

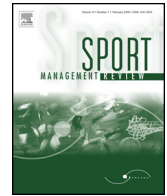


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Shared leadership in sport for development and peace: A conceptual framework of antecedents and outcomes

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ABSTRACT

A broad range of organizations are involved in the field of Sport for Development and Peace (SDP). The complex environmental factors and internal capacity challenges surrounding SDP organizations put additional pressures on SDP managers who are required to balance multiple organizational demands to achieve sustainable program outcomes. Although scholars have begun to explore managerial aspects of SDP efforts, literature on the nature of leadership in SDP remains scarce. In this article, therefore, the authors introduce the concept of shared leadership and arguments for why considering leadership as a collective phenomenon is of particular value in SDP. Specifically, a conceptual framework is developed to identify antecedents and outcomes of shared leadership in SDP. Nine propositions are presented along with a discussion of future areas of study regarding shared leadership in efforts to use sport as a means for achieving development and peace-building outcomes. Limitations of this leadership perspective are also outlined.

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1. Introduction

The number of organizations working toward the achievement of development or peace-building goals through sport continues to increase (Svensson & Woods, 2017). In the 1980s and 1990s, the use of SDP was largely unheard of and the few actors doing so (e.g., Mathare Youth Sports Association, Open Fun Football Schools, SCORE, Sport in Action) had to overcome considerable obstacles without proper recognition or support from traditional sport communities (Gasser & Levensen, 2004; Kidd, 2008; Willis, 2000). Today, this space has evolved and now includes a diverse group of actors including grassroots nonprofits or non-governmental organizations (NGOs), international NGOs, private corporations, national and international sport federations, mainstream development agencies, governments, and in some instances, social movements and activists (Giulianotti, Hognestad, & Spaaij, 2016).

Recent years have seen noticeable advancements in the scholarly attention given to the organizational processes and internal dynamics of SDP organizations (Giulianotti, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017; Schulenkorf et al., 2014; Sherry et al., 2015; Svensson and Hambrick, 2016; Thorpe and Chawansky, 2017; Welty Peachey, Burton et al., 2018). Prior studies have examined motivations of internal stakeholders (Welty Peachey et al., 2014; Welty Peachey and Burton, 2017), representation and enactment of organizational values (MacIntosh and Spence, 2012), alternative organizational structures and legal forms (Schulenkorf, 2017; Svensson, 2017), and the capacity of managers to leverage a set of capacities for implementing SDP

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programs and attaining the social mission of these organizations (Jones et al., 2017a, 2017b; Svensson and Hambrick, 2016; Svensson, 2017).

Leadership, on the other hand, and how it is manifested within the SDP context remain a noticeable gap in the SDP literature (Jones, Wegner, Bunds, Edwards, & Bocarro, 2018; Schulenkorf, 2017; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017; Welty Peachey, Cohen, & Shin, 2018). Yet, as Welty Peachey and Burton (2017) pointed out, “due to the focal missions of SDP organizations . . . the style of leadership needed to effectively guide an SDP organization may be different than that which is needed to lead sport organizations in other sectors” (p. 126). Despite the encouraging advancements pertaining to the managerial aspects of SDP, the understanding of SDP will remain incomplete without further consideration of the nature of leadership within the organizations and collective networks behind these projects.

The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to consider the potential roles of a new emergent paradigm of leadership, shared leadership, and why this view of leadership is of particular importance for SDP organizations seeking to promote meaningful and sustainable social change. We consider theories from related disciplines and their applicability in the SDP domain for advancing our theoretical understanding of SDP leadership (Schulenkorf & Spaaij, 2016; Schulenkorf, 2017). In the area of leadership studies, the past decade has brought forward a shift in how researchers look at the nature of leadership (Ferkins, Shilbury, & O’Boyle, 2017). Whereas the traditional school of thought views leadership as something built around an individual person, a growing body of scholars have advanced the notion of leadership as a “collectively enacted phenomena” (Contractor et al., 2012, p. 994). For the purpose of this paper, shared leadership represents “a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both” (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p.1).

1.1. Leadership research in sport management

A recent comprehensive review of 40 years of theoretical and empirical research efforts on leadership in sport management highlight a tradition of position-centered view of leadership and an abundance of existing knowledge gaps despite noticeable advancements in our understanding of leaders in sport organizations since the origins of our discipline (Welty Peachey, Zhou, Damon, & Burton, 2015). The literature has evolved from examining on-field leadership of coaches (Chelladurai, 1990; Sage, 1973) to studies examining leader’s characteristics and behaviors influencing the leader-follower relationships within the administrative offices of sport organizations (Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Wallace & Weese, 1995). Over the years, sport management scholars have examined different types of leadership along with factors associated with leadership. For example, there is a growing body of knowledge regarding the relationship between gender and leadership (e.g., Burton, 2015; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2011), ethical leadership in sport (e.g., DeSensi, 2014), and the processes of leader-member exchanges in sport organizations (e.g., Hoye, 2004). Many of these scholars have drawn on frameworks related to transactional and transformational leadership to study athletic departments, professional sport organizations, sport federations, and community sport clubs (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). Although these studies have contributed to expanding the scope of leadership research in sport management, scholars have called for more research to shift away from leader-centered leadership in sport management toward alternative perspectives (Billsberry et al., 2018), including shared leadership (Ferkins et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2018; Welty Peachey et al., 2015).

Numerous conceptual and empirical articles have also examined leadership from a governance perspective in nonprofit sport organizations, primarily in terms of regional and national sport organizations, and authors often discuss the notion of shared leadership (e.g., Ferkins, Shilbury, & McDonald, 2009; Hoye, 2006; Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003; Inglis, 1997). Historically, these references have been in terms of the structural interdependence of the executive director and a board of directors in nonprofits, but have recently evolved with a conceptualization of collective board leadership of federal sport networks whereby leadership is presented as something shared across several board members (Ferkins et al., 2017). These developments signal a trend in the broader sport management literature toward the potential value of alternative perspectives on leadership.

