

2008

## Exploring the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes in selected Western Australian sport associations

Sooyoung Sul Tcha  
*Edith Cowan University*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses>



Part of the [Sports Management Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Tcha, S. S. (2008). *Exploring the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes in selected Western Australian sport associations*. Edith Cowan University. Retrieved from <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/1743>

This Thesis is posted at Research Online.  
<https://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/1743>

# Edith Cowan University

## Copyright Warning

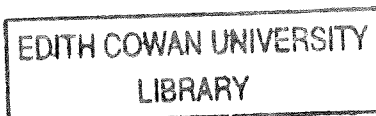
You may print or download ONE copy of this document for the purpose of your own research or study.

The University does not authorize you to copy, communicate or otherwise make available electronically to any other person any copyright material contained on this site.

You are reminded of the following:

- Copyright owners are entitled to take legal action against persons who infringe their copyright.
- A reproduction of material that is protected by copyright may be a copyright infringement. Where the reproduction of such material is done without attribution of authorship, with false attribution of authorship or the authorship is treated in a derogatory manner, this may be a breach of the author's moral rights contained in Part IX of the Copyright Act 1968 (Cth).
- Courts have the power to impose a wide range of civil and criminal sanctions for infringement of copyright, infringement of moral rights and other offences under the Copyright Act 1968 (Cth). Higher penalties may apply, and higher damages may be awarded, for offences and infringements involving the conversion of material into digital or electronic form.

**EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP  
BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE  
AND PLANNING PROCESSES IN  
SELECTED WESTERN AUSTRALIAN  
SPORT ASSOCIATIONS**



**SOOYOUNG SUL TCHA**

**Presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements of  
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of Business  
at Edith Cowan university**

**21 January 2008**

## USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.



## ABSTRACT

This study explored the effects of organisational culture on the planning processes of three state sport associations in Western Australia. Using the competing values framework of organisational culture and Chapman's planning model, this study aimed to explore three research questions: (i) What are the demographic and organisational cultural profiles of the selected sport organisations? In particular, do professionals and volunteers share similar or different perceptions of the organisational cultures?; (ii) What are the development planning processes for each sport association? How does each association perceive the development planning processes?, and; (iii) How does organisational culture influence planning processes?

To find answers to these research questions, this study used two kinds of data: a survey for quantitative analysis, and interviews with CEO/President and board members of each association for qualitative analysis. For all the associations, group culture was strongly emphasised. This may be a tradition in sport, especially as Australian sport has a strong reliance on volunteers, and is a quality that distinguishes sport organisations from other types of organisations. The slightly lower emphasis on rational and developmental culture may be indicative of the newer trends of professionalism in sport and the tension between especially group culture and rational culture as professional officers (paid staff) take over managing sport from the volunteers. All these sport associations exhibited low to very low emphasis on hierarchical culture, suggesting that these attributes are less evident and less valued, and perhaps the organisational structures are less

hierarchical, although organisational charts for the associations were not investigated.

In comparison, the interviewees recognised group, development and hierarchical cultures to be emphasised but not rational culture. This may indicate that the two facts were combined: first, organisations have moved from hierarchical to a more horizontal structure, and second, the interviewees, in general, had been with respective associations for a significantly longer duration than the average workers. It was found that the workers in the three associations had similar perceptions in regard to their planning processes.

Regression analysis found that group cultural value was significantly related to the association's planning process. Hierarchical culture was also found to be related to some aspects of the planning process, such as the association's recognition of the importance of planning. It was also found that some demographic profiles of respondents affected the perception of planning processes. For example, a female worker was more likely to perceive that her association's planning processes were better developed. A worker with longer experience in the current occupation was more likely to perceive his/her association's planning processes as less developed. The status of the worker, whether she/he was a volunteer or paid employee, also seemed important in recognising the importance of planning.

The findings from this study presented important suggestions and recommendations for sport organisations and national and state governments, as

well as relevant academic disciplines, regarding the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes.

## DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

- (i) incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;
- (ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or
- (iii) contain any defamatory material.

21 January 2008

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr Sue Colyer. Without her kind and patient guidance, this dissertation would never have been completed. Her comments and suggestions after each submitted draft have been of tremendous help. While the revision process that followed each round of feedback was challenging, her inspiring direction and commitment have helped me to polish and chisel this dissertation. I would also like to thank Associate Professor Kandy James who supervised me while Dr Colyer was on leave. While the duration of her supervision was not long, her devotion and instruction have had a great deal of influence on my work. Professor Francis Lobo also provided me with valuable suggestions and mental support, which have been a pillar of support throughout the process.

I would also like to give acknowledgement to the volunteers and paid workers in the three sport associations in Western Australia who kindly participated in the survey and interview. The information collected from their participation served as the most critical ingredient for this study. My lecturers at Korea's Ewha Women's University and Edith Cowan University who instructed me in physical science, leisure science and sport managements have also been a strong backbone in my studies. Administrative support from the graduate students' office at Edith Cowan University should also be acknowledged.

My largest gratitude is reserved for my husband, MoonJoong, and two children, Estelle Kyungchae and Koni Dongyoung. My husband has provided me with both

technical advice for quantitative analysis for research data and infinite moral support. A considerable amount of time that should have been spent on my children was spent on this dissertation, but they have always showed me unrelenting love and patience. I cannot overemphasise my love and gratitude to them.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Title Page	i
Use of Thesis	ii
Abstract	iii
Declaration	vi
Acknowledgement	vii
Table of Contents	ix
List of Tables	xx
List of Figures	xxiv

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study	1
Significance, Purpose and Objectives of the Study	5
<i>The Significance of the Study</i>	5
<i>The Purpose of the Study</i>	7
<i>Research Questions</i>	7
<i>Research Objectives</i>	8

<i>Research Design and Framework</i>	8
Chapter Summary and Overview of Thesis	9

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction	10
Defining Sport	10
Sports in Australia	12
<i>Early History – British Influence</i>	12
<i>Recent History of Sport and North American Influence</i>	14
<i>Influence of Media</i>	15
<i>Sport Associations and Governments in Australia</i>	17
<i>Historical review of the characteristics of Australian Federal and State government sport service – Decentralisation</i>	17
<i>The Role of State Governments</i>	22
<i>State government and sport</i>	22
<i>Funding for State Sport Organisations</i>	25
Sport Management and Professionalism	29
<i>Emergence of Professionalism</i>	29
<i>Capitalism and commercialisation</i>	29
<i>Professionalisation</i>	30
<i>Employment of professionals</i>	31



<i>Emergence of Sport Management</i>	32
Sport Associations and Organisational Culture	34
<i>Sport Organisation as 'an Organisation' and Sport Management</i>	35
<i>Organisational Culture in Sport Organisations</i>	37
<i>Organisational culture</i>	37
<i>Historical perspective of organisational culture</i>	38
<i>Organisational culture in this study</i>	
- <i>The competing values framework</i>	41
<i>Organisational Culture and Effectiveness</i>	47
<i>Organisational Culture, Development Plans</i>	
<i>and the Planning Processes</i>	49
<i>Introduction to development plans</i>	50
<i>Development plans and the planning processes</i>	
<i>for Australian sport organisations</i>	52
Summary	57

## CHAPTER 3

### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

Introduction	58
Conceptual Framework for the Study	58
<i>Conceptual Framework</i>	58

<i>Population of Interest</i>	61
<i>Framework for Organisational Culture</i>	62
<i>Planning Framework</i>	65
Summary	65

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Introduction	66
Research Design	66
<i>Overview</i>	66
<i>Study Population</i>	67
<i>Instruments and Data Collection</i>	70
<i>Questionnaire</i>	70
<i>Interviews</i>	73
<i>Pilot Study</i>	74
<i>Administration of Survey and Interview</i>	74
<i>Ethics and Confidentiality</i>	76
Analysis of Data	77
<i>Quantitative Analysis Methods</i>	79
<i>Qualitative Analysis Methods</i>	80
<i>Analysis of interviews</i>	81

<i>Limitations</i>	83
<i>Delimitations</i>	84
<i>Assumptions</i>	85
Summary	85

## CHAPTER 5

### DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF THREE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS

Introduction	87
Response Rate	87
Demographic Profiles	88
<i>Demographic Profiles of the Three Associations</i>	88
<i>Similarities and Differences in Demographic Profiles of the Three Association</i>	93
Summary	97

## CHAPTER 6

### ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF THREE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS – RESULTS OF ANALYSES BASED ON INSTRUMENT I

Introduction	99
Organisational Cultural Profiles of Associations	99
<i>Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association A</i>	99
<i>Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association B</i>	102
<i>Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association C</i>	104
<i>Reliability of the Response for Organisational Culture     – Instrument I</i>	106
Organisational Cultural Profiles – Comparisons	108
<i>Organisational Culture for the Three Associations</i>	108
Summary	113

## CHAPTER 7

### ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF THREE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS – RESULTS OF ANALYSES BASED ON INSTRUMENT II

Introduction	115
--------------	-----

Organisational Cultural Profiles of Associations	116
<i>Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association A</i>	116
<i>Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association B</i>	118
<i>Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association C</i>	120
<i>Reliability of the Response for Organisational Culture</i> – <i>Instrument II</i>	122
Organisational Cultural Profiles – Comparisons	124
Factor Analysis for Organisational Culture Variables	128
Summary	131

## CHAPTER 8

### RESULTS OF ANALYSES OF THE DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND PLANNING PROCESSES

Introduction	133
Sport Associations and the Planning Processes –Overview	134
<i>Ten General Questions</i>	134
<i>Ten Steps</i>	137
<i>Seven Essential Sections</i>	138
<i>Ten Key Results Areas</i>	140

Sport Associations and Planning Processes	
- The Differences across Associations	143
<i>Ten General Questions</i>	143
<i>Ten Steps</i>	146
<i>Seven Essential Sections</i>	149
<i>Ten Key Results Areas</i>	151
Planning Processes - Reliability and Factor Analysis	157
<i>Reliability</i>	158
<i>Factor Analysis</i>	158
Summary	162

## CHAPTER 9

### ASSOCIATIONS' DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND THE DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESSES

---

Introduction	164
Definitions of Variables	164
Quantitative Analyses of the Relationship	165
<i>Regression Analysis</i>	165
<i>Results and Discussion</i>	170

<i>Ten general questions regarding the plans and planning processes</i>	170
<i>Ten steps to be taken in planning processes</i>	176
<i>Seven essential sections to be in the plans</i>	178
<i>Ten key result areas to be included in the plans</i>	180
Summary	184

## CHAPTER 10

### RESULTS OF QUALITATIVE ANALYSES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND THE PLANNING PROCESSES

Introduction	188
Organisational Culture	188
<i>Organisational Culture of Association A</i>	189
<i>Institutional characteristics – Association A</i>	190
<i>Leader – Association A</i>	191
<i>Institutional Glue - Association A</i>	192
<i>Institutional emphases – Association A</i>	193
<i>Summary – Association A</i>	194
<i>Organisational Culture of Association B</i>	194
<i>Institutional characteristics – Association B</i>	195
<i>Leader – Association B</i>	196
<i>Institutional glue - Association B</i>	197
<i>Institutional emphases – Association B</i>	198
<i>Summary – Association B</i>	199
<i>Organisational Culture of Association C</i>	195
<i>Institutional characteristics – Association C</i>	200
<i>Leader – Association C</i>	200

<i>Institutional glue - Association C</i>	201
<i>Institutional emphases – Association C</i>	201
<i>Summary – Association C</i>	202
 <i>Synopsis of the Survey and Interviews Regarding the Organisational Culture</i>	 202
 The Plans and Planning Processes	 203
 <i>Two General Questions on Plans</i>	 204
<i>What kind of plans does your organisation have?</i>	204
<i>Do you follow any particular planning models, eg. Chapman's framework?</i>	207
 <i>More Questions on the Plans and Planning Processes</i>	 207
 <i>Synopsis of the Interview Regarding the Plans and Planning Processes</i>	 226
 Summary	 230

## CHAPTER 11

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

---

Introduction	232
Review of Organisational Culture and Planning Frameworks	234
Summary of Research Approach	235
Summary of Results	236
 <i>Demographic Profiles and Organisational Culture</i>	 236



<i>Demographic profiles</i>	236
<i>Organisational culture profiles</i>	237
<i>Volunteer/paid workers' perceptions of organisational culture</i>	239
 <i>Planning Processes</i>	 240
<i>Overview</i>	240
<i>Ten general steps</i>	241
<i>Seven essential sections</i>	242
<i>Ten key result areas</i>	243
 <i>Demographics, Organisational culture and Planning Processes</i>	 244
 Conclusions and Recommendations	 246
 <i>Coclusions of This Study</i>	 246
 <i>Recommendations for Further Study</i>	 249
  <b>References</b>	  250
 <b>Appendix A</b>	 260
<b>Appendix B</b>	263
<b>Appendix C</b>	265
<b>Appendix D</b>	267

## List of Tables

Table 1. Four questions in Part I relating to organisational culture – Instrument I	64
Table 2. Potential sport associations and selection criteria	68
Table 3. Integrated tabulation of interviews – an example	83
Table 4. Responses by association type and position	88
Table 5. Demographic characteristics of the respondents in three associations	91
Table 6. Length of employment for volunteers and paid workers	92
Table 7. Test of homogeneity of variance (Levine statistics) for demographic profiles	94
Table 8. Analysis of variance for demographic characteristics – Three sport associations	95
Table 9. Multiple comparisons of ANOVA – Three sport associations	97
Table 10. Descriptive statistics for organisational culture – Instrument I for Association A	100
Table 11. Descriptive statistics for organisational culture – Instrument I for Association B	103
Table 12. Descriptive statistics for organisational culture – Instrument I for Association	105
Table 13. Comparison of reliability – Instrument I	106
Table 14. Cultural profiles of the three associations – Instrument I	110
Table 15. Organisational cultural profiles of Association A – Instrument II	117

Table 16. Organisational cultural profiles of Association B – Instrument II	119
Table 17. Organisational cultural profiles of Association C – Instrument II	121
Table 18. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Comparisons – Instrument II	123
Table 19. Cultural profiles of the three associations (Z scores) – Instrument II	125
Table 20. Preliminary tests for factor analysis	130
Table 21. The results of factor analysis for organisational culture	131
Table 22. Perceptions of use of Chapman's ten general planning questions	136
Table 23. The Perceptions of the application of Chapman's ten steps in planning	138
Table 24. The perceptions of the inclusion of the seven essential sections in sport association plans	140
Table 25. The perceptions of the inclusion Chapman's ten key result areas in sport association plans	142
Table 26. The results of ANOVA - Ten general questions on planning processes of three associations	144
Table 27. The results of multiple test - Ten descriptions on planning processes	145
Table 28. The results of ANOVA - Ten steps	147
Table 29. The results of multiple test -Ten steps	148
Table 30. The results of ANOVA - Seven essential sections	150
Table 31. The results of multiple test - Seven essential sections	150

Table 32. The results of ANOVA - Ten key result areas	152
Table 33. The results of multiple test - Ten key results areas	153
Table 34. Differences between associations in planning – Summary	156
Table 35. Reliability of the plans and planning processes	158
Table 36. The results of preliminary tests for factor analysis – KMO test and Bartlett’s test	160
Table 37. Component score coefficients	160
Table 38. Factors and characteristics in planning	162
Table 39. Descriptions of variables used in regression analyses	166
Table 40. The effects of demographic and organisational cultural profiles on planning process – Ten general questions 1 ( <i>Individual/employee Involvement</i> )	171
Table 41. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning process – Ten general questions 2 ( <i>Importance of planning</i> )	174
Table 42. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes – Ten steps	177
Table 43. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes – Seven essential sections	179
Table 44. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes – Ten key results area 1 ( <i>Performance</i> )	181
Table 45. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes – Ten key results area 2 ( <i>Management</i> )	183
Table 46. Organisational cultural attributes of Association A	190
Table 47. Organisational cultural attributes of Association B	195

Table 48. Organisational cultural attributes of Association C	200
Table 49. The responses to two general questions	206
Table 50. Comparisons of the views on the plans and planning processes among three associations	208

## List of Figures

Figure 1. Matrix showing the relationship between government and sport tiers of influence and involvement, highlighting the focus of the present study	20
Figure 2. Levels of sport associations and their responsibilities	28
Figure 3. Characteristics of ideal types of organisational culture in the competing values framework (after Cameron & Freeman, 1991, Colyer, 2000, Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991)	43
Figure 4. Organisational culture items from Quinn's Instrument II (as reported by Colyer, 2000) with culture items numbered for clarity in following discussions	45
Figure 5. Conceptual framework for the study to explore the relationship between organisational culture and development planning in sport organisations (The foci of this study are highlighted)	60
Figure 6. Stakeholders of a sport	61
Figure 7. Summary of analyses of quantitative and qualitative data	78
Figure 8. Cultural characteristics of sport Association A – Instrument I	110
Figure 9. Cultural characteristics of Association B – Instrument I	111
Figure 10. Cultural characteristics of Association C – Instrument I	112
Figure 11. Cultural profiles of Association A – Instrument II	125
Figure 12. Cultural profiles of Association B - Instrument II	126
Figure 13. Cultural profiles of Association C - Instrument II	127

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

The relationship between organisational culture and planning processes is a complex but fascinating one. This thesis explores that relationship using selected sport associations in Western Australia. This chapter lays the foundation for the study. It outlines the background, significance, purpose and objectives and gives an overview of the thesis.

#### **Background to the Study**

The development of capitalism has increased discretionary income, heightened awareness of the relationship between active lifestyles and good health, and provided greater opportunities for people to participate in sport since World War II. Such factors have contributed to the rapid growth and diversification of the sport industry. These indications of social change, together with the advancement of marketing technology, have accelerated the “professionalisation” of sport, as sport organisations respond to competing interests by adopting business practices in their operations (Smith & Stewart, 1999).

Professionalism is defined as “a commitment to appropriate conduct and competence, where ethics, image, service and effort are paramount and where the combination of ability, insight, vision, qualifications and experience culminate in excellence” (Smith & Stewart, 1999, p. 6). Professionalism is known to have one of the most important influences in the field of contemporary sport management. Slack (1997) asserted that the concept of professionalism of athletes was widely accepted and emphasised even in the initial stages of sport performance. However, only when the emphasis shifted

from on-field performance to off-field management did professionalisation influence a broad range of sport organisations. This argument implies that the advent of professionalism followed the emergence of professional players, who were offered incentives to play sport. Consequently, sport organisations were required to adopt a professional approach to management and administration regarding all aspects of sport, rather than focusing solely on 'on-field' performance. Bradbury (1994, p. 1) also pointed out that "participants, spectators, television viewers, sponsors, and media are demanding professionalism, not only on the part of the athletes, but also and particularly, from the sport organisations themselves."

Despite the gradual developments in sport management, some writers argue that the practice of sport management has not developed as rapidly as management in other industries (e.g., Trenberth & Collins, 1999). This may be because the management of sport is relatively new, and is considered as a separate dimension from the discipline of management. Slack (1996, p. 97) pointed out that "the actual field of sport management as we understand it today is at least 35 years older." While he mentions the historic timeframe in order to emphasise that the history of sport management is not as short as most may assume, it is actually short when compared to other fields of management. With this relatively short history in education and research, "sport management has not kept pace with the type of changes that have occurred in the world of sport" (Slack, 1996, p. 97); nor has the research of sport management been able to keep up with these changes. Slack (1996, p. 98) also pointed out that researchers missed various types of organisations in their research: 65 percent of the articles published in the *Journal of Sport Management* have dealt with organisations involved in the delivery of physical education or athletic programs, 12.5 percent for national-level sport organisations, 10 percent for fitness clubs, and 7.5 percent for professional sport franchises. In contrast, he noted that there were:

no studies of athletic footwear companies...no studies of companies involved in the manufacture of any other type of sport equipment, no studies of the small entrepreneurial organizations...no studies of service



providers..., and no studies of the merchandising and licensing companies that market sport products. (Slack, 1996, p. 98)

In order to overcome these omissions, Slack (1996, p. 98) suggested that researchers in the field of sport management “need to develop a body of knowledge on the structure and operations of the many and various sport organisations” and be aware of the developments in generic management theory. Among many areas for future research in sport management (including cooperative strategy, technology, power and politics), organisational culture has emerged as one of the most critical fields within the last ten years or so (e.g., Colyer, 2000; Smith & Shilbury, 2004; Smith & Stewart, 1995; Weese, 1995). The Australian Sport Commission (ASC) also recognises the importance of sport management, in particular, studies of organisational culture. The ASC conducted a series of seminars for sport organisations throughout Australia in the 1990s. At these seminars, the ASC recommended the need for organisational change and management restructuring in state and national sporting organisations (ASC, 1998). The ASC emphasised that understanding organisational culture should be regarded as one of the most crucial aspects of successful organisational change. The Western Australian Football Commission (WAFC) also regarded organisational culture to be an important factor for organisational success. In its report on the management structure of the West Coast Eagles and the Fremantle Dockers Football Clubs in 2001, the WAFC commented that management democracy was a key variable in Australian Football clubs in order to achieve managerial success (Crawford, 2001).

As the emphasis in efficiency when managing Australian sport organisations grew larger, the Australian Sport Commission (ASC) decided that all national sporting bodies should submit funding requests to the ASC that would include long term plans defining the priorities and direction of the respective sport (ASC, 1990). This requirement for planning as a basis for funding was also adopted by WA State Department of Sport and Recreation. Notwithstanding the general agreement among

researchers that a development plan is important for future advancement, the importance of development plans for sport organisations, as well as the content and scope of the ideal development plan have been examined by only a few writers (e.g., Chapman, 1992).

This study attempts to fill this gap as it explores the relationship between the organisational culture, development plans and the planning processes in sport organisations. In order to do so, the study will investigate three state sport associations in Western Australia. While a variety of definitions have been used for organisational culture, this study uses an inclusive and integrated definition provided by Schein (1985, p. 9), who asserted that “organisational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration.” Organisational culture represents intangible values, assumptions, beliefs, and interpretations shared by organisational members.

While various methods are used to measure organisational culture, this study uses the competing values framework. This framework assumes three dimensions of organisational effectiveness: the first dimension is the set of values concerned with organisational focus; the second is the set of values regarding organisation structure; and the third dimension is the set of values relating to means and ends. This model is especially useful when the organisation is unclear about its own areas of emphasis, or when future changes in criteria rise as a possibility.

Development plans are tangible documents of the collective ideas and agreed direction of the organisation (such as mission or purpose, goals and objectives), that are carefully prepared, summarised and documented by the members who take part in the planning processes. Development plans reflect the underlying assumptions about an organisation’s relationship with the extended environment as well as its survival. More discussion on these terms is in Chapter 2.

## **Significance, Purpose and Objectives of the Study**

The following sub-sections explain the importance of the study and what it aims to achieve. As well as the significance and purpose, they include the research questions and objectives and an overview of the research design and framework

### ***The Significance of the Study***

The significance of this study is multi-dimensional. It makes a critical contribution to research in the field of management and organisational culture in sport organisations. The importance of the research in these fields was emphasised by Slack (1996). He argued that researchers of sport management and organisational studies should exert more efforts to investigate “board rooms” as well as “locker rooms”, to which they had traditionally paid more attention. In addition, the outcomes of this study provide useful, practical information and knowledge for practitioners, including sport organisation managers and government officers. Moreover, this is a timely and crucial study considering that:

- (i) state sporting associations are required to submit development plans for financial support from the State Government (ASC, 1990; SRWA, 2000),
- (ii) Australian sport organisations are advanced in their transition from volunteer-based to professional-oriented management (Lynch & Veal, 1997; Skinner, Stewart & Edwards, 1999), and
- (iii) the principles of efficiency and efficacy were introduced to the management of sport organisations (Rowan, 1998; Slack, 1997; SRWA, 2000) as the professionalisation and commercialisation of sport increased.

There are several other aspects to the significance of this study. First and foremost, this study develops a general model that explores organisational culture in sport

organisations and its influence on development planning processes. It was expected that as organisational culture changes, the development planning processes would also change. Cameron and Freeman (1991, p. 24) pointed out that “without accompanying (organizational) culture change, most organizational changes fail or remain temporary.” Accordingly, this study provides an insight into planning processes in sport management, and also enhances the understanding of the influence that organisational culture has on planning processes. Such findings may assist sport managers to adapt to the rapid shifts in environmental changes on organisations that emphasise professionalisation, efficiency and efficacy.

Secondly, this study is particularly significant for Western Australian sport organizations, as it is compulsory for State sporting associations to submit development plans in order to receive grants, such as operational grant funds from the State Government. By observing organisational culture and development plans, the relationship between these two will become clearer, as an organisation’s culture reveals some of the underlying assumptions held for its success, as well as the planning processes it adopts in order to achieve that success.

Thirdly, it could be expected that findings from this study contribute to an overall improvement in delivering higher quality sport service to the community. Better prepared development plans as tools for success should enhance the productivity of the organisation. Improved management and advanced planning processes will also improve the performance of elite athletes, as well as the quality of sport services to the community.

Overall, a model that integrates both key determinants in achieving its objectives as well as other variables of sport delivery, from the community to the elite, will significantly enhance professionalism and harmony in management. Such a model may encourage more efficient and effective use of resources and provide well-organised opportunities for each participant – from ‘grass root’ (community level)

participants to elite athletes as well as members and spectators – to enjoy better quality service. Considering that a significant portion of some sport organisations' budget is supported by the government (and other various stakeholders) with various competing uses, the importance of more efficient and effective accountability of resources is critical to the public interest.

### ***The Purpose of the Study***

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between the development planning processes and organisational culture of select Western Australian sport associations. While the terms “strategic plan” or “business plan” are now widely used, the term “development plan” is used in this study to encompass a wider perspective. Development is critical for the future advancement of an organisation. This was recognised in 1985, when the ASC indicated that all national sporting bodies should define the priorities and future development plans when submitting funding requests. This indication is consistent with the concept of a *development* plan.

### ***Research Questions***

The research questions were developed from the foregoing purpose. The main research question of this study is: **How does the organisational culture of a sport association affect development planning processes?** Three sub-questions arise from this research question:

1. What are the demographic and organisational cultural profiles of the selected sport associations? In particular, do professionals and volunteers share similar or different perceptions of the organisational cultures?
2. What are the development planning processes for each sport association? How does each association perceive the development planning processes?

3. How does organisational culture affect the planning processes?

### ***Research Objectives***

These research questions, which address the purpose of this study, were achieved through the following objectives:

1. To explore organisational culture within participating sport associations using the competing values framework.
2. To examine development planning processes for each participating sport association considering guidelines published by the ASC (1990) and Chapman (1992).
3. To identify any relationship between organisational, demographic and cultural profiles and development planning processes, using statistical analyses and qualitative measures.

For each research objective, relevant data and analysis methods used are discussed in detail in the data collection and methods section in Chapter 4.

### ***Research Design and Framework***

The previous section noted that the pressures of commercialism and professionalism in sport encouraged organisations to be better organised and more professional. This change is demanded by a number of stakeholders, including government, sponsors, players and those who work directly for the organisations. This study included the stakeholders most directly and significantly related to the organisation: the CEOs, board members and both paid employees and volunteers for three Western Australian sport associations. Two research phases were used in this thesis; quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative phase utilised the data collected through a survey for

board members and workers, both professional and voluntary, and the qualitative phase utilised information compiled from interviews with board members. These two phases of study were expected to reveal each association's cultural profile, demographic characteristics and development plans as well as the planning process. The relationship between organisational culture and the development plans/planning processes is one of the most significant concerns of this study, and is also analysed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Chapter 3 further discusses issues related to the conceptual framework of this study.

### **Chapter Summary and Overview of Thesis**

This chapter explained the background, significance and overview of the research framework of this study. Research questions and objectives were also introduced. The following chapter reviews a variety of literature relevant to the major topics in this research. Chapter 3 explains the conceptual framework and selection criteria of sport associations examined in this study. Chapter 4 presents the research methods, methods of data collection, and administration of the entire process of the study. Organisational demographic profiles of the selected Western Australian sport associations are provided in Chapter 5. After descriptive statistics for demographic profiles are summarised, Chapters 6 and 7 present organisational cultural profiles of the three sport associations using Instrument I and Instrument II, respectively, two well known methods of analysing organisational culture. The planning processes in the three WA sport associations are examined in Chapter 8. Using the information obtained from Chapters 5 to 8, Chapter 9 presents the results of quantitative analyses of the effects that cultural and demographic profiles have on the development plan and planning processes. This approach is supplemented by qualitative analyses presented in Chapter 10. Chapter 11 concludes the thesis by summarising the findings in relation to the research question, presenting implications, and suggesting further research directions.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the increasing professional approach to managing sports in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, recent developments in sport, sport management, sport organisation, organisational culture and the planning processes. The review begins by reviewing current trends and developments in sport and the sport environment, and discusses the importance of sport management with a particular focus on sport in Australia in general and more specifically, Western Australia. This introduction is followed by investigating the relationship between sport associations and federal and state governments in Australia. After defining sport organisation and organisational culture, the characteristics of sport organisations will be explored. This chapter also reviews various plans and the planning processes in Australian sport organisations. The evolution of research on organisational culture and development planning processes is also discussed. It reveals that, notwithstanding the importance of these topics, the relationship between organisational culture and the development planning processes has yet to attract researchers' attention.

---

#### **Defining Sport**

Sport is defined in many different ways. According to Trenberth and Collins (1994, p. 19), a common contemporary view would define sport as "an institutionalised physical activity with recreational and competitive components." Lynch and Veal (1997, p. 242) provided a general but succinct definition of sport as comprising "a range of activities that generally involve rules, physical exertion and/or coordination



and competition between participants,” and that it “may involve environmental challenge.” Coakley (1990, p. 15) emphasised the competitive component of sport, arguing, “sport is an institutionalised competitive activity that involves vigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skill by individuals whose participation is motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors.”

VanderZwaag and Sheehan (1978) defined sport by concentrating on the difference between sport and general physical activities in five characteristics:

- (i) sport has set and defined rules;
- (ii) sport is highly organised;
- (iii) sport is “play-like” in nature and is based on physical prowess;
- (iv) sport is dependent upon specialised facilities and equipment; and
- (v) sport involves uncertainty of outcome based on skills, strategy and chance.

Not only is there a clear distinction between the definitions of sport and physical activities as VanderZwaag and Sheehan (1978) summarised, researchers have reached a general consensus on the definition of sport. However, Stewart and Smith (1999) revisited this topic and pointed out that the ambiguity of the definition of sport still exists. They argued that this ambiguity is critical, because each perspective of sport will have a significant impact on the way that sport administrators and managers manage sport and, subsequently, is directly relevant to the future development of sport. For example, those who believe that sport is unique will manage sport differently from a commercial operation, while those who believe that sport is part of a generic business system will manage sport like any other type of business (Smith & Stewart, 1999, p. 11). Furthermore, even the same kind of sport may be regarded differently across different countries due to each country’s specific environment and culture. This would affect the way sport and sport delivery are understood and managed (Viallon, Camy, & Collins, 2003).

The present study adopts the multi-component and institution-oriented definition that “sport is unique” as VanderZwaag and Sheehan (1978) and Viallon, Camy and Collins (2003) asserted, and sport organisations, in general, have unique features distinctive from commercial operations. This study accepts that while certain sport organisations, such as the professional sport club can be managed as generic businesses, most sport organisations need to be managed as a unique form of enterprise. In fact, while many management practices are transferable between sport and business, the emphases may be different as sport and recreation are in essence community-based social activities, rather than purely commercial enterprises. Furthermore, most sport organisations still rely on volunteer workers, and are financially supported by stakeholders such as governments, members and sponsors.

The following section discusses the meaning and importance of sport in Australia by briefly reviewing the history of sport and the status quo.

## **Sports in Australia**

### ***Early History – British Influence***

Sport is accepted as having a substantial influence on the shaping of Australian society (e.g., Farmer & Arnaudon, 1996; Lynch & Veal, 1997). According to Booth and Tatz (2000, p.227), sport was “the principal means by which Australians portrayed their way of life and beliefs and attitudes to the international community for 150 years since the early 1800s.” Lynch and Veal (1997, p. 244) explained that, “in the colonial era, sport was a key social form via which the values of the British Empire were cemented into Australian culture, through activities such as horseracing, cricket, tennis and fox hunting.” For the first 150 years of the new nation, until the 1960s, sport was “the most durable and deeply embedded form of identification with the former imperial power” (Stoddart, 1986, p. 127). However, it was also observed that sport contributed to the emergence of Australian nationalism as it was used as a

means for Australia to challenge that imperial power during the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Booth & Tatz, 2000; Cashman, 1998). For example, the first Australian cricket team, 'Australian XI' was formed and participated in competition in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The success of the team against the motherland from the late 1870s encouraged Australians and contributed to building up a symbol of what national co-operation could achieve (Mandle, 1973). Mandle (1973) also noted that Australians could produce identity, pride and self confidence from the inspiration drawn from the cricket nationalism, which replaced an initially hesitant nationalism.

Lynch and Veal (1997, p. 244) pointed out that, the patterns for playing sport had been cut from a British cloth but with local variations and innovations in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Nevertheless, sports in this period were influenced "by the uniform game codes that were being developed in Britain, and became more formalised" (Lynch & Veal, 1997, p. 244). The most significant changes in Australia during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries included rapid urbanisation and more predictable working schedules. These implied that people could participate in sports and leisure more regularly and actively, as did the introduction of automobiles and improvement of road conditions (Parker & Paddick, 1993; Lynch & Veal, 1997). As a result, a large part of the urban population took part in weekend leisure activities and sports, bringing vast crowds to watch various sports, including football, cricket and rowing (Lynch & Veal, 1997).

Sport-as-spectacle was well established during this period; "sports stadia were built, a large proportion of space in newspapers was devoted to various sporting contests and radio and television coverage of competitive events grew" (Parker & Paddick, 1993, p. 8). The opportunities both to play and to watch team and individual sports continued to grow in the twentieth century. "In the first half of the twentieth century, the development of electricity, radio, the cinema and the motor car took sport to new, mass audiences, appeasing people's desire to consume sport through new media and further consolidating the trend towards spectatorism" (Lynch & Veal, 1997, p. 244).

### *Recent History of Sport and North American Influence*

Sport became a medium for the adoption of values for other nations, particularly the United States of America, from the 1940s (World War II) and later in the 1960s, due to waves of North American influences (Lynch & Veal, 1997; Veal & Lynch, 2001). This role of sport as an accelerator of North American influence in Australia was accompanied by two historical events: The dissolution of the British Empire and the gradual fading of a nationhood ideology along with economic ties to Britain, and; the surge of the United States of America as a superpower and a significant economic partner of Australia (Lynch & Veal, 1997).

Furthermore, Lynch and Veal (1997) reported that, aside from sport itself such as basketball and baseball, Australia imported sport paraphernalia of the United States such as baseball caps, outfits, and adopted 'American style' sports gestures and languages. Cheer squads, sport presentation formats and coaching techniques were also imported and intertwined with home grown versions and adaptations of sport such as Australian Football with its unique culture and folklore (Lynch & Veal, 1997, p. 245). It was pointed out that the commercialisation of Australian sport was largely a response to the global Americanisation of sport (McKay & Miller, 1991).

In contrast, Bell and Bell (1993) suggested that the widely used concept 'Americanisation' is too simple because it assumes an American cause and an Australian effect. They preferred to see American influence as modernisation, suggesting that America and Australia, along with other Western capitalist nations, were moving into the modern era for similar reasons, not by the influence of one nation to another. According to Cashman (1998), these reasons are interpreted as consumerism and a global communication network or, more widely, a globalisation of sport and other forms of popular culture. He also expected that "Australian sport would appear more Americanised and globalised in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century in the sense that

Australian sporting culture and practice would become even more commercialised and internationalised” (Cashman, 1998, p.162).

### *Influence of Media*

The history of sport shows that there was a strong relationship between sport and mass media, which includes television, film, radio and the print media (Bernstein & Blain, 2002). This is also true for Australia. The mass media and organised sport were products of similar social and economic developments. According to Cashman (1998, p. 170), “the substantial rise in real incomes, increased leisure time, improved communications, transportation and literacy rates and the growth of urban society were all factors in the appearance of a more popular press.” Following the print media, with its ability to convey precise and realistic detail, photography also encouraged the sporting pose. One of the first Australian films ever made was of the 1896 Melbourne Cup (Cashman, 1998, p. 174) that catered to the demand of a larger audience unable to attend and watch the actual event. Those who could not watch the event live were able to “participate” through viewing the film. From 1956, in Australia, television contributed to the most dramatic development and expansion of sport (Cashman, 1998). The extension of mass media from the printed page to the pictorial newspaper, cinema, newsreels and radio broadcasts caused a boom in sports in Australia, especially in horse-racing. Radio (and telephone) also made betting easier and attracted more spectators by stimulating public interest (Goldlust, 1987).

The most important reason that the Australian government decide to introduce television was for the 1956 Melbourne Olympic Games (Cashman, 1998; Goldlust, 1987). However, for the first 15 years, only a limited number of sport games were televised and the level of televising technology was primitive (Goldlust, 1987). The technological improvement (such as slow-motion replay) and the introduction of colour television rapidly increased the role of television in broadcasting sports in the 1970s. According to Lynch and Veal (1997), a revolutionary impact of the introduction of television was on the playing, organisation, coverage, sponsorship,

promotion, management and viewing of sport. This increasing role of television-stimulated commercial interests to realise the profit to be earned from television sports broadcasting was observed by Altheide and Snow (1991). Altheide and Snow (1991, p. 217) summarised the influence of television broadcasting on the fundamental characteristics of sport, saying that "sport...has undergone major changes in fundamental characteristics, such as rules of play, style of play, stadium theatrics, economic structure, media markets and hero construction" to meet the needs of broadcasters.

Television also vastly altered the economic environment in which sport operates. Sports such as soccer and basketball, which are much in demand by a large number of fans and supporters, can now earn millions of dollars by selling the television rights for a season in many countries. According to Bellamy (1989, p. 120), "sports leagues provide television with a source of successful programming, and television provides sports leagues with revenue essential to their operation." Cashman (1998, p. 195) termed this rapid surge of commercialism of sport by television "the hyper-commercialisation of sport."

Television also contributed to internationalisation of sport. This development, Stoddart (1986) suggested, has possibly undercut national identity. Miller (1999, p. 123) indicated that television "moved from a comparatively scarce resource to a common one in most sections of the world, and changed from being a predominantly nation-based and state-run medium towards internationalism and privatisation." One example of this internationalism of sport on television is, as Gratton (1998, p. 101) reported, that "over two-thirds of the world's population watched some part of the global television coverage of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games." The internationalisation or globalisation of television and sport broadcasting has also contributed to American sport in Australia. However, television, or earlier media such as printed papers and radio, was never the sole determinant of the prosperity of certain sports. For example, "Netball enjoyed a significant growth in Australia in the

1980s, largely unaided by the media, and is the sport with the largest participation in Australia” (Cashman, 1998, p.182).

Commercialism and capitalism, having grown together with the expansion of television, favoured select popular sports for broadcasting, and encouraged Australian sport to produce heroes, who would attract large spectator numbers. Consequently, a limited number of elite sports, such as Australian Football and Cricket, received more attention and coverage. Commercialism and the influence of media emerged among elite professionals participating in national and international competitions in Australia. At the other end of the spectrum, regional and community level players and club members are relatively less influenced by commercialism and professionalism. Nevertheless, it was inevitable that the influence from professionalisation had flowed down the line to impact regional and community levels. This study is interested in state sport associations that link the national level elite sports and community level “grassroots” sports. The increasing professionalism and commercialism in sport shows the need for substantial, timely and rigorous research of sport and sport management, in particular, at the state level.

### ***Sport Associations and Governments in Australia***

Sport is regarded as an important part of everyday life in Australia. Many Australians participate in a variety of institutional or non-institutional sport activities. This section briefly reviews the history of change in the role of governments in sport delivery and the funding system. It focuses on the Western Australian examples.

#### ***Historical review of the characteristics of Australian Federal and State Government sport service – Decentralisation***

One dominant phenomenon of the Australian sport delivery system is that it is decentralised. Australia has a population of 21 million people as of June 2007 that are

distributed mostly around the coastlines of the large continent of about 7,682 million km<sup>2</sup> (Wikipedia, 2007). The nation records one of the lowest population densities in the world. As a result, distance and a federated government system mitigate against centralised sporting services. Respective Australian State Governments developed their own approaches to the provision and delivery of sporting services. In Australia, the States are constitutionally responsible for the provision of sport and recreation within their boundaries, and their support of fitness emerged as early as the 1930s. However, funding for sport was not provided in any substantial form until the 1970s at the prompting of the Federal Government (the Commonwealth Government in this dissertation is synonymous to the Federal Government and accordingly used interchangeably), following the election of the Labor (Whitlam) Government in 1972 (Department of the Arts, 1992, pp. 8-9).

Booth and Tatz (2000, p. 163) pointed out that the role of the Commonwealth Government in the early to mid 1970s, was primarily in the context of an urban development strategy: “building community sport and leisure facilities to improve the quality of life.” Nevertheless, the Whitlam government soon realised that Australia’s international sporting reputation was important and that it would be best achieved through well organised and managed sport (Department of Industry, Sport and Recreation, 2000). As a result, “national sporting associations rose in prominence and were strengthened with the increased funding by the Whitlam government in the early 1970s” (Elazar, 1994, p. 19). Since then, issues of sports funding have continuously been debated. Sport always demanded more money, and budgetary allocations fluctuated among governments. For example, sport was not entrenched into Liberal Party policy during the Fraser government, resulting in a funding decline. This situation persisted until the Liberal Party established the Australian Institute of Sport, recognising the importance of elite athletes in 1981 (Shilbury & Deane, 2001).

At the 1976 Montreal Olympic Games, Australia’s performance was much behind that of other countries, and consequently, the Australian public expected the



government to initiate steps to achieve international sporting success (DISR, 2000; Hogan & Norton, 2000). In line with this response, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) was established by the Commonwealth Government in 1981 to support and encourage elite sport in Australia. The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) was established in 1984 to develop a basis of coherent policy for the involvement of the Commonwealth Government, and also for the recognition that successful international performance was a big contribution to national pride. In 1987, the AIS became a part of the ASC and the new body became responsible for implementing the Government's national elite sport policy (Farmer & Arnaudon, 1996; Shilbury & Deane, 2001; Westerbeek, Shilbury Deane, 1995). This tradition of encouraging elite sport has persisted over different governments, although there has been some fluctuation in the area of government funding. The Federal Government's support for elite sport was highlighted when \$140 million was added to the Olympic Athlete Program for six years after 1994 to prepare Australian athletes for the Sydney Olympic Games. This is regarded as one of the most crucial factors of Australia's success in the Olympics Games (ASC, 2003). After the Games, Prime Minister Howard launched a new policy for the sport and recreation industry in April 2001, entitled "Backing Australia's Sporting Ability: A More Active Australia Plan" (ASC, 2003), and declared support for elite sport as a policy objective to assist Australian athletes to reach new peaks of excellence and to increase the pool of talent (DISR, 2001).

