regarding executive successions has revolved around the categories of (a) successor origin, (b) succession rates, and (c) post-succession organizational performance.

Successor Origin

Early research by Grusky (1963) utilized a unique data set to empirically examine the effects of successor origin on post-succession performance. The data Grusky (1963) used were professional baseball league mid-season manager changes. Grusky (1963) compared baseball teams that promoted internally with those that acquired new managers from outside the team to see which teams performed better following a succession and found insider successions to be more beneficial to team performance than outsider successions. The finding that insider successions are better for firm performance have been duplicated by several studies since Grusky (1963), such as Allen, Panian, and Lotz's (1979) similar study of professional baseball manager successions and Zajac's (1990) study of corporate CEOs.

Contrary to the aforementioned evidence of outsider successions being disruptive to organizations, Warner et al. (1988) examined executive successions reported in the *Wall Street Journal* and found outside successions to have a positive effect on post-succession firm stock prices. Kesner and Sebor (1994) noted several researchers using various performance measures as dependent variables (e.g., sales, profits, return on investment) found contradictory evidence regarding the effects of insiders and post-succession organizational performance, further contributing to the mixed results attributable to successor origin.

Succession Rate

The literature examining succession rates includes two main streams of research: determinants of succession rates and consequences of high succession rates. Grusky (1961) was one of the first researchers to empirically examine succession rates. Grusky (1961) contrasted larger and smaller revenue-generating Fortune 500 companies and found succession rates to be higher among larger companies. Grusky (1961) attributed to the increased bureaucratic nature of larger organizations. Though the finding of increased succession rates among larger firms has been supported by many studies following Grusky (1961) (e.g., Agrawal et al., 2006; Farrell & Whidbee, 2003; Dalton & Kesner, 1983; Huson et al., 2001; Pfeffer & Moore, 1980; Wiersema & Zhang, 2013), the rationale provided by Grusky (1961) based on organization bureaucracy levels has been challenged (Kesner & Sebor, 1994).

Other scholars added to the succession rate literature by finding an inverse relationship between firm performance and frequency of succession (Coughlan & Schmidt, 1985; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Warner et al., 1988). Additionally, Pfeffer and Moore (1980) found dissenting opinions about the executive to lead to higher succession rates, Salancik and Pfeffer (1980) discovered the executive's ownership of the firm to be inversely related to succession rates, and Allen (1981) uncovered CEO power to be inversely related to succession rates. Examinations of the determinants of succession rates in the 1960s led to examinations of the effects of succession rates on organizational performance (Kesner & Sebor, 1994).

Post-Succession Organizational Performance

Similar to other succession-related studies (e.g., the successor origin debate), scholars again found mixed results regarding post-succession organizational performance. These mixed results led to three theories of executive successions: (a) the Common Sense Theory, (b) the

Vicious Circle Theory (also commonly referred to as the Vicious Cycle Theory), and (c) the Ritual Scapegoating Theory. Furthermore, the ambiguous results regarding the effects of executive successions led many researchers to examine the circumstances affecting the effects of executive successions.

Circumstances affecting post-succession organizational performance. Several circumstances may affect the effect successions have on organizational performance. Many of these circumstances have been being empirically tested for almost half a century, however, statistical tests continue to become more sophisticated. Among these circumstances are (a) executive-firm fit, (b) the ability of the executive and the organization, (c) the timing of the succession, and (d) the time span in which the organizational performance is measured following the succession event.

Research in the 1970s began emphasizing the importance of examining more factors related to post-succession organizational performance than a mere succession event (Kesner & Sebor, 1994). Much of the post-succession organizational performance research in the 1970s was devoted to examining the effects of executive-firm fit on post-succession organizational performance (Kesner & Sebor, 1994). Overall, the results of the studies examining the effect of executive-firm fit on post-succession organizational performance indicate post-succession organizational performance increases more in cases of better executive-firm fit relative to those cases of sub-optimal executive-firm matches (Kesner & Sebor, 1994).

Studies regarding the moderating effects of the executive's and organization's abilities on post-succession organizational performance have used several methods of capturing this relationship. Probably the most studied circumstance affecting post-succession organizational performance is the ability of the team prior to a succession event. Several scholars throughout

the decades of succession research have agreed post-succession organizational performance is, at least in part, determined by the performance of the organization prior to the succession event (Allen et al., 1979; Brown, 1982; Eitzen & Yetman 1972; Friedman & Singh 1989; Karaevli, 2007; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986).

Common Sense Theory. The Common Sense Theory is simple: boards of directors replace poor performing CEOs to improve firm performance, thus creating a positive relationship between executive successions and organizational performance (Dohrn et al., 2015; Gamson & Scotch, 1964; Giambatista et al., 2005; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Soebbing, Wicker, & Weimar, 2015). Evidence of the Common Sense Theory has been found in both the context of head coaches in sport (Maxcy, 2013) as well as CEOs in non-sport settings (Huson et al., 2004; Weisbach, 1988).