1.2. The sport for development and peace (SDP) context

It is important to examine how the environment around SDP makes the context of these entities different than other types of sport organizations more commonly found in the sport leadership literature, where leaders may be more focused on the development and governance of sport systems, community sport, or elite performance (Darnell, 2012; Svensson, Hancock, & Hums, 2017). SDP organizations operate in complex environments as they seek to address broad social issues where other programs have often failed in low- and middle-income countries as well as in poor inner-city neighborhoods across high-income countries (Coalter, 2013; Gardam, Giles, & Hayhurst, 2017; Schulenkorf, Sugden, & Burdsey, 2014; Sherry & Schulenkorf, 2016).

These SDP efforts are associated with diverse program foci aimed at promoting positive social change related to a broad range of development goals including conflict resolution, disease prevention, youth development, gender equality, peace-building, social inclusion, and livelihood (Giulianotti et al., 2016; Levermore & Beacom, 2012; Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011; Schulenkorf, Sherry, & Rowe, 2016). Thus, in addition to operating sport-based activities, SDP practitioners are also expected to deliver development programs and services to address complex social issues (Lindsey & Darby, 2018; Svensson, 2017). The nature of SDP, therefore, requires staff members to serve multiple roles beyond being a traditional sport manager

(Schulenkorf & Edwards, 2012). Since SDP involves the intentional use of sport as a means for addressing the UN's 17 Sustainable Development Goals (Lindsey & Darby, 2018), SDP practitioners are required to not only serve as sport instructors, but also take on the role of a social worker, a project manager, an educator, and a mediator (Schulenkorf & Edwards, 2012; Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013; Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017).

Critical scholars have raised important concerns about the danger of assuming SDP initiatives inherently result in positive outcomes for participants (Coakley, 2011; Coalter, 2013; Hayhurst, 2014). A growing body of SDP scholarship points to the importance of carefully planned and managed program approaches for the achievement of sustainable development outcomes (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Schulenkorf et al., 2014; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016). As a result, scholars have increasingly focused on the design and implementation of different SDP programs (Coalter, 2013; Giulianotti, 2011). Historically, many SDP initiatives have been designed, implemented, and evaluated by organizations from high-income countries in low- and middle-income countries (Giulianotti et al., 2016; Levermore & Beacom, 2012). This practice is concerning since such SDP organizations have implemented top-down development programs with idealistic goals of solving complex social problems with little or no understanding of the local context where those efforts have taken place (Coalter, 2013; Lindsey, 2017; Spaaij, Schulenkorf, Jeanes, & Oxford, 2018). SDP researchers have therefore increasingly emphasized the importance of considering local needs through in-depth community consultations (Kay, 2012; Nicholls, Giles, & Sethna, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2012; Straume & Steen-Johnsen, 2012). Researchers have also put forth arguments for more critically-grounded SDP approaches reflecting community needs in organizational practices and decision-making processes to achieve the desired goals (Giulianotti, 2011; Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013). Alternative approaches advocated for by scholars generally puts a greater emphasis on how SDP organizations can better contribute to more holistic human development efforts and contribute to sustainable outcomes through locally-driven solutions characterized by more inclusive communication and decision-making processes (Darnell & Dao, 2017; Rossi & Jeanes, 2018; Schulenkorf, 2017; Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013; Svensson & Levine, 2017).

More recent scholars point to a shift in SDP practice toward more inclusive decision-making processes as practitioners are developing initiatives built around local agency through the inclusion of participants' families, broader community members in today's SDP organizations (Halsall & Forneris, 2016; Kay & Spaaij, 2012). An additional issue that is largely unique to SDP contexts compared to other types of sport organizations is the central involvement of unemployed youth from some of the most marginalized communities in organizational practices (Van der Klashorst, 2018). Whereas there are examples of SDP actors employing former program participants as paid staff members (Kay, 2009; Svensson et al., 2017), researchers have called for more attention to the rights of these workers and opportunities (or lack thereof) in SDP organizations since they have been largely overlooked (Van der Klashorst, 2018).

What is clear, however, is the consensus among researchers for the importance of considering managerial aspects of SDP (Giulianotti, 2011; Schulenkorf, 2017; Sherry, Schulenkorf, & Chalip, 2015; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017; Welty Peachey, Cohen et al., 2018), since "the area of [SDP] brings with it many complex realities for consideration (e.g., history of subjects, local knowledge and realities, funding and policy development) that influence the design and operations of programs" (MacIntosh et al., 2015, p. 279). Additional emphasis in the SDP literature is the need for research on inclusion of local stakeholders in organizational practices and decisions (Kay, 2012; Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013).

The SDP context is also associated with high levels of staff turnover (Halsall & Forneris, 2016), and SDP leaders have voiced concerns about overworking paid staff members (Svensson et al., 2017). The challenging nature of many of the social issues that SDP organizations seek to address along with the inevitable experience for many internal stakeholders of recognizing the overwhelming need in local communities have also been reported to place additional stress on those working in SDP (Forde, 2015; Halsall & Forneris, 2016). SDP is associated with complex tensions between the empowerment and marginalization of key stakeholder groups (e.g., women staff members) as organizational practices often challenge existing cultural norms (Chawansky, 2015; Hayhurst, 2013; Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017). Identifying ways to improve employee experiences and minimize turnover in this sport context is of utmost importance given that stable organizational structures have been found to be important for successful implementation of SDP. Stable structures allow for core staff to develop collective experiences of how to best work together while also allowing sufficient time for reciprocal relationships to be developed between staff members and other key stakeholders such as program participants (Bean & Forneris, 2016).