Continuous support of elite sport by the Federal Government, coupled with a national interest in sport, has pushed the ranking of Australia higher in various international competitions. Hogan and Norton (2000) noted that in both absolute and relative terms (relative to Australia's population), Australia's performance in the Olympic Games and Commonwealth Games has continued to improve. As well as in these games, the ASC (1999) reported the increase in world-class performances across almost all of the 21 sports listed by the ASC. The three anonymous sports investigated in this study were included in the list. According to Hogan and Norton (2000, p. 213),

“increased funding in the area of elite sport by Federal and State Governments for world-class facilities, coaching, science and technology, and competition, is associated with greater international success.”

The provision of services for elite athletes is supported by the Federal Government through the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) and by State Governments as well, through the State-based institutes of sport (such as the Western Australian Institute of Sport), which are usually funded by the State and Commonwealth Governments. Furthermore, State Governments are primarily responsible for the mass participation in sport and the support of State Sporting Organisations. Local governments predominantly support club- and community- based sport. Figure 1 shows the relationship between government and sport tiers of influence and involvement, where the shaded areas indicate the focus of the present study. The following section briefly discusses the role and function of each level of government, describes the relationship in budgeting and funding, and examines the difficulties that these various levels of governments have experienced.

	Government tier	Sport tier	Level of involvement and involvement
<b>National</b>	Commonwealth / Federal	National Sport Associations (NSO)	International
			National
<b>State</b>	State	State Sport Associations (SSO)	District
<b>Local</b>	Local / Municipal	Community clubs / District Associations	Local

Figure 1. Matrix showing the relationship between government and sport tiers of influence and involvement, highlighting the focus of the present study.

The overall objective of sport and recreation for the Commonwealth Government is, according to the Department of Sport and Tourism's (DEST) Annual Report (1990/91), to contribute to the quality of life of *all Australians* by promoting and facilitating opportunities for participation in sport and recreation activities and encouraging sporting excellence.

The programs and activities receiving financial support from the Federal Government include recreation and fitness, lifesaving and safety, sport and recreation for people with disabilities, Australian Sport Commission, Australian Sports Drug Agency (since 1990/91) and sport facilities. Although DEST reported its objective as contributing to the quality of life of all Australians, throughout the history of Federal Government intervention in sport, the role of the Federal Government as a supporter of elite sport was not ignored. For example, the Sport Management Division, which is one of the seven divisions of the ASC, allocates funding to National Sporting Organisations (as of 2003). These grants include money distributed for elite programs, grants to employ administrative, coaching and developmental positions and allocations for coaching and participatory programs (ASC, 2003).

The facilities program is also an important sub-program of the Federal Government's sport and recreation program. The main objective of the facilities program is "to increase the access for all Australians to recreation and sporting activities," (Shilbury & Deane, 1994, p. 27) as well as for elite athletes. As the programs were found to operate successfully, the Federal Government has continuously provided grants to State Governments for this program. Commonwealth funding was not always obtained for the construction of all facilities in Australia. However, "the strategy has had a 'flow-on' effect encouraging States to continue development in this area" (Shilbury & Deane, 1994, p. 27-29).

A new policy launched in Australia in 2001 for the sport and recreation industry outlined a two-fold policy objective – to assist Australia’s best athletes to reach new peaks of excellence and to increase the pool of talent from which future world champions would emerge. In this way, they intended to provide a sports policy for *all* Australians (ASC, 2001). They promised that the Federal Government would inject “a record level” of \$547 million to sport for the next four years. While this commitment of the Federal Government to sport is encouraging, the emphasis on two-fold objectives – to encourage elite sport and at the same time encourage mass participation – is not significantly different from the previous governments’ (both Labor and Liberal Parties) pursuit of sport development.

DISR (2001) emphasised the coordination of various sporting agencies in a synergistic sense to ensure cooperation, communication and a healthy level of competition for benefit of sport in Australia to overcome the fragmentation between State and Federal sporting agencies (DISR, 2001). This idea was reconfirmed by the “Backing Australia’s Sporting Ability Plan.” The plan declared that the Federal Government would build partnerships between the government, local and national sporting organisations, the business community, schools and local government to deliver expanded and/or new sporting competitions and opportunities for all Australians at the grassroots level. The plan also emphasised that the benefits of the plan should be shared by all Australians in rural and regional areas as well as cities, regardless of culture, gender, race or age (DISR, 2001).

### ***The Role of State Governments***

#### *State government and sport*

In Australia, while the States are constitutionally responsible for the provision of sport and recreation, and while the States’ interest in fitness emerged as early as the 1930s, “funding was not provided in any significant form until the 1970s at the prompting of the Federal Government” (Department of the Arts, 1992, pp. 8-9).

Nonetheless, as Federal Government involvement in sport increased, so did involvement by state/territory governments. By 1975, all States/Territories established departments of sport and recreation except Tasmania. Although largely focused on community sports development, "state/territory governments also assisted sports through subsidies for facilities, coaching, administration and financial assistance for high-performance athletes" (DISR, 2000, p. 110). Since its establishment in the 1970s, state departments of sport have struggled to define their focus in delivering sport: developing elite athletes, promoting mass participation or both. This issue was partly addressed by the establishment of the AIS in 1981 by the Federal Government.

The States developed their own state-based institutes that accepted the bulk of the responsibility for enhancing the performance of elite athletes, and the state departments of sport are responsible for developing programs to support mass participation. Brown (1995, p. 23) pointed out that even when the Federal Government recognised the political importance of sport in 1972, "the State Governments were slow to recognise the role of sport in community development and health promotion." Throughout the period of Whitlam (Labor, 1972-1975) and Fraser (Liberal, 1975-1983) governments, however, state governments increasingly became involved in sports policy "to enhance their image and popularity, to add to state revenue, to provide greater employment, to encourage tourism, and even to put a state or a city on the map" (Cashman, 1998, p.125). At present, each of Australia's states and territories has a department that is responsible for sport and recreation, such as the Department of Sport and Recreation in Western Australia (DSR). The first state/territory sports institute was established in South Australia in 1981.

However, as pointed out above, even when the Federal Government recognised the political importance of sport in 1972, State Governments were slow to recognise the role of sport (Brown, 1995). As the Whitlam Government responded to the public's desire to win at sporting events by expanding its areas of jurisdiction, the State Sport

Associations received less prominence, their profile and authority consequently dwindling. In contrast to the Whitlam Government, the Fraser Government shifted responsibility for a range of sport and recreation programmes back onto the state and local authorities without guaranteeing their continued funding. However, despite the Fraser Government's approach, "funding for sport from all the levels of government, once started, persisted" (Armstrong, 1988, p. 70). It is worthy to note that Commonwealth funding in the late 1990s represented only a small portion of total funding on sport and recreation reaching less than 10 percent. However, this needs to be interpreted with care as in most States the portfolio often includes racing and other forms of gambling. It may distort the funding of community and mid-levels of sport (Hogan & Norton, 2000).

State Government departments, in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, have clearly articulated directions, addressing three objectives. Using Western Australia as an example, in its Annual Report (2002/2003), the Department of Sport and Recreation in Western Australia (DSR) stated its objectives, to:

- Promote individual health, fitness and well-being and develop community pride and spirit through sport;
- Maximise the number of participants in sport at all levels, and;
- Improve the overall quality of sport performance.

It also defined its role as:

- Ensuring maximum opportunities for people to participate in the sports of their choice to the fullest extent of their desire and skill;
- Increasing opportunities for, and participation in, recreation, and
- Providing the Department with systems and facilities which allow the optimum management of resources.

Departments in other states have similar goals and objectives; all are concerned with enhancing the opportunity for participation in sport at all levels within the community,

although the strategies for implementation may vary from state to state (Shilbury & Deane, 2001).

Most sport organisations in Australia, in particular, adopted a state-based system prior to the 1970s. This was, first of all, a result of these associations being established at a time when states were relatively isolated (geographically and organisationally) from one another. Secondly, organisations tended to follow the structure of the system of government in which they operated. In order to be consistent with the rest of society, "Australian sporting associations were inclined to be state-based in their organisation" (Brown, 1995, pp. 1-2).

### ***Funding for State Sport Organisations***

One of the most important links between State sport organisations and governments is the financial relationship. As the Federal Government supports national sporting organisations, State Governments financially support State sporting organisations. This relationship is essential for the proper operation of State sport organisations, since they are primarily non-profit organisations. In addition to grants from State Governments, these state sport associations receive their funding largely from player registration fees, some sponsorships (although this was relatively small), and access to government facilities (Brown, 1995). The funding scheme in Western Australia is more or less similar to other states in Australia. The funding in Western Australia administered by DSR is categorised into two; general funding programs and regional funding programs. General funding programs in turn consist of four programs: Community Sporting and Recreation Facilities Fund (CSRFF), Sports Lottery Account (SLA), Trailwest Funding Program and Alcoa Coach Residence Program. Regional funding programs are represented by three funding programs: Healthway Country Sport Scholarship Program, Skywest Airlines Country Sport Development Program and Country Sport Enrichment Scheme (DSR, 2005). Some other funds such

as Rio Tinto Volunteer Management Scheme and Sport International Grant are also available.

While all of the above fundings are somehow related with State sport organisations, CSRFF and SLA may be appointed to be the most important sources of funding from the State Government. The funding from State Governments for State sport organisations needs to be discussed in detail, in particular, in the Western Australian context. A good understanding of these two fundings may be important for State sport organisations, whose major funding sources include the State Government.

- (i) CSRFF exemplifies the Western Australian Government's commitment to the development of community-level infrastructure for sport and recreation across the State. The purpose of the program is to provide WA Government financial assistance to community groups and local government authorities to develop basic infrastructure for sport and recreation. The State Government invests \$9 million annually through CSRFF towards the development of high quality physical environments in which people can enjoy sport and recreation. As well as not for profit sport organisations, recreation or community organisations and a local government authority can apply for this fund.
- (ii) SLA amounts nearly \$9 million every year. DSR's mission with SLA is to enhance the quality of life of West Australians through their participation and achievement in sport and recreation. More specifically, the objective of SLA includes, to:
  - promote individual health, fitness and well-being and develop community pride and spirit through sport,
  - maximise the number of participants in sport at all levels,
  - improve the overall quality of sport performance and delivery to participants,
  - have better managed organisations, and



- encourage risk management assessments and control to provide a safer sporting environment.

In order to receive financial support from the State Government, State sport organisations were required to submit their development plan to provide justification for seeking government grants (ASC, 1987; MSRWA, 2000). The promotion of the development plan concept in Australia has come “largely through the governmental bodies responsible for sport funding at national and state levels” (ASC, 1987, p. 1). While the submission of the development plan is no longer a requirement for the fund application at present, it is encouraged for State sport organisations to produce a three- to five-year strategic plan to ensure the on-going development of their sport. DSR also emphasises that the strategic plan should form the basis of the application. Therefore, it may be argued that development/strategic plans are the most critical materials by which sport organisations promote their achievements and future plans to attract future funds.

The governmental bodies responsible for sport and related sport organisations at different levels (federal, state and local) in Australia are depicted in Figure 2. The ASC is the sport organisation at the Federal level that serves for a variety of goals established by the Federal Government, for both elite and grassroots sports. The AIS and Active Australia are delivery bodies of the ASC, and provide grants, information and policy suggestions to the government body in the state responsible for sport, for example, the Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR) of Western Australia. State level government bodies, such as the DSR of Western Australia in turn provide grants, information, policy suggestions and management guides to the state sport organisations. They also provide grants, advice and suggestions to local and community clubs, both directly or through the state sport organisations or local governments.

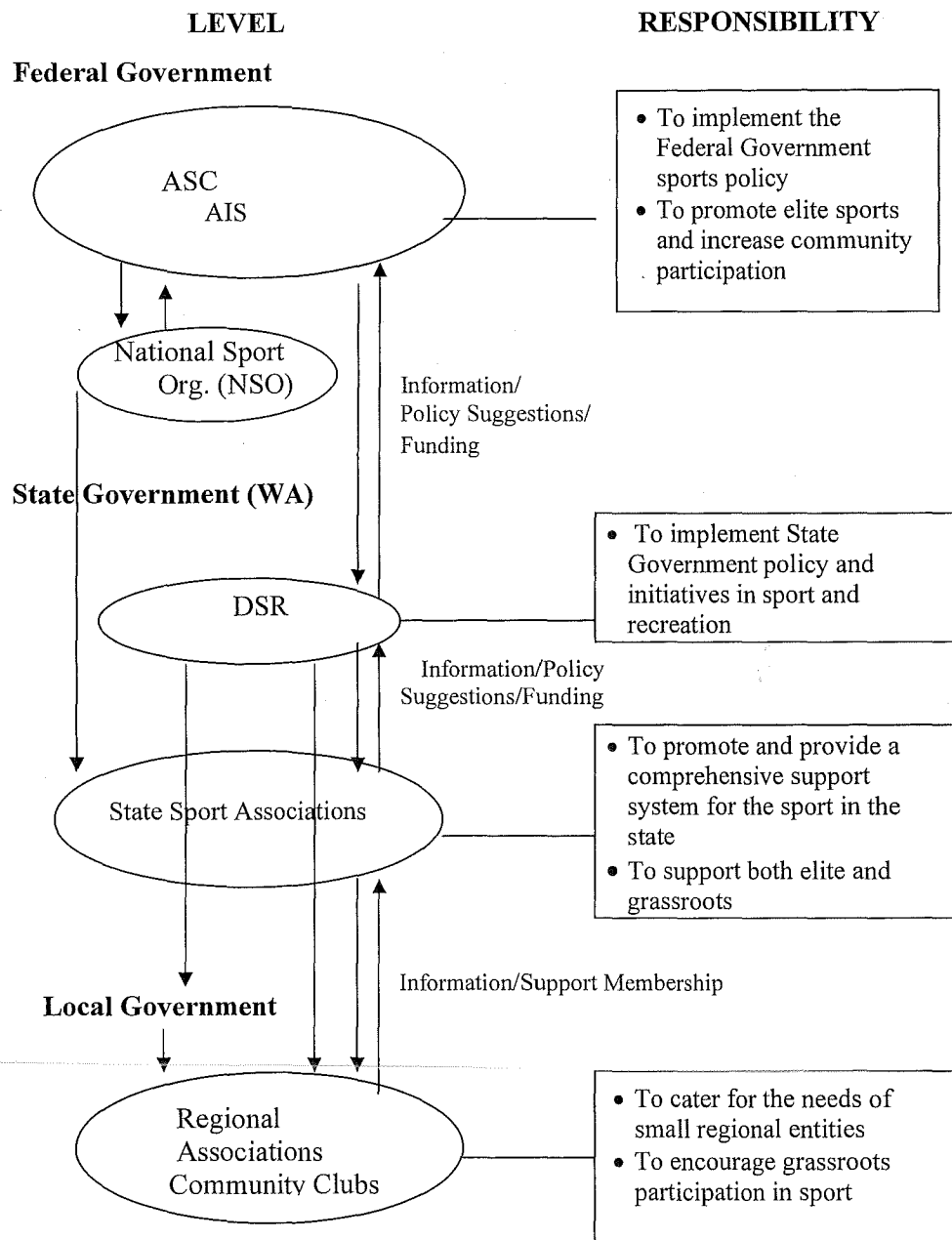


Figure 2. Levels of sport associations and their responsibilities

This study is interested in the state level government and sport organisations, which serve for both elite and grassroots sports, and link the Federal level and community level. More specifically, the major concerns of this study is to investigate organisational culture of the State sport organisations, the development plan and planning processes of the State sport organisation, and the relationship between these two. The next section reviews the development of sport management, which is followed by discussions on organisational culture and the development plan and planning processes.

## **Sport Management and Professionalism**

### ***Emergence of Professionalism***

#### ***Capitalism and commercialisation***

The original concept of sport does not seem to be closely related with capitalism or commercialism. For example, "sport historically appears to have been built substantially around intrinsic values and the enjoyment of playing, loyalty to one's local club, the excitement of competition and so on" (Lynch & Veal, 1997, p. 261). However, accompanying the development of capitalism (where private capital and enterprise are the basis for the production and distribution of goods) and commercialisation, sport increasingly became a commodity and subjugated to the demands of corporate culture and the entertainment industry (McKay, 1991). Sport and capitalism enmeshed over the late twentieth century and "sport now displays many of the traits of a capitalist economic system" (Budd, 2001; Lynch & Veal, 1997, p. 261), such as the wide expansion of commercialism and the shift of the emphasis from amateurism to professionalism.

Implications of capitalism and commercialisation for the sport industry were discussed by a large number of previous literatures (e.g. Smith & Stewart, 1999).

Shilbury (1994) pointed out that until the 1980s an area of major concern for sport managers was simple survival. However, by the late 1990s this concern changed, and sport managers were challenged to upgrade their knowledge and skills to ensure that their sporting organisations became and remained competitive. This phenomenon was undoubtedly affected by the development of capitalism and commercialism, which in turn accelerated the development of commercialism and capitalism in sport industry. Consequently, these trends of commercialisation and the influence of capitalism necessarily contributed to the emergence of professionalism in sport organisations, requiring specific knowledge and skills to manage sport organisations in this changing economic climate.

### *Professionalisation*

Professionalisation is the move towards professionalism, where “professionalism is identified as a commitment to appropriate conduct and competence, where ethics, image, service and effort are paramount and where the combination of ability, insight, vision, qualifications and experience culminate in excellence” (Smith & Stewart, 1999, pp. 5-6). More specifically, according to Smith and Stewart (1999, p. 10), “professionalism in the field of sport management has two components. First, it requires a certain level of conduct - ethical behaviour, a presentable public image, sensitivity to customer needs and a passionate commitment to the job. Second, it requires the display of continuing competence – a combination of intelligence and ability, education, technical skill and worldliness.”

Professionalism is one of the most important influences in the field of modern sport management. While the concept of professionalism was initially widely accepted and emphasised at the level of sport performance, professionalisation has progressed in a broad range of sport organisations as the emphasis has shifted ‘from the locker room’ to the level of management (Slack, 1997). This view is consistent with Bradbury (1994), who pointed out that stakeholders of sport such as participants, spectators,

television viewers, sponsors, and media demand professionalism not only on the part of the athletes but also from the sport organisations.

Professionalisation is inseparable from the commercialisation of sports. Smith and Stewart (1999, p. 6) argued that "the emergence of professionalism in sports administration reflects the view that sport has become a serious business." Bradley (1994, p. 2) insisted that professionalisation in sport is a part of an international trend. He explained that as sport becomes increasingly complex and multifaceted, professionals and amateurs in the field must possess skills in marketing, communication, financial management, accounting, policy development, economics, sociology, and law specific to the sport setting as well as the usual programming, organisational and administrative skills. Trenberth and Collins (1994, p. 113) explained this phenomenon:

The economic pressures and commercialisation of sport have put an emphasis on reducing deficits and improving the management of facilities, clubs, and associations, and programmes, whereas in earlier times much effort was put forth by volunteers towards increasing participation numbers and improving the skills of athletes, coaches, officials, and sport administrators and managers.

While this era of professionalism is still very young in Australia compared to Europe and North America, Wilson (1990) predicted that sport would become a professional business in Australia too. Brown (1995) and Adair and Vamplew (1997) also confirmed that business for selected sports, such as basketball, had grown big and professional in the 1980s and 1990s.

#### *Employment of professionals*

Volunteers have always been an important part of sport and recreation in Australia. Sporting organisations or clubs in Australia have relied on volunteers to provide their services and take on positions of responsibility. Therefore, the important component

of the effectiveness and efficiency with which sport organisations achieved their goals was the level of organisational commitment of their volunteers (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003). However, as Smith and Stewart (1999) pointed out, due to the increasing commercialisation of sport; (i) there is a growing need to employ trained people, on a full or part time basis, and (ii) the future growth and development of sporting enterprises demands the application of professional management practices. Increased expectation of and expanded demand for better facilities and programmes required a rapid expansion of services that encouraged recruitment of professional staff in sport and recreation in the government as well. For example, the Western Australian Government recognised the importance of community recreation and responded by appointing permanent professional staff, including 28 recreation officers for three year periods from 1972 (Department of Sport and Recreation WA, 2005). Nevertheless, Australian sport is still heavily reliant on services provided by volunteers especially at the community level, as Cuskelly, McIntyre and Boag (1998, p.181) asserted, "Despite recent trends towards the professionalisation of sport administration through the hiring of paid staff, volunteers remain highly important to the operation of many sport organisations."

In addition to the substitution of professional workers for volunteers, the emergence of professionalism in the field of sport also affected the management of the processes in organisations that deliver sports. The following section reviews recent development in sport management, and the emergence of organisational culture as an important component of management.

### ***Emergence of Sport Management***

Sport management is composed of two basic elements – sport and management. While sport was defined as "a range of activities that generally involve rules, physical exertion and/or coordination and competition between participants" (Lynch & Veal,

1997, p. 242) as introduced in the previous section, a definition of management is yet to be reviewed for this study.

The definition of management varies between different researchers or practitioners. Robbins (1975) found three commonalities for any comprehensive definition of management: goals, limited resources and people. These commonalities have been maintained over time by different researchers. For example, Chelladurai (1985) provided numerous definitions of management and suggested that management is the coordination of the efforts of different people toward a common end. Considering that management is to set a goal and achieve it most efficiently, Zeigler (1987) suggested that management is examined as a process or a group of processes rather than as an area of content. The root of this view to understand management as a process goes back to Fayol (1949) and Terry (1960). This 'process' is, according to Terry (1960) and more recently Wood et al. (1998), defined as four stages:

- (i) planning: setting objectives and deciding how to accomplish them,
- (ii) organising: dividing up the work and assigning people to jobs,
- (iii) leading: creating vision, inspiring commitment and directing efforts toward a common purpose, and
- (iv) controlling: monitoring performance, taking action to ensure desired results.

Smith and Stewart (1999, p. 7) argued that the contemporaneous definitions of management are consistent with management as a process and defined sport management as:

The system of planning, organising, actuating and controlling the co-ordination of resources for the efficient and effective delivery and exchange of sporting products and services.

Their definition is comprehensive, and many researchers shared similar views. For example, Parkhouse (1990) defined sport management as a combination of 'sport'

and 'management', such as management functions within the context of a sport organisation, whose primary objective is to provide sport or fitness-related activities, products and/or services.

Slack (1996) emphasised the importance of the development of a body of knowledge on the structure and operations of the many and varied organisations, and suggested that sport management researchers need to be aware of the development in management theory. He suggested areas for future research include cooperative strategy, technology, organisational culture, power and politics.

Regarding the methodology of sport management research, Slack (1996) found that the quantitative analysis method (based on questionnaire) was dominant. He strongly implied that researchers needed more work on qualitative and biographical approaches and quantitative approach based on the secondary data. This opinion is in line with a previous finding by Olafson (1990) from a similar study.

In this regard, the present study substantially contributes to the field of sport management. As it explores the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes of sport organisations, this study develops both theoretical and empirical foundations of understanding sport organisations and management.

---

### **Sport Associations and Organisational Culture**

The evolution of sport resulted in the need for an often sizeable organisational structure to support the playing of a particular sport from community to elite/interstate or international competition. Consequently, a more systematic understanding of sport organisations became necessary. This section reviews a variety of issues related to organisational culture, in particular the development in the field of organisational culture studies and discusses how they might be related to



enhance the understanding of sport organisations. A brief introduction of sport organisations is presented first.

### ***Sport Organisation as 'an Organisation' and Sport Management***

The analysis of organisations has a tradition, one that in many ways centres around Max Weber (Hall, 1982, p. 5). Hall (1982) explained that Weber (1947) concisely defined organisations as a system of continuous purposive activity of a specified kind. Weber (1947) distinguished the 'corporate group' (organisation) from other forms of social organisations by defining the corporate group as a social relationship that is either closed or limits the admission of outsiders by rules, "...so far as its order is enforced by the action of specific individuals whose regular function is, of a chief or 'head' and usually also an administrative staff" (Weber, 1947, pp. 145-6). His focus is on legitimate interaction patterns among organisational members as they pursue goals and engage in activities. As a result, this definition by Weber is, according to Hall (1982, p. 5), "the basis to most other definition of organisation" since Weber.

Slack (1997, p. 5) defined a sport organisation as "a social entity involved in the sport industry, which is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary." In this regard, this definition shares key elements with the seminal model of organisation defined by Weber (Hall, 1982, p. 6). The two intangible characteristics of a sport organisation, 'goal-directed focus' and 'structured activity', can be converted into and expressed as a tangible form by planning, such as in the form of development plans. However, the research on development plans or the planning processes is rarely found.

In addition to the four characteristics suggested by Slack (1997), sport organisations have their unique characteristics and goals that are derived from unique characteristics of sport and make them different from other types of organisations.

The uniqueness of the sport was well summarised by Parks and Zanger (1990) and Smith and Stewart (1999) as the following:

- Sport is consumed by strong emotional attachments;
- Sporting clubs usually have different performance measures from private businesses, such as the number of spectators or fans as well as profits;
- Sporting organisations' income is not totally from the sale of service (games/matches), but from sources extraneous to the sale of service;
- Sport products or services are unpredictable, and their supply is fixed in the short-run (for specific season, tournament or event);
- Team sports clubs depend upon the continued viability of their opponents (competitors); and
- Sport engenders a high degree of loyalty from members and followers, and low degree of substitutability among teams.

Slack (1997, p. 3) also pointed out that "a large number of different types of organisations make up the sport industry," which makes the sport industry different from other industries where products or services are more or less substitutable. By that Slack meant, for example, that cricket and tennis are not easily substitutable for each other for fans.

Sport organisations, in particular, at the State level, exist to achieve goals that are complex and competing, and different from other organisations. While Slack (1997) investigated this issue for provincial level sport organisations in Canada, most of them may be applicable to Australia. These goals include:

- Survival/continued existence;
- The delivery of services to the community (public);
- The investment in the elite athletes; and
- Winning championships, such as attaining a higher league/international ranking, etc.

As sport organisations generally operate with limited resources to achieve a certain goal (goals) as general organisations do, it is necessary to use the professional management practices to effectively and efficiently manage the limited resources available to the sport organisation (Shilbury, 1994; Stewart & Smith, 1999). Sport management has some unique aspects that render it different from the management of other business enterprises. These unique qualities justify sport management as a separate and distinct area of professional expertise. This uniqueness includes issues such as sport marketing and the nature of the sport “products,” the structure and financing of sport organisations, and the career paths within the industry (Parks & Zanger, 1990). Sport organisations also have unique qualities that include traditions, teams, heroes/legends and distinctive colours of the organisations. These unique qualities of sport organisations are closely related to organisational culture. The following section reviews organisational culture with a special emphasis on sport organisations.

### ***Organisational Culture in Sport Organisations***

#### ***Organisational Culture***

As organisations with unique characteristics and goals, the sport organisations develop their own individual qualities, values or culture to achieve success and survival. This section reviews literature on organisational culture, one of the most important variables in this study.

“The term ‘culture’ was initially used in social anthropology as a term representing, in a very broad and holistic sense, the values of any specific human group that are passed from one generation to the other” (Kotter & Heskett, 1992, p. 3). Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) noted that most organisation theorists emphasised the meaning of culture as a particular way of life among a people or community. Therefore,

organisations as groups of people are seen to possess their own culture, which is shaped, maintained, changed and transmitted among people working in the organisations.

The combined term 'organisational culture' lacks consensus among researchers and practitioners, notwithstanding the emergence of culture as one of the major domains of organisational research (e.g., Gregory, 1983; Hofstede, 1998a, 1998b; Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985; Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1985, 1992, 1996; Yeung, Brockbank & Ulrich, 1991). As a result, despite its practical importance and face value, "organisational culture remains one of the most controversial areas among organisation theorists" (Yeung, Brockbank & Ulrich, 1991, p. 61). For example, Pettigrew (1979) defined organisational culture as symbols, languages, ideology, belief, ritual and myth in organisations. Gregory (1983) in contrast referred to culture as learned ways of coping with experience, and Schein (1985) restricted his definition to implicit, taken-for-granted belief structure. In accordance with the wide range of definitions presented by different researchers, Ogbonna and Harris (1998, p. 35) asserted that "organisational culture is very much 'in the eye of the beholder'."

In spite of this confusion, researchers generally reach a consensus that organisations have an overriding culture, but also support or tolerate a number of sub-cultures, that reflect elements of occupational, hierarchical, class, racial, ethnic and gender-based identifications (e.g., Doherty, 1999; Hofstede, 1998a; Meyerson & Martin, 1987; Slack & Hinings, 1992). This makes the perception and analysis of organisational culture more challenging.

#### *Historical perspective of organisational culture*

This section reviews the historical perspective of the study of organisational culture with a special emphasis on the influences from anthropology, sociology, psychology and behavioural (management) science. This review identifies the characteristics,

basic philosophies and empirical analysis methods adopted in the study of organisational culture. While the study of organisational culture has been influenced by various disciplines, most of those who study organisational culture trace their intellectual roots, in particular, to a few key anthropologists (Kotter & Haskett, 1992) and sociologists (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

One of the main differences between 'organisational culture' used by anthropologists, sociologists and organisation theorists lies in how they treat culture in their analysis. While culture is to the anthropologists both a dependent variable (*shaped* by a unique time and place) and an independent variable (*shaping* the beliefs and behaviour of individuals), the studies on organisational culture take culture as the independent variable, paying attention to the effect of organisational culture on employee participation and morale (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1992). This is different from the sociologist who typically emphasises the organisational culture as a dependent variable, with respect to macrosocial forces such as social systems or environment.

While the study of organisational culture was significantly affected by anthropology at its initial period of emergence, in the process of its development, there appear to be significant influences from at least three sources that provided the foundation for a new approach in organisational culture studies: sociology, psychology and management (behavioural) science. Out-performance of Japanese firms compared to the United States' firms after the Second World War provoked debate over the organisational structure and culture (e.g., Cole, 1979; Lincoln, Olson, & Hanada, 1978). It was found that the paradigm of formal organisational structure was incapable of encompassing the anomalous forms of hospital, school and modern Japanese firms. Groundwork for a solution to this problem came from sociology, by adopting the idea of paradigm and social influences on organisational behaviour (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

This influence from sociology was so revolutionary that it changed the 'paradigm' of research, where the concept of the paradigm was first explored by Kuhn (1970). Kuhn (1970) observed that a socially constructed point of view strongly influences the behaviour of scientists, and tends to be consistent within professions and across organisations. Imershin (1977) revised Kuhn's notion and suggested that the idea of scientific paradigm might be applied to the organisation rather than the profession as the unit of analysis. As a result, the construct of organisational culture is based on the idea of an organisation as a social phenomenon that has its own features that distinguish it from the environment and individual desires and predispositions of its members (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

The historical development of the research on organisational culture is closely related to the methodology adopted for empirical study. According to Ouchi and Wilkins (1985, pp. 474-475), the empirical work can be divided into the following categories based on principal intellectual traditions.

- (i) Holistic studies (ethnographic): in general relies on archival, historical, or other public documents rather than field observation to arrive at an understanding of a social group. The potential limitations and biases associated with such resources are obvious. However, the use of public and historical documents has encouraged a longitudinal perspective.
- (ii) Semiotic studies (language and symbolism): directly influenced by the tradition in anthropology. Collection and analysis of transcripts are painstaking. However, this approach expanded rapidly in the 1980s.
- (iii) Quantitative studies: multivariate analysis using data based on survey questionnaire. Became popular as quantitatively well-equipped behavioural and management scientists became interested in this field.

The shift of primary data used in sport management-focused organisational culture (studies) is also reported by Olafson (1990). The study analysed articles in sport management, published in selected journals, and found that 50 to 60 percent of articles on sport organisation used questionnaire or survey as a primary data source, while archival or interview was used in less than 30 percent.

*Organisational culture in this study - The competing values framework*

The present study adopts the more inclusive and integrated definition of organisational culture provided by Schein (1985, p. 9) as:

a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with external adaptation and internal integration. This pattern has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to such problems.

Deal and Kennedy (1988) argued that these assumptions or values determine the 'feel' of the organisation that makes it different from others, and Slack (1997) emphasised that organisational culture helps its members to 'make sense of organisational activities.' Understanding organisational culture can be useful; for example, Smith and Stewart (1995) investigated an elite Australian Football League club and found that a strong male culture in the club was related to its success in competition.

While organisational culture can be defined in a variety of ways, Smith and Shilbury (2004) pointed out a number of recurring themes. For example, Quinn and McGrath (1985) suggested the dimensions of organisational culture included collective beliefs about the organisational purpose, performance criteria, motivation and evaluation. Hofstede (2001) investigated the forty largest IBM branches in different countries to find how national culture is related to organisational culture of the company. In this study, he revealed four dimensions of national cultural difference operating within

IBM's organisational culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism, and masculinity vs. femininity. In comparison, Kimberley and Rottman (1987) discussed dimensions that include means of compliance, leadership styles, decision-making procedures and organisational forms. To these dimensions, Schein (1985) added the actions and commitment of the employees.

Smith and Shilbury (2004) asserted that although other themes are repeated, six recurring themes are found in most studies - stability/changeability, cooperation/conflict, goal focus/orientation, reward/motivation, control/authority, and time/planning. These themes are used in order to measure cultural dimensions of Australian sport organisations.

This study applies the competing values framework to measure organisational culture of Western Australian sport associations. Because organisational culture is defined by the values, assumptions and interpretations of organisation members, and because a common set of dimensions compose these factors, a model of organisational culture types can be derived from specific sets of values (Cameron & Freeman, 1991, Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991, Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). This model of competing values framework of organisational culture has its root in the competing values framework of organisational effectiveness criteria developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981). Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) used multidimensional scaling of reported organisational effectiveness criteria to produce three dimensions of organisational effectiveness criteria as shown in Figure 3. The vertical (flexibility vs. control) and horizontal (internal vs. external) axes are shown as solid lines. The distal dimension (means and ends) and additional defining terms are included.



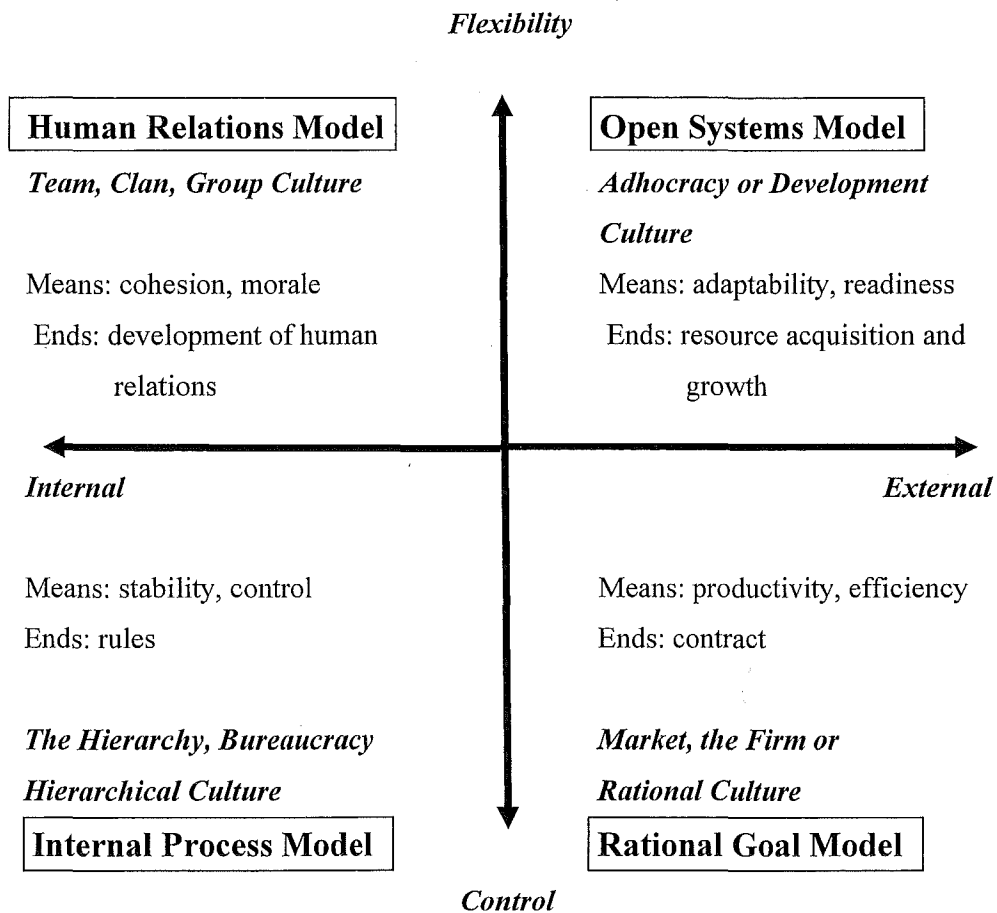


Figure 3. Characteristics of ideal types of organisational culture in the competing values framework (after Cameron & Freeman, 1991, Colyer, 2000, Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991).

At the core of the competing values model is “an assumption of competition among potential outcomes in all organisations, and successful organisations appear to satisfy competing, or even contradictory criteria” (Buenger, Daft, Conlon & Austin, 1996, p. 558). Organisations exhibit values in all quadrants of the framework, but the emphases on one or more quadrants may be different.

The first dimension (internal-external) concerns organisational focus, where values ranging from the well-being and development of the people and systems in the organisation (internal focus) to a concern with the well-being and development of the organisation itself in relation to its environment (external focus). The second dimension (control-flexibility) reflects the structure of the organisation, from a structure emphasising flexibility to a structure emphasising control. The third or distal dimension includes means and ends to support the values held by each organisation in each quadrant. Each one of the quadrants represents one of the four major models in organisation theory – human relations model, open systems model, internal process model, and rational goal model (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981).

The competing values model introduced by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) to measure organisational effectiveness was modified by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) to represent organisational culture values. This competing values framework draws the underlying value systems of each of the four major theoretical models constituting organisational theory, and illustrates the different emphases given to such values. In other words, each component in the competing values framework reflects its own organisational values, as shown in Figure 4.

Group culture is related to the human relations model. The organisation with this culture prevailing has flexible structure and an internal focus. The main goal or ends is to develop human relations, and the means – which include cohesion or morale of the members - are used to achieve the ends. Developmental culture is consistent with the open systems model. The organisational structure is flexible, and the focus is external-oriented, where the development of the organisation is emphasised. The means such as adaptability or readiness is used to achieve the ends of growth and resource acquisition. Rational culture is in the third quadrant of the figure, and for the rational goal model. This type of organisation has a controlled structure, and focuses on external growth. Productivity and efficiency are emphasised in this organisation as the means to achieve the goal.

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Group Culture</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Participation, open discussion</li> <li>2. Empowerment of employees to act</li> <li>3. Assessing employee concerns and ideas</li> <li>4. Human relations, team work, cohesion</li> </ol>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Development Culture</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>9. Flexibility, decentralisation</li> <li>10. Expansion, growth and development</li> <li>11. Innovation and change</li> <li>12. Creative problem solving</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. Control, centralisation</li> <li>6. Routinisation, formalisation and structure</li> <li>7. Stability, continuity, order</li> <li>8. Predictable performance outcomes</li> </ol> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Hierarchical Culture</b></p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>13. Task force, accomplishment, goal achievement</li> <li>14. Direction, objective setting, goal clarity</li> <li>15. Efficiency, productivity, profitability</li> <li>16. Outcomes, excellence, quality</li> </ol> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Rational Culture</b></p>

Figure 4. Organisational culture items from Quinn’s Instrument II (as reported by Colyer, 2000) with culture items numbered for clarity in following discussions.

The last type of culture is hierarchical culture, which is based on the internal process model. The organisation with this culture is controlled and bound by rules and procedures. Individual well-being is less emphasised. Stability and control are regarded as important means to achieve the goals. As a result, the organisation has predictable performance outcomes.

Colyer (2000) noted previous studies that had shown that organisations do not fall into one quadrant, but contain characteristics of more than one cultural type. In addition, the competing values framework for organisational culture has the potential to develop independent measures for each quadrant. Some other methods to quantitatively measure the organisational culture were developed as well (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). The resulting measures after certain adjustments (such as standard scores) are used to create a visual representation as a means of identifying cultural strengths and weaknesses (Colyer, 2000, p. 16-17). These methods of measuring organisational culture using conveniently administered instruments permit the

systematic observation of organisational culture and contribute to answering many important questions.

The two most widely used instruments of measuring the organisational culture are *Instrument I* developed by Cameron (1978) and *Instrument II* by Quinn (1988). These two instruments have been widely used in survey by researchers in the field of organisational behaviour (e.g. Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Colyer, 2000; Colyer, Soutar & Ryder, 2002; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991). This approach is consistent with Schein (1984, p. 14), who asserted that “if we are to decipher a given organisation’s culture, we must use a complex interview, observation, and joint-inquiry approach.” By doing this for a large number of organisations, he argued that the concept of culture can be related to other variables, such as strategy, organisational structure, and organisational effectiveness.

Instrument I asks the respondent “to divide 100 points among the four scenarios in the question, depending on how similar they think each scenario is to their own organisation’s culture” (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991, p. 117). While this instrument has been widely used, including Quinn (1988), Cameron and Freeman (1991), Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), and Zammuto and Krakower (1991), Johnson, Wood and Blinkhorn (1988) pointed out two problems: the correlation between the measures are spurious, since the measures are not independent of one another, and reliabilities of measures overestimate the actual reliabilities of the scales.

Instrument II developed by Quinn (1988) is designed to use Likert scales, which enable independent measures of each culture quadrant. Quinn and Spreitzer (1991, p. 117) explained that the Likert measures have sustainability for factor analysis and regression, and an ability to capture more realistic organisational culture description.

The model of competing values forms the basis of the analysis of this study because the model is relatively simple but still powerful, and comparable across different

organisations. More specifically, Cameron's Instrument I and Quinn's Instrument II were used in this study to reveal the organisational culture of selected sport organisations. Discussions on these two instruments are presented in Chapter 3 in more detail. According to Hatch and Cunliffe (2006, p. 213), "modernists (in organisation theories).....interpret knowledge about culture as a tool of management, and culture itself as a variable to be manipulated to enhance the likelihood of achieving desired levels of organisational performance." Christensen (2006, p. 8) also argued that managing culture can be "one of the most powerful tools that a manager can employ in their efforts to get a diverse and dispersed set of people to work together in a coherent, consistent and purposeful way." It is necessary for this interpretation of culture to be valid in order to prove that organisational culture and organisational performance is somehow related. The issues regarding the relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness have been at the centre of this trend. The next section discusses this topic in detail.