Vicious Circle Theory. Contrary to the Common Sense Theory, the Vicious Circle Theory states that executive successions are disruptive processes that decrease organizational performance (Dohrn et al., 2015; Gamson & Scotch, 1964; Giambatista et al., 2005; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Soebbing et al., 2015). Similar to the Common Sense Theory, evidence supporting the Vicious Circle Theory has been found in both sport (Fizel & D'Itri, 1997, 1999; Grusky, 1963; Soebbing & Washington, 2011) and non-sport industries (Carroll, 1984; Haveman, 1993b).

Ritual Scapegoating Theory. The third theory of organizational performance following executive succession is the Ritual Scapegoating Theory. The Ritual Scapegoating Theory states that the occurrence of an executive succession event has no significant effect on organizational performance. Rather, executive successions merely reflect a perceived change in organizational direction, however, do not necessarily cause actual changes in organizational performance

(Dohrn et al., 2015; Gamson & Scotch, 1964; Giambatista et al., 2005; Kesner & Sebor, 1994; Soebbing et al., 2015). Consistent with the other two theories of post-succession organizational performance, evidence to support the Ritual Scapegoating Theory has also been found in both sport (Brown, 1982; Cannella & Rowe 1995; Eitzen & Yetman 1972; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986) and non-sport settings (Lieberson & O'Connor, 1972; Samuelson, Galbraith, & McGuire, 1985).

Several other researchers examined the post-succession organizational performance theories by providing possible explanations for the mixed results (Kesner & Sebor, 1994). Among the explanations, researchers found the pre-succession performance of the organization (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Tushman, Virany, & Romanelli, 1985), successor competence (Finkelstein et al., 2009; Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1986), and executive compensation (Zajac, 1990) may moderate the effects of post-succession organizational performance.

Timing. The timing of successions can have an impact on organizational performance in a few different ways, including the optimal time to dismiss an executive as well as the time of year. In terms of choosing the right time to dismiss an executive, without regard to time of year, Ertugrul and Krishnan (2011) found waiting too long to dismiss an executive could be substantially detrimental to an organization. More specifically, boards of directors that wait to dismiss a CEO increase their probability of filing for bankruptcy by about 4%, increase their probability of delisting their stock by about 8% (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011). However, boards of directors that elect to proactively dismiss their CEO experience a decrease in their firm's share price by almost 5%, yet there is no significant share price decrease for CEOs being fired too late following poor performance (Ertugrul & Krishnan, 2011).

Succession timing could also affect subsequent organizational performance based on the time of year the succession event occurs. To examine this phenomenon, many scholars analyzed sport data to identify whether there is a difference between dismissing an executive during the season as opposed to during the off-season and have compared seasons in sport to similar peak seasons outside of sport (de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2007; Giambatista, 2004; Rowe et al., 2005). That is, most industries and firms experience highs and lows throughout a given year which provide opportunities for turnover among top executives to mitigate potential performance disruptions (de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2007; Giambatista, 2004; Rowe et al., 2005). Literature examining performance during and between seasons in team sports indicates during season successions are more disruptive than between season successions (Allen et al., 1979; Brown, 1982; de Dios Tena & Forrest, 2007; Giambatista, 2004; Rowe et al., 2005).

How researchers decide to define organizational performance, in terms of time, may also affect results regarding the effect succession events have on organizational performance. Day and Lord (1988) identified that under certain circumstances short term performance may increase following a succession event, for example, when the new executive is able to increase morale, external funding, or stockholders' perceptions. However, long-term increases in organizational performance are often created by acquiring and developing personnel or technology, restructuring the organization, or other means of strategic change—all of which often require a new executive to be in office for at least a few years (Day & Lord, 1988).

Though many studies examined the effects of successions, and reached varying conclusions based on the three theories of succession, it is evident post-succession performance is contingent upon more factors than simply the existence of a succession event. Factors influencing the effect a succession will have on subsequent performance include executive-firm

fit, executive/organization ability, succession timing, and post-succession performance measurements. However, before trying to understand organizational performance following successions, a deeper understanding of dismissals is required (Fredrickson et al., 1988).

Conclusion

Executive dismissals and successions can be difficult to accurately examine for several reasons. The sport industry provided important data to assist in examining executive dismissals and successions; however, difficulties still exist in identifying factors related to dismissals, and subsequently, successions. Fredrickson et al. (1988) developed a framework to better understand executive dismissals, which, in turn, would provide for a better understanding of successions but this model of CEO dismissals is not perfect. Research based on their four socio-political forces of CEO dismissals often resulted in inconsistent or contradictory results. These inconsistent or contradictory results may be due to misinterpretations of the model, difficulties operationalizing the four socio-political forces, errors in accurately measuring organizational performance or any of the four socio-political forces, or an incomplete model proposed by Fredrickson et al. (1988).