Internally, SDP organizations consist of staff members with shared values, particularly a desire for helping others, which is often driven by individuals' prior non-sport humanitarian experiences (Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Welty Peachey, Musser, Shin, & Cohen, 2017). The nature of the SDP workplace is also characterized by considerable migration and mobility of staff (Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017), due to both the inherent nature of development work as well as the personal motives among SDP workers to travel and "see the world" (Welty Peachey et al., 2017, p.11). As SDP workers enter new environments and relocate to either a different organizational office or move on to work for a new organization, they are in a position to contribute with a wealth of knowledge and experiences, but simultaneously need to forge bonds with new colleagues and learn about the local organization and new environment.

The ability of SDP leaders to implement these types of programs requires them to draw on several different organizational capacities (Schulenkorf, 2017). Most SDP agencies face noticeable capacity challenges in terms of the extent to which they are able to mobilize and deploy human, financial, external relationships, internal infrastructure, and planning and development capacities (Svensson, Andersson, & Faulk, 2018). A lot of the organizations implementing SDP programs are characterized by deficient financial resources due to the historically restrictive and competitive funding

landscape in this field (Lindsey, 2017) and have overall low capacity in terms of fundraising and revenue generation abilities (Kidd, 2008; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Svensson et al., 2017, 2018). In attempts to overcome existing capacity deficiencies, today's SDP organizations rely on external partnerships with a diverse range of organizations including public, private, and nonprofit entities (Giulianotti et al., 2016; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Lindsey & Banda, 2011; MacIntosh, Arellano, & Forneris, 2016; Welty Peachey, Burton, Wells, & Chung, 2018, 2018b). In theory, these inter-organizational linkages allow SDP entities and their external partners to achieve mutual goals by drawing on each organization's capacity strengths (Giulianotti et al., 2016; Holmes, Banda, & Chawansky, 2016). In practice, however, the literature is rich in examples of the many partnership challenges such as competing values and unequal power structure reported by practitioners (Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds, & Smith, 2017; Giulianotti, 2011; Harris & Adams, 2016; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Jones, Edwards, Bocarro, Bunds, & Smith, 2017; Lindsey, 2013; Sherry & Schulenkorf, 2016; Welty Peachey et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the multi-disciplinary partnerships that are increasingly common in SDP (Giulianotti et al., 2016) can take on a life of their own as actors develop interdependence for achieving their goals and objectives and can therefore also be examined as an organizational form (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2005).

Given that many SDP programs have been implemented in low- and middle-income countries by stakeholders from high-income countries, it is also important to consider power relations between stakeholders in order to identify how sustainable outcomes can be better achieved (Harris & Adams, 2016; Spaaij et al., 2018). Straume and Steen-Johnsen (2012) argued the rhetoric associated with many SDP policies and programs is often characterized by a postcolonial ideology, which defines the implied superior and inferior stakeholders. In this sense, Western-driven discourses have arguably influenced local practitioners' recognition of development in SDP (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011; Nicholls et al., 2011). Scholars conceptualized power-with and power-over strategies to suggest directions for addressing issues of unbalanced power dynamics between donors and recipients (Ponic, Reid, & Frisby, 2010). The power-with approach means organizations tend to share organizational authority with others while a power-over approach refers to situations where a certain stakeholder has organizational power to control others. The power-with strategy is not only effective for program sustainability but can also help address the unbalanced power issues among SDP stakeholders (Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017).

Furthermore, several scholars have argued for the importance of identifying sustainable ways for empowering local people as the ideal solution for overcoming the power imbalance often associated with SDP efforts (Kay, 2012; Nicholls et al., 2011; Schulenkorf, 2012). At the same time, empowering internal staff members to develop more active involvement and mutual interdependence in leadership can further enable an entity to build organizational capacity (Slater, 2008). In light of the challenges found in today's SDP context, we present shared leadership as a viable framework to consider for how more inclusive approaches can be achieved, which subsequently can result in more meaningful and sustainable outcomes through a combination of bottom-up and top-down approaches (Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011).

2. Shared leadership

Leadership is traditionally viewed from a positional perspective focusing on formal individuals' influences on others within a given organization (Pearce & Manz, 2005). More recently, however, leadership scholars have also begun to consider leadership influences from multiple individuals (Hoch, 2013; Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2008; Pearce, 2015). As an emerging leadership approach, shared leadership highlights the possible distribution of leadership across multiple individuals in an organization, whereby leadership becomes a collective phenomenon. For the purpose of this study, we draw on Pearce and Conger (2003) definition of shared leadership as:

a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both. This influence process often involves peer, or lateral, influence and at other times involves upward or downward hierarchical influence. (Pearce & Conger, 2003, p.1)

Shared leadership has gained considerable momentum during the last 10–15 years (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012; Denis, Langley, & Sergi, 2012; Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008), but is far from a new concept. The roots of this leadership perspective date back to the early 1920s when Mary Parker Follett argued that leadership does not solely come from hierarchy-based positions (Pearce, Yoo, & Alavi, 2004). She claimed organizational members having particular knowledge and skills for a certain task could demonstrate leadership. Subsequently, leadership as a distributed concept materialized. Bowers and Seashore (1966) used the term "mutual leadership" in their conceptualization of an alternative leadership paradigm, suggesting leadership can emerge from multiple individuals within an organization. Even so, it is only since the early 2000s that shared leadership has gained increased attention from management and leadership scholars. For the past 10–15 years, leadership scholars have increasingly argued for the importance of emerging leadership perspectives considering leadership as a collaborative process. The multi-faceted demands placed on today's leaders make it increasingly difficult for a single individual to manage all aspects of an organization (Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012). Increased top-down (structural changes of organizations for competitiveness) and bottom-up pressures (employees' desire for meaningful roles in organizations) require shared leadership to allow organizational leaders to manage the challenges in the changing organizational environments of the 21st Century (Pearce & Manz, 2005). Therefore, organizations are beginning to share leadership roles among multiple individuals.