### *Organisational Culture and Effectiveness*

One of the concepts closely related to organisational culture and is receiving wide attention from researchers is organisational effectiveness. While organisational effectiveness is not the major concern of this study, this section reviews recent development made in the field of organisational effectiveness, as it is closely related to the concepts of organisational culture (in particular, the competing values framework) and the planning processes.

Organisational effectiveness is defined differently across different studies. There is no generally accepted model of organisational effectiveness, and researchers such as Connolly, Conlon and Deutsch (1980, p. 211) criticised the research on effectiveness suggesting it is in a state of 'conceptual disarray'. The definitions used depend on the

theories adopted by the analysts of organisations (e.g., Colyer, Soutar & Ryder, 2000; Sydow & Windeler, 1998; Tsui, 1990).

The two significant perspectives of organisational effectiveness studies are the goal-centred approach and the natural system approach (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The goal-centred approach attempts to identify organisational goals and to measure how well goals are achieved. In contrast, the natural system approach focuses on coping mechanisms and distribution of resources. Other various studies use diverse components to discuss effectiveness and explain the success or failure of an organisation in the effectiveness discourse. However, most of these studies only partially explain a certain aspect of organisational activities or performance.

The competing value model of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) attempted to integrate various approaches to effectiveness contained in the literature accumulated until that time. Their study identified 17 effectiveness criteria, based on the three dimensional competing values framework as shown in Figure 3, and which appear as means and ends in that figure. These criteria include: cohesion, human resources development, morale, value, quality, flexibility, growth, utilisation, evaluation, readiness, information management, stability, control, profit, productivity, planning and efficiency. However, the criteria of effectiveness may vary across people in the different hierarchies or positions (Wagner, Stimpert & Fubara, 1998; Walton & Dawson, 2001), or organisations (Sydow & Windeler, 1998).

The relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness has long been of interest to researchers (e.g., Cameron & Freeman, 1991, Cameron & Quinn, 1999, Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, Kotter & Haskett, 1992, Schein, 1984, Shall, 1983, Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). While most of the studies confirmed the existence of the relationship, it is still controversial how strongly they are correlated. It appears that researchers reached consensus that strong cultures lead to strong performance (Schall, 1983; Schein, 1984) or a culture supportive of organisational strategies leads to high

performance (Tichy, 1982; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). This line of research was encouraged by the development of valid instrumentation for measuring organisational cultures, which made more rigorous quantitative analysis available, supplementing traditional qualitative and ethnographic methods.

Cameron and Freeman's (1991) empirical work developed the research on this issue one step further. Using more comprehensive data and the competing values framework developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981), Cameron and Freeman (1991) applied Instrument I in measuring organisational culture, and concluded that, contrary to the common belief, no significant differences in organisational effectiveness were found between those with congruent or strong cultures and those without them. Instead, they found that the type of culture possessed by institutions – clans, adhocracy, hierarchy, or market – had an important relationship with effectiveness. Cameron and Quinn (1999) also suggested that organisational culture values (not congruence or strength) that pervade an organisation influence, or even predetermine the type and quality of service and influence their success in competition.

The impact of organisational culture on quality of life was analysed by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). Using Instruments I and II for organisational culture and measuring various measures of executive well-being, they suggested the importance of balancing cultural values across the four cultural quadrants of the competing values model. This finding implies that if strong imbalances are evident across the culture quadrants, managerial effort should be focused on the development of values and skills in the weaker quadrants.

This study does not further analyse the issues related to effectiveness. However, the previous findings that organisational culture and organisational effectiveness are significantly related provide huge implications for this study. Considering that effectiveness is the concept relevant to the outcome of an organisation and could be

expected to have a close relationship with development plans, then development plans and planning process should reflect organisational culture and subcultures in tangible formats. A review of relevant issues and literature for development plans and planning processes follows.

### ***Organisational Culture, Development Plans and the Planning Processes***

#### *Introduction to development plans*

A development plan is a document summarising an organisation's mission (purpose), goals and objectives, which is easily understandable by all members and readily available (Chapman, 1992). In this regard, the development plan is future-oriented, and necessarily reflects the culture of the organisation, its internal relationships and its relationship to the external environment. It also reflects how well the future of the organisation is rigorously and realistically cared for. In a more general context, Mintzberg (1994, p.17) argued that "organisations must plan to ensure that the future is taken into account." Loasby (1967, p.301) emphasised the relationship between the plan and the future, saying that "the first reason for looking at the future in a systematic way is to understand the future implications of present decisions, and the present implications of future events."

Considering the differences between profit-oriented organisations and not-for-profit organisations, researchers have been interested in issues related to planning for not-for-profit organizations (Bryson, 1988, 1990; Thibault, Slack, & Hinings, 1993, 1994). It was asserted that one of the most important functions of developing strategies or plans for not-for-profit administrators, which includes sport organisations, is to minimise environmental and future uncertainty, and maximise opportunities (Bryson, 1988; Handy, 1988; Thibault, Slack, & Hinings, 1993), where strategic planning is defined as "the pattern of purposes, policies, programs, actions,



decisions, or resource allocation that define what an organisation is, what it does, and why it does it" (Bryson, 1990, p. 166).

The importance of the development plan, or in a wider term, the business plan, which contains strategies as an ingredient, was also emphasised by DSR (2003). DSR emphasised that the plan is crucial and essential for sport organisations to achieve outcomes. It further suggested that the stakeholders (including sport organisations) should apply and adapt the challenges (identified by *Strategic directions for Western Australian sport and recreation 2003-2005*) in their organisation's strategic planning.

As plans can be regarded as a product of organisational culture, and as one of the most important issues in this study is to explore the relationship between the organisational culture and development plans in sport organisations, this section reviews literature on development plans, especially in the context of sport organisations.

The development plan is a result of a comprehensive planning process that involves extensive consultation and identified specific actions (strategies) to achieve the organisation's objectives. According to Mintzberg (1994, p.12), "planning is a formalised procedure to produce an articulated result, in the form of an integrated system of decisions." The planning process, in turn, depends on strategies emerging from cultural emphases. This section also examines how organisational culture and the planning processes for development plans interact and work together to achieve the goals of the organisation. This review shows that, notwithstanding the importance of development plans and its relationship with organisational culture, there have been few studies exploring these issues, thus far, while a narrower concept of strategic planning has been researched widely.

#### *Development Plans and the Planning Processes for Australian Sport Organisations*

In contrast to general business plans and strategic plans, research on development plans is not easy to find. The importance of development plans for sport organisations, and content and scope of the ideal development plan have been examined by only a few writers (e.g., Chapman, 1992). While a development plan is important for future advancement (this is certainly the case for commercial business organisations), the influence of organisational culture on the development plan has not been the subject of sport organisation research.

In Australia, the Australian Sport Commission (ASC), since 1985, decided that all national sporting bodies should submit requests for funding in the context of long-term plans that define the priorities and direction of future development for a sport (ASC, 1990). The development plan provides a basis for a sporting organisation to agree on its aims and objectives, set goals to achieve within a given period, establish its priorities, assess the financial and personnel power implications of what it wants to do, and periodically review its progress (ASC, 1987). In this regard, the development plan contains four hierarchies that underlie strategic plans: objectives, budgets, strategies and programs (Mintzberg, 1994, p. 35). The National Sport Organisation's development plan should reflect respective sport plans in context of Federal Government's outcomes, such as international success and sport business opportunities. In comparison, at the state level, development plans of State Sport Organisations are supposed to reflect both National Sport Organisation's outcomes and State Department's outcomes and expectations. In this regard, development plans at the state level have dual contexts.

The ASC (1987) explained that the first stage in preparing a development plan for a sporting organisation should provide the answers to the following questions.

- What are the aims and objectives?
- What do we want to do to achieve these aims and objectives, and why?
- When do we want to do it?
- How much will it cost?

- Where might the money come from?
- What manpower resources are required?
- Is this manpower available?
- If we cannot do everything, what is most important?
- What happens to the rest of the plan if any single component is not achieved?
- Are we achieving what we set out to do and, if not, why not?

This approach pursued by the ASC was also adopted by the Ministry of Sport and Recreation (MSR; restructured to SRWA and, then to DSR in 2001) in Western Australia for development plans (in particular, for Business Plan Funding) as a basis for funding (SRWA, 2000). However it was reported that some of the State Sport Organisations were struggling to adjust to the new environment of planning and accountability as they were experiencing a transition period (Kadmos Group, 1998).

The issue of development planning processes, especially in Australian sport organisations, has rarely attracted researchers' attention. Literature on this issue is even rarer than that on development plans. This is somewhat idiosyncratic taking into account that planning processes are necessary to prepare a development plan, which is needed to cope with the changing environment, as well as to apply for government funding. Chapman (1992) is probably the only source that professionally deals with this issue. He suggested three sets of items to be considered in an ideal development planning processes: ten important questions to be answered; seven essential sections and ten key result areas.

First, Chapman (1992, p. 16) outlined *ten important questions to be answered* in development planning, by which the development plan is viewed by members of a sporting organisation. A comprehensive development plan should provide answers to all the questions, which are:

- (1) What is the organisation's vision for the future?
- (2) What are the key result areas?
- (3) What needs to be done to achieve these organisational goals and objectives and why?
- (4) When will it be done and by whom?
- (5) How much will it cost?
- (6) Where might the money come from?
- (7) What resources are required?
- (8) If everything can't be done, what is most important?
- (9) What happens to the rest of the plan if any single component is not achieved? And,
- (10) Is the organisation achieving what it set out to do and if not why not?

These questions address the most fundamental issues regarding the organisation's existence, mission and objectives, and means to be used to achieve goals. They also include questions regarding the situation where the full implementation of the development plan is not possible for various reasons. The organisation as a whole must take ultimate responsibility for the plan and for its implementation. Together with these ten questions, Chapman (1992) explained that the development plan should also cover the following two points:

- Sufficient background information about the sport so that the stakeholders can understand the context in which the plan is developed; and
- An explanation of the rationale underlining the plan, to enable it to be appreciated by people within and outside the organisation.

Secondly, Chapman (1992) identified *seven essential sections*, to be included in development plans:

- (1) Introduction;
- (2) Mission statement and organisational chart;
- (3) Organisational goals;
- (4) Review of the previous year;
- (5) Four year development plan (summary multi-year plan);
- (6) Annual operational plan; and
- (7) The program budget summary.

Chapman (1992) suggested that this format for a development plan is not the only effective format nor is it claimed to be necessarily the best for all organisations, and organisations that wish to follow the format should do so critically. As different organisations have different missions, objectives and structures, this format with seven sections should be assessed even if it should be simplified, expanded or otherwise modified. While he argued that this format can be simplified by organisations, the seven sections presented seem to be essential, and should be included as a minimum requirement in a development plan for sport organisations. Accordingly, this study asked the participants whether their organisation's development plan contained these seven sections.

Third, Chapman (1992) stressed the *ten key result areas* that sporting organisations should focus on when addressing developmental strategies. These include:

- 
- (1) Management;
  - (2) Marketing and promotion;
  - (3) Participation;
  - (4) Athlete development;
  - (5) Coaching;
  - (6) Officiating;
  - (7) Major events;

- (8) Sport sciences;
- (9) Facilities and equipment; and
- (10) Special events.

As the individual sport organisation has its own development needs, the categories for planning vary from organisation to organisation. However, regardless of the individual needs, it will be of great help for the organisation to consider and define key result areas while preparing the planning documents. Chapman (1992) explained that the list of ten key result areas suggested is not a definitive one, and an organisation may categorise its planning according to its functional areas or its committee structures and their respective responsibility. Nevertheless, the ten areas suggested highlight the operational areas that should be considered and discussed in the development plan.

Sport associations' development plans and planning processes are largely under-researched, particularly in Australia. A few studies were found on culture and strategy for Australian service and manufacturing organisations (Baird, Harrison, & Reeve, 2007), as well as strategic planning for not-for-profit sport organisations in other countries such as Canada (for example, Thibault, Slack, & Hinings, 1993, 1994). Considering that professionalisation in the field of sport management has rapidly evolved and development plans are necessary for sport organisations to obtain funding from the governments, it is surprising that the research on these issues is rarely found. In this regard, Chapman's (1992) delineation of development plans especially for sport organisations is a critical source of relevant information. While the main questions to be answered in the planning process, the format of the development plan and areas to be emphasised in the development plan may vary across individual organisations with different functions, mission and objectives, those presented in Chapman (1992) may be regarded as the basic framework for development planning. Therefore, in order to find how each sport organisation

selected in this study develops their plans and manages the planning process, the questions suggested by Chapman (1992) are adopted in the survey questionnaire.

### Summary

This chapter examined the relevant literature on sport, organisational culture, the development plan and the planning processes. The effect of professionalisation and commercialisation on sport and sport organisation was noted. Development in organisational culture studies was introduced, and the competing values framework was discussed as a main framework to be used in this study. Chapman's (1992) planning framework was also discussed as a framework for the planning process. The review revealed that, in contrast to the field of organisational behaviour where much research has been carried out, its application to the sport organisation is less common. Research on the development plan and planning process was sparse. Furthermore, while it is anticipated that the organisational culture of a sport organisation will significantly impact the characteristics of its development plan, there is no substantial study analysing the link between the organisational culture and the characteristics of a development plan. The contribution of this study is, therefore, multi-fold. This study attempts to fill the discrepancy by considering a model of sport organisations, incorporating organisational culture, development plans and organisational achievements. The conceptual framework and research methods adopted for this study are discussed in following chapters.

## CHAPTER 3

### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

#### Introduction

The relationship between organisational culture for sport organisations and their planning process is under-researched. This chapter discusses how this study can contribute to improving the understanding of organisational culture of sport organisations, their planning process, and the relationship between the two. The conceptual framework for this study examines organisational culture, the plan and planning processes and the relationship between these two for sport associations, and then follows discussions of the population of interest and stakeholders of sports associations.

#### Conceptual Framework for the Study

##### *Conceptual Framework*

Organisational culture is one aspect of management and sport management that does not attract the interest one might expect given its acknowledged importance in organisation and performance (e.g., Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Colyer, 1996, 2000; Colyer, Soutar & Ryder, 2000; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Schein, 1984; Weese, 1995). As organisational culture is defined by the values, assumptions and interpretations of organisation members, a variety of factors or characteristics of an organisation are expected to be related to its organisational culture. Some studies examined the relationship between organisational culture and certain variables, such as organisational effectiveness (see Chapter 2). In contrast,



virtually no studies have examined how the *organisational culture* affects the shaping and functioning of *development plans or planning processes* at an operational level. This study examines and analyses this important but ignored aspect of sport management: the relationship between organisational culture and development plans and planning processes in sport organisations. As part of this study, the demographic profile, cultural profile, and planning processes of selected Western Australian sport associations are also revealed.

Figure 5 delineates the conceptual framework for this study. The figure shows that a range of variables, such as history of the sport organisation, external imperatives, organisational research and management practices, either directly or indirectly influence sport organisations' characteristics, such as organisational culture. At an operational level, organisational culture is expressed through tangible artefacts, for example, uniforms, corporate colours, team songs, and development plans.

The sport organisation establishes development plans through planning processes. The development plan is an important component of the organisation that explains to governments and other stakeholders, as well as workers in the organisation, in which direction and how the organisation moves strategically. Therefore, as a tangible form that reflects organisational culture and subcultures, the development plan is crucial for the existence of sport organisations as it affects their immediate outputs and constructs their future status. In addition, a development plan is a result of a comprehensive planning process that involves extensive consultation. Accordingly, it is expected that both the development plan and planning process are influenced by the organisational culture that a sport organisation possesses. This is the crux of this study with its focus on the relationship between organisational culture, the development plan and planning processes.

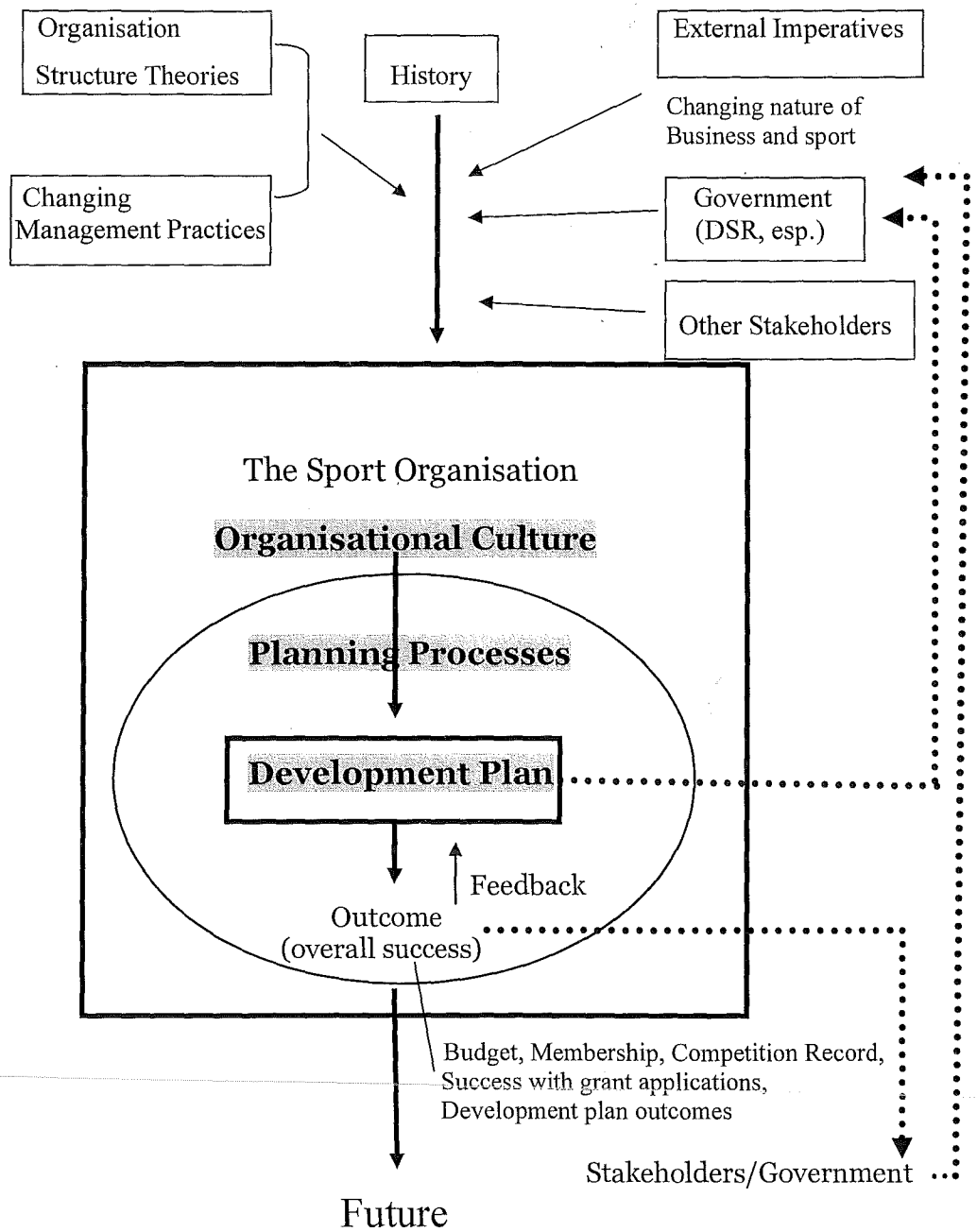


Figure 5. Conceptual framework for the study to explore the relationship between organisational culture and development planning in sport organisations (The foci of this study are highlighted).

*Population of Interest*

Stakeholders of a sport substantially affect the nature of organisational culture of the sport organisation, as shown in Figure 5. Stakeholders of a sport, who are considered to affect the achievement of the organisation in one way or another, may be summarised as in Figure 6. This study particularly focuses on a specific set of stakeholders who are most influential in policy formulation and management of the sport, such as managers/employees, board of management, and volunteers (non-board members).

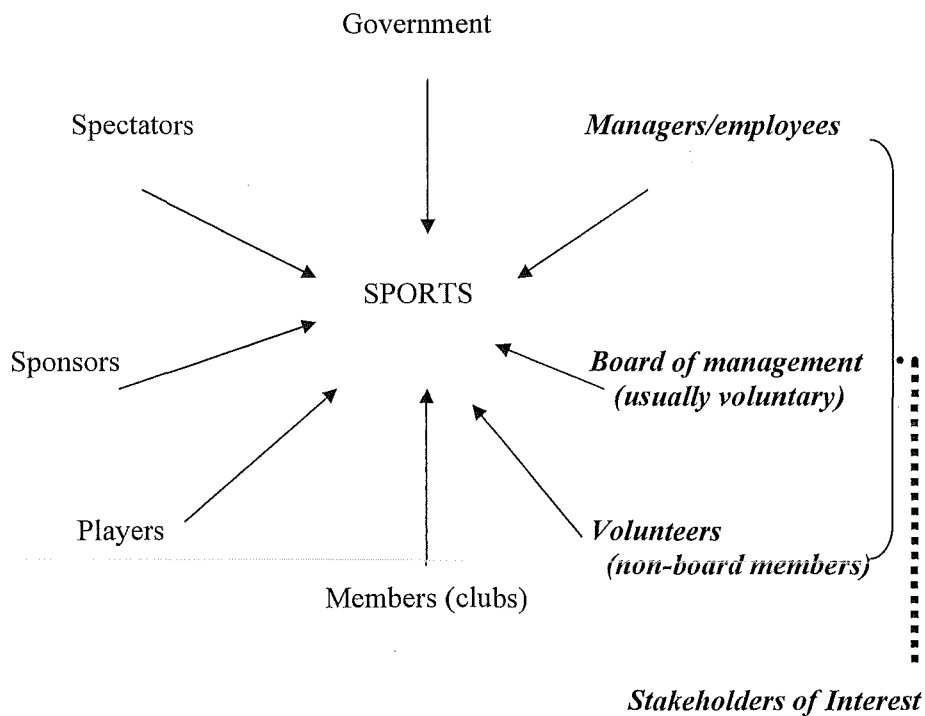


Figure 6. Stakeholders of a sport.

Managers, the Boards of Management, and volunteers of the organisation intentionally or unintentionally, create a culture and work within that unique culture, and attempt to maximise their organisation's achievements through various development plans. These internal stakeholders, especially board members, have strong influence over culture (Deal & Kennedy, 1988) and the planning processes. This study, therefore, focuses on these internal stakeholders of the sport organisation such as managers (CEOs), presidents, and volunteers (board members and non-board members).

This study selected three state-level sport associations in Western Australia and analysed their respective organisational cultures, development plans and planning processes. More detailed information regarding the selection process and administration of the process is provided in Chapter 4.

### ***Framework for Organisational Culture***

The cultural characteristics of the three sport organisations were identified using the competing values framework for organisational culture. This competing values framework has been applied by researchers in general organisational behaviour studies (e.g., Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Dennison & Spreitzer, 1991; Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991) and in leisure and sport organisations (Colyer, 1996, 2000; Colyer, Soutar & Ryder, 2000).

More specifically, this study adopted two instruments measuring organisational culture – Instrument I for Part I of the questionnaire and Instrument II for Part II of the questionnaire. Developed by Cameron (1978) and Cameron and Freeman (1991), Instrument I uses four scenarios to describe each of the four quadrants in the

competing values framework on culture. The four scenarios are components of each culture, such as institutional characteristics, leader, glue and institutional emphases. For each component, respondents were asked to divide 100 points among the four descriptions depending on the similarity between each description and the organisation's culture, where each description reflects characteristics of each culture. Table 1 shows questions in Part I of the questionnaire that were adopted from Instrument I of Cameron and Freeman (1991).

Instrument II, adopted in Part II of the questionnaire in this study, was developed by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) from Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983) and used by Colyer (2000) and Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000) for sport and recreation organisations. Questions were developed from statement in Instrument II, shown in Figure 4 in Chapter 2, and are also found in Appendix D in detail. Descriptions for each culture were randomly reshuffled to avoid giving any presumptuous information about each culture's attributes.

Using this model revealed the types of organisational culture in each organisation. The degree of dominance in each organisation's culture quantified from the responses to the questionnaire is also used for further analyses to explore the relationship between the culture and certain aspects of development plans.

Table 1. Four questions in Part I relating to organisational culture – Instrument I

---

1. Institutional Characteristics

- a. Association A is a very personal place like an extended family.
- b. Association B is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place.
- c. Association C is a very formalised and structured place.
- d. Association D is a very production oriented.

2. Institutional Leader

- a. The head of association A is a mentor, a sage, or a father or mother figure.
- b. The head of association B is an entrepreneur, an innovator, or a risk taker.
- c. The head of association C is a coordinator, an organiser, or an administrator.
- d. The head of association D is a producer, a technician, or a hard-driver.

3. Institutional Glue

- a. The glue that holds association A together is loyalty and tradition.
- b. The glue that holds association B together is a commitment to innovation and development.
- c. The glue that holds association C together is formal rules and policies.
- d. The glue that holds association D together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment.

4. Institutional Emphases

- a. Association A emphasises human resources.
- b. Association B emphasises growth and acquiring new resources.
- c. Association C emphasises permanence and stability.
- d. Association D emphasises competitive actions and achievement.

---

NOTE: Letters A, B, C and D stand for arbitrary associations.

### ***Planning Framework***

This study examined the planning processes of three Western Australian sport associations using Chapman's (1992) planning processes. Chapman's (1992) planning framework is considered to be suitable for this study for at least two reasons: the model is specifically related to planning sport organisations, and it has strong applicability to Australian environment as it is supported by the Australian Sports Commission.

Chapman (1992) proposed three complementary planning stages for sport organisations. These three stages are not substitutable for one another, but address and emphasise different aspects of planning processes. While the first stage addresses establishing the foundation of the planning activities, the second stage deals with the structure of the development plan. The third stage focuses on development strategies to be considered. The list of questions in each stage was presented in Chapter 2.

### **Summary**

This study selected three Western Australian sport associations and placed its focus on the stakeholders of the organisations, which include professional employees, volunteers and members of the management board. The study examined the organisational culture of the selected sport organisation based on two instruments developed from the competing values framework, utilising the collected information and data. It also introduced the development plan and planning processes based on Chapman's planning processes framework. Upon examining the organisational culture and planning processes for each sport organisation, the study analysed the relationship between the two. The next chapter presents more detailed information on the research design and methods. It also discusses a variety of issues relevant to the administration of this study.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS**

#### **Introduction**

This study explored the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes in sport associations. The conceptual framework for this study delineated a foundation for analysing this relationship in sport organisations. In addition, this study investigated the demographic and organisational culture profiles of three Western Australian sport associations. This chapter introduces the research design, and discusses the administration of the research process. The research method and analyses adopted in this study are also discussed.

#### **Research Design**

##### ***Overview***

This study used two approaches to analyse the cultural characteristics and planning processes and to explore the relationship between them for selected sport associations. The two approaches included a self-administered questionnaire for workers and interviews with board members.

This study selected three Western Australian sport associations. The criteria and methods used to select the three associations are discussed in detail in following



sections. Two kinds of data and materials were collected from these associations and utilised for the analysis. These included interviews with the Boards of Management including CEOs and Presidents, and questionnaires for employees and volunteers in the sport associations. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses were used. While most questions in the interviews and questionnaire were about organisational culture and planning processes, other data, such as demographic profiles of respondents were also included.

### ***Study Population***

The study population comprised three Western Australian sport organisations selected from a pool of associations that accepted an invitation to participate in the study. These three organisations are well established and considered to be popularly accepted by people as shown by their respective history and the size of membership of registration.

The sport associations considered as candidates for this study satisfied the following selection criteria, and their characteristics are summarised in Table 2.

#### Selection criteria:

- relatively long history - longer than 25 years;
- the level of competition – at least national level;
- sufficient numbers of registered members – more than 4,000;
- sufficient numbers of employees – more than 15 paid employees;
- the duration of receiving funding from the State Government through DSR – at least five years, and;
- the number of the Board of Management under constitution – at least five.

Table 2. Potential sport associations and selection criteria

	<u>Three Organisations</u>			<u>Reserves</u>			
	1*	2*	3	4	5	6	7*
Est. of Association (in WA)	1946	1902	1906	1975	1921	1896	1924
Level of Competition							
National	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
International	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of Registered Members/Players <sup>1</sup>	30,700 (23%)	25,878 (4%)	31,520 (22%)	4,560 (128%)	21,236 (3%)	19,671 (20%)	30,435 (17%)
Gender <sup>2</sup>	M	M/F	M/F	M/F	M	M	F
SRWA (DSR) Funding For More Than 5 Years	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Board of Management under Constitution	9	9	6	6	9	7	7
Number of Employees <sup>3</sup>	300 (200)	16 (51)	490 (130)	16 (200)	16 (0)	100 (169)	16 (1000)
Type of Sport I	Court	Court	Field	Court	Field	Field	Court
Type of Sport II	Team	Indiv.	Team	Team	Indiv.	Team	Team

SOURCE: Sport Census of WA, 1996.

- NOTE: 1. These figures are for Western Australia only. The numbers in parentheses are the rate of increase from 1993 to 1996 census.
2. M/F for Gender means one association constitute both genders.
3. The numbers in the first row and parentheses are respectively the numbers of administrators (including full-time/part-time and casual) and officials. The numbers of administrators in Associations 1, 3 and 6 included volunteers as well, where the accurate numbers of paid workers were not available. For Association 7, the number of officials includes volunteer referees.
4. The number of the members of the Boards of Management are taken from respective organisation's constitution as at 2001.
5. Associations with asterisks (\*) were finally included for analysis.

The most current sport census published by DSR in Western Australia when this study commenced was the 1996 version. Therefore, most of the information used to select sport associations was based on details from the 1996 Census. This information was confirmed and updated by phone contact with each invited sport organisation. Efforts were made to include different types of sports, such as field/court and team/individual sports. However, a certain level of ambiguity still existed in selecting them. In case some unexpected difficulties were found in contacting and gaining involvement of the first choice sport organisations, three more organisations, which also fitted the selection criteria, were held as 'reserves'. For these reserves, different types of sports such as field/court and team/individual sports were also included as for the first three. All sports are shown in Table 2. For anonymity and convenience, these six sport organisations were labelled from Association 1 to 6, where 1, 2, and 3 were the first choice three organisations and 4, 5 and 6 were reserves.

The letter of invitation to participate in this study was posted to the Chief Executive Officers (CEO) of each of the sport associations 1, 2 and 3 (Appendix B) in March 2002. While Associations 1 and 2 accepted invitation, Association 3 declined. Accordingly, all the three associations listed as 'reserves' were contacted in turn. However, as none of the three reserves decided to participate in this study, the fourth reserve (Association 7), which was not originally listed as either first choices or reserves, was contacted. This association also matched the selection criteria.

When the CEO of this sport association accepted the invitation, the three associations – Associations 1, 2 and 7 – were finalised. These three associations were randomly labelled as Associations C, B and A. These labels were used throughout this study. The Association had long histories: Association 1 was the youngest, but still almost 60 years old. This indicates that all three associations had sufficiently long histories to establish reputation and systems. All of them had received SRWA (DSR) funding for more than five years and participated in national level competitions.

While all of the organisations maintained a large number of registered members, they were substantially different in terms of gender. Association 1 was for males only while Association 2 was for both males and females. Association 3 was for females only. They were similar in terms of type of sport as a result of this selection process: no field sport or individual sport was included.

### ***Instruments and Data Collection***

This study utilised two kinds of data: (1) responses to questionnaires, circulated to selected stakeholders (employees, board members, volunteers) of the three WA sport associations, and; (2) information from interviews with three people (CEOs, President, Board members, etc.) in each association. For Association A, two Board members (volunteers) and one Marketing Manager were interviewed, while for Association B, CEO, President and one Board member (volunteer) were interviewed. For Association C, CEO and two Board members (volunteers) were interviewed. The process of data collection was strengthened by using a comparative approach, drawing on two sources of data.

### ***Questionnaire***

The questionnaire consisted of five parts. Part I and Part II covered organisational culture, Part III included statements/questions about development plans and planning processes, and Part IV collected demographic profiles of the respondents. In Part V, the respondents could add their opinions about the culture and planning processes to open-ended questions. Questions regarding organisational culture were based on the competing value framework. The questions asking about the respondents' view of the planning processes of their organisation were based on Chapman (1992).

Part I asked about four organisational cultural values - institutional characteristics, leader, glue and institutional emphases - of organisational culture types for each association. This section of questionnaire was developed by Cameron (1978) and used by researchers, such as Quinn (1988), Cameron and Freeman (1991), Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), Yeung, Brockbank and Ulrich (1991), and Zammuto and Krakower (1991). It asked the respondents to allocate 100 points to statements that described organisational scenarios for the culture type of each attribute according to the strength that s/he perceived in the organisation. Therefore, scores allocated to each culture value could be expected to be highly correlated for each organisation.

Questions in Part II were based on Instrument II of Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). It contained 16 statements/questions altogether, where 4 statements/questions were relevant to each type of the four cultures. It used Likert-type (agree/disagree) scales for rating respondents' replies (from 1 to 7) to the statements. It was expected that respondents who strongly disagreed to the statement would choose '1', or if they strongly agreed to the statement then they would select '7'.

While both Instrument I and Instrument II were based on the competing values framework and contained the four statements/questions for each culture type, Instrument II is clearly different from Instrument I: Instrument I asked specifically about the four characteristics of culture; working place, institutional glue, leadership, and institutional emphasis, while the questions in Instrument II were mainly about institutional characteristics and working atmosphere, also reflective of organisational culture; human relations (group), relationship with environment (developmental), structure (hierarchical) and approach to planning and operation (rational).

These measures used in Instrument I have their own strength compared with Likert-type approach used in Instrument II. Therefore, the proper analysis and use of Instrument I and Instrument II was required to help obtain more reliable results and appropriate interpretation of them from two slightly different perspectives. The

structure of the questionnaire section used in Instrument I is proper as the ipsative measures maintain the quadrants' interdependence. Also, these measures create an exaggerated visualisation of cultural strength and weakness that is useful for understanding and describing the culture.

Nevertheless, this approach used in Instrument I also has weaknesses. As the measures are not independent of one another, Johnson, Wood and Blinkhorn (1988) argued that the correlations between the measures are spurious, meaning that the correlation coefficient does not accurately explain the true relationship. They also pointed out that reliabilities of these measures overestimate the actual reliability of the scales. Therefore, Instrument I may not be proper to be used for some quantitative analyses such as regression.

Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) argued that the Likert measures have a number of advantages including:

- (1) their suitability for factor analysis (which will be done in the following section) and regression (which will be done after factor analysis as discussed in Chapter 6), and
- (2) an ability to capture more realistic organisational culture description.

The analysis in this study took this difference into consideration. When the organisational cultural profiles were analysed, the two Instruments were used and the results were compared. These two methods are expected to provide similar results. However, due to the structure of the scoring system, Instrument I will show more sharp and extreme results, as assigning a high score to a cultural attribute necessarily means assigning a low score to the others. In quantitative analysis such as regression, only Instrument II was used, as suggested by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991).

Part III was about the plans and planning processes as suggested in Chapman's framework (1992), and also used a 7 point Likert-type scale. This part consisted of

four sections. The first section included ten general questions asking how the respondents perceived their associations' development plans and the planning processes. The second section had ten questions about general aspects of the development plans. The third section contained seven questions regarding the seven essential areas, and the last ten questions were about ten key result areas to be included in the development plans.

In order to consider all important variables that might shape and affect organisational culture and the planning processes of the associations, questions asking demographic and work-related characteristics of respondents including gender, experience (years in the organisation), volunteer/employment status were constructed in Part IV. This variety of demographic variables could provide a broad picture of the organisational structure and potentially affect the planning processes.

### *Interviews*

The same questions were used in the interview with board members to explore more in-depth information about culture and the planning processes of associations. It has been argued that quantitative analysis in organisation studies has its own limitations that may suggest considerably different conclusions depending on models, variables and analytical methods adopted (Slack, 1997). It is also argued that, due to the characteristics of quantitative data, it is difficult to unveil certain "deeper" aspects of organisational culture that can be found from qualitative analysis using in-depth and open-ended interviews or ethnographic observations (e.g., Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). Therefore, interviews and personal communications were designed to collect rich/thick data to supplement quantitative data. Matrices are used to collate these responses for comparison.

After the questionnaire and the interview questions were prepared, a pilot study was conducted with a sport organisation in Western Australia. The purpose and the effect of pre-test are described next.

### ***Pilot Study***

A pre-test was conducted before the questionnaire was distributed and the interviews were carried out. The purpose of the pilot study was to test the clarity of questions, instructions, wording and structure of the questionnaire and to estimate the time taken to complete the questionnaire.

The pilot test organisation was selected and board members and employees were asked to participate in the survey and interview. Thirteen employees and three board members agreed to participate. The average time they spent on answering the questions was no longer than thirty minutes. In interviews, it took about fifty minutes on average for the board members to complete the entire process. This was not considered a long period, because most of the questions contained in the questionnaire were crucial to the analysis. Several typographical errors and vague expressions were pointed out by the participants, and the questionnaire was accordingly revised. The final version of the questionnaire is included in Appendix B.

### ***Administration of Survey and Interview***

After alterations were made as a result of the pre-test, the questionnaire was distributed to the employees in the three WA sport associations. From discussion with the CEO of each association, it was concluded that it would be more effective to circulate the questionnaire directly to the potential respondents, rather than to post, and then ask them to leave the completed survey forms in the collection box at the association. The researcher encouraged them to make contact if they had any problem in filling out the questionnaire. For this purpose, on the cover page of the



questionnaire distributed to all the employees in each association, the researcher's address and contact number were provided.

A letter that explained the importance and significance of this survey and asked for their cooperation was attached (see Appendix A). The contact details of the supervisors of this study were also included in the letter, and the respondents were encouraged to contact either the researcher or the supervisors if they had questions. Association A was first contacted in July 2002, and Association B was contacted after the collection of the questionnaire from Association A was completed. For each association, about three weeks were given. After three weeks had passed, the researcher contacted the CEO and discussed whether additional time was needed. Depending on the return rate, this period was extended for seven to ten days. The last completed questionnaire was received in October 2002.

The qualitative phase reported in this study was conducted between August and October 2002. A snowball technique was used where the first person contacted (CEO or President) nominated others to be interviewed. In this way, three interviewees were selected for each sport. In other words, with recommendation from the CEO or President of each association, three people – CEO or President and two board members - from each association were selected and contacted for interview. Therefore, at least two volunteer workers were interviewed for each organisation. This snowball sampling technique is considered appropriate “when researchers are interested in an interconnected network of people or organisations” (Neuman, 2003, p. 214). Each interview was taped with the agreement of the participants using audiocassettes, and the researcher also made memos of key words and sentences. After the interview, the tapes were transcribed with the aid of a professional transcriber. Each interview took from 45 to 70 minutes.

The same questions as the questionnaire for survey were used in interviews. To conduct the interview more efficiently and accurately, the researcher distributed to

interviewees a document "Interview Guides" that explained the process of the interview and contained the questions to be asked. More detailed explanation regarding how to answer or summarise their opinions was also given orally during the interview to fit their replies in line with the competing values framework. For example, the first question asked, "how do you describe this sport organisation to someone who does not know anything about it?" Expecting a variety of different answers to this question, the interviewer also provided a follow-up question such as, "Is it very personal, dynamic, formalised or production oriented?" These four attributes can be related to group, developmental, hierarchical and rational culture, respectively in the competing values framework model. In case they perceived their association's cultural characteristics as mixed, an additional question was also given, which was, "If your association's orientation is mixed, what is the predominant characteristic?" The same method was used when the other three questions regarding leader, glue and institutional emphases were asked.

After the interview, a transcribed draft was sent to the interviewees inviting them to review or revise anything they had said. Six of the nine interviewees returned transcribed drafts with corrections and, after accommodating their comments, the final interview documents were prepared for analysis.

### ***Ethics and Confidentiality***

Prior to the commencement of this study, the proposal was approved by the Ethics Committee of Edith Cowan University.

The letter, "Statement of Disclosure," that ensured the respondents of the confidentiality of the responses was also included in the questionnaire (See Appendix C). All the relevant information regarding the research project, such as its purpose and expected output and benefits were included in the cover page of questionnaire.

The rights of the individual in understanding and participating in the project were also provided.

The strict confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of the responses were maintained throughout the study. After the completion of the study, all questionnaires and audiocassette tapes will be kept in a locked site for five years and then destroyed by incineration for strict confidentiality. Processed data (coded for the computer) and transcribed interview drafts will be stored for the further revision and analysis. These data have no trace of respondents' identities or the sport organisation to which they belonged.

### **Analysis of Data**

Figure 7 summarises the framework for empirical analyses carried out in this study. Two sets of data – the survey and the interviews – were analysed in several stages. The survey data were used to create profiles of demographic characteristics and organisational culture, and the plans and planning processes for each sport association. The effects of the demographic and organisational culture variables on the planning processes are discussed. While Figure 7 shows the analysis framework for one association, this analysis was done for the three WA sport associations, and cross-association comparisons were performed. The data analysis for the three selected organisations followed the process outlined in Figure 7.