Executive dismissals and successions are also contingent upon successors, candidate pools, and determinants of promotions. Though executive successions require an understanding of executive dismissals, executive dismissals require an understanding of candidate pools, and candidate pools require an understanding of promotions from the lowest rung of the career ladder, they are often disjointed in the literature. Executive dismissal research typically identifies candidate pools based on firm and industry size proxies which are often based on sales figures, number of employees in a firm, or number of firms in an industry. These proxies do not consider how tall or wide organizational structures are or whom qualified candidates to replace executives are. Furthermore, several studies have examined various levels of management as if they were

evaluated by decision makers using the same criteria despite job duties for these positions being vastly different.

A large body of previous literature examines issues such as executive successions, executive dismissals, and career trajectories, however, without understanding the antecedents of executive successions, fully understanding executive successions themselves may not be possible. Additionally, Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) model of CEO dismissals remained a leading theory for understanding executive dismissals for almost three decades and has been influential in molding research questions and empirical examinations within that time span. Furthermore, minimal revisions or additions to the dismissal model have been proposed in that time.

There are several opportunities for future research stemming from the literature in this review. Future research may be able to expand upon Fredrickson et al.'s (1988) executive dismissal model or adapt the model to different types of firms or industries (e.g., family owned firms, public sector). One socio-political force not discussed in the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model that influences dismissals as well as the other four socio-political forces is negative deviant behavior exhibited by executives and their firms. Empirical examinations of the Fredrickson et al. (1988) model may also benefit from establishing whom qualified candidates are for executive positions in various industries and allowing a pool of candidate to be incorporated into the dismissal model, rather than proxies based on sales figures or firms within an industry.

Several studies have examined the impact of executive dismissals on subsequent organizational performance, however, the impact of a dismissal on an executive's future career prospects is less understood. Recent studies examining the glass cliff have examined how female executives are disproportionately positioned in less successful firms and positions,

however, further studies regarding the effects of these positions on later career outcomes are needed. Sport provides an interesting context to examine these issues due in part to policies such as the Rooney rule which may encourage minorities to take opportunities that could hurt their reputations. Furthermore, the future opportunities, successes, and failures of minorities whom have been dismissed can be easily monitored and measured.

With respect to sport-based executive dismissal and succession studies, establishing how sports and coaching staff hierarchies and responsibilities differ may be useful in correcting discrepancies between sport studies as well as compared to studies in various non-sport industries. Additionally, there are several opportunities to examine the sport-based studies from non-sport journals identified in the Recent Organization and Management Studies Using Sport section of this review. Within the Recent Organization and Management Studies Using Sport section, future research opportunities are discussed for examining the relationships between status and organizational performance as well as human capital, employee mobility, and organizational performance. However, several other future research opportunities exist both inside and outside the realm of executive successions. For example, within the realm of dismissals and promotion research, the influence of public funding for venues or the presence of geographically close rival firms may have an effect on dismissals and promotions. Outside the realm of dismissals and promotions, issues such as momentum and the hot hand effect can examine moderating effects of factors such as age, race, education, or ability to handle pressure.

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APPENDIX B

SPORT STUDIES IN NON-SPORT JOURNALS

Journal	Year	Article Title	Author(s)	Sport	Category
<i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	2015	Lessons From a Martial Arts Dojo: A Prolonged Process Model of High-Context Communication	Cole	Martial Arts	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Eliciting Acceptance for "Illicit" Organizations: The Positive Implications of Stigma for MMA Organizations	Helms & Patterson	Martial Arts	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Falling From Great (and not-so-Great) Heights: How Initial Status Position Influences Performance After Status Loss	Marr & Thau	Baseball	Psychology
	2013	Getting what you need: How reputation and status affect team performance, hiring, and salaries in the NBA	Ertug & Castellucci	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
	2013	Wielding the Willow: Processes of Institutional Change in English County Cricket	Wright & Zammuto	Cricket	Modeling Change/Performance
	2012	Reconsidering pay dispersion's effect on the performance of interdependent work: Reconciling sorting and pay inequality	Trevor, Reilly, & Gerhart	Hockey	Rewards/Motivation
<i>American Sociological Review</i>	2013	Can Honorific Awards Give Us Clues about the Connection between Socioeconomic Status and Mortality?	Link, Carpiano, & Weden	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
<i>Annual Review of Sociology</i>	2013	The Critical Sociology of Race and Sport: The First Fifty Years	Carrington	Multiple	Labor/Personnel
<i>Applied Economics</i>	2015	The Brazilian Soccer Championship: an efficiency analysis	Barros, Wanke, & Figueiredo	Soccer	Modeling Change/Performance
	2015	What should you pay to host a party? An economic analysis of hosting sports mega-events	Mitchell & Stewart	Multiple	Venues