There are distinct characteristics of shared leadership in comparison to more traditional positional or vertical leadership perspectives. First, while traditional leadership approaches consider leadership as an authority demonstrated by designated leaders (e.g., directive, transactional, transformational), leadership functions are instead distributed across multiple individuals in shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, 2015). As a result, researchers argue shared responsibility across members enables an organization to build collective leadership functions for achieving a common purpose (Houghton, Pearce, Manz, Courtright, & Stewart, 2015). Second, while vertical leadership has unidirectional influence structures in decision-making within an organization, shared leadership involves more multidirectional social processes among organizational members emphasizing a collective involvement and shared responsibility in the decision-making processes (Carson et al., 2007; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014).

A number of scholars have introduced similar conceptual models and definitions of leadership as something shared among several individuals. Even though there are nuanced differences between these perspectives and different terminology (see Table 1), they share common elements with Pearce and Conger (2003) definition of shared leadership. First, leadership is distributed among multiple individuals. Thus, leadership can appear from both formal leaders (hierarchical form) as well as also from multiple individuals (lateral form) within organizations (Bolden, 2011; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, 2015; Spillane, 2005). Second, social interaction is a key aspect of leadership. To this point, leadership is an integrated concept whereby organizational members demonstrate leadership through collective processes. Therefore, we advance a similar position in that these related concepts should be included under the broader umbrella of shared leadership when examining the nature of leadership in SDP.

2.1. Shared leadership and sport for development and peace

The multiple demands placed on leaders' in today's increasingly complex organizational environments make it difficult for any one individual to manage all aspects of an organization (Yammarino et al., 2012). As discussed previously, organizational leaders in SDP are faced with the difficult tasks of dealing with complex social issues in challenging environments while operating with limited capacities for managing these efforts (Rossi & Jeanes, 2018; Schulenkorf, 2017; Svensson, 2017; Svensson et al., 2018; Welty Peachey, Burton et al., 2018, 2018b). We, therefore, review relevant literature to discuss the potential benefits of shared leadership for SDP as well as the pre-conditions needed for fostering shared leadership. In doing so, we develop a series of propositions to stimulate a scholarly dialogue and future research on the potential roles of shared leadership in SDP. Fig. 1 provides an overview of the nine propositions regarding shared leadership.

2.2. What are the benefits of shared leadership?

The potential value of shared leadership for SDP lies in the opportunity for strengthening the ability to achieve desired sustainable and meaningful outcomes while minimizing potential negative outcomes such as further marginalization or exploitation of local stakeholders. Results from prior studies indicate shared leadership can result in several valuable

Table 1
Summary of Related Concepts.

Concepts	Key contributors	Description
Shared Leadership	Carson et al. (2007), Ensley et al. (2006), Pearce and Conger (2003)	Leadership roles and responsibilities are shared among formal leaders and organizational members. This stream of research is most commonly found in scholarship on workplace teams and entrepreneurial ventures. This perspective suggests that unlike the traditional heroic view of leadership, "it takes the leadership of an array of talented individuals to develop and grow new ventures. This highlights the great importance in selecting and developing top management teams, rather than simply attracting a superstar CEO" (Ensley et al., 2006:).
Collective Leadership	Contractor et al. (2012), Denis, Lamothe, and Langley (2001)	An integrated view of leadership whereby leadership is viewed as something that may be shared within teams, distributed across organizations, pooled within a group of organizational members, or rotated among several individuals. Collective leadership involves "a reorientation of leadership away from understanding the actions and interactions of "leaders" to understanding the emergent, informal, and dynamic "leadership" brought about by the members of the collective itself" (Contractor et al., 2012 p. 9942).
Distributed Leadership	Gibb (1954), Gronn (2000), Spillane (2005)	Distributed leadership emphasizes leadership practices more so than the structures, roles, or functions of people in an organization. This concept is predominantly found in the educational leadership literature. Leadership is defined "as the product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their situation" (Spillane, 2005, p. 144). Thus, leadership "is more appropriately understood as a fluid and emergent, rather than as a fixed, phenomenon" (Gronn 2000, p. 324)
Pooled Leadership	Denis et al. (2012), Reid and Karambayya (2009)	A pair or a group of individuals co-lead an organization through shared or "pooled" leadership structures at the top-level of the organization. This concept is generally associated with studies of alternative organizational forms and creative entities. "A structurally plural group can become a collective source of leadership for people outside it" (Denis et al., 2012, p. 231).

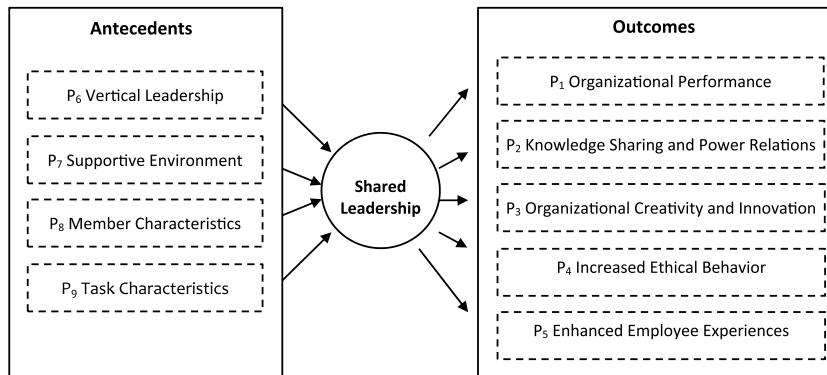


Fig. 1. A Conceptual Overview of Propositions Regarding Shared Leadership in SDP.

organizational outcomes including (a) better organizational performance and effectiveness (Carson et al., 2007; Ensley et al., 2006; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Hoch, 2013), (b) improved knowledge sharing and power relations (Carmeli & Paulus, 2015; Carson et al., 2007) (c) increased organizational creativity and innovation (Hoch, 2013; Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Wu & Cormican, 2016), (d) ethical behavior (Pearce et al., 2008; Pearce, 2015), and (e) enhanced employee experiences (Alanezi, 2016; Houghton et al., 2015; Patterson, West, & Wall, 2004).