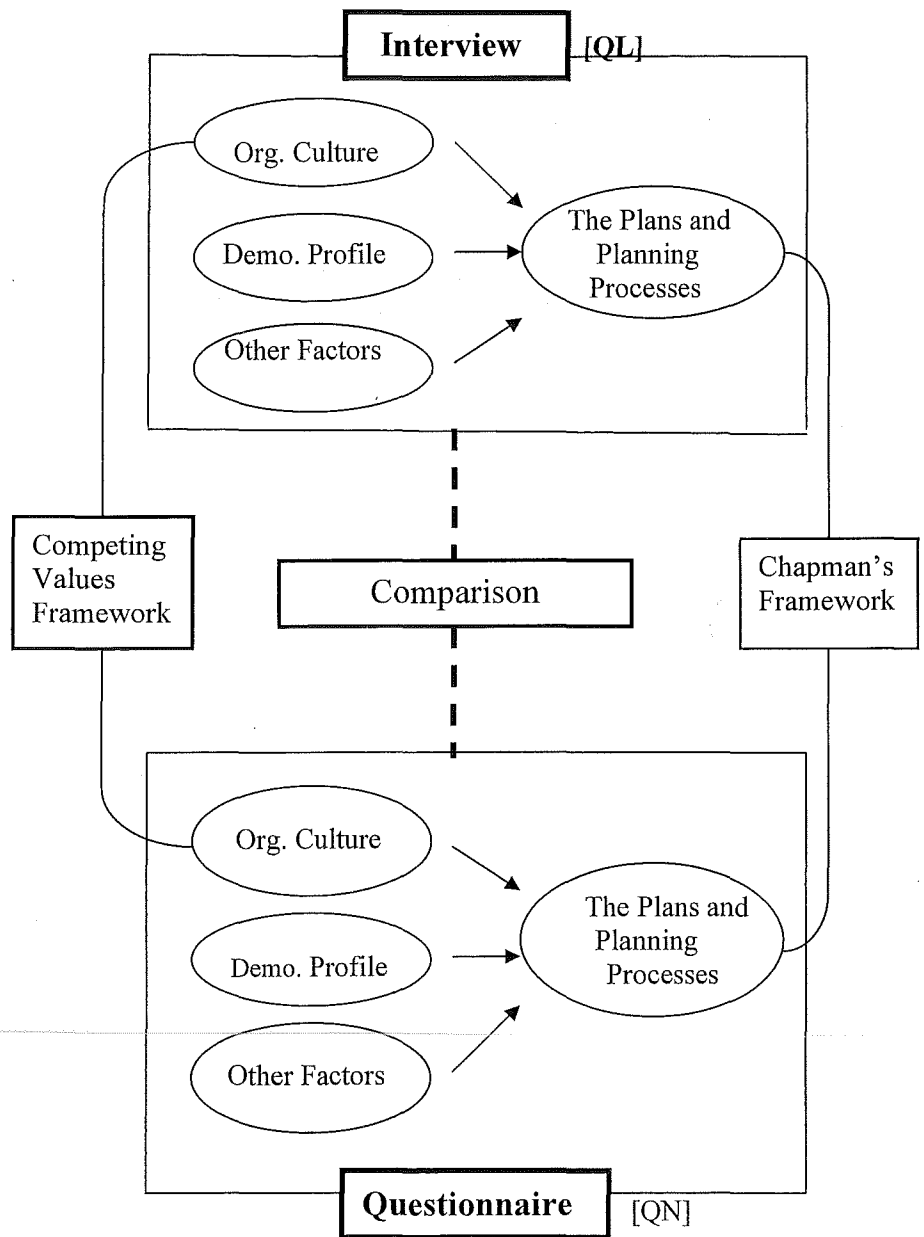


Figure 7. Summary of analyses of quantitative and qualitative data

NOTE: QL and QN in the brackets denote qualitative (QL) and quantitative (QN) methods.

### ***Quantitative Analysis Methods***

Responses to survey questionnaires were mainly analysed by quantitative methods. Quantitative methods were used to explore organisational culture, demographic profiles, development plans and their planning processes, and were very useful to complement the more qualitative methods traditionally applied to studies of organisational culture as discussed by Cameron and Freeman (1991), Colyer (1996, 2000), Denison and Spreitzer (1991) and Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). Quantitative analyses used are explained in the following paragraphs.

*Descriptive statistics* were adopted to compare demographic profiles, the perceived cultures and the planning processes of each organisation through means, ranges and variances, which were collected from the survey in the form of standard scores. These statistics provided the general information and shape of each organisation.

Cross-organisational comparison was based on *inferential statistics*: statistical significance of differences across organisations in terms of basic demographic, career-related variables and organisational culture profiles were compared. The main purpose of these analyses was to find whether each organisation had significantly different cultural characteristics. Data were also analysed to show whether each organisation had significantly different plans and planning processes. More specifically, *analysis of variance* or *regression analysis* was applied to find the effects of organisation-specific variables on organisational culture attributes, and the development planning processes. As the questionnaire contained a number of questions for each culture and the planning processes, reliability of the respondents' replies among different questions was estimated using Cronbach's alpha. In addition, factorising technique (principal component method) was used to reduce the number of variables, when regression was carried out. The ordinary least squares (OLS) method was initially used with the assumptions that the residuals satisfied classical

conditions to make the results reliable and valid. In case some problems were diagnosed from applying the OLS, the remedial methods such as the generalised least squares (GLS) method were sought. This regression analysis revealed which cultural, demographic or association specific variables affected the plans and planning processes as specified in Chapman's model.

These analyses were used to reveal differences in organisational culture, demographic characteristics, the plans and planning processes between different associations. The relationship between organisational culture and the plans/planning processes could be also examined utilising these methods. These quantitative analyses were appropriate in exploring *research questions 1, 2, and 3* that addressed each organisation's culture and planning processes profiles.

### ***Qualitative Analysis Methods***

This study also used data collected from interviews with CEOs and Board members in each association for qualitative analysis. In qualitative research, the sample is small, non-random and theoretically chosen, and the focus is on the "essence" of the phenomena. The objectives are primarily description, understanding and meaning. Thomas and Nelson (1990) compared quantitative and qualitative research and explained that the former is characterised by pre-conceived hypotheses while the latter strives to develop hypotheses from the observations. As qualitative research has different focus, philosophical roots, goals, designs sampling methods, data collection methods and mode of analysis from quantitative analysis, the two analysis methods can be good complements, and provide more comprehensive views on the issues under examination. While qualitative analysis can provide rich sources of information that are easily omitted in quantitative analysis, it is argued that researchers have not reached the consensus regarding the most appropriate analysis method (Neuman, 2003; Thomas & Nelson, 1990).

In the interviews, in order to explore each association's organisational culture, the association's plan and planning processes as perceived by their executive level workers, the responses to interview questions were analysed in the following manner.

### *Analysis of Interviews*

This study limited interviews to three representatives (i.e., CEO, President, and Board members) from each organisation to use an elementary triangulation method. The main purpose of the interviews was to confirm various aspects of organisational culture and development planning processes that might be overlooked and missing from the responses to questionnaires. For organisational culture, the questions to be asked included: how they felt about their associations; what were the association's unique characteristics, and how the organisation was different from others. Regarding the plans and planning process, the questions to be asked included: who initiated the planning process; who authorised plans; what outside agencies received copies of plans, and; how dependent the association was on these plans for government funding or other funding.

This qualitative analysis provided more information to meet *research questions 1* and *2*, as it supplemented quantitative analyses. *Research question 1* was to develop organisational cultural profiles of the participating sport associations using the competing values framework for organisational culture, which were adopted and applied in previous studies such as Quinn and Spreitzer (1991), Cameron and Freeman (1991), and Colyer (2000); *Research question 2* was to examine development planning processes for each participating sport association utilising various material collected, and taking into consideration guidelines published by the ASC (1990). This part of analysis was also relevant to *Research question 3* (to explore any relationship between organisational cultural profiles and development planning processes, using statistical analyses and qualitative measures) which was to

examine the development plans and planning processes. Neuman (2003, p. 145) suggested that qualitative analysis should start from conceptualisation of variables and framework before data collection or analysis, as shown in the previous section. According to Neuman (2003, p. 145), the next step is to analyse data by organising it into categories on the basis of themes. The questions asked during the interviews drew responses that were to some extent already categorised by themes and contents.

Two simultaneous activities, data reduction and analytic categorisation of data into themes, were carried out by coding the qualitative data, and converting the raw data into a manageable database. Each association's organisational culture and the development plan/planning processes, and then the analysis of the relationship between the result of interviews and development plans were conducted using qualitative methods. More particularly, a grounded data analysis and tabulation was used to reveal the influence on development plans of organisational culture and planning processes as perceived by executive officers and board members in each organisation. A grounded data analysis uses a systematic set of procedures to develop an inductively derived theory about a phenomenon (Neuman, 2003, p. 146). As a technique used for examining information in written or symbolic material using qualitative data, the analysis is similar to content analysis. However, instead of *counting* certain words or themes included in the interview, the *content* of the conversation (interview) was carefully explored, and the relevant parts were presented in tables. Neuman (2003) and Thomas and Nelson (1990) asserted that this technique lets a researcher discover features in the content of large amounts of material that might otherwise go unnoticed. Table 3 is an example of how the responses from each association were tabulated in relation to the question of monitoring and reviewing the implementation of the plan.



Table 3. Integrated tabulation of interviews – an example

Question	Association A	Association B	Association C
How do you monitor the implementation of the plan and how do you review it?	Frequent and regular meetings and reports	Plus emphasis on committee or working groups	Most frequently reviewed - two monthly
	Six monthly reviewed	Annually reviewed	

The next stage of analysis was to compare the results from each data set to obtain more rich and consistent information about the cultural profiles and planning processes. First of all, organisational culture perceived by CEO/President and Board members (mainly through interviews) and workers (mainly through survey) was examined, to reveal how similarly or dissimilarly they perceived the organisational culture. The same comparison was done for the plans and planning processes. Secondly, the results of the analysis of questionnaire and development plans were compared with those from the interviews. This analysis should reveal how organisational culture and planning processes perceived by employees in each organisation influence development plans finally produced. Thirdly, an integrated approach that compared the three associations' organisational culture, planning processes and their relationship was carried out using the two sets of data collected and analysed.

### *Limitations*

This study concentrated on three sport organisations in Western Australia. Therefore, the results may be limited in their application to other sport organisations in Australia, and internationally. However, the *methods* of analysis can be applied to the analysis of other sport associations at different levels.

The self-administrated instrument meant that there was no control over the responses of the respondents by the researcher. The research instruments may be influenced by the researcher as question sets were selected by the researcher, and in this regard, the study might have bias. Nevertheless, this bias will not be significant since all the questions used in this study were already accepted and used in previous studies. The study was neutral in the process and only those who responded to the instrument of inquiry were included in the analysis. In this regard, the respondents were self-selecting. While this self-selection may cause selectivity bias of the data collected, there is no realistic method to resolve this problem. While it may be a potential solution to enforce all the workers to participate in the survey and interviews, this may cause another problem of contaminating data with careless replies, that may add more serious “noise” or interference to the data.

The results obtained from this study might depend on the selection of specified research designs and data to be used. Confidentiality of documents or data, and reluctance of participants to reveal correct information would result in biased or incorrect outcome and conclusions. It was assumed that participants answered honestly.

### ***Delimitations***

This study also had delimitations that were a result of the research design and administration:

1. *purposive sampling of three sport associations that met selection criteria:* all three sport associations are well-established with a long history, a large number of members, and successful awarding of government funding. These features may have created different cultures or planning processes from other sport associations that are not so well established.

2. *purposive selection of interviewees and interview questions*: interviewees were selected considering the CEOs' suggestion, and questions were adopted and then modified from previous studies. This may have caused the collected data to be different from the accurate views generally held in the associations.
3. *purposely designed survey questions to reveal organisational culture*: the respondents were expected to answer the questions presented in the questionnaire, which may have made it difficult for them to express opinions about the issues not mentioned in the questionnaire.
4. *the timing of survey*: the views and opinions expressed by the participants and the result of the survey were necessarily constrained by its timing of survey, which was 2002, and may only be applicable to the associations at that period.

### ***Assumptions***

As it is not possible to accurately confirm the validity of data collected, all the responses are treated and processed with the assumption that respondents answered as honestly and as accurately as they could. It was also assumed that, while the respondents were self-selecting, they were representative of their organisation. That is, those who were in the same association but did not participate in the survey or interviews would have probably shared the same opinions.

### **Summary**

This chapter discussed the research design of the present study. Based on the conceptual framework that was introduced for the organisational culture and development plan/planning process of sport associations in Chapter 3, this chapter described how the data utilised in this study were collected, how the research process

was administered, and the methods adopted to analyse the collected data. Potential limitations and assumptions made regarding this study were also introduced in this chapter. Using the methods introduced, the following three chapters report cultural and demographic profiles of the three WA sport associations, and Chapter 8 examines the development and planning processes of each association. Chapter 9 uses regression methods and estimates the relationship between the demographic profiles, organisational culture profiles and planning processes. Qualitative analysis is used in Chapter 10, and the results are compared with those from quantitative analyses.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF THREE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter presents data collected from survey completed by both paid and volunteer workers from the three selected sport associations, and describes their demographic profiles. In this chapter, the demographic profiles of each association are provided through descriptive statistics, and then more rigorous analyses are used to show the differences between the three associations.

#### **Response Rate**

The number of questionnaires returned from each of the two associations A and B was 14 and 11, respectively. The return rate was about 88 percent for Association A and 70 percent for Association B, which was accepted as substantially high. In the 1996 Census, the number of employees in Association C was reported as 300, which was not reliable. Considering the size of the association (the number of registered players, the number of board members, funding, etc.), the number of employees in this association would have been similar to that in Associations A and B. While 20 questionnaires were delivered to Association C, 14 questionnaires were collected. All of these questionnaires collected were usable for the purpose of this study. Table 4 summarises the response rates.

Table 4. Responses by association type and position

Association	Number of workers	Number of responses	Return rate (%)
Sport A	16	14	88%
Sport B	16	11	70%
Sport C	300?(20)	14	70%

NOTE: The numbers in the parentheses indicate that 20 questionnaires were provided, and 70% of those distributed were returned.

## Demographic Profiles

### *Demographic Profiles of the Three Associations*

This section analyses the demographic characteristics of the respondents collected from the questionnaire, and compares them across the associations. Part IV of the questionnaire included seven questions related to demographic profiles and careers of the respondents, as shown in Table 5 and Appendix B. The resulting profiles provide an understanding of demographic characteristics of the respondents in each sport association. Table 5 summarises the descriptive statistics of demographic profiles of the three sport associations.

From the information provided in Table 5, it was found that the average worker of the three associations was 39.5 years old, more likely female (with a 62% chance), working in the profession for 15.4 years and in the sport association for 10.1 years. The person was more likely a paid worker (with a 72% chance), and a full time worker (with a 56% chance). S/he completed about 13.5 years of education. The questionnaire was distributed to workers in each association regardless of their employment status, with the number of volunteers in each association not exact. Therefore, the information relating to the average worker in the associations does not reflect the exact profile of the workers and includes those who did not respond.

Nevertheless, some interesting views of sport association workers are expected to be gained. Due to the same reason, while the portion of paid workers was 72% of the total number of respondents, this figure does not provide any information about the ratio between paid workers and volunteers in each association or the return rate of the questionnaire for each group of workers.

Table 5 provides some general demographic features for these three sport associations in Western Australia. First, the age of respondent ranges very widely; while the youngest person was 19 years old, the eldest was 75 years old. Standard deviation of 15.4 implied that about 68% of the respondents were within the age group of 24-55 (with a mean of 39.5), or about 32% of the workers were either very young (younger than 24 years) or seniors (older than 55), if their ages were normally distributed.

Secondly, this wide range was also observed in their careers in this profession and in the current associations. The duration of work experience in this profession and in the sport association respectively ranged from 2 to 60 years and 1 to 60 years. These two variables had relatively large standard deviations, which indicated that the respondents had widespread experiences.

Thirdly, the duration of education ranged from 10 years to 17 years in education. While the mean education duration was 13.5 years, standard deviation was only 1.83 years, showing a very high concentration around the mean. This finding implies that most respondents graduated from high school, or held tertiary degrees. In fact, 12 workers replied that the duration of education was equal to 12 years and 23 workers replied that the duration was longer than that. In addition, 16 workers had the level of education equal to or longer than 15 years, implying that they held qualifications for education beyond high school. Workers in Association B had the longest duration of education (14.4 years) with a very low level of standard deviation (1.35 years), implying that most workers shared similar level of education. Workers in Association A had 13.4 years of average education and those in Association C had 12.9 years of

education. For both Associations A and C, similar to Association A, standard deviation is small.

More specific demographic and professional characteristics of workers in each sport association are also presented in Table 5. If we consider only the mean of variables, it was found that the respondents in Association B were the oldest, and those in Association C the youngest, although the difference was very small. It is noteworthy that the composition of 'gender' for the three sport associations seemed substantially heterogeneous. While Association A had the largest portion of female workers (93%), Association B had relatively more male (64%). Gender composition in Association C was equal.

Figures for the duration of employment in the profession and current association showed an interesting phenomenon. While the respondents in Association B on average had the shortest duration in the profession, those in Association A had the shortest duration of employment in the association. The respondents in Association C had the longest duration of work in both the profession and in the current association. Overall, the respondents from all three associations had more than 13 years of experience in the profession on average. It seems that most of them had served in the current association for more than a half of their work careers.

For employment status, while Associations A and C shared similar characteristics, Association B was different from the other two. The significance of this difference will be presented after the ANOVA is performed. Both Associations A and C had a relatively large number of paid workers (86% and 79%, respectively), while Association B had a moderately large number of volunteers (45%). While Associations A and C had relatively more full-time workers (64% each), Association B had relatively more part-time workers (64%).



Table 5. Demographic characteristics of the respondents in three associations  
(N=14 for Associations A and C, and N=11 for Association B)

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Dev.
Age	19	75	39.5	15.4
Assoc. A	21	55	38.9	11.5
Assoc. B	22	63	41.6	15.0
Assoc. C	19	75	38.6	19.5
Duration of Work in the Profession (years)	2	60	15.4	13.9
Assoc. A	3	40	14.5	12.2
Assoc. B	2	43	13.8	13.5
Assoc. C	2	60	17.6	16.7
Duration of Work in the Organisation (years)	1	60	10.1	12.8
Assoc. A	1	40	9.0	1.5
Assoc. B	1	36	10.4	12.0
Assoc. C	1	60	11.1	16.5
Education (years)	10	17	13.5	1.83
Assoc. A	11	17	13.4	2.14
Assoc. B	12	16	14.4	1.35
Assoc. C	10	15	12.9	1.66

Gender	Male		Female	
	N	percent	N	percent
Assoc. A	1	7	13	93
Assoc. B	7	64	4	36
Assoc. C	7	50	7	50
Total	15	38	24	62

Employment Status 1	Volunteer		Paid	
	N	percent	N	percent
Assoc. A	2	14	12	86
Assoc. B	5	45	6	55
Assoc. C	3	21	11	79
Total	11	28	28	72

Employment Status 2	Full Time		Part Time	
	N	percent	N	percent
Assoc. A	9	64	5	36
Assoc. B	4	36	7	64
Assoc. C	9	64	5	36
Total	22	56	17	44

It would be meaningful to investigate the workers' period of employment by employment distinction. Table 6 shows the duration of work by the two groups of workers, volunteers and paid workers, in the profession and each association. As expected, volunteers had the longest duration of "work," both in the profession and association, than paid workers.

Volunteers in Association C had the longest period of working experience, as long as 33.7 years, which may explain why workers in that association in general, had the longest duration of experience in the profession. However, the data sometimes showed strange figures. The average duration of working in the association is found to be longer than that in the profession for Associations B and C. Looking into the data indicates that one respondent in Association B answered that she/he worked in the profession for 5 years while she/he worked in the association for 30 years. In Association C, one respondent replied that she/he worked in the profession for 40 years, while she/he worked in the association for 60 years. It is not reasonable that they worked for more years in an association than in the profession. They might have misunderstood "profession" as their current "position." It should be noted that one could be with an association and then receive paid work. In this case, she/he would classify himself/herself as "paid."

Table 6. Length of employment for volunteers and paid workers

Association	Type of workers	Duration in Profession	Duration in the assoc.
A (N=14)	Volunteer	22.5 years	8.5 years
	Paid	16.3	6.0
B (N=11)	Volunteer	18.0 (21.3)	18.4 (15.5)
	Paid	10.3	3.7
C (N=14)	Volunteer	33 (29.5)	33.7 (15.5)
	Paid	13.5	5.8

Assuming that they somehow misunderstood and replied incorrectly to the questions, the duration figures were recalculated, excluding such observations. The results are reported in the parentheses. In this case, volunteers in Association C still demonstrated the longest duration in both the profession and association, however, the differences are now narrower. Paid workers in Association A showed the longest service duration in both the profession and the association, while those in Association B had the shortest duration. Overall, respondents showed from 10-22 years experience in the sport management as a volunteer or paid employee.

In the following part, analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to investigate more rigorously how the workers in these three sport associations shared similar and different demographic and professional characteristics.

### ***Similarities and Differences in Demographic Profiles of the Three Associations***

This section explored the similarities/differences between the three sport associations in demographic and professional profiles.

As well known, the ANOVA considers each sample's mean and standard deviation, and provides statistical information on whether the samples (and populations, with statistical inference) could be regarded as sharing the same mean. It is also useful to investigate the variance of each item (question) for the three organisations and find whether they shared the same variance. It also explains the degree of the spread of variables for each association. If the mean is added to this information (variance), the overall distribution of responses for each association can be shown.

The null hypothesis to be tested was

$$H_0: \sigma_A^2 = \sigma_B^2 = \sigma_C^2,$$

where  $\sigma_i^2$  denotes a variation of the observations for organisation  $i$  ( $i=A, B, C$ ). Therefore, if the hypothesis is rejected, it does not necessarily imply that all three variances are statistically different. It explains that at least two organisations have different variances for a given item. Levine-statistics was used, and the results are reported in Table 7.<sup>1</sup> This test was not carried out for the variables such as gender, job1 and job2, as they are binomial variables, and the method is not applicable.

The hypothesis was rejected at the 1% level of significance ( $p \leq .01$ ) for gender and at the 5% level of significance ( $p \leq .05$ ) for age, employment status 1 (employed/volunteer) and the level of education. However, the null hypothesis of the homogeneous variances was not rejected for duration of work in the profession and organisation, and employment status 2 (full time/part time). Consequently, it is concluded that distributions of age, gender, employment status 1 and the level of education are substantially different across different organisations.

Table 7. Test of homogeneity of variance (Levine statistics) for demographic profiles

Variables	Levine statistics	Significance
Age	4.24	0.02
Duration of Work in the Profession (years)	1.61	0.22
Duration of Work in the Organisation (years)	0.50	0.61
Education	4.45	0.02

<sup>1</sup> The statistics for gender and job status should be interpreted with care as they are categorical and binomial (0 or 1).

Further analysis to evaluate whether the three organisations are statistically homogeneous in terms of demographic profiles is carried out using ANOVA, the results summarised in Table 8. Due to the difference in the number of observations of each sport organisation and variances between associations, the Scheffe method of ANOVA was used for this analysis (Kleinbaum, Kupper & Muller, 1988).<sup>2</sup>

Table 8. Analysis of variance for demographic characteristics – Three sport associations

		Sum of Sq.	d.f.	Mean	F-stat.	Sig.
Age	Between	63.87	2			
	Within	8907.87	36	31.94	0.13	0.88
	Total	8971.74	38	247.44		
Gender	Between	2.26	2			
	Within	6.97	36	1.13	5.83	0.01
	Total	9.23	38	0.19		
Career 1	Between	111.81	2			
	Within	7394.13	36	55.90	0.27	0.76
	Total	7505.94	38	205.39		
Career 2	Between	30.98	2			
	Within	6418.38	36	15.49	0.09	0.92
	Total	6449.36	38	178.29		
Job Status 1	Between	0.54	2			
	Within	6.89	36	0.27	1.40	0.26
	Total	7.43	38	0.19		
Job Status 2	Between	0.62	2			
	Within	8.47	36	0.31	1.31	0.28
	Total	9.09	38	0.24		
Education	Between	12.60	2			
	Within	104.40	36	6.30	1.99	0.15
	Total	117.00	38	3.16		

<sup>2</sup> As the variables gender, job status 1 and job status 2 are categorical, conventional interpretation of ANOVA may not be applied. However, the results are included as it was considered to be worthwhile to have an overview of similarities and differences between the sport associations.

The results indicate that while there is no statistical evidence to judge that the mean of each item for the three sport associations are not the same for most items, there is statistical evidence that they are different between genders. It was already observed in Table 5 that there were relatively large variations in the mean between genders for each sport associations.

As discussed in the case of homogeneity of variances test, this F-test in the ANOVA tests the joint hypothesis that the means for all the three sport organisations are the same. Accordingly, it is not clear how many of the three pair-wise equality hypotheses are rejected. Post-hoc analysis for multiple comparisons provides answers to this query.

Table 9 suggests that the null hypothesis for equal means of gender for different sport organisations is rejected since the means are statistically different for organisations A and B, and A and C. It also reports that there is no statistical difference between the gender mean (or gender composition) between sport organisations B and C. As Table 5 reports, females substantially outnumbered males in organisation A, which results in this statistical inference. The difference between A and B is more prominent than that between A and C, as the former is significant at the 1% level, while the latter is at the 5% level. These demographic similarities and differences may affect the formation of the workers' perception of the organisational culture, or the planning process in each association.

As reported in Tables 5 to 8 and discussed in relevant parts, the three associations showed different means for demographic profiles other than gender. However, the difference was not statistically significant. This result indicates that it is not appropriate to differentiate the associations by other demographic profiles.

Table 9. Multiple comparisons of ANOVA – Three sport associations

Dependent Variables	Pairwise Comparison		Pair Difference	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence	
						Lower	Upper
Age	A	B	-2.69	6.338	0.914	-18.87	13.49
	A	C	0.29	5.945	0.999	-14.89	15.47
	B	C	2.97	6.338	0.896	-13.21	19.16
Gender	A	B	0.56*	0.177	0.011	0.11	1.02
	A	C	0.43*	0.166	0.048	0.00	0.85
	B	C	-0.14	0.177	0.746	-0.59	0.32
Career 1	A	B	0.69	5.774	0.993	-14.05	15.43
	A	C	-3.18	5.417	0.843	-17.01	10.65
	B	C	-3.87	5.774	0.800	-18.61	10.87
Career 2	A	B	-1.34	5.380	0.969	-15.08	12.39
	A	C	-2.08	5.047	0.919	-14.96	10.81
	B	C	-0.73	5.380	0.991	-14.47	13.00
Job status 1	A	B	0.28	0.176	0.305	-0.17	0.73
	A	C	0.00	0.165	1.000	-0.39	0.46
	B	C	-0.24	0.176	0.404	-0.69	0.21
Job status 2	A	B	-0.28	0.195	0.371	-0.78	0.22
	A	C	0.00	0.183	1.000	-0.47	0.47
	B	C	0.28	0.195	0.371	-0.22	0.78
Education	A	B	-1.02	0.748	0.408	-2.933	0.902
	A	C	0.46	0.698	0.805	-1.327	2.250
	B	C	1.48	0.748	0.159	-0.441	3.395

## Summary

This chapter reviewed the demographic characteristics of the three sport associations in Western Australia. While the demographic profiles of the three sport organisations were not statistically different in general, gender compositions between organisations were significantly different. Association A had significantly more females than

Associations B and C, however the difference between Association B and C was not significant. The following chapter will investigate each sport organisation's cultural profiles. Those results will be used together with the results obtained in this chapter, to analyse their effects on development planning process.



## **CHAPTER 6**

### **ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF THREE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS – RESULTS OF ANALYSES BASED ON INSTRUMENT I**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter discusses the analyses of organisational culture in the three sport associations using the data obtained from Part I of the questionnaire, which was known as Instrument I. The analysis of organisational culture is important in at least two aspects. First, it contributes to understanding the associations better. Second, these analyses explore the values held by each sport association, which may have an influence on their planning process. The organisational culture profile of each sport association is also discussed.

#### **Organisational Cultural Profiles of Associations**

##### ***Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association A***

Table 10 summarises descriptive statistics of the organisational cultural profiles for Association A collected in Part I of the questionnaire, and contains questions from Instrument I. Four types of statistics are provided in Table 10: minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation. If a respondent perceived that her/his organisation had four different kinds of cultural aspects, evenly weighted, she/he was supposed to allocate 25 points to each description. Accordingly, the score 25 is accepted for a balanced cultural profile and as a threshold regardless of whether a specific cultural

attribute is relatively strong or weak in that association (Cameron, 1978; Cameron & Freeman, 1988).

One of the most prominent findings in Table 10 is a big difference between the minimum and maximum scores for the same descriptions across respondents. For example, the gap between the two extreme scores was sometimes as high as 90. The minimum score that the description of group culture characteristic received was 10 while the maximum score it received was 100.

Table 10. Descriptive statistics for organisational culture – Instrument I for Association A

Culture Scale	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
<b>Group Culture (mean = 30.0)</b>				
Working place: A very personal place, like an extended family	10	100	38.9	25.2
Leader: A mentor or sage	0	45	13.2	13.4
Institutional glue: Loyalty and tradition	0	80	42.9	23.6
Institutional emphases: Human resources	0	70	25.0	16.9
<b>Developmental Culture (mean = 22.2)</b>				
Working place: A very dynamic and entrepreneurial place	0	50	24.6	13.2
Leader: An innovator or risk taker	0	60	26.8	21.1
Institutional glue: A commitment to innovation and development	0	80	16.8	19.9
Institutional emphases: Growing and acquiring new resources	10	60	20.4	14.7
<b>Hierarchical Culture (mean = 26.4)</b>				
Working place: A very formalized and structured place	0	50	20.0	14.5
Leader: A coordinator or an organiser	10	80	40.4	27.3
Institutional glue: The formal rules and policies	0	70	23.6	19.2
Institutional emphases: Permanence and stability	0	70	21.8	19.2
<b>Rational Culture (mean = 21.4)</b>				
Working place: A very production oriented place	0	40	16.4	12.8
Leader: A producer or a technician	0	50	19.6	14.6
Institutional glue: Tasks and goal accomplishment	0	40	16.8	10.9
Institutional emphases: Competitive actions and achievement	10	90	32.9	24.4

NOTE: This table is reconstructed from Part I of the questionnaire. S.D. stands for standard deviation. The numbers in parentheses are total mean for each culture.

It is worth noting that even in the same association, workers do not perceive the cultural profile of their association equally. Subsequently, any interpretation of the statistical results should bear in mind this wide discrepancy of responses, and identify the potential difference between 'average' figures and individual perception. This is one of the reasons why standard deviation or variance of variables as well as the mean should be interpreted carefully.

Analysing Instrument I shows that no single organisational culture type dominates in Association A. That is, a congruent culture quadrant is not found according to Cameron and Freeman's (1991) definition of cultural strength. When the average score was computed for each culture from the four quadrants respectively, group culture received the highest scores for a friendly and personal working place (38.9), with loyalty and tradition as the instrumental glue (42.9). Hierarchical culture received the highest score for the leader type as an organiser and coordinator (40.4), and rational culture received a high score for institutional emphases on competitive actions and achievement (32.9). The fact that attributes of Association A had different types of organisational culture indicates that the association might experience tension between different cultures.

According to Cameron and Freeman (1991), the strength of a culture could be defined only when the organisation has a congruent culture. They defined a culture as strong when the culture was congruent and the mean score was higher than 50.

Overall, the average scores for institutional characteristics, leader, institutional glue and institutional emphases for each type resulted in group culture obtaining the highest scores (30) and hierarchical the second highest (26.4), as shown in Table 10. Developmental (22.2) and rational cultures (21.4) received relatively low scores. While the organisation had relatively balanced culture types overall, its respondents

identified a more dominant group culture where internal maintenance was emphasised.

A closer examination of the components of each cultural type reveals that as a working place it showed to be highly personal, as an extended family would, and institutional bonding was loyalty and tradition. Its institutional emphasis was based on both competitive actions and achievement. However, the type of leader as a mentor was very weak, where in contrast the leader of the association was perceived to be more of a coordinator or organiser.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the leader type does not fit the dominant cultural attributes identified by respondents. Its institutional glue is based on loyalty and tradition with an equal emphasis on innovation and development – suggesting an interesting tension between these two dimensions.

### ***Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association B***

Descriptive statistics for organisational culture of Association B are summarised in Table 11 based on 11 responses to Part I of the questionnaire, Instrument I.

Similarly to Association A, Association B also showed a big difference between minimum and maximum scores for the same descriptions across respondents. For example, the minimum score that the description of group culture characteristic (working place) received was 0 while the maximum score it received was 100.

This organisation has a relatively balanced culture profile, while more emphasis is on group culture, as shown from relatively high maximum and mean scores for each attribute belonging to group culture. A congruent culture is not found in this association, although group culture characteristics received very high scores for all attributes. For example, group culture received the highest score for a friendly and

personal working place (43.6) and institutional emphases on human resources (28.6). However, in the case of institutional emphases, the score for group culture was only marginally higher than that for the others. For example, the score for hierarchical culture was 26.4. For the leader style, hierarchical culture received the highest score (32.7) as a coordinator or organiser, which was closely followed by group culture (31.8) where the leader was a mentor or sage. For the institutional glue, rational culture (39.6) with tasks and goal accomplishment received the highest score.

Table 11. Descriptive statistics for organisational culture – Instrument I for Association B

Culture Scale	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
<b>Group Culture (mean = 32.7)</b>				
Working place: A very personal place, like an extended family	0	100	43.6	29.4
Leader: A mentor or sage	0	70	31.8	23.6
Institutional glue: Loyalty and tradition	0	70	36.8	19.5
Institutional emphases: Human resources	0	60	28.6	18.9
<b>Developmental Culture (mean = 21.6)</b>				
Working place: A very dynamic and entrepreneurial place	0	60	31.4	18.5
Leader: An innovator or risk taker	0	60	20.0	20.0
Institutional glue: A commitment to innovation and development	0	40	13.6	13.4
Institutional emphases: Growing and acquiring new resources	0	40	21.4	14.0
<b>Hierarchical Culture (mean = 23.2)</b>				
Working place: A very formalized and structured place	0	60	13.6	18.6
Leader: A coordinator or an organiser	10	60	32.7	19.0
Institutional glue: The formal rules and policies	0	50	20.0	14.0
Institutional emphases: Permanence and stability	0	60	26.4	19.9
<b>Rational Culture (mean = 23.0)</b>				
Working place: A very production oriented place	0	40	11.4	14.2
Leader: A producer or a technician	0	50	15.5	16.3
Institutional glue: Tasks and goal accomplishment	0	60	39.6	19.8
Institutional emphases: Competitive actions and achievement	0	80	25.5	20.9

NOTE: This table is reconstructed from Part I of the questionnaire. S.D. stands for standard deviation. The numbers in parentheses are total mean for each culture.

To explain the cultural profile of this association based on the distribution of scores for each attribute, the workplace was highly personal, and comparable to an extended family. The leader type was perceived to be a coordinator or organiser, and also a mentor or sage. The institutional bonding was tasks and goal accomplishment, where loyalty and tradition were also perceived as important glue. The strongest institutional emphasis was on human resources. However, emphases of rational culture (competitive actions and achievement) and hierarchical culture (permanence and stability) also received similar scores.

Overall, it may be concluded that Association B had a mixed organisational cultural profile, where different cultures received the highest scores for each attributes. As a congruent culture was not found, the strength of a specific culture cannot be discovered. However, while tensions are found between different types of organisational culture, group cultural values, in general, received high scores indicating that the culture was dominant in this association.

### ***Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association C***

Table 12 summarises the descriptive statistics of cultural profiles for Association C. Workers in Association C reported a congruent group culture response for their organisation, assigning group cultural values the highest mean scores for all the attributes. By definition, a culture type is congruent when it receives the highest scores for all the attributes. On average, all the other cultural types received much lower scores except a leader of hierarchical culture type. Therefore this association is the only association to show a congruent culture among the three associations observed in this study.

Table 12. Descriptive statistics for organisational culture – Instrument I for Association C

Culture Scale	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
<b>Group Culture (mean = 48.2)</b>				
Working place: A very personal place, like an extended family	0	80	48.2	30.0
Leader: A mentor or sage	0	80	43.6	33.8
Institutional glue: Loyalty and tradition	0	80	56.4	25.1
Institutional emphases: Human resources	0	80	42.9	29.1
<b>Developmental Culture (mean = 14.2)</b>				
Working place: A very dynamic and entrepreneurial place	5	70	20.0	17.0
Leader: An innovator or risk taker	0	20	8.9	7.4
Institutional glue: A commitment to innovation and development	0	20	10.1	6.9
Institutional emphases: Growing and acquiring new resources	0	40	17.9	10.3
<b>Hierarchical Culture (mean = 24.1)</b>				
Working place: A very formalized and structured place	0	60	15.7	14.9
Leader: A coordinator or an organiser	10	100	41.4	35.3
Institutional glue: The formal rules and policies	0	60	13.9	15.7
Institutional emphases: Permanence and stability	0	70	25.4	20.2
<b>Rational Culture (mean = 13.7)</b>				
Working place: A very production oriented place	0	40	16.1	13.6
Leader: A producer or a technician	0	30	6.1	9.2
Institutional glue: Tasks and goal accomplishment	0	100	19.5	24.4
Institutional emphases: Competitive actions and achievement	0	40	13.2	11.0

NOTE: This table is reconstructed from Part I of the questionnaire. S.D. stands for standard deviation. The numbers in parentheses are total mean for each culture.

As this association had group culture as a congruent culture and an emphasis on hierarchical cultural value, it can be found that the association maintained internal focus.

While group cultural values demonstrated relatively high average scores for all attributes, the overall mean (48.2) was less than 50. For attributes, only institutional glue (56.4) recorded the mean score higher than 50, and could be classified to be

strong according to Cameron and Freeman (1991). Nevertheless, it should be concluded that this association had a congruent group culture, as group cultural values received the highest scores for all attributes, and the other three attributes showed mean scores lower than 50.

### ***Reliability of the Response for Organisational Culture – Instrument I***

From the response to Instrument I, scales of each of the four organisational culture quadrants in the competing values model were created. Each scale was comprised of four organisational culture type measures. This section computed Cronbach's alphas (Cronbach, 1951) for the four organisational cultures, utilising the data from the three associations, and then compared them with those computed by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). The reliability measured by Cronbach alpha is presented in Table 13.

The reliability varied substantially across different associations and cultures in the case of Instrument I. The reliability for group culture and hierarchical culture was the highest in Association C, and that for developmental culture and rational culture was the highest in Association B. Association A in general had the lowest Cronbach's alpha.

Table 13. Comparison of reliability – Instrument I

	A	B	C	T	Q
G1	0.11	0.43	0.91	0.75	0.74
D1	-0.03	0.80	0.16	0.50	0.79
H1	-0.06	0.12	0.70	0.43	0.73
R1	0.43	0.75	0.68	0.60	0.71

NOTE: G, D, H, R denote group, developmental, hierarchical and rational cultures, respectively.

A, B and C stand for sport associations A, B and C.

T is for the entire observations from the three associations in this study.

Q stands for Quinn and Spreitzer (1991)



The reliability of responses obtained from each individual association in this study was at times comparable to those from Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) on Instrument I: D1 and R1 for Association B, and G1, H1 and R1 for Association C. In other cases, the figures were substantially lower. While Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) reported reliability measures across different cultures relatively stable, reliability measures found in the present study fluctuated. It does not substantially stabilise when reliability was computed for the entire population instead of each association. This may be reflective of the different nature of Australian sport organisations, whose members do not perceive the cultural items in the same manner as the non-sport USA organisation members, on whose scores these scales were first developed. Alternatively, the fluctuation may be caused by the unreliable nature of instrument I, as indicated by previous literatures such as Johnson, Wood and Blinkhorn (1988). Cronbach's alphas for the entire sample (from the three associations) were, in general, more comparable to those obtained by Quinn and Spreitzer (1991).

It is noteworthy that in the case of entire sample, the reliability coefficients for developmental culture and hierarchical culture were relatively lower than those in Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). Instead, reliability for group culture for the Australian sport associations was higher, which might indicate the different characteristics of Australian sport associations from non-Australian non-sport associations.

This finding has strong implications for the further quantitative analyses of the data in this study. One of the purposes to check for reliability is to investigate internal consistency of the data, to explore the possibility of reducing the number of explanatory variables when the relationship between organisational culture and development planning process is examined. This lack of consistency or reliability may incur problems in reducing the number of variables (using factorising method), which raises a concern whether it can be used in further quantitative analyses.

In addition, if the responses collected from Instrument I for each association is used in the further analyses of organisational culture, such as regression analysis, a very low reliability for Association A would be problematic. For the other two associations B and C, the reliability was better, however, it fluctuated substantially across organisational culture types. In contrast to the reliability for each association, the reliability for the entire sample (the fifth column or column T in Table 13) was rather stable. As a result, it is considered to be more sensible to use the entire sample (in other words, to increase the total number of observations in the analyses), or an even safer method is not to rely on Instrument I, when analysing the relationship between cultures and planning processes in following chapters. This is consistent with previous studies arguing that Instrument I is not appropriate to be used for further quantitative analysis as the statistical relationship may be spurious.

## **Organisational Cultural Profiles - Comparisons**

### ***Organisational Culture for the Three Associations***

Instrument I has its own merits as a means to understand the organisation's cultural characteristics. In this part, the three associations' cultural profiles are analysed by investigating scores of the attributes of each culture received from the survey. In Instrument I, the respondents were supposed to allocate 100 points to four types of culture for each attribute; institutional characteristics, leadership, organisational glue and organisational emphases.

These scores which were distributed to the same culture type for different attributes for the organisation were aggregated and then standardised to make comparison of

cultural dominance.<sup>1</sup> The scores were standardised, and the range [mean  $\pm$  0.5] is used to identify the level of cultural dominance as the following:

Average standardised score < - 0.5:	weak
- 0.5 < Average standardised score < 0:	moderately weak
0 < Average standardised score < 0.5:	moderately dominant
0.5 < Average standardised score:	dominant.

Table 14 summarises standardised scores for cultural profiles of the three sport associations. As shown, only group culture received positive scores for the three associations. In particular, Association C had dominant group culture, while it was moderately dominant for Associations A and B. This result was to some extent expected as Association C was the only organisation with congruent group culture, where the mean scores for each attributes were, in general, considerably high. Group culture was moderately dominant for Associations A and B, and dominant for Association C. Developmental culture appeared to be moderately weak for all three associations. The average standardised score for hierarchical culture was very close to zero for the three associations, where the sign was positive (moderately dominant) for Association A and negative (moderately weak for Associations B and C). Rational culture appeared to be moderately weak for all three associations.

In general, group culture appeared to be dominant while development and rational cultures appeared to be weak. This may affect the result of further analyses in this study, as developmental and rational cultures are important for planning process in organisations. Also, a very insignificant emphasis on hierarchical culture probably reflects the less hierarchical nature of the sport organisations. Figures 8, 9 and 10 describe the cultural characteristics of the three associations based on the responses to Instrument I of the questionnaire as summarised in Table 14.

---

<sup>1</sup> The strength of culture was already investigated where no association had strong culture, although Association C had congruent group culture. Therefore, the term 'dominance' used here should be interpreted differently from 'strength'.