2015	The hot hand fallacy re-examined: new evidence from the English Premier League	Parsons & Rohde	Soccer	Psychology
2015	Competition format, championship uncertainty and stadium attendance in European football – a small league perspective	Pawlowski & Nalbantis	Soccer	Rewards/Motivation
2014	Maximum likelihood ranking in racing sports	Anderson	Auto racing	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	A Bayesian stochastic frontier of Italian football	Barros & Rossi	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Cost efficiency of French rugby clubs	Barros, Bertrand, Botti, & Tainsky	Rugby	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Wage dispersion and team performance: a theoretical model and evidence from baseball	Breunig, Garrett-Rumba, Jardin, & Rocaboy	Baseball	Rewards/Motivation
2014	College football attendance: a panel study of the Football Bowl Subdivision	Falls & Natke	Football	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Did the AFL equalization policy achieve the evenness of the league?	Masson, Sim, & Wedding	Australian Football	Rewards/Motivation
2014	Does European regional competitiveness influence sports? An analysis of three sports	Mourao	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Influences on sponsorship deals in NASCAR: indirect evidence from time on camera	Rotthoff, Depken, & Groothuis	Auto racing	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Uncertainty of outcome or strengths of teams: an economic analysis of attendance demand for international cricket	Sacheti, Gregory-Smith, & Paton	Cricket	Rewards/Motivation

2014	Health insurance and lifestyles	Tavares	Sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel
2013	Prospective measures of competitive balance: application to money lines in major league baseball	Bowman, Ashman, & Lambrinos	Baseball	Rewards/Motivation
2013	Scouts versus Stats: the impact of Moneyball on the Major League Baseball draft	Caporale & Collier	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
2013	Are betting markets efficient? Evidence from European Football Championships	Direr	Soccer	Modeling Change/Performance
2013	A note on the ‘Linsanity’ of measuring the relative efficiency of National Basketball Association guards	Lee & Worthington	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
2013	What determines the price of a racing horse?	Ng, Chong, Man-Tat Siu, & Everard	Horse racing	Modeling Change/Performance
2013	A cost-benefit analysis of restoring the Em River in Sweden: valuation of angling site characteristics and visitation frequency	Paulrud & Laitila	Fishing	Venues
2013	Competitive balance versus competitive intensity before a match: is one of these two concepts more relevant in explaining attendance? The case of the French football Ligue 1 over the period 2008–2011	Scelles, Durand, Bonnal, Goyeau, & Andreff	Soccer	Rewards/Motivation
2013	Breeding to sell: a hedonic price analysis of leading Thoroughbred sire stud fees	Stowe	Horse racing	Modeling Change/Performance
2013	An innovative approach to National Football League standings using bonus points	Winchester & Stefani	Football	Modeling Change/Performance
2012	Hot hands and equilibrium	Aharoni & Sarig	Basketball	Psychology
2012	Over the moon or sick as a parrot? The effects of football results on a club's share price	Bell, Brooks, Matthews, & Sutcliffe	Soccer	Modeling Change/Performance

2012	Measuring competitive balance in sports using generalized entropy with an application to English premier league football	Borooah & Mangan	Soccer	Rewards/Motivation
2012	Evidence of in-play insider trading on a UK betting exchange	Brown	Tennis	Modeling Change/ Performance
2012	Soccer and national culture: estimating the impact of violence on 22 lads after a ball	Cuesta & Bohorquez	Soccer	Psychology
2012	Market efficiency and continuous information arrival: evidence from prediction markets	Docherty & Easton	Golf	Modeling Change/ Performance
2012	The incentive effects of levelling the playing field - an empirical analysis of amateur golf tournaments	Franke	Golf	Rewards/Motivation
2012	Analysis of the determinants of sports participation in Spain and England	Kokolakakis, Lera-Lopez, & Panagouleas	Multiple/ sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel
2012	Expenditure elasticities of the demand for leisure services	Pawlowski & Breuer	Sport (in general)	Modeling Change/ Performance
2012	Dyed in the wool? An empirical note on fan loyalty	Robinson	Soccer	Psychology
2012	Information effects in major league baseball betting markets	Ryan, Gramm, & McKinney	Baseball	Modeling Change/ Performance
2012	Nerves of steel? Stress, work performance and elite athletes	Savage & Torgler	Soccer	Psychology
2012	The demand for slot machine and pari-mutuel horse race wagering at a racetrack-casino	Thalheimer	Horse racing	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Lessons Learned from Community Organizations: Inclusion of People with Disabilities and Others	Fujimoto, Rentschler, Le, Edwards, & Härtel	Sports (in general)	Labor/Personnel