2.2.1. Organizational performance and effectiveness

Capacity challenges in SDP organizations often prevent them from achieving desired goals and fulfilling their broader social change-focused missions (Jones et al., 2017a; Schulenkorf et al., 2014; Svensson et al., 2018). As we mentioned previously, there is a consensus among SDP researchers that the management and structure of the organizations implementing SDP programs play a key role in whether these initiatives result in positive and/or negative outcomes (Schulenkorf, 2017). From this viewpoint, whether SDP programs result in sustainable outcomes depends on the extent to which SDP leaders are able to leverage a set of capacities for achieving desired goals (Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Svensson et al., 2018). Particularly, a recent study found SDP leaders' servant leadership behaviors played a significant role in satisfying followers' needs (e.g., autonomy, competence, relatedness), which can result in organizational effectiveness (Welty Peachey, Burton et al., 2018). Further, Svensson et al. (2017) emphasized the importance of paid staff as a critical element of human resources capacity in SDP organizations. Although shared leadership in and of itself will not necessarily result in increased capacity or more resources, evidence from the broader management literature consistently suggests a positive association between shared leadership and enhanced organizational performance and effectiveness (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Ensley et al., 2006; Hoch, 2013; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014).

Proposition 1. Shared leadership behavior in SDP organizations will be positively associated with organizational performance and effectiveness.

2.2.2. Knowledge sharing and power relations

Shared leadership can also enable improved knowledge sharing among staff members (Carmeli & Paulus, 2015). Knowledge sharing in this context refers to the level of exchange of task-related ideas and information between internal stakeholders (Staples & Webster, 2008). Internal stakeholders are more likely to support and help each other when multiple individuals share leadership within an organization (Day et al., 2004). This supportive environment subsequently allows for enhanced knowledge sharing as staff members collectively engage in shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007). SDP programs are often situated in complex environments where practitioners are tasked with operating within diverse political, social, and economic environments (Sherry & Schulenkorf, 2016). More inclusive decision-making processes allowing for shared knowledge and leadership roles among stakeholders can help in developing more sustainable SDP initiatives in response to complex and often unpredictable environmental forces (Kay, 2012; Schulenkorf, 2017; Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016).

At the same time, SDP efforts also continue to be characterized by imbalanced power relations among different stakeholder groups (Giulianotti, 2011; Sherry & Schulenkorf, 2016; Welty Peachey et al., 2017), particularly between external funders and smaller local SDP organizations (Harris & Adams, 2016). Therefore, Welty Peachey and Burton (2017) argued for the potential value of drawing on Ponice et al. (2010) conceptualization of power-over and power-with approaches. As we discussed earlier, power-with approaches are characterized by active and meaningful involvement of all stakeholders in organizational processes while power-over approaches are underlined by hegemonic relationships where individuals or organizations maintain power and control over others (Ponice et al., 2010). The power-over approach continues to be associated with many SDP initiatives, particularly those implemented in low- and middle- income countries by external actors (Spaaij et al., 2018; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017). However, there is an increased understanding among SDP researchers of the need for local voices in SDP efforts, thus, requiring new ways for local

stakeholders to actively participate in the design, implementation, and evaluation processes of SDP programs (Kay, 2012; Nicholls et al., 2011; Schulenkorf, 2012). Welty Peachey and Burton (2017) argued for the importance of these types of power-with approaches that encourage active involvement of local stakeholders in SDP to enhance the long-term success and sustainability of SDP organizations. As such, we advance the following proposition:

Proposition 2. Shared leadership in SDP organizations will be associated with inclusive and balanced decision-making processes where knowledge is actively exchanged among all stakeholders.

2.2.3. Organizational creativity and innovation

Shared leadership is also associated with improved organizational creativity and innovation (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Wu & Cormican, 2016). These concepts are closely linked but differ regarding their respective focus. Creativity refers to the ability to generate new ideas while innovation is the actualization or implementation of those ideas. In other words, creating an organizational climate emphasizing the importance of sharing leadership roles and responsibilities among internal stakeholders can help increase an organization's collective ability to come up with new ideas. The ability to be creative and innovative to adapt to the complex context in which SDP programs are often delivered is identified in the SDP literature as a critical factor for the success of such initiatives (Halsall & Forneris, 2016). Furthermore, practitioners involved in using sport to contribute to development goals also have to develop creative solutions for how to manage and respond to changing institutional demands (Svensson, 2017). Empirical evidence from the broader management literature indicates a significant relationship between shared leadership and increased innovative behavior (Hoch, 2013). How SDP organizations can be innovative in developing new or improved solutions for better promoting social change is increasingly attracting the attention of both practitioners and researchers. By developing shared leadership, SDP practitioners can help facilitate increased creativity and innovative behavior. Therefore, we develop the following proposition:

Proposition 3. Shared leadership in SDP organizations will be positively associated with creative ideas and the ability to implement innovative solutions over time.