Table 14. Cultural profiles of the three associations – Instrument I

Culture	Association A	Association B	Association C
Group	0.25	0.38	0.89
Developmental	-0.14	-0.17	-0.40
Hierarchical	0.07	-0.09	-0.03
Rational	-0.18	-0.10	-0.43

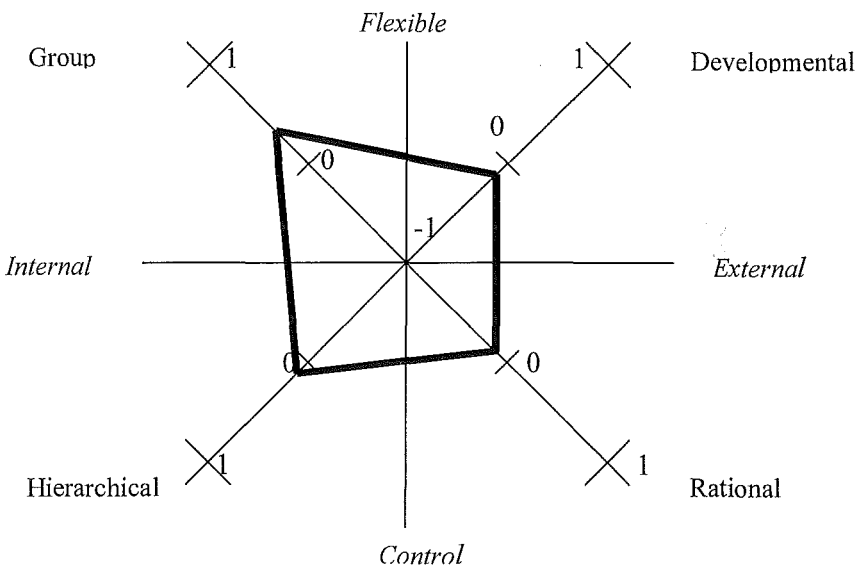


Figure 8. Cultural characteristics of sport Association A – Instrument I

Figure 8 shows that this organisation A had a relatively balanced culture. Among the four culture types, it had, on the average, moderately dominant group culture with the average score 0.25. As hierarchical culture also showed a positive figure, internal focus is slightly emphasised compared to external focus in this association. In contrast, developmental and rational culture appeared to be moderately weak with

their values at -0.14 and -0.18, respectively. It seems that flexibility as well as internal focus is also emphasised in this association.

Perception of workers in Association B of their organisational culture based on the aggregated and standardised numbers of their responses to descriptions about the four cultures is presented in Figure 9. The figure shows that this association had a relatively balanced organisational culture, which is similar to Association A. Among the four types of culture, it shows a moderately dominant emphasis on group culture values (0.38). Hierarchical and rational cultures were almost neutral where the average standardised scores were -0.09 and -0.10, respectively. This association also had moderately weak emphasis on the developmental culture values (-0.17). Overall, internal focus was more emphasised than an external focus, and flexibility appeared to be slightly more emphasised than control.

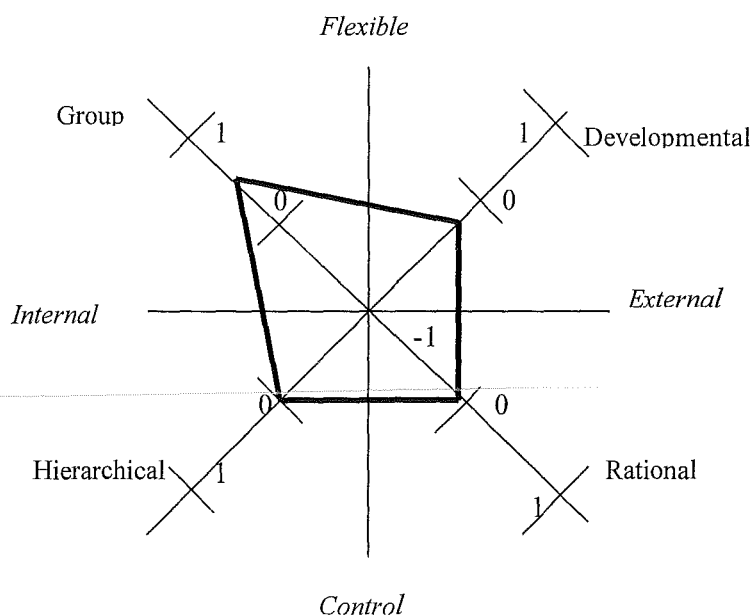


Figure 9. Cultural characteristics of Association B – Instrument I

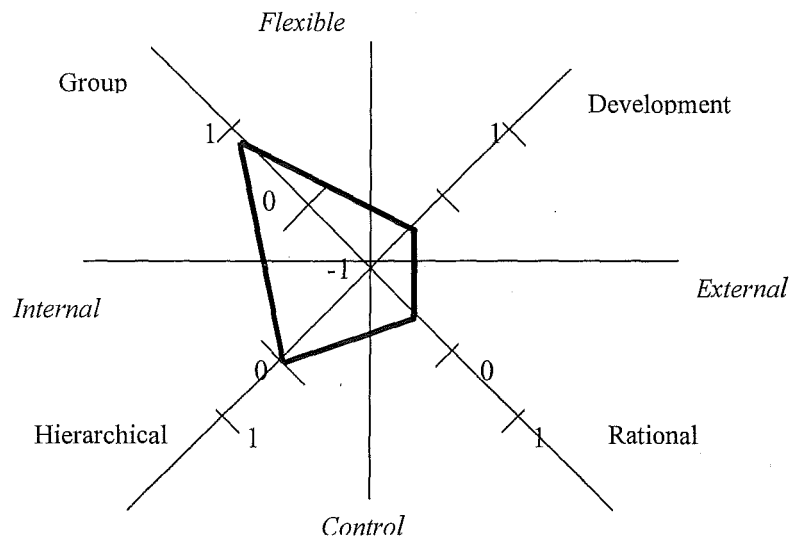


Figure 10. Cultural characteristics of Association C – Instrument I

Cultural profile of Association C as presented in Figure 10 is to some extent different from that for Association A or B. However, a close investigation indicates that the cultural profile for Association C is similar to the other two overall, where the dominance of group culture was strengthened, and hierarchical culture was also relatively more important than developmental or rational culture. This sport association had one congruent culture, which was also very strong; group culture with average standardised score 0.89. In contrast, the other three cultures were moderately weak. Developmental and rational cultures are found at the lower end of the 'moderately' weak band, receiving -0.40 and -0.43, respectively, while the score for hierarchical culture was very close to zero (-0.03). It is concluded that this association was internally oriented, with a relatively dominant group and hierarchical culture values than the other associations. Also, flexibility of the association was more emphasised than control.

## Summary

This chapter reported the organisational cultural profiles of the three sport associations in Western Australia using the responses to Instrument I in the questionnaire. The work environment of the three associations was personal and friendly, which indicated that the workers in all three Western Australian sport associations regarded their work places to reflect strong group cultural value. The leader type proved to have more hierarchical cultural value (coordinator or organiser), where group cultural value (mentor or sage) also appeared to be important for Associations B and C. Institutional glue was more likely a loyalty and tradition (group cultural value) for all, while tasks and goal accomplishment (rational cultural value) also turned out to be strong for Association B. For institutional emphases, Association A had strong rational cultural value with competitive actions and achievement, while Associations B and C emphasised group cultural value with human resources.

These results provide two possibilities regarding organisational culture and planning processes. First, group cultural values appeared strong in most attributes while developmental or rational culture might be more closely related to development plans. This indicates that the sport associations may not actively pursue planning or allocate sufficient resources to planning. Secondly, as each sport association had slightly different organisational cultural values, further regression analyses in this study will confirm whether these differences are related to each association's differences in the planning processes.

The analysis using Instrument I raised concerns regarding reliability, as Cronbach's alpha scores were substantially low. When this instrument is used in further quantitative analysis, results may be found to be spurious. The three associations,

overall, had similar cultural profiles where group culture appeared to be dominant, followed by hierarchical. Developmental culture and rational culture however, were found to be relatively weak. These results imply that the associations were internally focused, and that generally, flexibility was more emphasised than control.

When organisational cultural values for each association were aggregated, the organisational cultural profiles of Associations A and B were very similar. However, Association C was slightly different. It was indicated that this difference mainly spawned from dominant group culture and weaker developmental and rational cultures for Association C. In other words, Association C had relatively strong group cultural values, and was therefore comparatively more internally focused. In fact, Association C was the only organisation with a congruent culture. Chapter 7 will analyse organisational cultural profiles for the three associations using responses to Instrument II.



## **CHAPTER 7**

### **ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF THREE WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SPORT ASSOCIATIONS – RESULTS OF ANALYSES BASED ON INSTRUMENT II**

#### **Introduction**

Organisational culture in the three sport organisations was also explored in Part II of the questionnaire, using Instrument II. This chapter looks at organisational cultural characteristics of the three sport organisations based on the analysis of responses to Instrument II. It also identifies some critical differences between the two instruments.

First, the use of 'Likert-type scale' (scaled from one to seven) in Instrument II provided substantial variations from Instrument I. As 100 points were assigned for each cultural quadrants for each attribute, in Instrument I, a respondent could not allocate high scores to all the four attribute descriptions (for the four types of culture) in the same attribute; if s/he allocated a high score (say  $x$ ) to a certain description, the other three descriptions altogether could receive at maximum  $(100 - x)$ . In this regard, the scores that each attribute description could receive were interdependent. In contrast, all descriptions in Instrument II were presented individually and independently. Therefore, it was possible for the respondent to allocate very high or low scores for more than one cultural attribute.

Secondly, the questions in Instrument I could not accurately identify how strong the culture was, say, when a respondent assigned 25 points to each description. It is not clear whether it means that all four cultures exist strongly or weakly. The responses could only show that they all existed to the same degree. The interdependence of

scores in Instrument I causes serious statistical problems. Zammuto (1989) argued that the method used in Instrument I can have pitfalls of spurious correlation. For example, consider a case that a respondent assigns 50 for developmental and 50 for rational cultures, and 0 and 0 for group and hierarchical cultures. It tells us that the organisational glue is development and rational, but does not tell us how strong they are, as she/he 'has to' allocate the whole 100 points. Instrument II was expected to help to rectify this problem, at least, partially.

## **Organisational Cultural Profiles of the Associations**

### ***Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association A***

Table 15 summarises descriptive statistics of organisational culture from Instrument II, categorised by types of culture. A similar finding to that for Instrument I is also observed here; for 5 questions out of 16, the difference between the minimum and maximum scores was as large as 5. However, the general perception of workers regarding organisational culture did not vary greatly, evidenced by relatively low standard deviations.

While responses to the developmental cultural attributes showed relatively high fluctuations, responses to all the other culture categories received very stable scores. For example, for four descriptions about rational culture, one description received, on average, 5.4 and the other three received 6, uniformly. It implies stability and robustness of the data. It is noteworthy that descriptions regarding rational culture received the highest score (5.86) overall, which was followed by group culture (5.32) and developmental culture (5.04). Association A was found to have the lowest score for hierarchical culture (4.57). Therefore it may be concluded that while all four types of culture co-existed in this association, rational culture was the most emphasised and hierarchical culture was the least emphasised.

When the raw scores are standardised, dominance of specific types of organisational culture is more obvious. For example, rational culture received a standardised score of 1.06, while hierarchical culture received a standard score of -1.00. Group culture had a positive standardised score, 0.20, while developmental culture had a negative standardised score of -0.26.

Table 15. Organisational cultural profiles of Association A  
– Instrument II

Culture Scale	Min	Max	Mean	S.D	Z Score
Group Culture (mean=5.32)					0.20
• Participation, open discussion	4	7	5.57	0.94	
• Empowerment of employees to act	2	7	4.86	1.61	
• Assessing employees concerns and ideas	1	6	5.00	1.41	
• Human relations, teamwork, cohesion	4	7	5.86	1.03	
Developmental Culture (mean=5.04)					-0.26
• Flexibility, decentralisation	1	6	4.07	1.39	
• Expansion, growth and development	4	7	5.93	1.14	
• Innovation and change	2	7	5.00	1.52	
• Creative problem solving process	4	6	5.14	0.77	
Hierarchical Culture (mean=4.57)					-1.00
• Control, centralisation	2	6	4.29	1.20	
• Routinisation, formalisation and structure	3	7	4.79	1.05	
• Stability, continuity, order	2	6	4.64	1.01	
• Predictable performance outcomes	3	6	4.57	0.94	
Rational Culture (mean=5.86)					1.06
• Task focus, goal achievement	5	7	6.00	0.68	
• Direction, objective setting, goal clarity	4	7	6.00	0.96	
• Efficiency, productivity, profitability	2	7	5.43	1.40	
• Outcome excellence, quality	4	7	6.00	0.96	

NOTE: Z score is a standardised score of the average score of each culture.

As the raw scores indicate, while rational culture received the highest score, even hierarchical culture, which received the lowest score also received 4.57, on average. This was significantly higher than the score for the neutral answer, 4. Standardised scores also indicated that both rational and group cultures possessed standardised scores higher than the total mean.

The high scores that rational culture and group culture received indicated a very interesting tension existing in Association A. According to the competing values framework, rational culture and group culture show opposite characteristics; external focus and control are emphasised in rational culture, and internal focus and flexibility are emphasised in group culture. In the study on competing values and organisational effectiveness, Quinn and Rohbough (1981) explained that the higher and closer together the scores, the stronger the culture. Therefore the high mean values obtained from Instrument II indicated that the cultural values were clearly evident and understood by the members of this association. These high scores for cultural values with opposite characteristics or diagonal tension, which can be an essence of the competing values approach, may arise due to a unique position of state sport associations. Located between national and community sport organisations, they have to carry out diverse roles by harmonising various groups of stakeholders with different interest and opinions. Sport organisations traditionally valued people in the sport organisation, but are progressively moving to increasingly managerial approaches for funding, sponsorship and survival in a competitive and commercial environment.

---

### ***Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association B***

Table 16 summarises the descriptive statistics for the response to Instrument II, Association B. First, as observed in the result from Instrument I, the very different perceptions to the same organisational culture description were frequently observed,

where the difference between the minimum and maximum scores was equal to or larger than 5; these cases were observed for 8 culture descriptions out of 16. This finding indicates that it was possible for workers in the same association to perceive their own association's organisational culture as substantially different. Nevertheless, for some cultural descriptions, the distance between minimum and maximum scores was small and standard deviations were relatively low, which indicates that perceptions of the workers were concentrated. This result is similar to that of Association A.

Table 16. Organisational cultural profiles of Association B – Instrument II

Culture Scale	Min	Max	Mean	Std.Dev	Z Score
Group Culture (mean=5.91)					0.96
• Participation, open discussion	4	7	6.27	1.01	
• Empowerment of employees to act	4	7	5.82	0.98	
• Assessing employees concerns and ideas	2	7	5.64	1.69	
• Human relations, teamwork, cohesion	3	7	5.91	1.45	
Developmental Culture (mean=5.14)					-0.26
• Flexibility, decentralisation	2	6	4.27	1.35	
• Expansion, growth and development	1	7	5.55	1.64	
• Innovation and change	2	7	5.45	1.64	
• Creative problem solving process	2	7	5.27	1.42	
•					
Hierarchical Culture (mean=4.54)					-1.20
• Control, centralisation	2	7	4.45	1.64	
• Routinisation, formalisation and structure	3	6	4.36	1.29	
• Stability, continuity, order	2	7	5.18	1.66	
• Predictable performance outcomes	2	6	4.18	1.33	
Rational Culture (mean=5.61)					0.49
• Task focus, goal achievement	2	7	5.36	1.36	
• Direction, objective setting, goal clarity	2	7	5.73	1.56	
• Efficiency, productivity, profitability	4	6	5.36	0.67	
• Outcome excellence, quality	4	7	6.00	0.89	

Second, while the 'natural' average score was 4 (in other words, the score 4 indicates neutral result being neither weak nor strong, as the Likert-type scale 1 to 7 was used), a mean of each description was always higher than 4. This response suggests that workers in Association B perceived a strong emphasis on all cultural values in their work place.

The raw mean scores and standardised scores (Z scores) indicated that, group culture received the highest score while hierarchical culture received an extremely low score. The standardised score for rational culture was also positive but lower than that for group culture, and that for development culture was negative. In summary, the overall organisational characteristics appear to concentrate toward flexibility and internal focus. However, the analysis of the result also indicates that while this association emphasised flexibility more than control, a kind of tension is found between internal focus and external focus.

Third, variations of scores for each description (indicated by standard deviation) were relatively small in group culture and rational culture, compared to developmental or hierarchical culture. This result indicates that in general, workers in Association B shared more similar views about the organisation's group and rational organisational culture values than other values.

---

### ***Organisational Cultural Profiles of Association C***

Organisational culture of Association C based on Instrument II is summarised in Table 17. While the 'natural' or 'neutral' average score of the Likert-type scale was 4, all descriptions received higher scores than 4. For 7 descriptions the scores were higher than 5. It suggests that the workers in this association generally shared similar perception whether specific cultural values were identified in the workplace. While

all the four culture quadrants obtained relatively high scores, group culture received the highest score on average, which was consistent with the result from Instrument I. Group culture was followed by rational culture. It is worthwhile to note that the mean scores for each type of culture were very similar, showing that the association had balanced emphasis on the sets of organisational culture values.

When the raw scores were standardised, the relative dominance of group culture was apparent. It is the only type of culture for which standardised scores are higher than 0. This result indicates that Association C emphasised internal focus and flexibility, relatively more so than external focus and control.

Table 17. Organisational cultural profiles of Association C – Instrument II

Culture Scale	Min	Max	Mean	Std.Dev.	Z Score
Group Culture (mean=5.04)					0.89
• Participation, open discussion	1	7	4.86	1.46	
• Empowerment of employees to act	2	7	5.36	1.34	
• Assessing employees concerns and ideas	3	7	4.93	1.14	
• Human relations, teamwork, cohesion	1	7	5.00	1.66	
Developmental Culture (mean=4.91)					-0.40
• Flexibility, decentralization	4	7	5.21	1.05	
• Expansion, growth and development	2	7	4.86	1.29	
• Innovation and change	3	7	4.57	1.16	
• Creative problem solving process	1	7	5.00	1.57	
Hierarchical Culture (mean=4.86)					-0.03
• Control, centralization	4	7	5.14	0.95	
• Routinisation, formalisation and structure	3	7	4.93	1.00	
• Stability, continuity, order	3	6	4.71	0.91	
• Predictable performance outcomes	3	6	4.64	0.84	
Rational Culture (mean=4.93)					-0.43
• Task focus, goal achievement	4	7	5.07	0.73	
• Direction, objective setting, goal clarity	1	7	4.64	1.50	
• Efficiency, productivity, profitability	3	6	4.86	0.86	
• Outcome excellence, quality	4	7	5.14	0.77	

In general, variations of scores for each description (which is measured by standard deviation) were relatively small in hierarchical culture and rational culture compared to group culture and development culture. This means that workers shared similar views about the hierarchical and rational cultural characteristics of the association.

In addition, overall, for all the four culture types, standard deviations were smaller than the other two sport organisations. This implies that members in this association shared more similar views about their organisational culture values than the workers in Associations A and B.

### ***Reliability of the Response for Organisational Culture – Instrument II***

This section reports the Cronbach's alphas for Instrument II and for the entire sample (for all three associations), and then compares them with those computed for Instrument II in two previous studies, namely Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) and Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000).

Table 18 shows that the reliability substantially improved when Instrument II was used compared to Instrument I. In most cases, Cronbach's alphas in Instrument II were computed to be higher. The alpha for hierarchical culture was found to be relatively low, which is consistent with Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000). Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) and Colyer (2000), also reported that the reliability of hierarchical culture was relatively low compared to the other types of culture, although the difference was not substantial. Nevertheless, it is still questionable why the reliability for hierarchical culture for Associations A and B, and that from Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000) is lower than that from Quinn and Spreitzer (1991). It may be due to the different natures of organisations. Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) investigated general (educational) organisations while this study and Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000) analysed sport organisations.



Table 18. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Comparisons – Instrument II

	A	B	C	T	Q	S
GII	0.85	0.60	0.91	0.82	0.84	0.90
DII	0.65	0.93	0.77	0.77	0.81	0.86
HII	0.52	0.55	0.77	0.59	0.77	0.53
RII	0.45	0.84	0.79	0.78	0.78	0.85

NOTE: G, D, H, R denote group, developmental, hierarchical and rational cultures, respectively.

A, B and C stand for sport associations A, B and C.

T is for the entire observations from the three associations in this study.

Q stands for Quinn and Spreitzer (1991)

S stands for Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000)

Alternatively, it may be due to the socio-cultural difference between US organisations (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1991) and Australian organisations (this study and Colyer, Soutar & Ryder, 2000). Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000) in fact identified this issue and suggested that dissimilarities in language and societal cultural context would result in this difference. The results of this study confirmed their findings. While further investigation is needed to clarify the difference, the results of factor analyses which are presented later in this chapter indicate that attributes of hierarchical culture in this study, in fact, consist of two different concepts. This may explain why the reliability score for hierarchical culture is so low.

The reliability obtained from each individual association in this study was not exactly comparable to those from Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) and Colyer, Soutar and Ryder (2000). While the scores were, in general, high in the two previous studies, the reliabilities for group culture and developmental culture were high, and that for hierarchical culture was low. This finding has strong implications for the further quantitative analyses of the data in this study. The reliabilities are consistent with

previous studies and indicate that the data are robust. The cultural types are perceived to align with the instrument and therefore are suitable for use in further analysis. Even if the substantial variation of the reliability may not cause a critical problem in conducting quantitative analyses and interpreting the results, it is never desirable, especially if this high variation reflects inconsistent replies from the respondent. In this regard, the results from Instrument II are better than those from Instrument I.

Further, in contrast to the reliability for Associations A and B, the reliability for Association C and the entire sample was stable and high. As a result, it is more sensible to use Instrument II with the entire sample (in other words, all the observations from the three Associations A, B and C) when analysing the relationship between cultures and planning processes in following chapters.

### **Organisational Cultural Profiles - Comparisons**

Previous sections discussed organisational culture of each association using Instrument II, and found that Instrument II may be more useful in understanding the organisation's cultural characteristics. Cronbach's alphas for Instrument II indicated that the results were substantially more reliable than the results from Instrument I. In this section, the three associations' cultural profiles are compared by investigating z-scores. Table 19 summarises the three associations' organisational cultural profiles based on standardised scores. Figures 11 to 13 graphically illustrate each association's culture values.

Figure 11 shows organisational culture of Association A according to the competing values framework. The tension between group culture and rational culture appears to be obvious when standardised scores are considered. In contrast, the scores for hierarchical and developmental cultures are very low. These results suggest that while

the association is externally focused, it lacks structure and processes to underpin its operations, and is relatively less endowed with stability and control.

Table 19. Cultural profiles of the three associations (Z scores) – Instrument II

Culture	Association A	Association B	Association C
Group	0.20	0.96	0.49
Development	-0.26	-0.26	-0.10
Hierarchical	-1.00	-1.20	-0.36
Rational	1.06	0.49	-0.02

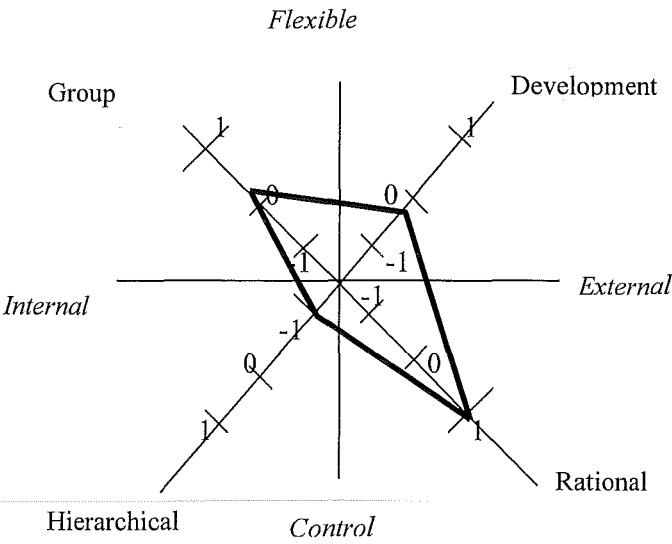


Figure 11. Cultural profiles of Association A – Instrument II

Organisational culture of Association B in the context of the competing values framework is illustrated in Figure 12. In general, the cultural profile of Association B is similar to that of Association A as group and rational cultures received high scores and developmental and hierarchical cultures received low scores. In particular, the standardised scores for developmental and hierarchical cultures across the two associations are similar. However, while rational culture was perceived more dominant in Association A, group culture is more dominant in Association B. This different results show that flexibility is more emphasised in Association B compared to Association A, while Association A could be said to be slightly more externally focused. There is also a tension between the competing group and rational cultural types for Association B.

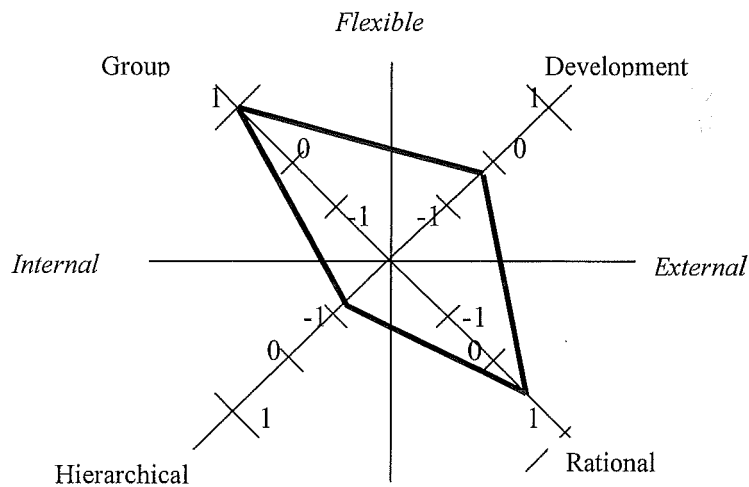


Figure 12. Cultural profiles of Association B - Instrument II

In Association C, as presented in Figure 13, group culture received the highest standardised score among the four competing cultures, and developmental and hierarchical cultures received relatively low scores. Rational culture received the second highest score, however, it is negative being very close to zero. Association C was perceived to have a relatively more balanced culture than Associations A or B.

The findings about the organisational cultural characteristics of the three sport associations are strikingly consistent with those from two previous studies about culture of Australian organisations. Sarros, Gray, and Denston (2002), and Baird, Harrison and Reeve (2007) took different samples from Australian manufacturing and service organisations, and found that outcome orientation and respect for people were the most prominent characteristics of the Australia organisations' culture, and innovation the least prominent. Outcome orientation and respect for people were respectively related to rational culture and group culture, while innovation was related to development culture. While this study investigated not-for-profit sport organisations, the cultural emphases found corroborate the findings of the studies of industrial organisations in Australia.

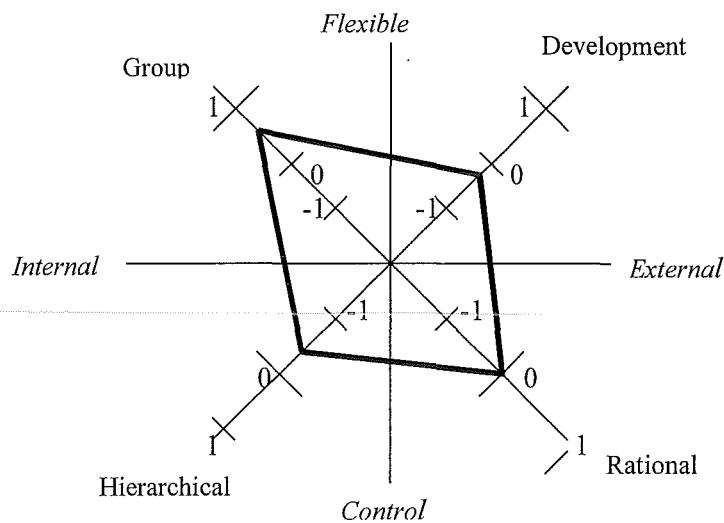


Figure 13. Cultural profiles of Association C - Instrument II

Overall, organisational emphases in each association were mixed, as is to be expected, and a certain extent of tension is revealed. In particular for the three associations, tensions between group culture and rational culture are observed.

It may be worthwhile to look at the direction of tensions in each association. While Association A was externally focused, Associations B and C do not show a clear tendency towards an internal or external focus. In contrast, while Associations B and C emphasised flexibility, it is not clear in Association A whether flexibility or control was emphasised.

This section and previous sections explored the organisational cultural characteristics of the three sport associations. The next section carries out factor analyses and provides basic information required for further pursuit of the major theme of this study.

### **Factor Analysis for Organisational Culture Variables**

One of the most important purposes of this study was to identify any relationship between organisational culture and the planning processes of the three WA sport associations. As the competing values framework adopted in this study classifies organisational culture into four categories – group, developmental, hierarchical and rational - the questionnaire had eight questions for each type of culture and there were altogether 32 questions that could be used as independent variables. However, it is not reasonable to use all 32 questions related to culture to analyse the relationship between organisational culture and the planning processes, particularly when the number of observations is not sufficiently large. Further the regression analysis with 32 questions as independent variables would make the analysis overly complicated, and possibly incur serious statistical problems such as multicollinearity.

One statistical method to avoid this problem is a factor analysis. A factor analysis is defined as a multivariate method intended to explain relationships among several difficult-to-interpret, correlated variables in terms of a few conceptually meaningful, relatively independent factors (Kleinbaum, Kupper & Muller, 1988). In this study, SPSS was used to perform factor analysis, where one of the two most popular methods, the Principal Component Analysis method, was adopted. For the rotation method, varimax with Kaiser normalisation was adopted, which is widely used in factorisation in social sciences (SPSS, 2002).

Table 18 provided the critical information for factor analysis. The reliabilities for Instrument II were sufficiently high, and comparable to those from Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) and Colyer (2000). Consequently, this study used data collected from Instrument II for factor analysis. Two tests were carried out to confirm whether factor analysis would be valid and meaningful, and the results were reported in Table 20.

K-M-O (Keiser-Meyer-Olkin) Test and Bartlett's Test are recommended to confirm whether it is reasonable to carry out factor analysis to reduce the number of variables (SPSS, 2002). It is suggested that K-M-O measures should be greater than 0.7 or 0.8, and chi-square statistics from Bartlett's Test should be significant for factor analysis (SPSS, 2002).

Table 20 reports that K-M-O measures for three organisational cultural dimensions were reliably high viz., group, developmental and rational, while that for hierarchical culture was relatively low. Nevertheless, Bartlett's Test for Sphericity reported that all chi-square statistics were strongly significant (at 1% level), including hierarchical culture, and justified the use of factor analysis to reduce the number of variables.

Table 20. Preliminary tests for factor analysis

Culture	K-M-O Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	d.f.	Significance
Group	0.741	61.371	6	0.000
Development	0.738	43.762	6	0.000
Hierarchical	0.552	20.733	6	0.002
Rational	0.739	45.724	6	0.000

NOTE: KMO stands for Keiser-Meyer-Olkin

The results of the factor analyses are reported in Table 21. It shows that for three types of culture (group, developmental, rational culture), only one factor was extracted; in other words, the four attributes belonged to each related culture type could be reduced to only one variable, having the similar factor loadings from 0.253 to 0.362. However, for hierarchical culture, the four attributes could be reduced to two variables, H1 and H2, with two different factor loadings. The crucial difference between the two variables is from factor loadings on descriptions 2 and 3. Variable H1 had a negative factor loading on description 2 ("stability, order and continuity are encouraged") and a very high factor loading on description 3 ("outcomes are predictable"). This shows a dramatic contrast to H2 where description 2 had a very high factor loading and description 3 had a negative factor loading. Compared to H1, H2 emphasised predictability of the outcomes in particular. Accordingly, this study labelled H1 as "*predictability*" and H2 as "*stability*." Factor analysis further showed that covariance between H1 (predictability) and H2 (stability) was zero. This finding implies that the two reduced variables are independent, which confirms that the two hierarchical variables H1 and H2 explain completely different aspects of hierarchical cultural characteristics perceived by members of this association.



Table 21. The results of factor analysis for organisational culture

Attributes	Group	Developmental	Hierarchical		Rational
			H1	H2	
1	0.253	0.351	0.292	0.221	0.247
2	0.306	0.362	- 0.192	0.771	0.361
3	0.324	0.249	0.656	- 0.348	0.326
4	0.339	0.316	0.374	0.266	0.335
Eigen values	2.646	2.406	1.851		2.441
% of variance explained	66.147	60.141	46.284		61.031

NOTE: For hierarchical culture, Attribute 1 is control and centralization, Attribute 2 is stability, continuity and order, Attribute 3 is predictable performance outcomes and Attribute 4 is routinisation, formalisation and structure.

## Summary

This chapter examined organisational culture of the three selected WA sport associations, using the competing values framework, based on Instrument II. The similarities and differences between the associations were analysed and discussed. It was discovered that the associations exhibited tensions between group culture and rational culture. In terms of characteristics, tensions between flexibility and control, and internal focus and external focus were also observed. In contrast, developmental culture and hierarchical culture did not appear dominant in these associations.

Reliability and factor analyses were also carried out to find how descriptions/questions belonging to the same categories were inter-related, and also to supply fundamental information required for further quantitative analyses. The responses to Instrument II demonstrated high levels of reliability, in contrast to those

of Instrument I, which showed low levels of reliability, as presented in the previous chapter. The reliability of the responses to Instrument II was comparable to previous significant studies and therefore became the basis for further analysis. Variables representing each cultural value were established for further analysis of any relationships between perceived organisational culture values and the sport associations' approaches to planning. The following chapter investigates the plans and planning processes in each association.

## CHAPTER 8

### RESULTS OF ANALYSES OF THE DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND PLANNING PROCESSES

#### Introduction

One of major foci of this study was to look for any relationship between an association's organisational culture and its development planning processes. A development plan provides a basis for a sport organisation to agree on its aims and objectives, set strategies to achieve within a given period, establish its priorities, assess the financial and human resources implications of what it wants to do, and periodically review its progress (ASC, 1987). A development plan is important for future advancement of a sport association. However, the importance of development plans for sport organisations, and content and scope of the ideal development plan have been examined by only a few writers (e.g., Chapman, 1992).

The questionnaire used in this study included four sets of questions related to development plans and planning processes of sport associations. These four sets of question were; (i) ten general questions about the plans and planning processes, (ii) ten steps to be taken in preparing the plans, (iii) seven essential content areas, and (iv) ten key results to be included in the plans, as suggested by Chapman (1992). While Chapman's framework is widely accepted as a good reference for planning processes for sport associations, there are no investigations to determine whether the framework has been practically applied to sport associations in Australia. In this chapter, the responses from employees and volunteers in the three sport associations are analysed to see how employees perceived the importance and existence of plans and planning

processes, and whether the crucial points suggested by Chapman were taken into consideration in the plans and planning processes.

After the means and standard deviations for each question for each sport association are presented to find out each sport association's profiles, an analysis of variances (ANOVA) is carried out to investigate whether the three WA sport associations participating in this study had any different strategies or attitudes towards the plans and planning processes. Then the reliability of the data collected is discussed, and finally factor analysis is conducted. The two latter analyses form a basis of further quantitative analyses to estimate the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes.

## **Sport Associations and the Planning Processes – Overview**

### ***Ten General Questions***

This section summarises and discusses characteristics of each sport association that are revealed through the survey on development planning and planning processes. Table 22 summarises the means and standard deviations of responses from the workers in the three organisations in response to the ten general questions as classified by Chapman. While the score "1" means "strongly disagree" and 7 means "strongly agree" to the statement, the total mean scores for all ten questions in the three organisations are higher than "neutral" score 4, with the highest mean of 5.57 for Association B, 5.41 for Association A, and 4.80 for Association C. The more detailed investigation of the difference and similarity of associations for each question will be carried out in the following section.

Table 22 indicates that workers in each association perceived planning processes and related matters positively. For most statements, scores for Association A and B are

relatively high compared to those for Association C, implying that workers in Associations A and B more positively evaluated various aspects of planning processes in their associations. In most cases, the differences between Associations A and B are less significant than those between Associations A and C or Associations B and C.

The respondents from Associations A and B strongly agreed that *their organisations actively used development plans* (G1), and perceived that *planning process was important for sport associations* (G3). In contrast, they showed relatively less positive perceptions of the process of administering the establishment of planning. They thought that *volunteer workers' opinions were less valued* (G7), and showed reservation that *the best people were selected for planning process* (G9). They also gave relatively low scores to the statement that *"I feel that my organisation achieves the outcomes of its plan."* (G10).

Association C showed the lowest scores for all nine questions except G7, which states *"my organisation values volunteer's opinions in planning process."* Scores to this question are very low across the three associations, indicating that volunteers' opinions were less valued in each association.

However, the workers showed different responses to G6, *"my organisation values all paid workers' opinions in planning process."* While the workers in Association B strongly agreed (5.73) and the mean was higher than the total mean for the association, the extent of agreement was lower than the total mean for Association A (5.00). It was found that Association B valued opinions of both paid workers and volunteers more strongly, relative to the other two associations. Association C also had a relatively low score (4.93) for G6 compared to the other two associations, but the score was higher than its mean. Therefore these responses suggest that while the degree of valuing paid workers' opinions in planning process appears high for all the associations, it was the highest for Association B (5.73), and Associations A (5.00)

and C (4.93) have similar but lower responses. In contrast, workers in all three associations considered that volunteer workers' opinions were not as highly valued as those of the paid workers'.

Table 22. Perceptions of use of Chapman's ten general planning questions

Sport Associations	A x (S.D.)	B x (S.D.)	C x (S.D.)
G 1. My org. actively uses development or business plans.	6.21 (0.70)	5.91 (0.83)	4.64 (1.60)
G 2. I understand my org.'s development plan.	5.64 (1.69)	5.91 (1.45)	4.64 (1.50)
G 3. P. P. are important for sport associations.	6.71 (0.47)	6.55 (0.52)	5.36 (1.28)
G 4. I actively participate in P. P.	5.64 (1.82)	5.55 (1.92)	5.00 (1.80)
G 5. My org. values my opinions in P. P.	5.29 (1.73)	5.64 (0.92)	5.00 (1.41)
G 6. My org. values all paid workers' opinions in P.P.	5.00 (1.41)	5.73 (1.01)	4.93 (1.49)
G 7. My org. values volunteers' opinions in P. P.	4.57 (1.45)	4.82 (1.40)	4.64 (1.34)
G 8. It is clear to me how my org. selects those to be responsible for P. P.	5.29 (0.99)	5.91 (0.83)	4.86 (1.56)
G 9. Those who are selected for P. P. are the best people for the task.	4.86 (1.66)	4.82 (1.66)	4.43 (1.74)
G 10. I feel that my org. achieves the outcomes of its plan.	4.86 (1.75)	4.91 (1.22)	4.50 (1.40)
Total (G1-G10)	5.41 (1.53)	5.57 (1.31)	4.80 (1.49)

NOTE: P.P. and org. stand for planning processes and organisation, respectively. x stands for mean and S.D. means standard deviations.

### *Ten Steps*

The next sections explore the extent to which the sport organisations use Chapman's ten steps when preparing their development plans. As shown in Table 23, all three associations have mean scores higher than 4, which imply that the workers had a clear understanding of the planning processes and perceived their organisation to take similar steps to those suggested by Chapman. In general, the extent of agreement was higher for Associations A ( $x=5.59$ ,  $SD=1.29$ ) and B ( $x=5.67$ ,  $SD=1.25$ ) than C ( $x=4.79$ ,  $SD=1.56$ ).

All three associations provided opportunities for their workers to read the draft of the plan, and the workers acknowledged that they understood the direction in which their respective organisations headed. However, a substantial difference between associations was found in some cases. Association C shows substantially lower scores compared to the other two associations to such statements as *"my organisation recognises its current position when starting planning process"* (T2), *"my organisation recognises trends and changes relevant to its management"* (T3), *"I can provide feedback to the planning committee before the plan is finalised"* (T8), and *"my organisation properly monitors how the development plan is implemented"* (T9). From these results, it may be concluded that Association C did not pay proper attention to the current position of the association and the changes in environmental conditions. In addition, Association C listened to feedback less than Associations A and B, which might discourage active participation of workers in Association C's activities.

Table 23. The Perceptions of the application of Chapman's ten steps in planning

Sport Association	A x (S.D.)	B x (S.D.)	C x (S.D.)
T 1. My org. uses information about factors affecting the outcomes for the next plan.	5.57 (0.76)	5.45 (0.82)	4.86 (1.23)
T 2. My org. recognises its current position when starting P.P.	5.43 (0.76)	5.36 (1.36)	4.43 (1.40)
T 3. My org. recognises trends and changes relevant to its management.	5.86 (1.61)	5.73 (1.27)	4.79 (1.63)
T 4. My org. works hard to achieve the outcomes outlined in the plan.	5.21 (1.42)	5.64 (0.92)	4.79 (1.81)
T 5. I understand various goals and objectives of my organisation.	5.50 (1.95)	5.45 (1.97)	5.00 (2.00)
T 6. I understand the strategies that my org. uses to achieve its goals.	5.43 (1.99)	5.73 (1.95)	4.93 (1.98)
T 7. I have an opportunity to read draft plans before finalised.	5.86 (1.03)	6.09 (0.94)	5.21 (1.12)
T 8. I can provide feedback to the planning committee before the plan is finalised.	6.00 (1.30)	5.91 (1.04)	4.50 (1.65)
T 9. My org. properly monitors how the development plan is implemented.	5.43 (0.51)	5.55 (1.04)	4.43 (1.55)
T10. I understand the direction in which my org. is headed.	5.64 (0.84)	5.82 (0.87)	5.00 (1.24)
Total (T1-T10)	5.59 (1.29)	5.67 (1.25)	4.79 (1.56)

NOTE: P.P. and org. stand for planning processes and organisation, respectively. x stands for mean and S.D. means standard deviations.

### Seven Essential Sections

The perceptions of workers about seven essential sections to be included in the development plan are reported in Table 24 for each association. In general, the mean scores for each statement across the association are relatively high (always higher than 4.7). This indicates that the respondents of each association perceived their respective association's plans to include the seven essential sections in accordance



with Chapman's suggestions. While the mean scores are relatively high for all three associations, they are substantially higher for Associations A ( $x=5.68$ ,  $SD=1.17$ ) and B ( $x=5.47$ ,  $SD=1.32$ ) than Association C ( $x=5.05$ ,  $SD=1.21$ ).

Workers in all three associations strongly agreed that *their organisations' plans stated why they existed and what they should achieve* (S2), *a single summary table was included* (S5), and *specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in the year were presented* (S6). Workers in Associations A and B also strongly agreed that *the broad goals and program summary of the organisation are stated in the development plan* (S3). In contrast, while the scores for Association C were relatively low, in general, they were particularly low for the statements that *the broad goals of the association were stated in the development plan* (S3) and *previous years' plan achievements were reviewed in the organisation's development plan* (S4).

These results indicate that while the workers in all three associations perceived that their development plans included essential sections as suggested by Chapman, those in Association C were relatively less likely to respond that their plan contained the broad goals and the review of previous year's achievements.