*California
Management Review
Economic Inquiry*

2014	Organizational Cultural Perpetuation: A Case Study of an English Premier League Football Club	Ogbonna & Harris	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	Perceived Support and Women's Intentions to Stay at a Sport Organization	Spoor & Hoye	Multiple	Labor/Personnel
2013	Coach McKeever: Unorthodox Leadership Lessons From the Pool	Schroth	Swimming	Labor/Personnel
2015	Sequential Judgment Effects in the Workplace: Evidence From the National Basketball Association	Gift	Basketball	Modeling Change/ Performance
2015	Are Winners Promoted too Often? Evidence From the NFL Draft 1999-2012	Kitchens	Football	Labor/Personnel
2015	Are Sunk Costs Irrelevant? Evidence From Playing Time in the National Basketball Association	Leeds, Leeds, & Motomura	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
2015	Competitive Balance Measures in Sports Leagues: The Effects of Variation in Season Length	Owen & King	Multiple	Rewards/Motivation
2015	Profit-Maximizing Gate Revenue Sharing in Sports Leagues	Peeters	Multiple	Rewards/Motivation
2015	You are Close to Your Rival and Everybody Hates a Winner: A Study of Rivalry in College Football	Quintanar, Deck, Reyes, & Sarangi	Football	Psychology
2014	Reference-Dependent Preferences, Loss Aversion, and Live Game Attendance	Coates, Humphreys, & Zhou	Baseball	Rewards/Motivation
2014	Identifying changes in the spatial distribution of crime: evidence from a referee experiment in the National Football League	Kitchens	Football	Modeling Change/ Performance
2014	League-Level Attendance and Outcome Uncertainty in U.S. Pro Sports Leagues	Mills & Fort	Multiple	Rewards/Motivation
2014	The Harder the Task, the Higher the Score: Findings of a Difficulty Bias	Morgan & Rotthoff	Gymnastics	Modeling Change/ Performance

<i>Economics Letters</i>	2013	Incidence and Consequences of Risk-Taking Behavior in Tournaments-Evidence From the NBA	Grund, Höcker, & Zimmermann	Basketball	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2013	Loss Aversion and Managerial Decisions: Evidence From Major League Baseball	Pedace & Smith	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
	2013	Interracial Workplace Cooperation: Evidence From the NBA	Price, Lefgren, & Tappen	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
	2013	Testing Bayesian Updating With the Associated Press Top 25	Stone	Football	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2013	Consumption Benefits of National Hockey League Game Trips Estimated From Revealed and Stated Preference Demand Data	Whitehead, Johnson, Mason, & Walker	Hockey	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	Talent and/or Popularity: What Does it Take to be a Superstar?	Franck & Nüesch	Soccer	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Spatial Competition and Strategic Firm Relocation	Henrickson	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Choosing “Flawed” aggregation rules: The benefit of social choice violations in a league that values competitive balance	Boudreau & Sanders	Cross Country Running	Rewards/Motivation
	2015	When pressure sinks performance: Evidence from diving competitions	Genakos, Pagliero, & Garbi	Diving	Psychology
	2015	Betting lines and college football television ratings	Salaga & Tainsky	Football	Rewards/Motivation
	2014	Within-series momentum in hockey: No returns for running up the score	Knifflin & Mihalek	Hockey	Psychology
	2013	Inelastic sports pricing and risk	Andersen & Nielsen	Sport (in general)	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2013	Leadership at school: Does the gender of siblings matter?	Brunello & De Paola	Sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel

<i>European Journal of Operational Research</i>	2013	The effect of an agent's expertise on National Football League contract structure	Conlin, Orsini, & Tang	Football	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Returns to education in professional football	Böheim & Lackner	Football	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Working under pressure: Evidence from the impacts of soccer fans on players' performance	Braga & Guillén	Soccer	Psychology
	2012	A test of monopoly price dispersion under demand uncertainty	Humphreys & Soebbing	Baseball	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Decision analysis under ambiguity	Borgonovo & Marinacci	Auto racing	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	What is a good result in the first leg of a two-legged football match?	Flores, Forrest, Pablo, & Tena	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Misunderstanding of the binomial distribution, market inefficiency, and learning behavior: Evidence from an exotic sports betting market	Hwang & Kim	Volleyball	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	A study of the powerplay in one-day cricket	Silva, Manage, & Swartz	Cricket	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Two exact algorithms for the traveling umpire problem	Xue, Luo, & Lim	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
	2014	A dynamic paired comparisons model: Who is the greatest tennis player?	Baker & McHale	Tennis	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2014	On the decisiveness of a game in a tournament	Geenens	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2014	Decomposition and local search based methods for the traveling umpire problem	Wauters, Van Malderen, & Vanden Berghe	Baseball	Labor/Personnel