2.2.4. Ethical organizational behavior

Another potential value of shared leadership for SDP is the potential for enhanced ethical organizational behavior (Pearce, 2015). The mutual influences among internal stakeholders in shared leadership help promote internal checks and balances for minimizing potential unethical decision-making compared to more hierarchical and centralized leadership structures (Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, Manz et al., 2008). Shared leadership can serve an important moderating role in reducing the likelihood of executive corruption by decentralizing power and decision-making (Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, Manz et al., 2008) and promoting increased organizational citizenship behavior (Baker, Hunt, & Andrews, 2006). The importance of developing mechanisms for ensuring ethical behavior is of particular importance in SDP initiatives due to the unbalanced power dynamics associated with funding relationships, the sensitive nature of many of the targeted social issue(s), the disadvantaged populations engaged in SDP programs, and the increased involvement of for-profit corporations in SDP (Giulianotti et al., 2016; Harris & Adams, 2016; Hayhurst, 2014). Shared leadership also has the potential to help ensure ethical behavior and protect program participants in light of the inter-organizational partnerships found in SDP (Giulianotti, 2011; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Lindsey & Banda, 2011; MacIntosh et al., 2016).

Proposition 4. Shared leadership in SDP organizations will be positively associated with an ethical climate among stakeholders, resulting in the more ethical behavior of stakeholders.

2.2.5. Enhanced employee experiences

It is also important to consider the employee experiences of practitioners involved in SDP (Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017; Van der Klashorst, 2018; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017; Welty Peachey et al., 2017). Results from prior studies in related disciplines indicate that organizational members perceive an improved employee experience from shared leadership through collaborative participation in decision-making and a sense of empowerment (Houghton et al., 2015). Shared leadership allows employees to have a clear sense of tasks, goals, and their roles in a given organization by being more actively involved in organizational activities (Patterson et al., 2004). Furthermore, shared leadership also leads to a sense of ownership in an organization and improved self-determination since individuals recognize their suggestions and behaviors can directly influence organizational practices and outcomes (Hooker & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce & Manz, 2005). Recent scholars examining managerial aspects of SDP entities have identified noticeable concerns among SDP leaders of overworking staff members and putting them at high risk of burnout (Svensson et al., 2017). Developing shared leadership in SDP could help reduce some of the perceived work burden, level of employee burnout, and the risk of intra-organizational conflict among staff members (Alanezi, 2016).

Proposition 5. Shared leadership in SDP organizations will be positively associated with positive employee experiences, such as inclusion in decision-making, meaningful work opportunities, and inclusion in goal attainment.

2.3. How can SDP organizations foster shared leadership?

Scholars have increasingly examined potential preconditions necessary for the development of shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce & Sims, 2000). In this section, we discuss the role of four antecedents of shared leadership: (a) vertical leadership; (b) supportive internal environment; (c) staff members' characteristics; and (d) task characteristics.

2.3.1. Vertical leadership

Although shared leadership may sound like a radical approach shifting leadership roles from a formal leader to group members, it is not a competing concept to traditional vertical leadership styles (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013; Hoch, 2013; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, Manz et al., 2008). Instead, leadership scholars argue "shared leadership supplements rather than replaces vertical leadership" (Fausing et al., 2015, p.3). Formal leaders have the ability (and responsibility) to develop an atmosphere conducive to shared leadership within existing vertical leadership structures. Hoch (2013) argued formal leaders' ongoing support can be a critical role in the success of shared leadership. SDP leaders have the responsibility to build the foundations for shared leadership development since shared purpose and clear tasks based on personal expertise are key building blocks for leadership to be shared across multiple individuals. Furthermore, establishing and maintaining good relationships with external stakeholders are also a significant contribution of vertical leaders for the development of shared leadership.

Leaders inspiring employees to go above and beyond to fulfill their potential while providing autonomy for followers to take ownership and make their own decisions (e.g., transformational leadership, empowering leadership, and servant leadership) can facilitate the development of shared leadership over time (Carson et al., 2007; Fausing, Joensson, Lewandowski, & Bligh, 2015; Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013; Hoch, 2017; Pearce & Manz, 2005). Scholars have found that employee- or relationship-oriented leadership styles with an emphasis on empowering followers help build shared leadership (Fausing et al., 2015; Hoch, 2013; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, Manz et al., 2008; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014).

In SDP, a few recent studies have indicated the potential value of servant leadership as a particularly effective leadership style given the social change-focused nature of this field (Jones et al., 2018; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017; Welty Peachey, Burton et al., 2018, Welty Peachey, Cohen et al., 2018). The empowerment of followers through servant leadership in SDP can help develop increased information sharing, independent decision-making, and a supportive and caring environment (Burton, Welty Peachey, & Wells, 2017). Therefore, SDP organizations characterized by this type of leaders are more likely to develop shared leadership since knowledge sharing and collective decision-making processes are critical aspects of shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014). Thus, we propose the following proposition:

Proposition 6. Employee-oriented leadership styles (e.g., empowering or servant leadership) will be positively associated with the development of shared leadership in SDP.

2.3.2. Supportive internal environment

The development of shared leadership also depends on whether organizations have internal support systems or processes involving shared leadership behaviors (Hoch, 2017). Shared leadership can be facilitated when the internal organizational environment promotes: a shared purpose (e.g., common understanding about collective goals), social support (e.g., interpersonal encouragement and recognition of other members' contributions), and voice (e.g., inclusive participation in decision-making processes in place) (Carson et al., 2007). Findings from several studies in the SDP literature point to key factors for supportive internal environments. For example, researchers examining SDP through an organizational lens have highlighted the prominence of shared values among internal stakeholders (Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Welty Peachey, Lyras, Cohen, Bruening, & Cunningham, 2014), collaborative and supportive organizational cultures (Svensson et al., 2017), and collective decision-making (Kay, 2012; Lyras & Welty Peachey, 2011; Spaaij & Jeanes, 2013).

Accessibility or transparency of information throughout an organization is another critical predictor of shared leadership. According to Hoch and Dulebohn (2013), the access to quality information helps internal stakeholders develop a better understanding of the organizational purpose, roles, and responsibilities needed for achieving the broader mission. Fair reward systems in organizations can also contribute to the development of shared leadership. Employees have the willingness to go above and beyond in their contributions to achieving organizational goals when they feel that others in the organization fairly recognize their efforts (Fausing et al., 2015).