Table 24. The perceptions of the inclusion of the seven essential sections in sport association plans

Sport Associations	x	A (S.D.)	x	B (S.D.)	x	C (S.D.)
S 1. My org.'s development plan contains a background of the plan.	5.50	(1.22)	5.27	(1.62)	5.07	(1.27)
S 2. My org.'s plan states why it exists and what it is to achieve.	6.00	(1.04)	5.82	(0.98)	5.14	(1.03)
S 3. The broad goals of my org. stated in the development plan.	5.64	(1.39)	5.73	(1.27)	4.86	(1.10)
S 4. Previous years' plans achievement are reviewed in my org.'s development plan.	5.57	(1.09)	5.00	(1.67)	4.79	(1.05)
S 5. A single summary table for the development outcomes is provided.	5.79	(0.97)	5.82	(1.17)	5.21	(1.37)
S 6. The specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in the year are presented.	5.36	(1.22)	5.00	(1.26)	5.21	(1.48)
S 7. My org.'s program summary is in the development plan.	5.93	(1.33)	5.64	(1.21)	5.07	(1.33)
Total (S1-S7)	5.68	(1.17)	5.47	(1.32)	5.05	(1.21)

NOTE: P.P. and org. stand for planning processes and organisation, respectively. x stands for mean and S.D. means standard deviations.

### ***Ten Key Result Areas***

Table 25 reports the mean scores and standard deviations of responses from the workers in each association related to the key results to be included in the plan. The patterns observed in the three previous sets of responses are also observed in this section: all three associations' mean scores are relatively high, but Association C shows the lowest mean scores relative to the other associations.

Some characteristics are worthy of discussion. First, Association C shows relatively low scores for the statements that include "*my organisation includes many components about management*" (A1), "*my organisation considers target population*

*for growth and how to encourage participation*" (A3), and *"my organisation includes the development of rules, safety, guidelines and the equality of officials"* (A6). Compared to Associations B and C, Association A's plan did not clearly include some of the key results that the plan is expected to contain.

Second, for some statements the three associations show remarkably similar responses. To the statement *"my organisation considers various issues relevant to training and professional development"* (A5), their mean scores were 5.57, 5.64 and 5.50, and to *"demand for major event is recognised"* (A7), 5.36, 5.09 and 5.14 for Associations A, B and C, respectively. In other words, all three associations equally understood the demand for major events and properly considered important issues related to training and professional development.

Third, the workers in Association A gave low scores to the statement *"my organisation uses a plan addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development"* (A9). This score was considerably lower than the mean scores of other statements for the same association. As Association A should have facilities considering the nature of the sport, the low scores for this statement indicated that their development plan did not sufficiently include plans regarding management, maintenance and development of these facilities. In contrast, the workers in Association B showed strong agreement that their association paid attention to facility management, maintenance and future development.

Overall, the mean scores of any statement for any sport association was not found to be lower than 4. Workers in all the associations recognised that their organisations had plans, and agreed that they had essential sections and key result areas that Chapman suggested as desirable development plans. It is also noteworthy that, in general, the mean scores were higher for Association A and B than Association C. This was a continuing trend for all components of a 'good' plan suggested by

Chapman, namely general planning aspects, ten steps, seven essential sections and ten key result areas.

Table 25. The perceptions of the inclusion Chapman's ten key result areas in sport association plans

Sport Associations	x	A (S.D.)	x	B (S.D.)	x	C (S.D.)
A 1. My org. includes many components about management.	6.07	(1.07)	5.64	(1.43)	4.93	(1.49)
A 2. My org. includes plans for marketing and promotion.	5.71	(1.49)	6.09	(1.04)	5.07	(1.49)
A 3. My org. considers target population for growth and how to encourage participation.	5.71	(1.38)	6.27	(0.90)	4.71	(1.20)
A 4. My org. includes a development structure for athletes and specifies specific and measurable objectives.	5.50	(1.34)	5.64	(0.92)	5.00	(1.11)
A 5. My org. considers various issues relevant to training and professional development.	5.57	(1.55)	5.64	(1.43)	5.50	(1.22)
A 6. My org. includes the development of rules, safety, guidelines and the equal of officials.	5.57	(1.02)	5.00	(1.79)	4.71	(1.68)
A 7. Demand for major events is recognised.	5.36	(1.39)	5.09	(1.81)	5.14	(1.23)
A 8. Sport science aspects are included.	5.86	(0.77)	5.82	(1.54)	4.79	(0.97)
A 9. My org. uses a plan addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development.	4.00	(1.30)	6.18	(0.98)	5.14	(0.95)
A 10. My org. concentrates on achievements in special program.	5.50	(1.09)	6.27	(0.90)	5.00	(1.24)
Total (A1-A10)	5.49	(1.33)	5.76	(1.34)	5.00	(1.26)

NOTE: P.P. and org. stand for planning processes and organisation, respectively. x stands for mean and S.D. means standard deviations.

## **Sport Associations and the Planning Processes**

### **– The Differences across Associations**

#### ***Ten General Questions***

The previous section discussed general information regarding how workers in each association perceived the planning processes and the plans of their own association. In general, workers in all three associations agreed that their associations followed the steps that the planning processes should take, and their plans included essential sections and key result areas that plans should include. It was also found that, for most statements, the workers in Association C showed a relatively lower level of agreement. This section more rigorously analyses whether there were significant differences between workers across associations in perceiving the planning processes and the plans.

Table 26 summarises the results of the ANOVA for the three associations for ten general questions. The between group variances were significantly larger than the within group variances for three descriptions: *My organisation actively uses development or business plans* (G1) and *Planning processes are important for sport associations* (G3) at the 1 percent level of significance, and *I feel that my organisation achieves the outcomes of its plan* (G10) at the 5 percent level of significance.

Therefore, it can be concluded that some associations have different views on the extent of using plans, importance of planning processes and achieving the outcomes of the association's plans. For all the other seven descriptions, no significant differences were found across the associations.

The workers from the associations appeared to have significantly different perceptions of the plans and planning processes of their associations. These differences are further explored to show which association held different views from which other association for each of the three descriptions.

Table 26. The results of ANOVA - Ten general questions on planning processes of three associations

		Sum Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
G 1. My org. actively uses development or business plans.	Between Groups	19.109	2	9.555	7.400	0.002
	Within Groups	46.481	36	1.291		
	Total	65.590	38			
G 2. I understand my org.'s development plan.	Between Groups	11.637	2	5.818	2.398	0.105
	Within Groups	87.338	36	2.426		
	Total	98.974	38			
G 3. P. P. are important for sport associations.	Between Groups	14.945	2	7.742	10.038	0.001
	Within Groups	26.799	36	0.744		
	Total	41.743	38			
G 4. I actively participate in P. P.	Between Groups	3.289	2	1.645	0.486	0.619
	Within Groups	121.942	36	3.387		
	Total	125.231	38			
G 5. My org. values my opinions in P. P.	Between Groups	2.495	2	1.247	0.612	0.548
	Within Groups	73.403	36	2.039		
	Total	75.897	38			
G 6. My org. values all paid workers' opinions in P.P.	Between Groups	4.633	2	2.317	1.281	0.290
	Within Groups	65.110	36	1.809		
	Total	69.744	38			
G 7. My org. values volunteers' opinions in P. P.	Between Groups	.387	2	0.194	0.099	0.906
	Within Groups	70.279	36	1.952		
	Total	70.667	38			
G 8. It is clear to me how my org. selects those to be responsible for P. P.	Between Groups	1.528	2	0.764	0.268	0.767
	Within Groups	102.779	36	2.855		
	Total	104.308	38			
G 9. Those who are selected for P. P. are the best people for the task.	Between Groups	1.313	2	0.656	0.295	0.746
	Within Groups	51.403	36	1.428		
	Total	59.987	38			
G 10. I feel that my org. achieves the outcomes of its plan.	Between Groups	10.005	2	5.003	3.951	0.028
	Within Groups	45.584	36	1.266		
	Total	55.590	38			

NOTE: P.P. and org. stand for planning processes and organisation, respectively. Sig. stands for the level of significance (%). For example, significance of G10 is 0.028, which means that  $p < 0.05$ .

A more detailed analysis was carried out for the three descriptions (G1, G3 and G10) by pairwise comparison of each association (such as A and B, B and C, and C and A), and the results with significant differences are presented in Table 27 (the results with significant difference at the 10 percent level or less, that is  $p \leq .1$ , are presented and discussed).

For all three descriptions, Associations A and B were found to have significantly higher means than Association C, but no significant difference between Associations A and B was found. The difference indicates that workers in Associations A and B more strongly perceived that their associations actively used development plans or business plans, than those in Association C, at the 1 percent and 5 percent levels of significance, respectively. The results also indicate that workers in Associations A and B more strongly perceived that planning processes were important for sport associations compared to those in Association C at the 1 percent level of significance each. This difference was also maintained for G10, which asked "*I feel my association achieves the outcomes of its plan*" at the 10 percent level of significance each.

Table 27. The results of multiple (pairwise) test - Ten descriptions

Questions	Associations	Mean Difference	Std. Dev.	Sig.
G1	A - C	1.57	0.429	0.003
	B - C	1.27	0.458	0.031
G3	A - C	1.36	0.326	0.001
	B - C	1.19	0.348	0.006
G10	A - C	1.00	0.425	0.076
	B - C	1.12	0.453	0.061

Conclusively, while the workers in the three associations shared similar views on general planning processes, the workers in Association A had the strongest belief about the use of plans and the importance of plans in their association followed by those in Association B. The workers in Association B most strongly believed that their association achieved the outcomes of its plan, whereas those in Association A believed a little less strongly. For all three statements, the workers in Association C showed the lowest belief.

### ***Ten Steps***

The same analyses such as the test of homogeneity of variances, ANOVA and multiple tests were conducted for the ten steps that the desirable planning processes should take. The test of homogeneity of variances reveals that there was no difference (at the 10% level of significance) in the variances of the response across the three sport associations. Nevertheless, Table 28, that summarises the results of ANOVA, shows that some associations should be regarded to have different responses (statistically, the responses from the three associations were sampled from different populations) for two questions; *My organisation properly monitors how the development plan is implemented* (T9), and *I understand the direction in which my organisation is headed* (T10) both at the 5 percent level of significance. It means that some systematic differences were found in responses to these two statements across different associations.

For all the other questions regarding the ten steps, no statistical difference was found across different associations. This implies that the workers in each association had similar perceptions on how their own associations took the steps that associations were advised to take in the planning processes by Chapman (1992), except the last two steps about monitoring and direction of plans.



Table 28. The results of ANOVA - Ten steps

		Sum Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
T 1. My org. uses information about factors affecting the outcomes for the next plan	Between Groups	4.842	2	2.421	2.365	0.108
	Within Groups	36.851	36	1.024		
	Total	41.692	38			
T 2. My org. recognises its current position when starting P.P.	Between Groups	4.027	2	2.014	2.140	0.132
	Within Groups	33.870	36	0.941		
	Total	37.897	38			
T 3. My org. recognises trends and changes relevant to its management.	Between Groups	6.827	2	3.414	2.387	0.106
	Within Groups	51.481	36	1.430		
	Total	58.308	38			
T 4. My org. works hard to achieve the outcomes outlined in the plan.	Between Groups	5.327	2	2.664	2.460	0.100
	Within Groups	38.981	36	1.083		
	Total	44.308	38			
T 5. I understand various goals and objectives of my organization.	Between Groups	9.336	2	4.668	1.995	0.151
	Within Groups	84.253	36	2.340		
	Total	93.590	38			
T 6. I understand the strategies that my org. uses to achieve its goals.	Between Groups	4.484	2	2.242	1.045	0.362
	Within Groups	77.260	36	2.146		
	Total	81.744	38			
T 7. I have an opportunity to read draft plans before they are finalised.	Between Groups	2.080	2	1.040	0.267	0.767
	Within Groups	140.227	36	3.895		
	Total	142.308	38			
T 8. I can provide feedback to the planning committee before the plan is finalised.	Between Groups	4.128	2	2.064	0.529	0.594
	Within Groups	140.539	36	3.904		
	Total	144.667	38			
T 9. My org. properly monitors how the development plan is implemented.	Between Groups	8.496	2	4.247	2.975	0.064
	Within Groups	51.403	36	1.428		
	Total	59.987	38			
T 10. I understand the direction in which my org. is headed.	Between Groups	19.181	2	9.590	5.047	0.012
	Within Groups	68.409	36	1.900		
	Total	87.590	38			

Multiple tests were conducted to explore these differences in T9 and T10, and the results are provided in Table 29. It is reported that to the statement, “*my organisation properly monitors how the development plan is implemented*” (T9), Association A showed a significantly different mean from Association C (at the 10 percent level of significance), while Association B was not significantly different from either association. This indicates that Association A was perceived to have more properly monitored the implementation of its development plan compared to Association C. The level of perception on the monitoring of the plan in Association B was not found to be statistically different from the other two associations.

For the statement, “*I understand the direction in which my organisation is headed*” (T10), Association B was found to have a significantly higher mean than Association C. This means that the workers in Association B had a clear understanding than those in Association C of the direction in which their association was headed. The understanding of the workers in Association A was not significantly different from the other two associations. For all the other eight statements, no significant difference across associations was found.

Table 29. The results of multiple (pairwise) test - Ten steps

Steps	Associations	Mean Difference	Std. Dev.	Sig.
T9	A – C	1.00	0.452	0.100
T10	B – C	1.41	0.555	0.052

### *Seven Essential Sections*

The results of ANOVA for the responses to seven essential sections are summarised in Table 30. The homogeneity test reported that there was no evidence that the variances of the responses to any statement from different associations were not homogeneous. This indicates that the responses of workers in each association to each essential section shared similar distributions. The results from ANOVA, in general, seem to be consistent with those from the test of homogeneity. For only one description, "*The specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in each year are identified*" (S6), significant differences (significance = 0.080, i.e.,  $p < 0.1$ ) between associations were found.

Table 31 reports the results of the multiple tests. Association A had a significantly higher mean than Association C at the 10 percent level of significance. Therefore, it can be concluded that the respondents in Association A more strongly recognised that the specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in each year were identified in their association's development plan than those in Association C did. No difference was found between Associations A and B, and Associations B and C on this or other items in this set.

Table 30. The results of ANOVA - Seven essential sections

		Sum Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
S 1. My org.'s development plan contains a background of the plan.	Between	3.120	2	3.060	1.929	0.160
	Within	57.11	36	1.586		
	Total	63.23	38			
S 2. My org.'s plan states why it exists and what it is to achieve	Between	5.290	2	2.645	1.576	0.221
	Within	60.40	36	1.678		
	Total	65.69	38			
S 3. The broad goals of my org. stated in the development plan.	Between	3.085	2	1.543	1.103	0.343
	Within	50.35	36	1.399		
	Total	53.43	38			
S 4. Previous years' plans achievement are reviewed in my org.'s development plan.	Between	4.573	2	2.287	1.425	0.254
	Within	57.78	36	1.605		
	Total	62.35	38			
S 5. A single summary table for the development outcomes is provided.	Between	.788	2	0.394	0.223	0.801
	Within	63.57	36	1.766		
	Total	64.35	38			
S 6. The specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in the year are presented.	Between	5.624	2	2.812	2.710	0.080
	Within	37.35	36	1.038		
	Total	42.97	38			
S 7. My org.'s program summary is in the development plan.	Between	1.287	2	0.644	0.348	0.709
	Within	66.61	36	1.850		
	Total	67.89	38			

Table 31. The results of multiple (pairwise) test - Seven essential sections

Section	Associations	Mean Difference	Std. Dev.	Sig.
Section 6	A - C	0.86	0.385	0.098

### ***Ten Key Results Areas***

Workers in different associations might have different perceptions about ten key result areas that Chapman (1992) suggested that plans should have. While the test of homogeneity of variances reported that the associations had heterogeneous variances for their responses to one of the ten key result areas, statement A7, ANOVA presented that some associations showed statistically different responses to five areas as reported in Table 32; *"my org. considers target population for growth and how to encourage participation"* (A3), *"my org. considers various issues relevant to training and professional development"* (A5), *"demand for major events is recognised"* (A7), *"my org. uses a plan addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development"* (A9), and *"my org. concentrates on achievements in special program"* (A10). In other words, for the other key result areas in the plan, workers in the three associations possessed views that were not statistically different.

As for previous planning aspects, multiple tests were carried out for the areas with significant differences across associations. The results of these tests were presented in Table 33.

For the statement *"my organisation considers target population for growth and how to encourage participation"* (A3), where both Associations A and B had significantly higher mean than Association C at the 5 and 10 percent levels of significance, respectively. The difference between Associations A and B was not significant. For the statement *"my organisation considers various issues relevant to training and professional development"* (A5), while Association A was not different from the other two, Association B was shown to be significantly different from Association C at the 5 percent level of significance.

Table 32. The results of ANOVA - Ten key result areas

		Sum Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
A 1. My org. includes many components about management.	Between Groups	2.929	2	1.464	1.097	0.345
	Within Groups	48.045	36	1.335		
	Total	50.974	38			
A 2. My org. includes plans for marketing and promotion.	Between Groups	6.741	2	3.371	1.766	0.185
	Within Groups	68.695	36	1.908		
	Total	75.436	38			
A 3. My org. considers target population for growth and how to encourage participation.	Between Groups	9.985	2	4.992	4.112	0.025
	Within Groups	43.708	36	1.214		
	Total	53.692	38			
A 4. My org. includes a development structure for athletes and specifies specific and measurable objectives.	Between Groups	.521	2	0.261	0.121	0.887
	Within Groups	77.838	36	2.162		
	Total	78.359	38			
A 5. My org. considers various issues relevant to training and professional development.	Between Groups	10.010	2	5.005	4.125	0.024
	Within Groups	43.682	36	1.213		
	Total	53.692	38			
A 6. My org. includes the development of rules, safety, guidelines and the equal of officials.	Between Groups	.116	2	0.058	0.029	0.971
	Within Groups	71.474	36	1.9585		
	Total	71.590	38			
A 7. Demand for major events is recognised.	Between Groups	6.001	2	3.001	3.009	0.062
	Within Groups	35.896	36	.997		
	Total	41.897	38			
A 8. Sport science aspects are included	Between Groups	5.304	2	2.652	1.160	0.325
	Within Groups	82.286	36	2.286		
	Total	87.590	38			
A 9. My org. uses a plan addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development.	Between Groups	9.290	2	4.645	2.596	0.088
	Within Groups	64.403	36	1.789		
	Total	73.692	38			

A 10. My org. concentrates on achievements in special program.	Between Groups	29.624	2	14.812	12.30 0	0.000
	Within Groups	43.351	36	1.204		
	Total	72.974	38			

Table 33. The results of multiple test - Ten key result areas

Areas	Associations	Mean Difference	Std. Dev.	Sig.
Area 3	A – C	1.07	0.416	0.048
	B – C	1.03	0.444	0.081
Area 5	B – C	1.27	0.044	0.025
Area 9	A – C	1.14	0.506	0.092
Area 10	A – B	-2.18	0.042	0.000
	A – C	-1.14	0.415	0.032
	B – C	1.04	0.442	0.077

For the statement, “my organisation uses a plan addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development” (A9), Association A had significantly different responses from Association C at the 10 percent level, where the mean difference was 1.14. Association B was, in this area, not different from the other two associations. The results of ANOVA showed a very strong indication that the difference across the associations for the statement “my organisation concentrates on achievements in special program” (A10). The difference between Associations A and B was significant at the 1 percent level. The difference between

Associations A and C, and that between B and C were significant at the 5 and 10 percent levels, respectively.

A more detailed analysis revealed that Association B concentrated on these achievements more than the other two (and was significantly different from the other two associations), and Association C did more than Association A. In other words, Association A concentrated less on achievements specified in special programs than the other associations.

This part investigated the plans and planning processes for the three WA sport associations. In particular, the difference between the three associations was examined using such methods as ANOVA and multiple tests. Overall the difference between associations was found from only a few descriptions. For most statements of four aspects of the planning processes (ten general questions, ten steps, seven essential sections and ten key result areas), the employees in each association demonstrated a very high level of understanding, and the difference across associations was not significant.

The difference was found from three questions out of ten regarding general planning processes, two descriptions out of ten regarding ten steps of planning processes, one description out of seven regarding seven essential sections and five descriptions out of ten regarding key result areas. Therefore, the respondents across associations showed significant differences for only 11 descriptions out of 37 regarding the plans and planning processes, overall, it was less than 30%. Nonetheless, a very strong tendency was found from this study. Associations A and/or B were found to be different from C in most aspects, while differences between Associations A and B were not found, in general. Association A usually had higher scores than Association B, except for A10. In the case of A10, the order was B, C and A (i.e. Association B was perceived to concentrate on achievements in special programs the most, Association C was next, and then Association A).



Table 34 summarises how these sport associations viewed their planning processes. The respondents in Association C did not view any item as more important than those in the other associations. Both Associations A and B recognised the importance of planning and actively use development plans. They also monitored implementation of the plan (Association A), or understood the direction (Association B) and considered target population for growth and encouraged participation.

Table 34 also shows that the difference between associations was not significant in general for 'Ten steps' and 'Seven essential sections.' These were procedural matters and perceived in a similar way by all respondents. They were also related to the structure of Chapman's model. This result suggests that even if Chapman's model had not been adopted, the general model that he suggested, which was probably drawn from strategic planning had been adopted by these sport associations.

The differences between associations were found from perception on target population, importance of planning, and performance in sport and management, in general. These are related to the nature of the associations, and they are also more substantial than procedural matters where these associations were similar. In other words, these associations shared similarities in structural and procedural matters, even though they did not adopt Chapman's model. However, they showed differences and limitations in more substantial matters that defined the nature and future trend of the associations.

Table 34. Differences between Associations in Planning – Summary

Section of Plan	Association A	Association B	Association C
10 General principles	My org. actively uses development or business plans (G1).	My org. actively uses development or business plans (G1).	
	P. P. are important for sport associations (G3).	P. P. are important for sport associations (G3).	
	I feel that my org. achieves the outcomes of its plan (G10).	I feel that my org. achieves the outcomes of its plan (G10).	
10 Steps	My org. properly monitors how the development plan is implemented (T9).	I understand the direction in which my org. is headed (T10).	
7 Essential sections	The specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in the year are presented (S6).		
10 Key result areas	My org. considers target population for growth and how to encourage participation (A3).	My org. considers target population for growth and how to encourage participation (A3).	
	My org. uses a plan addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development (A9).	My org. considers various issues relevant to training and professional development (A5).	
		My org. concentrates on achievements in special program (A10).	

NOTE: Each association had a significantly higher mean than either of the other associations for a listed statement.

### **Planning Processes – Reliability and Factor Analysis**

Internal consistency or co-movement of variables can be confirmed from calculating reliability. This section presents the level of reliability of the respondents' replies to the descriptions in each of the four categories in Chapman's planning processes – ten general questions, ten general steps, seven essential sections and ten key result areas. Cronbach's alpha for each category of descriptions was computed and is reported in this section.

In addition, this section reports the results of preliminary tests carried out as a step towards factor analysis. Factor analysis is needed in order to find how demographic profiles or cultural profiles of (employees in) each association affect the plans and planning processes. If variables (descriptions regarding the plans and planning processes) were not properly factorised, the number of dependent variables to be used in regression, which are expected to be explained by demographic and cultural profiles of the respondents and the association, would be excessive. In other words, without factorising, because of the 37 descriptions in this part of the questionnaire (of the plans and planning processes), there would be at least 37 different regressions to be carried out. In each estimation, the score of each description regarding the plans and planning processes would become the dependent variable. If factorising is successful, then the number of dependent variables can be significantly reduced, maintaining the general implication about the relationship between demographic/cultural profiles and the plans and planning processes that will be produced from regression. This section investigated both reliability and factorising of the response to the descriptions regarding plans and planning processes.

### ***Reliability***

For all four categories of descriptions regarding the plans and planning processes, Cronbach's Alpha was found to be substantially high, as reported in Table 35. The lowest value was for the seven essential sections, nevertheless, the value was almost 0.9. These results indicate that there is reliability in that the replies of respondents regarding the plans and planning processes, in general, moved in the same direction as the descriptions in the same category.

Table 35. Reliability of the plans and planning processes

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
General Questions	0.9180
Ten Steps	0.9380
Seven Essential Sections	0.8849
Ten Key Results Areas	0.9023

### ***Factor Analysis***

KMO (Keiser-Meyer-Olkin) test and Bartlett's test are recommended to confirm whether it is reasonable to carry out factor analysis to reduce the number of variables (SPSS, 2002). As it was necessary in this study to reduce the number of variables for more rigorous quantitative analyses, these two tests were carried out prior to factor analysis. It is suggested that KMO measures should be greater than 0.7 or 0.8, and chi-square statistics from Bartlett's test should be significant in order for factor analysis to be valid (SPSS, 2002; Kleinbaum, Kupper & Muller, 1988). If the results

of the two tests were not satisfactory, factor analysis would not be valid, and consequently, quantitative analyses based on the results from factor analysis cannot be carried out.

Table 36 reports that KMO measures for the four categories of descriptions were reliably high. Even the lowest measure for ten general questions was about 0.774, and the measure for the other three categories range from 0.81 to 0.86, which was sufficiently high for factor analysis to be valid.

Also, all chi-square statistics for Bartlett's test were significant (at the 1% level). Consequently, the use of factor analysis to reduce the number of dependent variables could be justified.

The next step was to perform factor analysis for questions regarding planning processes. This study used one of the two most popular methods, the Principal Component Analysis method. For the rotation method of factorising, Varimax method with Kaiser normalisation was adopted, which is widely used in factorising in social sciences (SPSS, 2002). Table 37 reports component score coefficients for each variable (description). While ten steps and seven sections could be reduced to only one variable each, ten descriptions regarding general planning processes and ten key result areas could also be reduced to two variables each. The component score coefficient allocated to each description in each category informed the factor loading that should be given for factorising.

Table 36. The results of preliminary tests for factor analysis – KMO test and Bartlett's test

	General Questions	Ten Steps	Seven Essential Sections	Ten Key Areas
KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.774	0.860	0.810	0.832
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Chi-sq.	291.415	348.178	161.613	232.566
Deg. of Free.	45	45	21	55
Significance	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

NOTE: KMO denotes for Keiser-Meyer-Olkin.

Table 37. Component score coefficients

	General (G)		10 Steps (T)	7 Sections (S)	10 Results (R)	
	GEN1	GEN2	TEN	SEC	RES1	RES2
1	-0.098	0.405	0.130	0.192	-0.022	0.221
2	0.106	0.101	0.110	0.199	0.146	0.018
3	-0.244	0.519	0.113	0.208	0.243	-0.084
4	0.133	0.063	0.133	0.163	0.307	-0.180
5	0.239	-0.105	0.127	0.176	-0.181	0.426
6	0.281	-0.203	0.117	0.204	0.049	0.122
7	0.276	-0.242	0.118	0.119	0.054	0.153
8	0.164	0.026	0.122		0.290	-0.168
9	0.122	0.050	0.124		0.275	-0.119
10	-0.065	0.355	0.130		-0.206	0.388
Eigen Values	5.843		6.736	4.298	5.749	
% of Variance Explained	58.433		66.359	61.406	52.260	

The results of the factorising analysis can be summarised as follows. First, ten statements regarding general planning processes could be reduced to two variables, GEN1 and GEN2. These two variables have very distinctive features. For GEN1, factor loadings for G1, G3 and G10 were negative. Factor loadings for these three descriptions in GEN2 were relatively high. In contrast, GEN2 had negative factor loadings for G5, G6 and G7, for which GEN1 had high factor loadings. While all ten descriptions were about general planning processes, those for which GEN2 had negative factor loadings were about how the association valued the respondents' opinions in planning processes. For example, G5 was "*my association values my opinion,*", G6 referred to "*my association values all paid workers' opinions in planning processes,*", and G7 was "*my association values volunteers' opinions in planning processes.*" In comparison, G1 was "*my organisation actively uses plans*", G3 was "*planning processes are important for sport associations*", and G10 was "*I feel that my association achieves the outcomes of its plan.*" Therefore, it may be summarised that GEN1 emphasised the association's value of the respondents' opinions in planning processes, and did not emphasise the use and importance of the plans. GEN1 is therefore labelled as "*individual/employee involvement*". GEN2, in contrast, emphasises the use and importance of the plans, and did not emphasise how the association valued the respondents' opinions in planning processes. Therefore, GEN2 is labelled as "*importance of planning*".

In TEN for ten steps and SEC for seven essential sections, each description had similar factor loadings except that S7 had a slightly lower factor loading for SEC. S7 referred to "*my association's program budget summary is in the development plan.*"

Ten key result areas (RES) also could be reduced to two variables. RES1 had negative factor loadings for R1, R5 and R10, for which RES2 had relatively high factor loadings. In comparison, RES2 had negative factor loadings for R3, R4, R8 and R9. As described in Table 32, R1, R5 and R10 were mainly about *management*,

*professional development, and training and special programs.* In contrast, R3, R4, R8 and R9 were *growth, development structure for athletes, sport science and facility management and maintenance.* Therefore, it can be understood that RES1 put more weight on growth, development structure, sport science and facility management, while RES2 emphasised management and professional development as well as special programs. Therefore, RES1 is labelled as “*performance*” and RES2 is labelled as “*management and development.*” Table 38 presents all these variables derived from factor analysis.

Table 38. Factors and characteristics in planning

Section of Plan	Factor title – short version	Factor title – long version
10 General principles	GEN1	Individual/employee involvement
	GEN2	Importance of planning
10 Steps	TEN	Ten steps factor
7 Essential sections	SEC	Seven essential sections factor
10 Key result areas	RES1	Performance
	RES2	Management and development

### Summary

This chapter concentrated on the plans and planning processes of the three WA sport associations. Analyses of the collected data from surveys including homogeneity tests, ANOVA and multiple tests reported that these three sport associations shared considerable similarities in issues regarding their plans and planning processes. Nevertheless, approximately 30% of the descriptions of the associations revealed different features. In general, the workers of Association A indicated strong perceptions that their plans and planning processes were consistent with Chapman’s



suggestion. The workers in Association B generally showed slightly weaker perceptions of consistency compared to those in Association A, but no statistical difference was found. In comparison, the workers of Association C showed significantly lower perceptions of consistency than those of Associations A or B in about 30% of their descriptions. In other words, while all three associations were based in Western Australia, they had a varying spectrum of perceptions on planning. Therefore, it is worthwhile to explore why these differences emerged, and particularly, whether organisational culture and demographic profiles can explain the differences.

This chapter also attempted to find reliability of the data using Cronbach's alpha, and carried out factor analyses. It was found that the reliability of the responses was extremely high for all four categories of descriptions. Factor analyses showed that ten steps and seven essential sections could be reduced to one variable each, and ten questions on general planning processes and ten key result areas for the plans could be reduced to two variables each. Using the reduced number of variables and the results of factorising analyses carried out in the previous chapters for demography and organisational culture, the effects of demographic profiles and organisational cultural characteristics on planning process are analysed in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 9**

### **ASSOCIATIONS' DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES, ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND THE DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESSES**

#### **Introduction**

Previous chapters identified the demographic and organisational cultural profiles of the three Western Australian sport associations that participated in this study. The respondents' perceptions of the plans and planning processes for each association were also quantified and analysed in Chapter 8. One of the most important concerns of this study was to establish the relationship between the profiles of each association and planning processes. More specifically, the research questions asked; (i) whether perception of the plans and planning processes was affected by the organisational culture perceived by the respondent, and if so, (ii) which organisational cultural characteristics across associations explained the difference in perception of which parts of the plans and planning processes.

This chapter attempts to find answers to these research questions. The next section introduces variables to be used in analysis, and is followed by the introduction section of estimation methods. Then the findings from the estimation are discussed, and the last section summarises this chapter.

#### **Definitions of Variables**

While the total number of observations (the number of respondents) was 39 for each variable (questions, statements or descriptions), the number of variables included in

the questionnaire was large. Therefore, it was necessary to reduce the number of variables for quantitative analyses based on regression methods. Factor analysis was used to reduce the number of variables, maintaining the statistical meaning of original variables. Factorising was applied to variables related to the plans and planning processes and organisational cultures. The resulting variables and demographic variables composed the entire data set to be used in this chapter. Table 39 summarises all the variables used in the analyses carried out in this chapter.

## **Quantitative Analyses of the Relationship**

### ***Regression Analysis***

The conceptual framework of this study assumed that the workers in each sport association participating in this study may have different perceptions about the plans and planning processes. With an assumption that worker's perceptions were correct and consistent with the true facts, it might be argued that each sport association had its own unique aspects in the plans and planning processes. In the previous chapter, it was discovered that for selected questions/descriptions about the planning processes, associations showed different responses.

While the descriptions to which the respondents from different associations revealed different opinions were not more than 30% of the total descriptions in that part of the questionnaire, the subsequent factor analysis showed that responses from the respondents for each description in each category could be successfully reduced to one or two variables (two variables for ten general questions and ten key result areas, respectively, and one variable for ten steps and seven essential sections, respectively).

Table 39. Descriptions of variables used in regression analyses

Variables	Description
Number of Respondents = 39	
<b><u>Dependent Variables</u></b>	
Planning Processes Variables	
GEN 1	<i>Individual/employee involvement;</i> First factorising value from ten general questions regarding planning processes
GEN 2	<i>Importance of planning;</i> Second factorising value from ten general questions regarding planning processes
TEN	A factorising value from ten questions regarding ten steps of planning processes
SEC	A factorising value from seven questions regarding seven sections of plans
RES 1	<i>Performance;</i> First factorising value from ten questions regarding ten results in plans
RES 2	<i>Management and Development;</i> Second factorising value from ten questions regarding ten results in plans
<b><u>Independent Variables</u></b>	
Respondent's Demographic Characteristics	
AGE	Age of the respondent (years)
GND	Gender of the respondent = 0 if male, = 1 if female
CAR1	Duration in the current profession (years)
CAR2	Duration in the current sport association (years)
EMP1	Employment status of the respondent = 0 if paid, = 1 if volunteer
EMP2	Employment status of the respondent = 0 if full time, = 1 if part time
EDU	Duration of education (years)
Organisational Culture	
G	Factorised value for Group culture
D	Factorised value for Development culture
H1	<i>Stability;</i> First factorised value for Hierarchical culture
H2	<i>Predictability;</i> Second factorised value for Hierarchical culture
R	Factorised value for Rational culture

---

It was also found from quantitative analysis of demographic and cultural profiles of the associations that, for certain aspects, some associations had distinctively different characteristics. Factor analysis for the four organisational cultures based on the competing values framework further showed that the variables (responses to questions) for three cultures – group, development and rational – could be reduced to one variable, while those for hierarchical culture could be reduced to two. In accordance with these results, it was worthwhile to investigate the relationship between two groups of explanatory variables, demographic and cultural profiles, and a group of dependent variables related to the plans and planning processes. The fundamental estimation was based on the following framework that respondent  $i$ 's perception of the plans and planning processes ( $Y_i$ ) was affected by her/his personal profile and organisational cultural profile of the association for which s/he worked (and as s/he perceived). In other words,

$$Y_i = F [(demographic\ profile)_i, (organisational\ cultural\ profile)_i] \quad (9.1)$$

where  $Y$  is a dependent variable factorised from responses to questions regarding the plans and planning processes and  $i$  stands for respondent  $i$ .

As a major focus of this study was to find the (partial) effect of the explanatory variables, rather than to find an accurate functional form of the relationship and causality, it was more specifically assumed that each explanatory variable influenced dependent variables in a linear form. In other words, function  $F$  showed above is a linear function of demographic and organisational cultural profile variables. Therefore, the coefficient for each independent variable estimated from regression indicates how much the dependent variable changes as the independent variable changes by one unit.

In addition, there might be some systematic patterns or characteristics in each association that were not captured in the survey, notwithstanding their significant effects on the plans and planning processes. Two dummy variables identifying each association were added to resolve this problem.

$$\begin{aligned} DUMA_i &= 1 \text{ if respondent } i \text{ works in Association A} \\ &= 0 \text{ if respondent } i \text{ works in Association B or C,} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} DUMB_i &= 1 \text{ if respondent } i \text{ works in Association B} \\ &= 0 \text{ if respondent } i \text{ works in Association A or C.} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, any significant coefficient for DUMA found from a certain regression informed that the workers in Association A perceived the specific aspects of the plans or planning processes differently from workers in the other associations, where the reason for the difference was not revealed through variables introduced in the estimation. The coefficient for DUMB could be interpreted in the same fashion. Taking into account the discussions provided above, the estimation was in the following form:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i &= a_0 + a_1 G_i + a_2 D_i + a_3 HI_i + a_4 H2_i + a_5 R_i \\ &+ a_6 AGE_i + a_7 GND_i + a_8 CAR1_i + a_9 CAR2_i + a_{10} EMP1_i \\ &+ a_{11} EMP2_i + a_{12} EDU_i + a_{13} DUMA_i + a_{14} DUMB_i + e_i, \end{aligned} \quad (9.2)$$

where  $e_i$  stands for residuals assumed to satisfy classical assumptions for the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation method. Using regression methods, coefficients  $a$ 's are to be estimated. These coefficients can be interpreted as the partial effect of the

relevant independent variable on the dependent variable when all other things are equal or controlled.

While the most common method to estimate the linear relationship (ordinary least squares method: OLS) was initially used in the above estimated equation, for some estimations, a problem labelled heteroskedasticity was found. Heteroskedasticity indicated that residuals violated some assumptions required to run OLS. As one crucial assumption for OLS to be valid was violated by heteroskedasticity, the generalised least square (GLS) method was used to fix this problem (Greene, 2003). More specifically, White's heteroskedasticity adjusted standard errors method was used to fix this problem and run GLS.

While considerably high correlations were found for some pairs of variables, this study attempted to include all relevant independent variables the first time, except for the variable AGE. This was to follow advice from Greene (2003), who explained that the exclusion of relevant variables raises more serious problems than the inclusion of variables with high correlations (the so called multicollinearity problem). Multicollinearity is known to increase standard deviation of the estimated coefficient, and accordingly tends to fail to reject the null hypothesis that hypothesises the estimated coefficient to be zero (Greene, 2003). In contrast, the exclusion of relevant variables makes the estimated parameter biased and inconsistent. It is statistically argued that the error of failing to reject the wrong hypothesis is a relatively minor problem compared to accepting a biased and inconsistent estimator.

AGE was excluded from the first estimation, as it was too highly correlated with the two career variables CAR1 (duration in this profession) and CAR2 (duration in this sport association) showing the correlation coefficients higher than 0.95, and therefore, could be used alternatively. Nevertheless, in the field of applied statistics, it is also argued that the exclusion of variables with insignificant coefficients should be

justified for the parsimony of the estimation, in particular, when it is possible that the insignificant variable might not have any real relation with the dependent variable.

This exclusion also avoids unnecessary exaggeration of the coefficient of interest due to the inclusion of variables correlated with independent variables. Taking this argument into consideration, this study attempted to exclude insignificant variables after the initial regression with all the independent variables were conducted. However, the exclusion was not continued once the exclusion of a certain independent variable did not improve the fitness of the estimation substantially (in this study,  $R\text{-bar-squared}$ ).

### ***Results and Discussion***

#### *Ten general questions regarding the plans and planning processes*

Using Equation 9.2 and variables listed in Table 39, estimation was carried out for each dependent variable (about the plans and planning processes). First of all, GEN1 (*individual/employee involvement*), the first variable factorised from ten general questions regarding the plans and planning processes was used as a dependent variable. Table 40 reports the results for the two cases; the second column is the results from estimation with all the independent variables (general model), and the third column contains those from estimation with selected variables (parsimonious model) that maximise the fitness of the model. As heteroskedasticity was found for both the general model and parsimonious model, generalised least squares (GLS) was used to correct the problem.



Table 40. The effects of demographic and organisational cultural profiles on planning process – Ten general questions 1 (*Individual/employee Involvement*)

Regressors	Estimation 1 (GLS)	Estimation 2 (GLS)
Constant	-0.9624 (-0.3949)	-1.2511 (-0.5655)
Group	0.8538*** (4.0127)	0.9334*** (4.5171)
Development	0.0644 (0.2825)	0.2151 (0.9122)
Hierarchy 1 ( <i>Stability</i> )	-0.1525 (-0.7873)	-0.1482 (-0.8678)
Hierarchy 2 ( <i>Predictability</i> )	-0.2927 (-1.4041)	-0.3105* (-1.8236)
Rational	0.2203 (0.7912)	---
Gender	-0.8545** (-2.1599)	-0.8214** (-2.2921)
Career 1	-0.0094 (-0.5090)	-0.0259* (-1.9965)
Career 2	-0.0228 (0.6399)	---
Employment Status 1	-0.6124 (-1.4040)	-0.4896* (-1.7921)
Employment Status 2	-0.0768 (-0.1912)	---
Education	0.0818 (0.8018)	0.0961 (1.0152)
DUMA	-0.8154* (-1.9669)	-0.9265* (-2.0282)
DUMB	0.5579 (0.8482)	0.5768 (0.9222)
R-Bar-Squared	0.5678	0.6220
F-statistics	4.8404***	7.1987***
Functional Form	1.7390	1.5106

NOTE: Numbers in the first rows are coefficients and those in the second rows are t-ratios. \*, \*\* and \*\*\* stand for, to be significant at 10, 5, and 1% level, respectively. The null hypothesis for F-test is that all coefficients are zero. Functional form is tested by Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values, and shows that there was no significant flaw in using this function. GLS uses White's heteroskedasticity adjusted standard errors.

For Estimation 1, the fitness measured by R-bar-squared was substantially high, considering that this was cross-sectional analysis based on survey data. The result of the RESET test shows that the estimation does not have a serious flaw in the functional form, in spite of the relatively small number of observations. A very high significance of the F-statistic indicates that at least one coefficient was significantly different from zero. In other words, at least one of independent variables significantly explained the respondent's perception of her/his association's plans/planning processes as revealed through ten general questions. In fact, three variables turned out to explain the variations in the dependent variable significantly; group culture, gender and dummy variable for Association A. A very strong and positive coefficient for group culture implied that an association with relatively strong group culture was likely to have more emphases on general aspects of the plans and planning processes, and the workers were more aware that their opinions were valued and they could participate in planning processes.

Gender had a negative coefficient implying that females were less likely to respond to these questions positively, or less aware that their opinions were valued or accepted. The dummy variable for Association A had a negative coefficient, which implied that, with all other things being equal, the workers in Association A attained generally low scores to general questions related to the plans and planning processes. The negative coefficient for the variable for Association A captured the effects that were not explained by the other independent variables in the equation.

It is noted that an association with an emphasis on group cultural values and fewer female workers was more likely to have high scores for this set of questions. Therefore, if Association A had a strong group culture and more female workers than the other associations, then even with the negative coefficient for DUMA, it was possible that this association would have higher scores for these questions.