	2014	OR analysis of sporting rules – A survey	Wright	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2013	Unoriented two-stage DEA: The case of the oscillating intermediate products	Lewis, Mallikarjun, & Sexton	Baseball	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2013	A modified Duckworth–Lewis method for adjusting targets in interrupted limited overs cricket	McHale & Asif	Cricket	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	Decision taking under pressure: Evidence on football manager dismissals in Argentina and their consequences	Flores, Forrest, & Tena	Soccer	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Stochastics and Statistics: A new methodology for generating and combining statistical forecasting models to enhance competitive event prediction	Lessmann, Sung, Johnson, & Ma	Model for competitive events including sports	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	A hybrid constraint programming and enumeration approach for solving NHL playoff qualification and elimination problems	Russell & van Beek	Hockey	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	Locally Optimized Crossover for the Traveling Umpire Problem	Trick & Yildiz	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
<i>Human Relations</i>	2014	Smells like team spirit: Opening a paradoxical black box	Silva, Cunha, Clegg, Neves, Rego, & Rodrigues	Soccer	Labor/Personnel
	2012	From hero to villain to hero: Making experience sensible through embodied narrative sensemaking	Cunliffe & Coupland	Rugby	Labor/Personnel
<i>Human Resource Management</i>	2012	Performance implications of knowledge and competitive arousal in times of employee mobility: “The immutable law of the ex”	Pazzaglia, Flynn, & Sonpar	Soccer	Labor/Personnel
<i>Industrial Relations</i>	2015	Positive Assortative Matching: Evidence from Sports Data	Filippin & Ours	Running	Labor/Personnel

<i>Journal of Economic Behavior and Organization</i>	2014	Minimum Pay Scale and Career Length in the NBA	Ducking, Groothuis, & Hill	Basketball	Rewards/Motivation
	2012	Salary Distribution and Collective Bargaining Agreements: A Case Study of the NBA	Hill & Jolly	Basketball	Rewards/Motivation
	2012	Home Safe: No-Trade Clauses and Player Salaries in Major League Baseball	Pedace & Hall	Baseball	Rewards/Motivation
	2015	Managers' external social ties at work: Blessing or curse for the firm?	Brandes, Brechot, & Franck	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
	2015	Does society underestimate women? Evidence from the performance of female jockeys in horse racing	Brown & Yang	Horse racing	Labor/Personnel
	2015	The impact of pressure on performance: Evidence from the PGA TOUR	Hickman & Metz	Golf	Psychology
	2015	Reference-dependent preferences, team relocations, and major league expansion	Humphreys & Zhou	Multiple	Venues
	2015	A study of a market anomaly: "White Men Can't Jump", but would you bet on it?	Igan, Pinheiro, & Smith	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
	2015	Game, set, and match: Do women and men perform differently in competitive situations?	Jetter & Walker	Tennis	Labor/Personnel
	2015	Confidence enhanced performance? – The causal effects of success on future performance in professional golf tournaments	Rosenqvist & Skans	Golf	Psychology
	2014	The role of surprise: Understanding overreaction and underreaction to unanticipated events using in-play soccer betting market	Choi & Hui	Soccer	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Conflicts of interest distort public evaluations: Evidence from NCAA football coaches	Kotchen & Potoski	Football	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Endogenous peer effects: local aggregate or local average?	Liu, Patacchini, & Zenou	Sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel

<i>Journal of Economic Literature</i> <i>Journal of Economic Perspectives</i> <i>Journal of Economics and Management Strategy</i> <i>Journal of Management</i>	2014	Deception and decision making in professional basketball: Is it beneficial to flop?	Morgulev, Azar, Lidor, Sabag, & Bar-Eli	Basketball	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Exuberance out of left field: Do sports results cause investors to take their eyes off the ball?	Pantzalis & Park	Multiple	Modeling Change/Performance
	2013	Frustration, euphoria, and violent crime	Munyo & Rossi	Soccer	Psychology
	2012	Performing best when it matters most: Evidence from professional tennis	González-Díaz, Gossner, & Rogers	Tennis	Psychology
	2012	Gender differences in a market with relative performance feedback: Professional tennis players	Wozniak	Tennis	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Forensic Economics	Zitzewitz	Sport (in general)	Modeling Change/Performance
	2015	The Case for Paying College Athletes	Sanderson & Siegfried	Multiple	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Subperfect Game: Profitable Biases of NBA Referees	Price, Remer, & Stone	Basketball	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Resetting the Shot Clock: The Effect of Comobility on Human Capital	Campbell, Saxton, & Banerjee	Basketball	Labor/Personnel
	2014	A Multilevel Investigation of Individual- and Unit-Level Human Capital Complementarities	Crocker & Eckardt	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
	2014	The Roles of Recruiter Political Skill and Performance Resource Leveraging in NCAA Football Recruitment Effectiveness	Treadway, Adams, Hanes, Perrewé, Magnusen, & Ferris	Football	Labor/Personnel