Findings from recent studies indicate fair internal reward systems enable members to be significantly more engaged and committed to shared leadership within an organization (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013; Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). A considerable number of staff members are reportedly involved in SDP efforts due to their love for sport and a passion for the mission and values of the organization (Welty Peachey et al., 2014, 2017). In light of the central role of paid staff in SDP organizations (Svensson et al., 2017), how these internal stakeholders perceive organizational justice regarding resource allocation (e.g., accessibility of information) and fair rewards will also likely influence the extent to which shared leadership is developed.

Proposition 7. Organizational systems and processes emphasizing a broader shared purpose, frequent two-way communication, collective accountability, and organizational justice in resource allocation and employee rewards will be positively associated with shared leadership in SDP.

2.3.3. Members' characteristics

The personal characteristics of internal staff members can also enable or inhibit the development of shared leadership within organizations (Pearce & Sims, 2000; Small & Rentsch, 2010). A prior study suggests individuals with high-levels of collectivism and trust are more prone to engage in shared leadership behaviors (Hoch, 2013). Organizational members with high-levels of proactive personality—an individual's willingness to take action to influence their surroundings—are also more likely to facilitate the development of shared leadership (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013). Furthermore, high-levels of self-leadership among internal stakeholders are also likely to support the emergence of shared leadership within an organization (Bligh, Pearce, & Kohles, 2006; Pearce & Manz, 2005). Self-leadership represents self-influence processes by controlling oneself to achieve personal goals (Houghton et al., 2015). Individual members' proactive and self-leadership dispositions may be important preconditions for shared leadership development in SDP since collective approaches to leadership depend on all of the members involved. We, therefore, put forward the following proposition:

Proposition 8. The personal values, abilities, and personalities of stakeholders will be positively associated with shared leadership in SDP organizations.

2.3.4. Task characteristics

The nature of a given task also influences the emergence of shared leadership. Several scholars have identified task characteristics as essential antecedents of shared leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2000; Serban & Roberts, 2016). Highly interdependent tasks are significantly associated with increased shared leadership (Fausing et al., 2015). According to Kezar and Holcombe (2017), "interdependence refers to the degree to which team members must depend on each other to complete their tasks and achieve their goals" (p.11). The nature of SDP programs requires expertise in a broad range of specializations beyond sport and physical activity including conflict resolution, social work, education, and health (Schulenkorf & Edwards, 2012). As a result, many organizations are dependent on representatives from partner organizations when implementing SDP efforts (Giulianotti et al., 2016). In SDP, this dependence could foreseeably be expected in more holistic approaches where SDP entities are engaging with broader development actors (Darnell & Black, 2011) or with the growing number of inter-organizational networks aimed at promoting collective impact through SDP (Giulianotti et al., 2016). In addition to the diverse range of stakeholders engaged in today's SDP efforts, there has also been an increased emphasis in SDP research and practice on integrating SDP programs as part of more holistic development and peace-building approaches (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). In this regard, the collaborative requirements and potential co-dependence on each other of more holistic development strategies may further stimulate shared leadership.

Complex tasks can also promote the development of shared leadership. Task complexity represents knowledge-based tasks requiring high-level of engagement from multiple individuals (Ensley et al., 2006; Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013; Wang et al., 2014). As such, tasks requiring specialized information, skills, and knowledge of other members can facilitate shared leadership within an organization (Pearce & Sims, 2000). The complex nature of tasks involved in SDP such as disease prevention, conflict resolution, challenging gender norms, and creating safe spaces in challenging environments requires creative problem-solving approaches (Pearce & Sims, 2000), where multiple members are actively engaged in sharing their perspectives in order to develop a collective solution (Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014). Therefore, we developed the following proposition:

Proposition 9. Task interdependence among stakeholders and creative problem-solving approaches will be positively associated with shared leadership in SDP organizations.

3. Discussion

In this paper, we have argued for the importance of considering the role of shared leadership in sport for social change efforts and have put forth several propositions (See Fig. 1). Embracing a shared perspective of leadership as a collective and interdependent process involving multiple staff members is important in the context of SDP considering SDP agencies rely more on paid staff than other types of sport organizations (Svensson et al., 2017, 2018). Moreover, SDP practitioners should consider a shared approach since collective leadership is associated with improved organizational performance and a heightened level of effectiveness in achieving desired goals and objectives (Carson et al., 2007; Ensley et al., 2006), thus, providing a way for SDP actors to increase their organizational capacity (Schulenkorf, 2017; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Svensson et al., 2018). Shared leadership also provides a means for SDP practitioners to work towards overcoming existing knowledge sharing issues and unbalanced power relations among internal stakeholders (including local paid staff, non-local paid staff, and program participants) and external stakeholders (community leaders, funders, program partners) (Carmeli & Paulus, 2015; Nicholls et al., 2011; Ponio et al., 2010; Staples & Webster, 2008; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017). Enacting shared leadership within SDP can also facilitate improved creativity (idea generation) and innovation (idea implementation) (Hoch, 2013; Wu & Cormican, 2016), which are critical for the success of SDP initiatives (Halsall & Forneris, 2016). At the same time, the complexities of social issues and the challenging work environments for SDP practitioners (Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017) also require careful attention. Shared leadership can serve as a useful way for SDP practitioners to enhance employee experiences by decentralizing decision-making and developing shared internal accountability (Alanezi, 2016; Houghton et al., 2015; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008; Pearce, Manz et al., 2008; Pearce, 2015).

Shared leadership can also help leaders of SDP organizations in creating safe spaces for program participants (Spaaij & Schulenkorf, 2014).