Estimation 2 excluded variables with high correlations and low significance as found from Estimation 1. While the fitness increases by this parsimony of the model, more variables were found to be significant. In addition to the three variables found to be significant in Estimation 1, three more variables were found to be significant; hierarchy culture (H2: *predictability*), career (CAR1: *duration in the current profession*), and employment status (JOB1: *paid or volunteer worker*). All of these variables had negative coefficients. An association with hierarchy culture or predictability for outcome was more likely to have lower scores for these descriptions – ten questions regarding the plans and planning processes, in particular, where the participation of the workers in planning processes were emphasised.

Also, a worker with relatively more duration of work with the current association was less likely to perceive that their opinions were valued and accepted in planning processes. While this result is different from what was expected, the coefficient is very small and the significance is marginal. When workers were categorised as paid workers and volunteers, it was found that volunteers were more likely to allocate lower scores to these descriptions. In other words, paid workers appeared to feel more involved in the process than volunteers, recognising that their associations' plans or planning processes considered their opinions and views.

The exclusion of the relevant variables incurs serious statistical problems that erode the reliability of the results. Unfortunately, it is not clear whether or not the variables excluded in Estimation 2 are really relevant to the ten descriptions regarding planning processes. Accordingly, while Estimation 2 provides higher fitness and more significant coefficients, the results should be accepted and interpreted with caution.

The same method applied to GEN1 (*individual/employee involvement*) was applied to GEN2 (*importance of planning*), and the results from the two estimations are reported in Table 41. Due to heteroskedasticity, White's method was used for GLS to correct the problem in this estimation. The fitness of the model was still substantially high.

Table 41. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning process –  
Ten general questions 2 (*Importance of planning*)

Regressors	Estimation 1 (GLS)	Estimation 2 (GLS)
Constant	4.1309* (1.8625)	3.3459** (2.2992)
Group	0.0444 (0.2550)	---
Development	0.0007 (0.0029)	---
Hierarchy 1	0.2902 (1.6892)	0.3159** (2.4190)
Hierarchy 2	0.0568 (0.3240)	---
Rational	-0.0660 (-0.2430)	---
Gender	-0.2986 (-0.7853)	-0.3611 (-1.0748)
Career 1	0.0072 (0.3588)	0.0187** (2.3621)
Career 2	0.0192 (0.5846)	---
Employment Status 1	-0.2186 (-0.4401)	---
Employment Status 2	-0.1779 (-0.4227)	---
Education	0.0885 (0.9313)	0.0885 (1.0986)
DUMA	-0.4899 (-1.0323)	-0.4162 (-1.2500)
DUMB	-2.1757*** (-4.2098)	-2.0289*** (-4.7911)
R-Bar-Squared	0.4477	0.5567
F-statistics	3.3697***	8.9541***
Functional Form	3.8906**	4.2612*

NOTE: Numbers in the first rows are coefficients and those in the second rows are t-ratios. \*, \*\* and \*\*\* stand for, to be significant at 10, 5, and 1% level, respectively. The null hypothesis for F-test is that all coefficients are zero. Functional form is tested by Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values. GLS uses White's heteroskedasticity adjusted standard errors.

For Estimation 1, only one variable seemed to be significant in explaining GEN2, *the importance of planning*, a dummy variable for Association B. Therefore, the high significance of the F-test, which examines whether or not all the coefficients can be zero, was in fact from the significance of this dummy variable. While all the other variables failed to explain the variation in scores for GEN2, the negative coefficient for Association B explained that there was some statistical evidence that the workers in Association B had a tendency to assign lower scores to GEN2 than those in the other associations. It implies that the workers in Association B perceived the importance and the usefulness of the plans and planning processes less than the other associations. Estimation 2 excluded some insignificant variables found from Estimation 1, and revealed that, in addition to the dummy variable for Association B, hierarchical culture and career1 had significant coefficients, where the signs were positive. This means that we cannot exclude the possibility that a respondent who perceived hierarchical culture *and* who worked in the association for a long time perceived that planning was important (i.e., higher scores for GEN2).

The results from Estimations for *Individual/employee Involvement* (GEN1) and *Importance of Planning* (GEN2) might seem contradictory in some sense. While group culture was significant for GEN1, *individual/employee involvement*, hierarchical culture was significant for GEN2, *the importance of planning*. While Association A had a negative coefficient for GEN1, Association B had a negative coefficient for GEN2. These seemingly contradictory results should be understood and expected given that the ten questions regarding general plans and planning processes were reduced to two variables, not one. It implies that we can find two 'integrated' (factorised) variables that have different characteristics or movements.

Factor analysis showed that GEN1 and GEN2 have conspicuously different weights on some questions. This indicates that they reflected two different aspects. GEN1 had negative weights for statements such as "my organisation actively uses development

or business plans,” “planning processes are important for sport associations,” and “we feel that my association achieves the outcomes of its plan.” In contrast, GEN2 had very high weights for all of these statements. GEN2 instead had negative weights for statements such as “my organisation values my opinions in planning processes,” “my association values all paid workers’ opinions in planning processes,” and “my association values volunteers’ opinions in planning processes.” For these three statements, GEN1 allocated relatively high weights. Therefore, it is natural that explanatory variables showed different directions of effects for GEN1 and GEN2, as the composition of GEN1 and GEN2 are completely different.

#### *Ten steps to be taken in planning processes*

The second section in the plans and planning processes part of the questionnaire asked whether each association took into account the ten steps as suggested in Chapman (1992). The results of estimation (OLS) exploring the effects of demographic and organisational cultural profiles on the ten steps are summarised in Table 42. The overall fitness of the model was substantially high, and comparable to that for GEN2. F-tests showed that both Estimations 1 and 2 had at least one variable that significantly affected responses to questions about ten steps. In Estimation 1, functional form tested by Chi-square method (Ramsey’s RESET test) revealed that the function may lose system channel from certain omitted variables, however, F-test version did not reject the null hypothesis of no functional form problems. Therefore, it is concluded that the estimation does not have a serious flaw in the functional form, while, as less than 50 observations were used in the analysis, a certain degree of functional problem is inevitably expected and accepted.

Table 42. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes –  
Ten steps

Regressors	Estimation 1 (OLS)	Estimation 2 (OLS)
Constant	1.0314 (0.4019) 0.6578***	0.4774 (0.2487) 0.6410***
Group	(3.2616)	(4.2023)
Development	-0.0873 (-0.3394)	---
Hierarchy 1	0.1174 (0.5906)	0.2021 (1.2842)
Hierarchy 2	-0.1797 (-0.8855)	-0.1880 (-1.2015)
Rational	0.1905 (0.6067)	---
Gender	-0.7268 (-1.6520)	-0.6903* (-1.8119)
Career 1	-0.0003 (-0.0131)	0.0160 (1.3581)
Career 2	0.0056 (0.1478)	---
Employment Status 1	-0.3795 (-0.6602)	---
Employment Status 2	-0.0072 (-0.0148)	---
Education	0.1357 (1.2335)	0.1478 (1.5154)
DUMA	-0.8240 (-1.5006)	-0.7008 (-1.5568)
DUMB	-0.7773 (-1.2998)	-0.9433** (-2.2911)
R-Bar-Squared	0.4621	0.5494
F-statistics	3.5117***	6.7909***
Functional Form	4.4451**	2.5252

NOTE: Numbers in the first rows are coefficients and those in the second rows are t-ratios. \*, \*\* and \*\*\* stand for, to be significant at 10, 5, and 1% level, respectively. The null hypothesis for F-test is that all coefficients are zero. Functional form is tested by Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values.

Estimation 1 revealed that an association with a predominant group culture was more likely to take the ten steps (as suggested by Chapman) in the planning processes. However, the difference between associations was not found. The importance of group culture was also confirmed when the parsimonious model was used in Estimation 2. The parsimonious model also found that gender and a dummy variable for Association B were negative and significant. This can be interpreted that female workers were less likely to perceive that their association took ten steps in planning processes. Furthermore, the workers in Association B recognised that they considered the ten steps less than the other associations.

#### *Seven essential sections to be in the plans*

Just as in the ten planning steps case, no heteroskedasticity was detected for the estimations for seven essential sections that are expected to be included in the plans. Accordingly, OLS was used for estimation. The results of estimation are presented in Table 43. The fitness of the model is not very high, especially when compared to the previous estimations for ten general questions and ten steps to be taken. Nevertheless, considering that this was a cross-section analysis and the number of observations was relatively small, the fitness found was still acceptable.

Estimation 1 reports that group culture and a dummy for Association A were important, while Estimation 2 reports that a dummy for Association C was also significant. These results indicate that an association with relatively strong group culture was more likely to be perceived to have Chapman's seven essential sections in its plans. Also, Association A seemed to have relatively lower scores for these questions, implying that employers in Association A appeared not to identify with the seven essential sections in the plans as much as those in the other associations did. Estimation 2 presented that Association B had also negative effects. That both Associations A and B had negative coefficients indicates that Association C has relatively more awareness of this section of the plan.



Table 43. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes –  
Seven essential sections

Regressors	Estimation 1 (OLS)	Estimation 2 (OLS)
Constant	1.9730 (0.7661)	2.6595 (1.5471)
Group	0.4724** (2.3345)	0.4358*** (3.5443)
Development	-0.1726 (-0.6687)	---
Hierarchy 1	-0.0781 (-0.3916)	---
Hierarchy 2	-0.0640 (-0.3140)	---
Rational	0.3220 (1.0218)	---
Gender	-0.5694 (-1.2897)	-0.5351 (-1.3904)
Career 1	-0.0152 (-0.6573)	---
Career 2	0.0381 (1.0003)	0.0257 (1.4339)
Employment Status 1	0.0100 (0.0173)	---
Employment Status 2	0.2487 (0.5089)	---
Education	0.1474 (1.3354)	0.1528 (1.5809)
DUMA	-1.1724** (-2.1278)	-1.1044** (-2.0282)
DUMB	-0.4765 (-0.7941)	-0.8744** (-2.1696)
R-Bar-Squared	0.2944	0.3988
F-statistics	2.2194**	5.2003***
Functional Form	0.0149	0.0491

NOTE: Numbers in the first rows are coefficients and those in the second rows are t-ratios. \*, \*\* and \*\*\* stand for, to be significant at 10, 5, and 1% level, respectively. The null hypothesis for F-test is that all coefficients are zero. Functional form is tested by Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values.

*Ten key result areas to be included in the plans*

Key Result Areas may differ from the other process-focused areas in development plans. This means that whether individual items in the Key Result Areas are included in a development plan or not is dependent on the strategy of the particular sport association and the strength, weakness and uniqueness of its sport. Nevertheless, most items in Chapman's Key Result Areas can be regarded as the necessary areas that sport associations need to confirm whether their development plan is successfully implemented. In this context, it would be worthwhile to analyse which demographic profiles and organisational culture types determine the workers' perceptions of Key Result Areas.

Factor analyses carried out previously revealed that the ten result areas to be included in plans could be reduced into two variables. The key differences between the two factorised variables were that RES1 (*performance*) had negative weights for questions 1, 5 and 10, while RES2 (*management*) had negative weights for questions 3, 4, 8 and 9.

Table 44 reports the results from estimation when RES1 (*performance*) was used as a dependent variable. Heteroskedasticity was found again, and corrected by GLS using White's heteroskedasticity adjusted standard errors. The fitness of the overall estimation model was extremely low, and DUMA was the only significant variable explaining RES1. Even the F-statistic was not sufficiently high to reject the null hypothesis of the insignificant coefficients for all. While all the other variables were insignificant, only Association A had a negative and significant coefficient. The significance of DUMA indicates that due to some other reasons than those explicitly included in the estimation in the form of independent variables, Association A had a strong tendency to have a lower RES1 (*performance*) score than the other associations.

Table 44. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes –  
Ten key results area 1 (*Performance*)

Regressors	Estimation 1 (GLS)	Estimation 2 (GLS)
Constant	-0.2563 (-0.0785)	2.3730** (2.1000)
Group	0.3235 (1.0557)	0.4484*** (2.8342)
Development	0.0602 (0.1494)	---
Hierarchy 1	-0.0892 (-0.5475)	---
Hierarchy 2	0.2579 (1.2792)	---
Rational	0.0586 (0.1586)	---
Gender	0.1436 (0.2848)	---
Career 1	-0.0294 (-1.5189)	---
Career 2	0.0530 (1.4833)	---
Employment Status 1	0.1649 (0.2462)	---
Employment Status 2	0.1338 (0.3271)	---
Education	0.1343 (1.0951)	---
DUMA	-1.5585** (-2.4154)	-1.3261*** (-2.9233)
DUMB	-0.8755 (-1.1275)	-0.9318** (-2.2340)
R-Bar-Squared	0.0905	0.2779
F-statistics	1.2908	5.8747***
Functional Form	0.0444	0.5378

NOTE: Numbers in the first rows are coefficients and those in the second rows are t-ratios. \*, \*\* and \*\*\* stand for, to be significant at 10, 5, and 1% levels, respectively. The null hypothesis for F-test is that all coefficients are zero. Functional form is tested by Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values. GLS uses White's heteroskedasticity adjusted standard errors.

This result indicates that while the listed variables do not explain the difference between associations, Association A's unique characteristics, that are not demographic or organisational cultural characteristics, worked for the association to have systematically lower perceptions of the reporting of performance in development plans.

While only a dummy variable for Association A was significant for Estimation 1, the more parsimonious model revealed that group culture had a positive effect on RES1 (*performance*), and a dummy for Association B had a negative effect on RES1 (*performance*) like the dummy variable for Association A.

Those who perceived that their organisations were group culture oriented were more likely to perceive that their plans had more RES1 (*performance*), meaning that such aspects as many management components, various issues relevant to training and professional development, and achievements in special programs were emphasised in their association. The fitness of the estimation significantly improved for Estimation 2.

The last dependent variable used was RES2 (*management and development*), the second factorised variable from ten variables related to ten key result areas. The results of estimation are reported in Table 45. In contrast to RES1 (*performance*), no heteroskedasticity was detected and OLS method was used. For Estimation 1 with all the independent variables, only DUMA had a significant coefficient with a positive sign. Being different from RES1, workers in Association A showed higher scores to RES2 (*management and development*).

Table 45. The effects of demographic and cultural profiles on planning processes –  
Ten key results area 2 (*Management*)

Regressors	Estimation 1 (OLS)	Estimation 2 (OLS)
Constant	0.2386 (0.1144)	-0.1301 (-0.1421)
Group	0.0528 (0.3222)	---
Development	0.0314 (0.1500)	---
Hierarchy 1	0.0914 (0.5653)	---
Hierarchy 2	-0.0263 (-0.1596)	---
Rational	0.1667 (0.6531)	0.3243*** (2.7095)
Gender	-0.0731 (-0.2043)	---
Career 1	0.0143 (0.7616)	---
Career 2	-0.0295 (-0.9556)	---
Employment Status 1	-0.1910 (-0.4087)	---
Employment Status 2	0.1323 (0.3341)	---
Education	0.0023 (0.0261)	---
DUMA	1.4830*** (3.3218)	1.5753*** (5.1064)
DUMB	0.7081 (1.4564)	0.9105*** (2.8996)
R-Bar-Squared	0.2541	0.4247
F-statistics	1.9956*	10.3501***
Functional Form	0.0170	0.2666

NOTE: Numbers in the first rows are coefficients and those in the second rows are t-ratios. \*, \*\* and \*\*\* stand for, to be significant at 10, 5, and 1% level, respectively. The null hypothesis for F-test is that all coefficients are zero. Functional form is tested by Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values. GLS uses White's heteroskedasticity adjusted standard errors.

A more parsimonious approach revealed that rational culture also contributed to RES2 (*management and development*) score in a positive way. Association B revealed higher scores to RES2 (*management and development*), as well as Association A. It implies that workers in Association C allocated significantly lower scores to relevant questions for RES2 (*management and development*), compared to those in Associations A and B. Allocating low scores to RES2 (*management and development*) suggested that the Association C respondents recognised that their association placed emphases on such aspects as consideration of target population, development structure for athletes and specific and measurable objectives, sport sciences aspects and facility management and future development, and less emphasis on the management side.

### Summary

From the results of regression analyses, the relationship between a variety of explanatory variables (demographic profiles and organisational cultural profiles) and dependent variables (the plans and planning processes) can be summarised as the following.

First, the relationship between [the perception of] organisational culture and [the perception of] planning processes was found in certain cases.

i) A worker who perceived the association to be group culture-oriented was likely to perceive that his/her association's GEN1 (*individual/employee involvement*), TEN (*ten key result area*), SEC (*seven essential sections*) and RES1 (*result-performance*) were high.

ii) A worker who perceived the association to be hierarchical culture-oriented (H1: *stability*) was likely to perceive that his/her association's GEN2

(*importance of planning*) was high. In other words, an organisation that regards stability as an important factor subsequently recognizes the importance of the plans and planning process.

iii) A worker who perceived his/her association to be hierarchical culture-oriented (H2: *predictability*) was likely to perceive that his/her association's GEN2 (*importance of planning*) was low.

iv) A worker who perceived his/her association to be rational culture-oriented was likely to perceive that his/her association's RES2 (*management and development*) was high.

While statistically, development culture was not explicitly identified as having an effect on the plans and planning processes, this possibility is not completely excluded. It was revealed that development culture generally was closely correlated with group culture, but was excluded in the parsimonious models because group culture always held higher significance. It is impossible at this stage to separate the effect of development culture from group culture.

Second, it was also found that some of the demographic profiles of respondents affected the perception of the plans and planning processes. They are summarised as the following.

i) A female worker was more likely to perceive that her association's GEN1 (*individual/employee involvement*) and adherence to TEN (*ten planning steps*) were low.

ii) A worker with longer work experience in her/his current occupation was more likely to perceive the respective association's GEN1 (*individual/employee*

*involvement*) as low, while perceiving its GEN2 (*importance of planning*) as high.

iii) A volunteer worker was more likely to perceive that his/her association's GEN2 (*importance of planning*) was high, compared to paid employees.

The last discussion regards the relationship between unspecified characteristics of each association and its perception of planning processes.

i) Workers in Associations B and C were more likely to perceive that their associations' GEN1 (*individual/employee involvement*) was higher than those in Association A.

ii) Workers in Associations A and C were more likely to perceive that their associations' GEN2 (*importance of planning*) was higher than those in Association B.

iii) Workers in Associations A and C were more likely to perceive that their associations' TEN (*ten planning steps*) was higher than those in Association B.

iv) Workers in Associations B and C were more likely to perceive that their associations' SEC (*seven essential sections*) and RES1 (*performance*) were higher than those in Association A. Or, alternatively, workers in Association C were more likely to perceive that their association's SEC (*seven essential sections*) and RES1 (*performance*) were higher than those in Associations A and B.

v) Workers in Associations A and B were more likely to perceive that their associations' RES2 (*management and development*) was higher than those in Association C. Or, alternatively, workers in Association A were more likely to



perceive that their association's RES2 (*management and development*) was higher than those in Associations B and C.

This chapter used ordinary and generalised least squared methods of regression to explore the relationships between demographic and organisational cultural profiles of the three sport associations and their respective planning processes. These complex statistical analyses revealed that the emphasis on group culture influenced the planning process, and also examined the subtle differences in perception held by women and volunteers. It also observed that the substance of Chapman's planning framework is strongly supported by the level of agreement with each phase of the planning process.

The following chapter focuses on analysis of the data collected from interviews with Board members of the three sports associations. It presents a rich qualitative analysis of the interviewee's views on their organisations according to the survey instrument.

## **CHAPTER 10**

# **RESULTS OF QUALITATIVE ANALYSES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND THE PLANNING PROCESSES FOR SPORT ASSOCIATIONS**

### **Introduction**

This chapter introduces the qualitative data from interviews with three Board members from each association. The purpose of conducting the interviews was to complement the survey, to explore perceptions in depth, and to collect rich and personal information about the three sport associations.

Nine interviewees were selected, consisting of three from each association. They were selected for interview by the CEO (for Associations A and B) or the president (for Association C) on the basis of the length of time with the association and positions that they had held. These CEO/President and Board members were asked various questions in regard to organisational culture and the planning processes. Their replies were analysed to find similarities and dissimilarities between each association in how they perceived their organisational cultures, the plans/ planning processes, and the relationship between the two. The interviews were conducted between August 18<sup>th</sup> and September 12<sup>th</sup>, 2002, and each interview took about two hours.

### **Organisational Culture**

The first four questions in the interview asked the Board members how they perceived the organisational culture of their associations. Therefore, this part

addressed Research Question 1: *What are organisational cultural profiles of the selected sport organisation? In particular, do professionals and volunteers share similar or different perceptions of the organisational cultures?*

It should be noted that the interviewees could include the association's CEO as well as volunteers. Therefore, the opinions collected from the interviews do not necessarily reflect those of volunteers. However, as at least six out of nine interviewees were volunteer Board members, the results of the interviews provide substantial information of the volunteers' views. The four questions were about cultural attributes of each association, i.e., institutional characteristics, institutional leader, glue, and institutional emphases, which also formed Instrument I of the survey. The answer to the second question of Research Question 1 can be compared with the results of survey.

More detailed explanations regarding how to answer or summarise their opinions were given, if need be, during the interview to help them elicit responses about organisational cultural values that equated to the competing values framework. In particular, the questions given were in line with Instrument I used in the survey. This is because Instrument I better categorises cultural attributes such as institutional characteristics, leader, glue and emphases. In addition, the score allocation system of Instrument I does not incur any 'spurious' results in interviews, while it does in quantitative analyses. Each association's organisational culture discovered through interviews is summarised as follows.

---

### ***Organisational Culture of Association A***

The results of interviews with three people from Association A in regard to organisational cultural attributes of the association are summarised in Table 44. Some differences between interviewees were found in how they recognised organisational cultural characteristics of Association A. More detailed discussions about each association's organisational cultural profiles are provided.

Table 46. Organisational cultural attributes of Association A

Characteristics	A1	A2	A3
Inst. Characteristics (working place)	all characteristics co-existed	all characteristics co-existed	more dynamic, formalised
Leader	probably entrepreneur, definitely coordinator, mentor for some	entrepreneur	mentor to me, certainly coordinator
Inst. Glue	all glues co-existed	loyalty	loyalty, goal accomplishment
Inst. Emphasis	all emphases co-existed	growth	all, but growth the strongest and achievement the next

*Institutional characteristics – Association A*

All three interviewees from Association A replied that their association exhibited attributes of multiple organisational cultures. Two respondents, A1 and A2, said that the association had attributes of all four cultures, regardless of the second question, “if mixed, which one is predominant.” However, A3’s reply was slightly different. A3 replied that, “we are a dynamic organisation, we are becoming more formalised. It is about doing the work, it is about research and the focus is on this sport.” A3’s response strongly indicated that the workplace predominantly had developmental and hierarchical cultural hues. This indicates that the institutional characteristics perceived by the interviewees showed possible conflicts and tension between sets of organisational values; where developmental culture represents flexibility, and hierarchical culture represents control. In addition, an organisation emphasising developmental cultural values is externally focused, and one with hierarchical cultural values is internally focused.

These views (of CEO/President and Board members who participated in interviews) are very interesting when compared with those from Instrument I of the survey about institutional characteristics, which were collected from both paid employees and volunteers in Association A. Chapter 6 showed that regarding institutional characteristics or characteristics of the workplace, the survey participants from Association A allocated relatively high scores to the statement: A very personal place, like an extended family (38.9), followed by a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place (24.6), a very formalized and structured place (20.0), and a very production oriented place (16.4) respectively.

Therefore, for Association A, it can be concluded that CEO/President and Board members who participated in the interview and respondents to the survey showed somewhat different perceptions about their workplace. In the survey, mixed respondents (consisting of paid workers and volunteers) perceived that their workplace was personal and like an extended family; in other words, group cultural values dominated in institutional characteristics. In contrast, CEO/President and Board members replied that the Association was more likely a formal and dynamic place (or hierarchical cultural value dominated), while it was also personal, formalised and production oriented. Overall, while various cultural values on institutional characteristics co-existed, the workers in Association A felt that the organisation was a very personal place like an extended family, but Board members interviewed perceived that the association was more likely dynamic and formalised.

#### *Leader – Association A*

While the leader of an association can be the President, the CEO is the main figure responsible for carrying out and executing the wishes of the Board. Therefore, it would be more meaningful to explore the style of CEO as a leader of the association. In the interview, the interviewee was informed that the leader meant CEO.

The three interviewees provided mixed perceptions about the leader (CEO) of the association. A1 described the leader as “probably an entrepreneur, definitely a coordinator... a mentor in some sense but not a mentor to coaches or people.” The leader described in this reply had multiple cultural aspects; s/he supported partly development and group cultural values, as well as strong hierarchical cultural values. In comparison, A2 pointed out that the leader was an entrepreneur, and A3 emphasised group and hierarchical cultural aspects of the leader, saying that “[the leader is] a mentor to me and certainly a coordinator.” A3’s response of “a mentor to me” is consistent with A1’s reply that the leader was a mentor to selected people in the association, depending on their roles. Accordingly, the leader in this association can be concluded as a person with strong hierarchical cultural values, taking a role of coordinator or organiser, and with group cultural values, taking a role of a mentor, to “selected” people. Their responses also indicated that the leader had a certain extent of the role as an entrepreneur as well. However, the role as a producer or a technician was not suggested by any interviewee.

These results are, in general, consistent with the findings from the survey data. In the quantitative analysis using Instrument I for the leader: A coordinator or an organiser (40.4) received the highest score, followed by an innovator or risk taker (26.8), a producer or a technician (19.6) and a mentor or sage (13.2). Overall, the workers in Association A recognised the leader of the organisation as a coordinator or an entrepreneur emphasising structure, with a hue of innovator or a mentor who had outward looking attitudes.

#### *Institutional glue - Association A*

Organisational glue contributes to organisational bonding, making an association different from other organisations. A1 replied that virtually all four cultural glues co-existed in the association, while A2 pointed out loyalty and A3 illustrated loyalty and “largely” goal accomplishment as dominant institutional glues. From these answers it may be summarised for Association A that loyalty (glue style of group culture) was seen to be the strongest glue for this association, with goal

accomplishment (glue style of rational culture) next. A1's answer also included innovation (developmental culture) and formal rules (hierarchical culture) for Association A's institutional glue. The finding that the characteristics of group culture and rational culture co-existed for the type of institutional glue in this association indicated that the association experienced strong tension regarding its glue, as group culture and rational culture represented completely opposite aspects: group culture emphasised flexibility and internal focus while rational culture emphasised control and external focus.

These views of the interviewees were consistent with the findings from quantitative analysis of the survey collected from both volunteers and paid workers. The results of the survey indicated that the strongest glue that held the association together was loyalty (40.4). The second important glue had hierarchical cultural values, however, not rational cultural values such as goal accomplishment, with a mean score of 23.6. In the survey, developmental and rational cultural values were relatively weak. In other words, with regards to glue, Association A was internally focused, while flexibility was more emphasised than control.

#### *Institutional emphases – Association A*

Regarding the institutional emphases of the association, the three interviewees showed very consistent opinions. A1 replied that the four cultural values were mixed and co-existed in the association, and this was supported by A3. A3 also argued that "[while] all those things [you have mentioned] are important to our organisation, the most important things are growth in resources, competitive action and achievement." A2 also emphasised growth. Consequently, it can be summarised that Association A emphasised the four cultural values, where growth (developmental culture) was regarded as the most important. Competitive action and achievement (rational cultural values) were also emphasised more than the other two cultural values, group and hierarchical. It implies that while interviewees from this association had consensus that the association had an external focus, there seems to be some tension between rational culture and

development culture; in other words, the tension between a flexible and controlled structure.

These results were generally consistent with those from the quantitative data collected from the survey. For this question, the four cultural values regarding institutional emphases acquired very similar mean scores, from the lowest of 20.4 for developmental cultural values and the highest of 32.9 for rational cultural values. It should be pointed out that while rational cultural value received the highest score, the other cultural value that was most emphasised by the interviewees, developmental cultural values, received the lowest mean score in the survey. However, the difference between the mean score of developmental cultural value and the other two cultural values was not substantial.

#### *Summary – Association A*

This section reviews organisational culture of Association A using the information collected from three interviews. While various cultural values about institutional characteristics co-existed, the interviewees perceived the association as more likely to be dynamic and formalised. The leader in this association was perceived to have strong hierarchical cultural values, taking a role of coordinator or organiser, and with group cultural values, taking a role of a mentor, to “selected” people. Their responses also indicated that the leader played the role as an entrepreneur to a certain extent as well. Association A emphasised the four cultural values, where growth (developmental culture) was regarded as the most important. Competitive action and achievement (rational cultural values) were also emphasised more than the other two cultural values, group and hierarchical.

#### ***Organisational Culture of Association B***

The results of interviews with three interviewees from Association B in regards to organisational culture of the association are summarised in Table 45. More detailed discussions on each association’s organisational cultural profiles are provided.



Table 47. Organisational culture of Association B

Characteristics	B1	B2	B3
Inst. Characteristics	formalised to more dynamic	dynamic, production oriented	personal, dynamic, formalised
Leader	entrepreneur, mentor, coordinator	entrepreneur, coordinator	entrepreneur, mentor
Inst. Glue	loyalty	commitment to innovation, formal rules	loyalty
Inst. Emphasis	morale and cohesion	morale and cohesion, stability	morale and cohesion, growth

*Institutional characteristics – Association B*

For institutional characteristics of Association B, all three interviewees suggested more than one cultural value. Among them, the developmental cultural value (dynamic and entrepreneurial) seemed the strongest one, suggested by all three interviewees. B1 perceived that the association as a workplace had hierarchical cultural value, but was moving towards developmental cultural value, saying that, “we have a formalised structure, and it is becoming more dynamic.” However, B2 showed somewhat different views arguing that the association was certainly dynamic (developmental cultural value) and production oriented (rational cultural value). B3’s reply included “personal” as well as “dynamic and formalised.” Consequently, Association B can be summarised as having relatively strong developmental and hierarchical cultural values, with some hues of rational and group cultural values.

These perceptions of the interviewees were substantially different from those of mixed workers who participated in the survey. The data collected from the survey indicated that group cultural value dominated in the association, while hierarchical and rational cultural values were relatively weak. In contrast, the interviews revealed that the emphasis on developmental and hierarchical cultural values were strong, requiring the association to manage the tension between these competing value sets. The CEO/President and Board members and workers had

different perceptions of the cultural aspects of organisational characteristics. The Board members' perceptions that the association was shifting from hierarchical values to more developmental was likely to be associated with their positions on the Board, seeking to change the values, and consequently creating the tension between these two value sets in the management of the association, and a shift from internal to external focus. In this regard, the tension observed could be representative of existing organisational subcultures. This might be the result of the need for sport associations to be more externally focused for funding and to respond to their national, even international bodies.

#### *Leader - Association B*

All three interviewees replied that the development cultural value (an entrepreneur), which was perceived as the most important cultural value of the institutional characteristics, appeared to be the most dominant for the leader of this association. Group cultural value (a mentor or a sage; suggested by B1 and B3) and hierarchical cultural value (a coordinator or an organiser; B1 and B2) were also suggested by two interviewees, respectively, while B3 also pointed out that the leader demonstrated rational cultural values, being a producer or a technician.

Therefore, the leader of this association exhibited all of the attributes related to all the cultural dimensions, where developmental value was the most dominant, which was followed by group and hierarchical, while rational value was the least dominant. Overall, these perceptions were not exactly consistent with the results from the survey. In the survey, hierarchical and group cultural values were found to be the most significant for the leader in the association by receiving mean scores of 32.7 and 31.8, respectively, while the development cultural value was relatively low (20.0) and rational value the lowest (15.5). The interviews and surveys were consistent in that the leader of this association was rarely a producer or a technician (rational cultural values).

Therefore it can be concluded that while CEO/President and Board members interviewed perceived developmental cultural value to be the strongest, the workers (employees and volunteers) responding to the survey perceived that the leader was more likely to demonstrate a mixture of hierarchical and group cultural values. These views are semi-balanced; there was a tension between the two groups – CEO/President and Board members and mixed workers – in their perception of the leader's style. CEO/President and Board members perceived the leader of the association as outward looking, while the workers reinforced the characteristics of the leader as internally focused where human relations or internal processes were emphasised. The different perceptions of the leader could be due to subgroup positions in the association.

#### *Institutional glue – Association B*

The glue that tied the workers in this association together, according to B1 and B3, was group cultural value (loyalty), but B2 suggested two other cultural values, namely developmental (commitment to innovation and development) and hierarchical (formal rules). Therefore, according to the interviewees' perception, the most major glue of this association was loyalty, with commitment to innovation and development, and formal rules. In contrast, tasks and goal accomplishment (rational cultural value) were not suggested by any interviewee.

These findings are considerably different from general workers' perception of the glue. Group cultural value, loyalty, which was suggested by the two interviewees as a single most important glue, received the second highest mean score (36.8) in the survey, with only a marginal difference with the cultural value with the highest mean score. Surprisingly, the cultural value with the highest mean score in the survey was rational culture (39.6), which was never mentioned by any interviewee as glue for the association. Development and hierarchical cultures, which were also mentioned by one interviewee, received relatively low scores in the survey.

It is concluded that there was a certain extent of discrepancy between the views of CEO/President and Board members and general workers regarding the institutional glue. The interviewees considered loyalty and tradition were important, which was also agreed by workers responding to the survey. However, while the interviewees regarded commitment to innovation and development, and the formal rules and policies to be important, the workers did not consider them as important glue. They instead perceived that tasks and goal accomplishment were the most important.

#### *Institutional emphases – Association B*

All the interviewees in Association B pointed out that virtually all four cultural values existed together as institutional emphases in the association. Nevertheless, there were slight differences between interviewees regarding the institutional emphases. While B1 and B3 agreed that all four values were important, B1 first of all pointed out “morale and cohesion” (group cultural values), and B3 implicitly emphasised “growth” (developmental cultural value) as well as “morale and cohesion.” In contrast, B2 pointed out stability (hierarchical cultural value) in addition to morale and cohesion. Conclusively, institutional emphases of this association had group cultural values (morale and cohesion), while developmental cultural value (growth) and hierarchical cultural value (stability) were also perceived. It is worthwhile to note that the interviewees perceived two mutually exclusive emphases, growth and stability.

The general workers’ survey showed that the four attributes related to the institutional emphases for Association B received similar mean scores. Among them, group culture quadrant received the highest mean (28.6), which was followed by hierarchical culture quadrant (26.4) and rational culture quadrant (25.5) with a very narrow margin. Development cultural value also received a substantially high score (21.4), which was nonetheless lower than the other three cultural values.

### *Summary – Association B*

The interviewees' perceived that their institutional characteristics were shifting from hierarchical values to more developmental. This could indicate that they sought to change the values, and consequently create tension between these two value sets in the management of the association. The interviewees perceived of their leader to have strong developmental cultural values, indicating that the leader of the association was outward looking. For institutional glue, the interviewees considered loyalty and tradition to be important. The interviewees perceived that institutional emphases of this association had group cultural values (morale and cohesion), while developmental cultural value (growth) and hierarchical cultural value (stability) were also perceived.

### *Organisational Culture of Association C*

The results from the three interviewees from Association C in regards to organisational culture of the association are summarised in Table 46. The survey showed that for all four attributes, the workers in Association C agreed that group cultural values were always dominant. For institutional glue, in particular, the mean score that was assigned to group cultural value (= 56.4) was even higher than the sum of mean scores that the other three cultural values received. This characteristic was very accurately confirmed from the results of interviews. More detailed discussions about each association's organisational cultural profiles are provided.

Table 48. Organisational culture of Association C

Characteristics	C1	C2	C3
Inst. Characteristics	personal place, dynamic	personal place, dynamic	personal place, dynamic
Leader	mentor, coordinator	coordinator	mentor, coordinator
Inst. Glue	loyalty	loyalty	structure
Inst. Emphasis	morale and cohesion, stability	stability, growth	stability, growth

### *Institutional characteristics – Association C*

The interviewees had consensus that the association was a very personal place, like an extended family (group cultural values). They also unanimously suggested that the association was dynamic (development cultural values). There was no perception that the association emphasised hierarchical or rational cultural values. These replies are consistent with the results from the survey. Workers in this association allocated the highest scores to group cultural value (48.2), and the next dominant cultural value, developmental, received only 20.0 points. Rational and hierarchical cultural values received very low scores.

Consequently, it can be summarised that this association was perceived as a personal place, like an extended family to both interviewees and general workers. The association was also perceived to have an emphasis of development cultural values, while the other two organisational cultural values were not evidently mentioned. In this regard, this association is clearly different from the other two organisations which had relatively balanced cultural values for institutional characteristics.

### *Leader – Association C*

The leader of this association was, in general, perceived as a mentor (group cultural value) and a coordinator (hierarchical cultural value) as found from replies of C1 and C3. In contrast, C2 did not emphasise a mentor but strongly emphasised the role of a coordinator, replying that “to provide a sound basis both financially and structurally.” Developmental and rational cultural values were not mentioned as a type of leader by the interviewees.

These findings were consistent with those from the survey, where group and hierarchical cultural values received high mean scores, 43.6 and 41.4, respectively. This result indicates that the interviewees, namely CEO/President and Board members, and workers shared the same view about the leader. Accordingly, it can

be concluded that the leader in this association was a mentor or a sage (group cultural value), and a coordinator or an organiser (hierarchical cultural value).

#### *Institutional glue – Association C*

While C1 and C2 replied that loyalty and tradition, or love of the sport (group cultural value) was the glue of the association, C3 emphasised the structure, which may be regarded as hierarchical cultural value. Neither developmental nor rational cultural value was suggested by the interviewees. Being similar to what was found for institutional characteristics and the leader, these findings were also consistent with the survey in that group cultural value dominated this association (with 56.4 points of mean score). All the other three cultural values received scores lower than 20.

#### *Institutional emphases – Association C*

Compared to the previous three institutional attributes, the interviewees provided slightly more diversified responses to this question. While C1 emphasised cohesion, morale and stable workforces, which could be regarded as group and hierarchical cultural values, respectively, C2 regarded stability (hierarchical cultural value) and growth (developmental cultural value) as important. C2's view was shared with C3, who emphasised developmental and hierarchical cultural values. In summary, hierarchical cultural value was emphasised by all the interviewees, followed by group and developmental cultural values, while rational cultural value was not suggested at all.

These findings were not substantially different from the results from the survey. Hierarchical cultural value, which was the most emphasised one in the interviews, received the second highest mean (25.4). In comparison, group cultural value received the highest mean (42.9), which differed from the finding from the interviews. Rational cultural value, which was not mentioned by any interviewee, received the lowest mean, which indicates consistency between workers and CEO/President and Board members. Therefore, it can be summarised that

institutional emphases in this association had group, developmental and hierarchical cultural values.

#### *Summary – Association C*

The Board members of Association C perceived that their workplace was like a personal place and also dynamic – both group and developmental. The Board members perceived their leader to have group and hierarchical cultural values. For institutional glue, two interviewees considered loyalty to be important, while one interviewee considered structure to be important. All the interviewees perceived that institutional emphases of this association had hierarchical cultural value (stability) while two interviewees also suggested developmental cultural value (growth). One interviewee perceived group cultural value (morale and cohesion) as an important institutional emphasis.

#### *Synopsis of the Interviews Regarding the Organisational Culture*

The results from the interviews showed that Association C had substantially different organisational characteristics from the other two associations. While the interviewees from Associations A and B frequently replied that more than one organisational cultural value was prominent in each association, those from Association C emphasised that in most cases a single organisational cultural value (group cultural value) dominated. Sometimes conflicting replies were found from the interviewees in the same association. For example, both ‘formal’ and ‘dynamic’ were suggested for institutional characteristics by different interviewees in Association B. This might indicate that the association was experiencing a transition from one characteristic to the other.

#### **The Plans and Planning Processes**

The interviews included questions related to the development planning processes for each sport association. This part of the study uses information collected from



interviews regarding the planning processes and provides answers to Research Question 2 as suggested in Chapter 1: *What are the development planning processes for each sport association? How does each association perceive the development planning processes?*

First of all, two general questions were asked; kinds of plans the associations had, and planning models they followed. The second part consisted of a series of questions regarding steps of planning processes, essential sections needed in the plan, and key result areas, as suggested by Chapman (1992). This second part included valuable information for understanding planning processes in each association that was not easily collected from the quantitative survey data. For example, questions such as, “how do you finalise your plan” or, “how do you find implications of changes in environment” could not be properly asked to general workers in an association by using the questionnaire, where Likert-type answers were expected.

Another concern was whether there any differences existed between the three associations regarding planning processes. The responses from each association to the general questions on the plans and planning processes were significantly different for three questions: (Q1) *My organisation actively uses development or business plans*; (Q3) *Planning processes are important for sport associations*; and (Q10) *I feel that my association achieves the outcomes of its plan*. Further analyses of these three questions in Chapter 8 revealed that, for each question, respondents in Association A were always the most affirmative, those in Association B were next, and those in Association C were the least affirmative. This finding that Association A strongly agreed with these statements suggested active planning processes, while Associations B and C showed less active planning processes.

### *Two General Questions on Plans*

The responses of interviewees from each association to the two general questions on plans are summarised in Table 47. More detailed discussion regarding the two questions and responses follow.

#### *What kind of plans does your organisation have?*

The analysis of the interviews in Association A indicated that the interviewees understood the association's plans well. All three interviewees indicated that they had three kinds of plans; a strategic plan, business plan and operational plan, saying, "we have a three year strategic and business plan and then we have operational plans for every unit in WA" (A1, A2 and A3). This response is consistent with the quantitative analysis in Chapter 8 that the workers in Association A strongly believed their association to actively use development or business plans in the association. This belief was significantly stronger than that from the other two associations.

In interviews, B1 and B2 respectively replied that, "[we have] strategic directions, business plans (financial and marketing) and operational plans" (B1) and, "annually planning budget and strategic plan" (B2). These replies indicated that, while the level of perception by employees was low (lower than that in Association A), Association B also had plans, including a strategic plan. However, B3 responded that they had a "strategic plan" only. Therefore, it can be concluded that while this association had various plans, some workers did not perceive what kinds of plans they had, and consequently the overall recognition was lower than that of Association A. This result is consistent with that from the quantitative analysis of the survey. Workers in Association B had a significantly lower mean score (significant at 1% level) than Association A for (Q1) in the survey, which stated, "my organisation actively uses development or business plans." The first question to the interviewed Board members regarding the general planning processes of the association is compatible to this question (Q1).

All three interviewees from Association C replied that they had plans. For example, C2 replied, "we do have a business plan and we do have a development plan... we also have a strategic plan..." The responses from C1 and C3 were more or less similar to those from C2. However, Association C had the lowest score from employees regarding (Q1) in the questionnaire, even though the score was still higher than average (= 4). This result indicates that while the interviewees of Association C knew that they had plans, the general workers did not recognise it as much as the interviewees did.