<i>Journal of Management History</i>	2015	Technology brokering in action: revolutionizing the skiing and tennis industries	Laudone, Liguori, Muldoon, & Bendickson	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Conceptualizing the body and the logics of performing	Stec	Sport (in general)	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2014	A review of the North American Society for Sport Management and its foundational core: Mapping the influence of “history”	Seifried	Sport Management as a discipline	Modeling Change/ Performance
<i>Journal of Political Economy</i>	2015	Suspense and Surprise	Ely, Frankel, & Kamenica	Sport (in general)	Rewards/Motivation
	2012	From the Lab to the Field: Cooperation among Fishermen	Stoop, Noussair, & van Soest	Recreational fishing	Modeling Change/ Performance
<i>Journal of the Royal Stat Society, Series A</i>	2015	Time varying ratings in association football: the all-time greatest team is..	Baker & McHale	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	A dynamic bivariate Poisson model for analysing and forecasting match results in the English Premier League	Koopman & Lit	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Home bias in officiating: evidence from international cricket	Sacheti, Gregory-Smith, & Paton	Cricket	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Joint modelling of goals and bookings in association football	Titman, Costain, Ridall, & Gregory	Soccer	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2014	Form or function?: the effect of new sports stadia on property prices in London	Ahlfeldt & Kavetsos	Multiple	Venues
	2013	The group size and loyalty of football fans: a two-stage estimation procedure to compare customer potentials across teams	Brandes, Franck, & Theiler	Soccer	Psychology

<i>Journal of the Royal Stat Society, Series C</i>	2013	Dynamic Bradley-Terry modelling of sports tournaments	Cattelan, Varin, & Firth	Multiple	Modeling Change/Performance
<i>Journal of Urban Affairs</i>	2012	Are Basketball Arenas Catalysts of Economic Development?	Propheter	Basketball	Venues
<i>Labour Economics</i>	2015	Is there a taste for racial discrimination amongst employers?	Bryson & Chevalier	Fantasy football	Labor/Personnel
	2015	Labor market effects of sports and exercise: Evidence from Canadian panel data	Lechner & Sari	Sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel
	2014	Cross-assignment discrimination in pay: A test case of major league baseball	Bodvarsson, Papps, & Sessions	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
	2013	When drains and gains coincide: Migration and international football performance	Berlinschi, Schokkaert, & Swinnen	Soccer	Labor/Personnel
<i>Management Science</i>	2015	Sticking with What (Barely) Worked: A Test of Outcome Bias	Lefgren, Platt, & Price	Basketball	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	A General Multiple Distributed Lag Framework for Estimating the Dynamic Effects of Promotions	Kappe, Stadler Blank, & DeSarbo	Baseball	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Seeing Stars: Matthew Effects and Status Bias in Major League Baseball Umpiring	Kim & King	Baseball	Modeling Change/Performance
	2013	Momentum and Organizational Risk Taking: Evidence from the National Football League	Lehman & Hahn	Football	Psychology
	2013	The Loser's Curse: Decision Making and Market Efficiency in the National Football League Draft	Massey & Thaler	Football	Labor/Personnel
	2012	Psychological Pressure in Competitive Environments: New Evidence from Randomized Natural Experiments	Kocher, Lenz, & Sutter	Soccer	Psychology
<i>MIS Quarterly</i>	2015	Hummel's Digital Transformation Toward Omnichannel Retailing: Key Lessons Learned	Hansen & Kien Sia	Sport fashion company	Modeling Change/Performance

<i>MIT Sloan Management Review Organization Science</i>	2014	What Businesses Can Learn From Sports Analytics	Davenport	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2015	Driving Performance via Exploration in Changing Environments: Evidence from Formula One Racing	Marino, Aversa, Mesquita, & Anand	Auto racing	Modeling Change/ Performance
<i>Organization Studies</i>	2015	Redundant Heterogeneity and Group Performance	Smith & Hou	Basketball	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2013	Looking Inside the Dream Team: Probing Into the Contributions of Tacit Knowledge as an Organizational Resource	Shamsie & Mannor	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
	2012	How Does Status Affect Performance? Status as an Asset vs. Status as a Liability in the PGA and NASCAR	Bothner, Kim, & Smith	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	The division of gains from complementarities in human-capital-intensive activity	Ethiraj & Garg	Basketball	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	Psyched up or psyched out? The influence of coactor status on individual performance	Flynn & Amanatullah	Golf	Psychology
<i>Public Choice</i>	2015	Identity Threats, Identity Work and Elite Professionals	Brown & Coupland	Rugby	Labor/Personnel
<i>RAND Journal of Economics</i>	2015	Sabotage in contests: a survey	Chowdhury & Gürtler	Sport (in general)	Modeling Change/ Performance
	2012	Regulators and Redskins	Coffey, McLaughlin, & Tollison	Football	Modeling Change/ Performance
<i>Review of Industrial Organization</i>	2015	Race effects on eBay	Ayres, Banaji, & Jolls	Baseball	Labor/Personnel
	2015	Competition Between Sports Leagues: Theory and Evidence on Rival League Formation in North America	Che & Humphreys	Multiple	Modeling Change/ Performance