To develop shared leadership, SDP practitioners should critically reflect on their own leadership style(s) and how they can better serve and empower organizational members (Burton et al., 2017; Carson et al., 2007; Fausing et al., 2015; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017; Welty Peachey, Burton et al., 2018; Welty Peachey, Cohen et al., 2018). In addition, leaders of SDP organizations need to also ensure that organizational processes, systems, and structures support inclusive decision-making, shared access to relevant resources, and overall fairness in the way of employee treatment (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013; Hoch, 2017; Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). At the same time, recruiting proactive paid staff members who also value collectivism can further enhance the development of shared leadership (Houghton et al., 2015; Pearce & Manz, 2005). Finally, structuring job responsibilities as well as inter-organizational partnership agreements around interdependent and challenging tasks are additional ways that SDP practitioners can develop shared leadership in practice (Fausing et al., 2015; Serban & Roberts, 2016), which is critical in light of the multi-stakeholder approaches increasingly found in today's SDP landscape (Giulianotti et al., 2016). We now conclude by discussing several directions for future research on the potential roles of leadership as a collective process and phenomenon in SDP.

3.1. Future research

The nine propositions that we have presented in this conceptual framework of shared leadership are intended to serve as a foundation to further stimulate dialogue of shared leadership in SDP. We encourage follow-up studies to empirically test antecedents of shared leadership in the context of SDP organizations. Vertical leadership styles (e.g., transformational, empowering, servant leadership) play significant roles in developing shared leadership (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013; Hoch, 2013; Pearce, Conger et al., 2008). For example, a recent case study emphasized the important roles of servant leadership in the early stage of the organizational life cycle to establish a clear sense of organizational purpose, which subsequently can enable shared leadership (Jones et al., 2018). Future researchers should examine leadership across different organizational life stages in SDP and the interplay between vertical and shared leadership. We also encourage researchers to utilize longitudinal studies to unpack the influences of vertical leadership styles on shared leadership development over time and identify how organizational capacity and life stage transitions impact shared leadership. At the same time, we also encourage others to conduct a comparative study to investigate the relative contribution of different types of vertical leadership strategies (i.e., transformational, empowering, and servant leadership) for building shared leadership.

Although mainstream leadership research has highlighted the importance of understanding the necessary conditions for shared leadership development (Pearce & Sims, 2000), little is known about conditions needed for enabling collective leadership behavior in SDP (Jones et al., 2018). The one exception is a recent case study of a SDP organization in the United States of how some contextual factors influence leadership development (e.g., Jones et al., 2018).

However, much additional work is needed to empirically examine what types of internal processes and structures are necessary for developing and sustaining shared leadership. Furthermore, exploring how the motives, backgrounds, skills, and knowledge of SDP workers (e.g., Thorpe & Chawansky, 2017; Welty Peachey et al., 2017) influence leadership development as well as the influence of the different tasks that SDP workers are asked to carry out (Schulenkorf & Edwards, 2012) would also be fruitful for advancing our knowledge of SDP. We encourage researchers to examine these aspects across the diverse geographical and socio-political contexts in which SDP organizations operate through cross-comparative studies.

Findings from a number of prior research studies have indicated how different capacity challenges prevent SDP organizations from achieving desired outcomes (Jones et al., 2017a; Schulenkorf et al., 2014; Svensson & Hambrick, 2016; Svensson et al., 2017, 2018). We, therefore, encourage future researchers to empirically test propositions about the influence of shared leadership on organizational outcomes to determine if a more collective approach may help SDP entities better accomplish intended goals. In this sense, it is necessary to examine whether shared leadership structures and behaviors result in better organizational performance and effectiveness within SDP organizations as well as the extent to which shared leadership contributes to increased innovation capacity. We also extend calls for the importance of examining the outcomes of collective decision-making processes in SDP. A mixed-method research approach could help researchers identify inclusive decision-making processes as well as explore the unique staff experiences from the active involvement in decision-making. For example, the use of social network analysis (SNA) can provide significant information regarding the degree of interactions and convergence of leadership among individuals. Further, researchers can investigate in-depth experiences of the shared leadership among organizational members using qualitative research. Combined, examining the nine propositions presented through empirical research will contribute to our understanding of how sharing leadership among SDP staff members and program participants may result in valuable outcomes and the necessary conditions for practitioners to develop shared leadership.

3.2. Limitations

Although we have proposed the potential value of shared leadership in SDP, we also acknowledge the limitations of this concept. As presented in our review, vertical leadership approaches directly influence how (if at all) shared leadership is developed and manifested within organizations. Thus, these concepts are not mutually exclusive (Fausing et al., 2015). To date, little is known about best practices for how organizational leaders can design specific structures and processes that

enable shared leadership to be developed and sustained over time. Subsequently, Kezar and Holcombe (2017) indicated a tendency of organizational leaders to utilize the term “shared leadership” as a rhetorical strategy to portray a collaborative organizational atmosphere with little or no meaningful actions taken to actively promote and develop shared leadership. Some scholars have further raised concerns about whether leadership can truly be equally shared among *all* organizational members since this dilutes the meaning of leadership and makes it difficult for decisions to be made (Sergi, Denis, & Langley, 2012).

Although there are many benefits of developing shared leadership, findings from a previous study indicated that there might be situations where the final decision needs to be made by a hierarchical leader to prevent organizational chaos and drift that can be associated with collective decision-making (Pearce, Conger et al., 2008). Even so, the concept of shared leadership is still in a nascent stage within the broader leadership literature and remains to be fully explored.

Accordingly, we have reviewed relevant scholarship and identified nine propositions for the potential roles of shared leadership in SDP. Our propositions need to be empirically tested through future research. Findings from such studies will help identify the theoretical and practical implications of shared leadership approaches in different SDP contexts.

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