<i>Southern Economic Journal</i>	2014	The Relationship Between Outcome Uncertainties and Match Attendance: New Evidence in the National Basketball Association	Jane	Basketball	Rewards/Motivation
	2014	Time to Unbridle U.S. Thoroughbred Racetracks? Lessons from Australian Bookies	Moul & Keller	Horse racing	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Revenue Sharing with Heterogeneous Investments in Sports Leagues: Share Media, Not Stadiums	Salaga, Ostfield, & Winfree	Multiple	Rewards/Motivation
	2013	The Effects of Cross-Ownership and League Policies Across Sports Leagues Within a City	Mongeon & Winfree	Multiple	Modeling Change/Performance
	2012	Peak-Load Versus Discriminatory Pricing: Evidence from the Golf Industry	Limehouse, Maloney, & Rotthoff	Golf	Modeling Change/Performance
	2015	Using ESPN 30 for 30 to teach economics	Al-Bahrani & Patel	Sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel
	2015	(Not Finding a) Sequential Order Bias in Elite Level Gymnastics	Rotthoff	Gymnastics	Modeling Change/Performance
	2015	The National Football League season wins total betting market: The impact of heuristics on behavior	Woodland & Woodland	Football	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	What Are SEC Football Tickets Worth? Evidence from Secondary Market Transactions	Sanford & Scott	Football	Modeling Change/Performance
	2013	The Impact of Early Commitment on Games Played: Evidence from College Football Recruiting	Bricker & Hanson	Football	Labor/Personnel
<i>Strategic Organization</i>	2012	Examining Agency Conflict in Horse Racing	Brown	Horse racing	Labor/Personnel
	2015	Who shall get more? How intangible assets and aspiration levels affect the valuation of resource providers	Ertug & Castellucci	Basketball	Modeling Change/Performance
<i>The American Economic Review</i>	2015	Bankruptcy Rates among NFL Players with Short-Lived Income Spikes	Carlson, Kim, Lusardi, & Camerer	Football	Psychology

<i>The Economic Journal</i>	2015	I Take Care of My Own: A Field Study on How Leadership Handles Conflict between Individual and Collective Incentives	Gauriot & Page	Cricket	Rewards/Motivation
	2015	Cooperation in a Dynamic Fishing Game: A Framed Field Experiment	Noussair, van Soest, & Stoop	Recreational fishing	Modeling Change/Performance
	2013	Taxation and International Migration of Superstars: Evidence from the European Football Market	Kleven, Landais, & Saez	Soccer	Labor/Personnel
	2014	Information Processing Constraints and Asset Mispricing	Brown	Tennis	Modeling Change/Performance
	2014	Information and Efficiency: Goal Arrival in Soccer Betting	Croxson & Reade	Soccer	Modeling Change/Performance
<i>The Leadership Quarterly</i>	2014	The many (distinctive) faces of leadership: Inferring leadership domain from facial appearance	Olivola, Eubanks, & Lovelace	Football (as well as corporate and political leaders)	Labor/Personnel
<i>The Review of Economics and Statistics</i>	2013	The Effects of Coworker Heterogeneity on Firm-Level Output: Assessing the Impacts of Cultural and Language Diversity in the National Hockey League	Kahane, Longley, & Simmons	Hockey	Labor/Personnel
<i>Urban Studies</i>	2015	From Fan Parks to Live Sites: Mega events and the territorialisation of urban space	McGillivray & Frew	Olympics	Venues
	2014	'Borrowing' Public Space to Stage Major Events: The Greenwich Park Controversy	Smith	Olympics	Venues
	2013	Urban Youth, Worklessness and Sport: A Comparison of Sports-based Employability Programmes in Rotterdam and Stoke-on-Trent	Spaaij, Magee, & Jeanes	Sport (in general)	Labor/Personnel

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Jeremy Joseph Foreman earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Economics with a minor in Nonviolence Studies from California State Polytechnic University in Pomona, California. Following his undergraduate studies, he earned a Master of Science degree in Sport Management from Florida State University. He is currently a candidate to graduate from Louisiana State University with his Doctor of Philosophy degree in Kinesiology and a minor in Political Science in August 2017.