Table 49. The responses to two general questions

Questions	A1	A2	A3	B1	B2	B3	C1	C2	C3
What kind of plans does your organisation have?	strategic plan, business plan, operational plan	the same as A1	the same as A1	strategic plans, business plans and operational plans	annually planning budget and strategic plan	strategic plan	strategic plan, business plan, operational plan	the same as C1	the same as C1
Do you follow any particular models?	no	no	no	no	no but has a formal outline	no	no	no	no

*Do you follow any particular planning models, eg. Chapman's framework?*

The responses from the interviewees to this question showed that none of the three associations referred to particular models. Nevertheless, they understood the plans and planning process well, and attempted to develop the model that was the most suitable to the association. For example, A2 said, "no, the model that we are using is probably a little different from most organisations... there is a very clear link between the manager and what is happening in the office of the Board." A3 mentioned, "planning is led by our financial year that we have in terms of the [Association A's] calendar year." A1's reply probably summarised its planning model or process best; "we have a 'WA Association A's planning model'."

Associations B and C did not acknowledge specific planning models in their planning processes either. All the interviewees from the two associations were negative to the question. Nonetheless, B2 pointed out that they had a formal outline to follow. It was not revealed how they built up the formal outline, and what kinds of factors or steps were taken into account. C1 pointed out that the person in charge of the planning had left the association, and as the association heavily depended on this person, they urgently needed a system or new people to be in charge of planning in the future.

Therefore, it may be concluded that the interviewees from three associations, in general, recognised that they had strategic, business and operational plans. However, it appears that they did not have specific planning models such as Chapman's model.

---

### ***More Questions on the Plans and Planning Processes***

Interviews with nine people from the three sport association provided a variety of information regarding the planning processes, which was sometimes different from the information collected from the questionnaire. While 28 questions were asked about planning processes during the interviews, as shown in Appendix D, this part

categorised the questions into 9 subgroups (SG) according to the similarity of questions, and then analysed and compared responses of the interviewees from each association. The responses from each association to the questions are summarised in Table 48. More detailed explanations follow.

Table 50. Comparisons of the views on the plans and planning processes among three associations

Sub-group questions	Association A	Association B	Association C
<b>SG1:</b> how they started planning processes, and how they considered previous plans and external factors in planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- three years of planning cycle</li> <li>- to review and look back previous plans</li> <li>- to recognise the importance of external factors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to review previous ones</li> <li>- to contact outside people to get feedback from the initial stage</li> <li>- to recognise the importance of external factors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to review previous one</li> <li>- to invite inside and outside people to participate</li> <li>- to recognise the importance of external factors</li> </ul>
<b>SG2:</b> the current status of the organisation, how it matched with plans and how it used previous plans to project future	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- confident about the current status</li> <li>- to get stronger, better organised and managed</li> <li>- current status matched with plans</li> <li>- to use the past to project the future</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- confident about the current status</li> <li>- to want to go further</li> <li>- current status matched with plans</li> <li>- to use the past to project the future, but not to go back too far</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- confident about the current status</li> <li>- after stabilising, now to take the next step</li> <li>- current status matched with plans</li> <li>- to use the past to project the future, keeping statistics</li> </ul>
<b>SG3:</b> how to find trends and changes relevant to the association, and how to find their implications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to work hard to find trends and changes</li> <li>- to look at ways the development of sports</li> <li>- to develop our supporter base for our sport</li> <li>- to particularly worry</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to work hard to find changes and consider them in our plans</li> <li>- to be careful not to have biased views by considering trends and changes too heavily</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to work hard to find trends and changes</li> <li>- to compare with other sports and look at management, insurance, etc.</li> <li>- the most important implication is that people have more</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- about drop out rates</li> <li>- to aware, translate into the association's context and take actions</li> <li>- to translate to know future demand</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- translation the trends into the association's context is a continual process</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- financial resources but feel more time constraint</li> </ul>
<b>SG4:</b> substantial profiles of the association, such as why it existed, what it endeavoured to do, and what the direction was	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- for the sport's own sake; to promote this sport and provide opportunity for people</li> <li>- to look for financial resources; to promote the sport league; provision of better service and development; to increase membership</li> <li>- to provide better service; the education and utilisation of volunteer workers</li> <li>- direction decided by workshops, planning sessions; also by the Board</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- for the sport's own sake; to promote this sport and provide opportunity for people</li> <li>- to look for financial resources; provision of better service and development</li> <li>- to provide better service; the association should be dynamic and professional</li> <li>- the role of CEO was emphasised in defining the direction</li> <li>- direction decided by workshops, planning sessions; also by the Board and CEO</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- for the sport's own sake; to promote this sport and provide opportunity for people; to be an effective governing body</li> <li>- to look for financial resources; to promote the sport league; provision of better service and development</li> <li>- to provide better service; to maintain balance between development and entertainment</li> <li>- direction decided by workshops, planning sessions</li> </ul>
<b>SG5:</b> goals and objectives of the association	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- focus areas: management, financial performance, profiles, court performance and people development</li> <li>- an objective is 'future orientation' of the association</li> <li>- to review objectives minimum twice per year, possibly more</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- goals: participation, player development, competition, facilities, management, sponsorship marketing, media relationship</li> <li>- short term objectives are day-to-day operations, long-term objectives are to provide more facilities</li> <li>- the 'ability' to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- goals: development of professionalism, to become a bigger sport, to be prominent</li> <li>- an objective is that more people stay and enjoy</li> <li>- slightly less frequent formal review, although informal reviews were carried out frequently</li> <li>- to formally review objectives annually</li> </ul>

			<p>achieve the goals by using money and time</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the Board to review objectives usually twice per year; staff to meet monthly</li> </ul>	
<b>SG6:</b> what kind of strategies were used to achieve goals or objects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to ensure having the right people in the right place; to go out to people; to use sunset clause, a time frame</li> <li>- time and budget are the most important in strategies; also a series of values how we operate such as participation, quality of service, quality of players, communication with people</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to help and serve people; to be realistic with budget at the club level, the Board level and the staff level; to make the system work</li> <li>- time and budget are the most important in strategies; ability to use money and time properly</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to work to achieve the goal (to increase members) from the grassroots</li> <li>- the characteristics of the community to be considered</li> <li>- time and budget are the most important in strategies; the characteristics of the target communities also important</li> </ul>	
<b>SG7:</b> how to circulate the draft, how to get feedback, and how to finalise the draft	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to partners, Department of Sport and Recreation and many of its sponsorship partners, as well as staff and Board members</li> <li>- both hard copies and electronic transfer used</li> <li>- to expect feedback from all stakeholders</li> <li>- to accommodate feedback if appropriate</li> <li>- the Board to be responsible for finalising the draft</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the narrow range of circulation within its staff and the Board members; feedback welcome from related people</li> <li>- to expect feedback from within the community, not so much from outside</li> <li>- input received, amended by staff and the Board, and approved by the Board and the Council</li> <li>- the Board to be responsible for finalising the draft; a formal presentation to delegates from local clubs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to stakeholders for feedback</li> <li>- a very active strategy to get feedback. Had regular meetings with associations from the general community and get feedback, as well as from employees and volunteers</li> <li>- to work hard to accommodate feedback, considering the resources</li> <li>- the Board to be responsible for finalising the draft</li> </ul>	



<b>SG8:</b> how to finalise the plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the Board to finalise and be responsible</li> <li>- people involved at various levels to be also responsible</li> <li>- to handle failure, to discard the unachieved goals if not valuable or impossible; to redo if worthwhile</li> <li>- to try hard to learn from failure</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- a formal presentation to the delegates from local clubs to be needed</li> <li>- the Board members (CEO, President, General Manager) to be responsible</li> <li>- to handle failure, to discard the unachieved goals if not valuable or impossible; to redo if worthwhile</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the Board members (CEO, President, General Manager) to be responsible the Board members (CEO, President, General Manager) to be responsible</li> <li>- to handle failure, to discard the unachieved goals if not valuable or impossible; to redo if worthwhile</li> </ul>
<b>SG9:</b> how to monitor the implementation of the plan and how to review it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- frequent and regular meetings and reports; two monthly review by staff and six monthly review by the Board</li> <li>- to continuously monitor performance, listen to stakeholders</li> <li>- to collect information from various sources with various methods</li> <li>- intensive review in every six months, but important agendas on table in monthly Board meeting</li> <li>- unachievable goals to be adjusted and endorsed by the Board</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- to review every six months; the Board members and Council members have inputs</li> <li>- plus emphasis on committee or working groups</li> <li>- to collect information from various sources, including DSR</li> <li>-to intensively review the plan annually</li> <li>- to change strategies rather than goals or objectives</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-frequently reviewed two monthly</li> <li>- to review by feedback, by regular review of plans; regularly reported to the Board about the progress</li> <li>- to collect information from questionnaire, meetings, reports from affiliates</li> <li>- intensive review in every two months</li> <li>- to reassess strategic plans and business plans every year</li> </ul>

NOTE: More detailed questions in each subgroup can be found in Appendix D.

*SG1) Questions from 1 to 3 asked how each association started its planning processes, and how it reviewed previous plans and assessed external factors in planning.*

Association A had three years of planning cycle, usually starting with strategic plans. In preparing for new strategic plans, Association A considered previous plans carefully. In their expression: "to review what we have done in the past," (A3) or more specifically, "to see what was successful and what was not successful," the association "must look back to our previous plans" (A2). Accordingly, "previous years' plans formed the basis for the next planning cycle" (A1). This view was shared with Association C. Association C also started preparing new plans by reviewing the previous one. C2 explained that, "each year the previous strategic plan is analysed and those items which are not relevant are disregarded and those that need further development are included for discussion." C2 also added that staff, Board members and facilitators, clubs' presidents and others might be invited to participate.

In contrast to Associations A and C, Association B emphasised its contact with people as an initial stage of planning processes. B1 replied, "(what) we did was to call all of our associations together plus other bodies that we are responsible to, and other bodies that we are involved with, and had a general discussion", and B2 said, "(we were) going out to our grassroots people, getting feedback."

Interviewee B2 also stressed the importance of the review of previous plans, although s/he did not explicitly indicate that the planning processes started with it. B2 said, "we look at those items which have been successful and those which are being requested of us by our member organisations and the member clubs and those things that we endeavour, to see what it was that made them successful and try to use those successful issues in planning for other strategies." This explanation by B2 indicated

that, even when Association B reviewed previous plans, it paid strong attention to input from clubs and grassroots people.

The review of previous plans seems to be an essential part of planning processes for all three associations. All three interviewees from Association C agreed that they considered previous plans carefully. For example, C3 replied, "we go back and revisit those plans, and look at areas that we set with goals and see if we have reached those goals."

In the planning processes, all three associations recognised the importance of external factors and attempted to incorporate them. All of them regarded government bodies and other sports bodies as crucial external factors. Association A considered external factors very intensively, which is well summarised by A2 who said that "we do use external factors...we always seek legal advice, do talk with other sports...we've got constant communication with a number of sports and government bodies." B2 also mentioned that "we look at sports and other bureaucratic organisations in order to see how they organise themselves and how best they can get results. We also use individuals from particular organisations or groups..." C1's reply was more specific, and said that "government agencies, Healthway people, Department of Sport and Recreation, Sports Federation and even areas from our sport, like people from the [state body], which is separate from to us but we involve them in the process because they are related to our sport." From these replies, it is clear that these organisations, in particular Association C, paid attention to related sport bodies as well as their own and government bodies.

*SG2) Questions 4 to 6 asked the current status of the organisation, how it matched with plans and how it used previous plans to project the future.*

It is noteworthy that all the participants interviewed, regardless of where they were affiliated, were very confident about the current status of their associations.

Interestingly, A3 compared her/his association with itself in the past, saying that, “we are a stronger organisation, certainly better organised and better managed than we have been in the past.” B2 also argued that, “the relationship with our member clubs is very good. The future strategies are clear. The staff members that we have are excellent.” Nevertheless, in the midst of confidence and pride, B1 showed strong developmental cultural value in the reply, saying, “[we] still want to go further.” Association C seemed to be experiencing transition periods. C1 said “[our] organisation is in a very good position at the moment and we’ve achieved a lot of the objectives. We’re progressing very well in implementing the goals that were set out in the plan.” This ‘progressing’ is explained in detail by C3, “after a good stabilising period, it is the time to take the next step.”

As they were certain that their status were strong, they also firmly believed that the current status, in general, matched with plans very well. B1’s argument may represent all interviewees’ from different associations; “planning process has focused the organisation better...essential. I am not a big believer in [defending] planning but I think planning is essential and it has helped our organisation.”

Next question asked *whether they used past information to project future*. All the interviewees were assured that their associations used past information to project future. B2 replied that, “we don’t go back too far but we do like to use the past to find out what has worked and what has not and we certainly get a lot of learning from that.” C1 mentioned systematic use of the past information such as, “we do keep statistics on things such as participation rates, the number of people playing the sport, the number of juniors, boys and girls, etc.” Accordingly, it seems that all three associations actively considered past information in planning for the future.

*SG3) Questions 7 and 8 asked how to find trends and changes relevant to the association, and how to find their implications.*

Regarding *the trends and changes* in sport, the interviewees replied that they generally worked hard to find trends and considered them in plans. For example, A2 answered, “[we are] generally trying to look at ways to develop the sport and develop our supporter base for our sport.” B2 said that, “we try to find changes and consider them in our plans.” C2’s answer was more specific, saying that “the comparison with other sports which is what we have to do and we are able to look at...[for example] management, insurance and so on, which are external pressures that didn’t exist some twenty years ago.” A3, in particular, pointed out the importance of economic trends. However, there were some concerns as well in paying attention to trends and changes. For example, B1 indicated that, “you can always have a biased view [in finding ‘facts’].” Some interviewees shared similar views regarding the trends and changes that their association faced, such as high dropout rates (A1) especially because “people just don’t have the time that they used to have to devote to clubs” (C1).

It was found from the previous questions and replies that the associations made strenuous efforts to consider past information and observe the current trends and changes. When the question was asked *how to find implications of these changes for the association*, their answers were “to be aware of the trend,” “to translate it in our association’s point of view” and then “to take actions.” A2 said that they looked at trends in other sports as well, and thought what would happen to their own association. A1 added that, if the recent changes and trends were interpreted in the association’s context, demands for future changes such as “mixed” (gender) games or instant games (convenience in access) would increase. B1 recognised that translating changes into action was a continual process. C1 emphasised that the most important implications of current changes for the association (and other sport clubs) are that people had “less time” and “more financial resources.”

*SG4) Questions 9 to 12 asked substantial profiles of the association, such as why it existed, what it endeavoured after, and what the direction was.*

To this question, *why does your association exist*, two types of answers were provided from the interviewees from the three associations. The first type of answer was “for the sport’s own sake.” In other words, as there were people who loved the sport, they provided the service. A1 said that “you want to play for recreation or you want to play to represent Australia?... we provide for that.”

The second type of response went one step further, emphasising the role of associations in promoting the sports, organising competitions and linking grass root levels and national levels. A3 answered, “it is a role to play in delivering this sport across the State and providing opportunities for people to play this sport and to reach their highest potential.” B1’s answer was also in line with the other interviewees, saying, “to run competition, and promoting this sport.... I guess the organisation is an advocate for the sport and making sure it gets its fair share of resources but also promoting the sport for what it brings to Western Australia.” B2 emphasised that its clubs themselves needed to have an umbrella organisation that dealt with wider issues, and therefore, the association existed for the members. Probably C1’s reply was the most comprehensive: “we are the body that organises competitions that organises development programs, etc. We are also the link to the national body, so we are the link between all the associations that play this sport throughout this state and the national body.” In comparison, C2’s view is very fresh, taking care of the uniqueness of each sport. C2 explained, “because of the need that various areas of the state sport should be handled in different ways... the need to have some type of direction would demand that a sport does need a vibrant effective governing body and that’s why we exist.” In this regard, these associations fully recognised their roles, and understood that each should be an effective and helpful body to encourage and promote its particular sport.

The interview also asked *what these associations are endeavouring to achieve*. There were many interesting and detailed replies that could be categorised into four groups. First of all, financial affluence was very strongly sought by all three associations (A1,

A2, B3, C2), where Association A mostly emphasised it. Second, promotion of the state league of the sports and success in national and international competition were also suggested (A1, C1, C3). Third, nevertheless, the most strongly suggested "endeavour" should be "the provision of better service" and "development" (A2, A3, B1, B2, C1, C2). Fourth, increased membership (A2) was also discussed as one of the most important goals for the associations. It seems that there was no unique characteristic of each association in this regard. All of the important concerns or endeavours were similar for all three associations.

The dominant answer to the question, *what is your association's direction*, was "to provide better service to more people." Even A1 who replied to the previous question that s/he was endeavouring to get more financial resources, responded that the association's direction should be to increase members and provide better service. It is possible to interpret this to mean that to get more financial resources *is* to provide better service to more people. Others who argued that promotion or development was an important endeavour also agreed that to provide better service to more people was the right direction (A1, A2, A3, B2, B3, C1, C2). Therefore, it can be summarised that most of the endeavours suggested in the previous question were in fact instruments *to increase membership and provide better service*. Other interesting suggestions were also made for the direction of the respective associations. For example, A3 emphasised that one of the directions should be to educate and utilise volunteers; B1 indicated that the association should be dynamic and professional, and B2 said that the important direction was to accommodate local needs. C3 suggested, "maintaining balance between development and entertainment" as the most important direction of Association C. The emphasis on sport as entertainment as well as community service or personal development may reflect the recent trend of commercialisation of sport.

While the previous question asked about the 'direction' that the association headed for, the next question asked *by whom the direction was defined* in each association.

Overall, the direction of the association was defined through workshops and planning sessions, and described in strategic plans. In addition, Boards of management were identified as having the formal responsibilities for defining direction, and worked with the paid staff to set its strategic goals, to articulate these goals, to work towards them, and also to change them (A3 and B2). It is noteworthy that Association B emphasised the role of the CEO in defining the direction.

*SG5) Questions 13 to 15 asked goals and objectives of the association*

Associations A and B had similar *goals*. A1 named five focus areas that they had objectives for: management, financial performance, positioning or profiles, court performance and people development. B1 suggested the association's goals as participation, player development, competitions, facilities, internal management and business management of the organisation, sponsorship marketing, and media relationship. A3 said, "we want to see a (tangible) professional, well supported, attractive sport so there are some intangible things in that." In contrast to the two associations, Association C seemed more development oriented: C1 urged, "our sport to become more professional, for it to become a bigger sport in Australia and particularly, at the higher levels, prominent at the top level, to convert the grassroots of this sport."

While some interviewees replied that their association's *objectives* were similar to their goals and emphasised their role in promoting and providing the sport-related service, B2 identified short term and long term, and argued that "it has some immediate objectives; there are day-to-day operations and activities. There are some long-term objectives - that would be, for example, to provide a wider range of surfaces (courts or grounds) on which to play." Interviewees from Association C said their objectives were to ensure that people stay involved in the sport to ensure its continuation. Overall, the distinction between goals and objectives were not uniformly identified by different interviewees. Nevertheless, they all showed very



active and considerate attitudes toward attracting more people and providing them with higher quality services.

Answers to the question, *how frequently [do you] review your goals and objectives*, showed that all the associations had regular and frequent reviewing. Association A reviewed its objectives a minimum of twice per year and possibly more. In the case of Association B, the Board met on annual basis, but usually twice per year (B2). Staff in Association B seemed to meet more regularly and frequently. B2 explained that as their operational planning and their performance were based on review of goals and objectives, more frequent meetings of staff enabled them to use goals and objectives a lot more. B3 said that a staff meeting was held about once per month to have a formal review session of goals and objectives. Association C also had a formal review annually, which was less frequent than Associations A and B.

*SG6) Questions 16 and 17 asked what kind of strategies were used to achieve goals or objectives*

A2 replied that his/her association needed *strategies* to ensure that it had the right people working in the right areas. A2 also added that its strategies to serve people were to go out to the people rather than to wait people to come to them. According to A1, these strategies were looked after by project teams. They tried to make a strategy based around a project team with a specific brief with one job to do with a "sunset clause" - a time frame with a deadline.

B1 agreed that the most important strategy was to help and serve people, but they always remembered budget constraints, and tried to be realistic. B2 explained it in detail, saying that "[we have] three levels of strategic activity - the first is at the club level and the clubs through the Council of the Association has an avenue to put forward ideas and strategies which the organisation should look at. The second is at the Board level where the Board with its feet in the club level and its head at the

National level does have an understanding of where both the small-scale operation and broad picture need to head. The third is the staff itself under the CEO. The activities and attitudes are important in determining whereabouts and what kind of strategies that the organisation will look to." According to B2, strategies made for the three levels of activities included simple day-to-day management, how to maintain morale within the organisation, what sort of strategic planning needed to be done in relation to succession, who looked after activities when somebody goes on leave and even other actions which were operational rather than strategic.

Association C's strategies also had its base on the recognition that the first most important goal was to increase the number of people who were involved in the sport. C1's reply in detail explained the association's efforts to start the first step to achieve the goal from the grass root; "we've had development officers going out to the primary schools and conducting courses. Now we are extending that, so that we convert those into children participating in teams and playing on the weekends in structured competitions and associations."

Regarding the question, *what are considered in strategies?* All three associations clearly identified financial issues and time as the most important factors to be considered, although the emphasis that each interviewee placed on the two issues was different. While these constraints from "time" and "budget" were widely accepted for the three interviewees from Association A, A1 suggested other things that should be included in strategies, such as "a series of values how we operate... participation, a quality service to our members, the quality of players on court skills at all levels, communication with people and return on money spent." A1 summarised that Association A had a "future orientation." B1 added "ability" to achieve the goals to use money and time, which is reasonable considering that it is abilities of people that achieve goals by combining financial resources and time. C2 mentioned that the characteristics of the community where they started the project should also be considered.

*SG7) Questions 18 to 21 asked about how to circulate the draft, how to get feedback, and how to finalise the draft.*

All three associations *circulated* their drafts of the plans, however the range of people to whom they sent the draft differed. Association A circulated hard and soft copies to its partners, the Department of Sport and Recreation and many of its sponsorship partners (A1, A2 and A3). In contrast, Association B circulated the drafts just within its staff and Board originally as “we do not have a full stakeholder get-together for some time” (B1). Nevertheless, feedback from related people was well accepted in Association B. All member organisations did have an opportunity for input (B2). Association C used website, e-mail, faxing and a huge media distribution list to circulate the draft to stakeholders (C1, C2 and C3).

To the questions ‘*How to get feedback? From whom?*’ the interviewees from Association A answered univocally that they expected and received feedback from all the stakeholders, as well as paid employees and volunteers of the association. A1 further explained the active approach of the association, saying that “we also go and see our stakeholders.” Association A also went to the stakeholders regularly to listen to their suggestions, as well as for the feedback to the draft. Any form of feedback, written, spoken on the phone or direct conversation was collected and used. Compared to Association A, Association B had a relatively narrow core group of people from whom it gathered feedback, as B1 addressed, “within the community of this sport, not so much from outside the community,” although it welcomed feedback from Department of Sport and Recreation, as Association A did. In the previous question about the circulation of the draft, Association C showed very active attitudes, reflected in the responses of C1, who said, “[we receive] feedback from each of the associations involved in all the things we run, whether they are competitions or programs.” The channel that the association mainly used included “regular meetings with our associations from the general community” (C1).

All the interviewees from Association A said that they did their best to *accommodate feedback*, if it was considered to be appropriate. A3 summarised this as “the Board and staff consider the feedback and if it is considered appropriate, it is included [in the final draft].” It seems that Association B used this opportunity of circulating the draft as a chance to take feedback on a variety of issues. B1 said that the association assessed whether something was a local issue or a bigger issue. If it was a bigger issue, then the association certainly accommodated it, and if it was a local issue, then they would work with the group to deal with that local issue. B2 explained the process of accommodating feedback in detail, saying that “input is received and massaged by staff members and by the Board. As a result of that, a conclusion is arrived at a final document and then it is approved by both Board and the Council.” C2 asserted that while they worked hard to accommodate feedback, they considered constraints from resources very carefully: “we need an assessment of the feedback that comes through, with the knowledge we have of general policies and community standards.” These replies show that all associations were very active in accommodating feedback on draft plans, considering their resource constraints and following the process as defined in each association.

In all three associations it was the responsibility of the Board to *finalise the draft*. At the same time, it is noteworthy that they emphasised that strategic plans and operational plans should be constant working documents. Association B, however, had one more process to finalise the draft; after it was approved at the Board meeting, it needed a formal presentation to delegates from local clubs.

*SG8) Questions 22 to 24 asked about the finalised plan.*

Interviewees observed that the responsibility of the finalised plan resided in the Board and accordingly, the Board should be responsible for ensuring that the plan is enacted.

The interviewees from Association A also pointed out that, as other people sometimes had opportunities to participate in preparing the draft through providing feedback, people involved in the sport at various levels should also be responsible for implementing the plan which was not the sole responsibility of the Board. For example, A1 replied, "the Board has ultimate responsibility, [but] the operational staff (or office) have responsibility of implementing the operations of the plan; then our regional people operate the regional components, and our association people implement their development plans at their level." Compared to Association A, Associations B and C showed a strong tendency to attribute the respective plan's completion to the President, in particular, as well as the Chief Executive Officer or General Manager.

To the question of *how to monitor whether or not the plan is implemented*, Association A had a system to monitor the implementation of the plan. It submitted a bi-monthly report to the Board, and the head of a unit would report to the Board every two months regarding achievements, gaps and recommendations. The Board then assessed the progress every six months and every twelve months (A1, A2 and A3). While B2 and B3 answered that the Board played the main role in monitoring the implementation, B1 also emphasised the role of committees. B1 said, "that [monitoring the implementation] is done mainly through the CEO and the staff because each of those staff has committees or groups that they work with, and they are the driving force to make sure things happen. The Board does not get involved at that level." In Association C, it was suggested that the Board also takes the role; "we (the Board) generally monitor all the development" (C1). However, "when circumstance changes" (C1), "meetings of various layers of our sport give us feedback, and then we try to combine all the placements" (C2).

From the interviewees' perceptions, all three associations showed very similar attitudes towards the question *how to handle failure*. The main approach to deal with

failure was to discard the unachieved goals if they were impossible or not valuable, and to rewrite goals if it was worthwhile to do so.

Interviewees from Association A, in particular, A2 and A3, showed different views on "failure." A3 explained that the major reason for failure was aiming for too many things with limited budget. In contrast, A2 replied that if it was an important thing, then they should have it on the plan, even if they failed to achieve it. A1 emphasised their attitude towards "failure," saying that they tried hard to learn from the failure. Association B seemed relatively more aggressive than Association A in dealing with failure. B1 replied that "I prefer to know about it before there is a failure." B2 and B3 replied that "[goals] will be discarded if they are impractical. If it is still worthwhile, [we] probably mobilise more resources to achieve them." In other words, when they failed to achieve some goals, they reviewed them, and decided whether or not to pursue the goal in the future. Interviewees from Association C held, in general, similar attitudes to Association B about failure to achieve goals.

*SG9) Questions 25 to 28 asked how to monitor the implementation of the plan and how to review it.*

Association A showed systematic approach in *reviewing the plan*. A1 explained how frequently they reviewed the plan, what methods were used, and how the related information for reviewing was collected, by saying that "we review two monthly by the staff and six monthly by the Board. We have *proformas* for all of them. [We] obviously monitor our success against targets. We have stakeholders' survey and we meet with our stakeholders in the regions. The regions put in a development plan every year and they sign off on it every year." B2's explanation about her/his Association was analogous to what A1 did for Association A. B2 said, "The review is done every six months. We reviewed what we achieved, what needed to be done, what directions we were going in. The Board members and also the Council members do have an opportunity to be able to have input." In addition, B1 emphasised the role

of staff and the Board in reviewing the plan. Association C revealed to review the plan "by feedback, by regular review of our business plans and indeed in our regular meetings" (C2). C1 added that a report was regularly provided to the Board on where they were and how they were progressing according to the objectives.

To the question *how to collect information required for monitoring or reviewing*, Association A collected required information from various sources. It collected information from members via a survey, from other organisations about how they ran similar projects, and from other consultants or suppliers who managed similar projects (A2 and A3). A1 pointed out that a regional annual report was a very rich information source, which contained dates, participation numbers, spectators' gender, age and comments. Association B also collected statistical information from clubs. Interviewees from Association B emphasised the importance of local government agencies, particularly the Department of Sport and Recreation, saying they were "quite clearly a very significant organisation for us" (B2 and B3). Based on this information, "staff provides written reports to the Board meeting every month and the CEO probably includes more reporting, related to the plan" (B1). Association C used a variety of sources like the other two associations such as, "questionnaires, meetings, and receiving individual reports of all of our affiliates" (C2 and C3).

To the question *how often and how intensively [do you] review the plan*, A2 replied that the review of the plan was always on their minds. All of them indicated that the review process definitely happened on a six monthly basis. However, if people were having great difficulties they would bring it to the staff meeting, then - every month there is a Board meeting - it would be taken to the Board meeting. Interviewees from Association B also recognised the importance of review, saying "it is intensively reviewed annually but because it is a dynamic document it needs to be looked at regularly" (B1 and B2). As a result, the President and CEO did a fairly continuous assessment of the plan. According to all the interviewees, Association C reviewed their plan intensively every two months,.

The final question asked *how to adjust plans*. This question is similar to the previous one asking how they dealt with failure. The replies to this question from the interviewees from Association A were, in this regard, very similar to those of the previous one. They said that if they knew that they definitely could not get to the eventual goal, then they would adjust it down to make it more achievable (A1 and A2). A3 pointed out that changes were to be made in the Strategic Plan and ultimately endorsed by the Board. B1 argued that, in case of Association B, "in many of our cases the plan will not change a lot in terms of the goals and objectives. The strategies may change." B2 mentioned that the most important reason that adjustment was needed was financial problems, and in this case, the problem was resolved in regular financial meetings. C2 explained that they went back each year and reassessed their strategic plans as well as business plans, based on the comparison they got from the association's performance.

### ***Synopsis of the Interview Regarding the Plans and Planning Processes***

It was indicated that the survey respondents from each association did not reveal significant differences in their perception of the plans and planning processes for many questions/descriptions in the survey. As provided in Chapter 8, the respondents showed significantly different views across associations for only three questions/descriptions out of ten general processes, two out of ten steps of the planning processes, one out of seven essential sections and four out of ten key result areas. These results mean that, for more than 60 percent of the questions, there was no statistical difference between the associations. Associations shared more or less similar experiences with regards to planning processes.

While the interviews carried out with CEO/President and Board members of each association provided deep descriptions about the planning processes of each



association, similar findings were discovered when compared to those from the survey; in many cases, responses of interviewees from different associations were substantially similar.

As it was difficult to have a clear criterion to judge whether responses from different interviewees for the same question were basically the same or different, it was inevitable to face a certain degree of subjectivity in qualitative analysis. The findings from the interviews are summarised in what follows.

Every interviewee had a clear idea about the plans of their respective associations. They understood that their associations had business, strategic and development plans. They also revealed that their associations used the framework of their past plans in plan development. In other words, established frameworks such as Chapman's model were not actively applied to their planning processes. However, it was found that most items recommended by Chapman were already accommodated by each association. Considering that they were not aware of the Chapman's planning stages, theoretically, it could be concluded that they understood the basic and elaborate ingredients of the plans well, or perhaps when the plans were first prepared, those who initiated the planning processes understood the planning processes thoroughly.

All three associations started their preparation for new plans by reviewing the previous ones. Association B also emphasised that it contacted outside people to get feedback from the initial stage. The three associations also recognised the importance of external factors, in particular government bodies such as the Department of Sport and Recreation. It is interesting that the associations did not mention the importance of preparing and submitting development/business plans to DSR as the basis for their funding.

The three associations believed that their current status as associations was generally good, and it matched with the plans very well. They also actively considered past

information to project the future. Trends and changes were actively and systematically considered by all associations, and budget and time constraints were also taken into account.

To the question “why does your association exist?” they answered in three ways; (i) for the sake of the sport, (ii) to serve people, and (iii) to connect local clubs and national bodies. They endeavoured to secure financial resources, to provide better services and to develop their respective sports further.

While the replies were substantially similar for the previous questions, the differences across the associations were revealed when the direction of the association was asked. In addition, to the main consensus that goals of each association should increase membership and improve service, an interviewee from Association A emphasised the education and utilisation of volunteer workers, an interviewee from Association B pointed out that the association should be dynamic and professional, and accommodate local needs. An interviewee from Association C suggested that the association should maintain balance between development and entertainment.

Overall, the direction of each association was defined by their Boards, confirmed through workshops and planning sessions, and described in strategic plans. However, it is noteworthy that the role of CEO was emphasised by Association B, in particular, when defining the direction.

The three associations had similar objectives such as participation, player development, competition, improvement of facility management, and marketing. In particular, Association C emphasised the development of professionalism. It was also found that the associations shared very similar goals and objectives. Associations A and B had regular formal reviews of the goals and objectives, whereas Association C had less frequent formal reviews, although informal reviews were carried out more regularly.

To achieve goals and objectives, the three associations reviewed the former achievements frequently and revised the strategy, always considering time and budget constraints. In doing so, Association A emphasised “future orientation” of the association, Association B emphasised the “ability” to achieve the goals by using money and time, and Association C mentioned the characteristics of the community to be considered.

There were some differences in circulating drafts of the plans. Association A distributed to the Department of Sport and Recreation and many of its sponsorship partners, as well as staff and Board members. Association B had a narrow range of circulation; to its staff and Board members. Association C also distributed the drafts to stakeholders for feedback. Associations A and B mainly expected feedback from inside people (both employees and volunteers), nevertheless, they emphasised the role of Department of Sport and Recreation in providing appropriate feedback. Association C had a very active strategy to get feedback. They had regular meetings with associations from the general community to seek feedback, as well as from employees and its own volunteers. When they received feedback, all three associations, first of all, processed the feedback to determine whether it was appropriate, and then decided whether or not to include it in the final draft. While it was the role of the Board to finalise the draft for all three associations, Association B had one additional process of giving a formal presentation to delegates from local clubs.

Regarding the question on who has the responsibility for the finalised plan, interviewees from Association A had slightly different opinions from the other two. While interviewees from Association A univocally said that the Board should have the responsibility, interviewees from Associations B and C pointed out specific members of the Board in the associations, such as President, CEO or General Managers for the responsibility. Association A received frequent and regular internal

reports to confirm whether the plan was implemented. Association B had a similar system, however, the role of committees or groups was emphasised in the implementation. No interviewee from Association C explicitly indicated how often they monitored the implementation, but they said that the Board supervised it, and tried to combine feedback from various layers of the sport. All associations showed constructive and positive attitudes toward failure. They were alike in that they reviewed why the plan failed, and then decided whether or not to discard the goal or objective that was not achieved.

The associations used a variety of sources such as questionnaires, meetings, and receiving reports from affiliates to compile information required for monitoring or reviewing. Their plans were intensively reviewed, but with different periods. Association C most frequently reviewed its plan, namely every two months. In comparison, Association A reviewed the plans every six months, and Association B annually. Nevertheless, interviewees from Associations A and B also indicated that the review was always “on their minds” and they regarded the plan as a dynamic document. The three associations explained that once they found the goals or objectives unachievable, they usually adjusted them down. As problems happened due to the shortage of financial resources in most cases, they tried to resolve them in the financial meeting.

---

## **Summary**

This chapter analysed organisational culture for each association using the information obtained from the interviews with their CEOs/Presidents and Board members. The interviewees’ perceptions on the plans and planning processes were also examined. The similarities and differences in the organisational cultural values emphasised by each association were discussed, and their influences on the plans and

planning processes were also analysed. In spite of the substantial similarities among organisational cultural values emphasised by each association, in-depth information collected from the interviews helped to find significant differences between them, some of which were not revealed through quantitative analyses based on the survey. The following chapter reviews the entire thesis and concludes this study.

## CHAPTER 11

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Introduction

Sport organisations are expected to have unique characteristics that distinguish them from other organisations, as summarised by Parks and Zanger (1990) and Smith and Stewart (1999). These unique characteristics are managed by sport organisations in different ways to achieve success and survival. Consequently, they develop their own individual qualities, values or culture, which would affect their plans and planning processes in various ways.

This study explored the effects of organisational culture on the plans and planning processes for three state sport associations in Western Australia. The findings and results of the study will contribute to research in the field of sport management and studies on organisational culture of sport organisations. This study is both timely and crucial considering that:

- State Sporting Associations are required to submit a development plan or strategic plan (a minimum three-year plan) for most funding from the State Government (ASC, 1990; SRWA, 2000, 2007),
- Australian sport organisations are well into a transition period from volunteer-based to professional-oriented management (Lynch & Veal, 1997; Skinner, Stewart & Edwards, 1999; SRWA 2005), and

- the principles of efficiency and efficacy were introduced to the management of sport organisations (Rowan, 1998; Slack, 1997; SRWA, 2000) when professionalisation and commercialisation of sport increased.

There are several other aspects of significance to this study. A focal point of importance is that it would provide a general model that explored the role of organisational culture in influencing the development plans and planning processes. It was expected that as organisational culture changed, the development plans and planning processes would also change accordingly. As Cameron and Freeman (1991, p. 24) pointed out, improvement in management cannot come about without change in organisational culture. Accordingly, this study provided an insight into planning processes in sport management as well as enhancing the understanding of the influence of organisational culture on the plans and planning processes. These insights and understandings are useful for managers to adjust themselves and their organisations to the rapid flows of environmental changes experienced by organisations in response to the evolution towards greater professionalisation, efficiency and efficacy.

Overall, a model that integrates important determinants in successfully achieving goals and considers important variables of sport delivery, from the community to the elite, significantly enhances professionalism and harmony in management. Such a model may encourage more efficient and effective use of resources and provide well-organised opportunities for all participants – from “grass root” (community level) participants to elite athletes – to enjoy better quality service and experiences. Considering that a significant portion of a sport organisation's budget comes from the government (and other various, often public, stakeholders) with various competing uses, the importance of more efficient and effective accountability of resources is critical.

### **Review of Organisational Culture and Planning Frameworks**

Organisational cultures are defined by the values, assumptions and interpretations of organisation members. Because a common set of dimensions composes these factors, a model of organisational culture types can be derived from specific sets of values (Cameron & Freeman, 1991, Cameron & Spreitzer, 1991, Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). Therefore, the competing values framework was used in this study to examine the organisational culture for each sport association. This model of competing values framework of organisational culture has its roots in the competing values framework of organisational effectiveness criteria developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981).

While organisational culture represents the values, assumptions, beliefs and interpretations shared by organisation members (intangible), development plans are defined as “carefully formulated documents (tangible) of the collective ideas and agreed direction of members of the association who have taken part in the planning process” (Chapman, 1992, p. 1). As plans are a product of organisational culture and reflect cultural values, planning processes also will depend on strategies emerging from cultural emphases. In this regard, development plans are future-oriented, and reflect the culture of the organisation and its internal relationships as well as its relationship to the external environment. Chapman’s framework was used in this study to examine the plans and planning processes perceived by the workers of each association. Drawing from this, we can conclude that, understanding the relationship between organisational culture and planning in sport associations is an important concept in sport management.



## Summary of Research Approach

The main research question of this study was to explore any relationship between the organisational culture of sport organisations and the development planning processes. From this main question, three sub-research questions (RQs) follow:

***RQ1.** What are the demographic profiles and organisational cultural profiles of the selected sport organisations? In particular, do professionals and volunteers share similar or different perceptions of the organisational cultures?*

***RQ2.** What are the development plans and planning processes for each sport association? How does each association perceive the development planning processes?*

***RQ3.** How does organisational culture influence the plans and planning processes?*

After constructing conceptual frameworks and methodology, six chapters in this thesis were devoted to the three sub-research questions. To find answers to these research questions, this study used two kinds of data: a survey for quantitative analysis, and interviews with CEOs/Presidents and Board members for qualitative analysis. While quantitative analysis was expected to present more collective, representative and statistically rigorous results, qualitative analysis based on interviews was expected to provide in-depth and profound findings. In addition, interviews with CEOs/Presidents and board members, where at least six out of nine interviewees were volunteers, were expected to at least partially reflect volunteers' perceptions on organisational cultural profiles and planning processes.

## Summary of Results

### *Demographic Profiles and Organisational Culture*

#### *Demographic profiles*

The first research question asked, *What are the demographic profiles and organisational cultural profiles of the selected sport organisations?* Answers to this question were obtained using data from the surveys, which were circulated to both paid employees and volunteers in the three associations. The demographic results show that there was a wide range of age groups represented by the respondents of the three sport associations involved in this study – from as young as 19 to 75 years. The wide range and large variance in ages imply that the response would not present a biased view of organisational culture in the association that might be shared among a specific age group. The duration of involvement with their sport and sport associations ranged from 1 to 60 years, with a mean ranging from 9 to 11 years. Variances of the duration were large, suggesting that the respondents had extensive experience as volunteers or paid workers in the sport and specific sport associations. This implies that generally, respondents possessed sufficient understanding of the organisational culture of the association and did not represent the view shared by specific groups with similar duration of involvement.

It was also found that volunteers had spent a significantly longer duration of time in the respective profession and sport association than workers. This could be a source of differences between volunteers and paid workers in perceiving organisational culture and the planning processes. Statistically, there is no difference in the demographic characteristics between the three sport associations apart from gender composition for Association A, which contains a higher proportion of women than the other two associations. This could well be a result of the self-selection process of the survey response, but anecdotal evidence suggests that more women than men are

employed in women's sport and mixed sport, and less in men's sport. This difference in gender composition was expected to affect the organisations' culture, but on the contrary, the effect of 'female values' was not apparent in the respective association. When Instrument I was used, Association A showed slight emphasis on group and hierarchical culture, but was more balanced than the other associations. In contrast, Association A appeared to emphasise rational cultural values. The relationship between demographic profiles and organisational culture needs further investigations.

The demographic profiles of these three sport associations revealed some characteristics that may be influential in spite of the fact that the analysis showed there was no statistical significance. The next section presents the overview of the organisation culture characteristics of the three Western Australian sport associations.

#### *Organisational culture profiles*

Organisational culture of the respective associations was established by using Instrument I and Instrument II. The responses to Instrument II demonstrated high levels of reliability, whereas those of Instrument I showed low levels of reliability. The reliability of the responses to Instrument II, however, was comparable to previous significant studies, and therefore became the basis for further analysis. Variables representing each cultural value were established for further analysis of any relationship between perceived organisational culture values and the sport associations' approach to planning.

For Association A, while responses to the developmental cultural attributes showed relatively high fluctuations, responses to all the other culture categories received very stable scores. Descriptions regarding rational culture received the highest score, which was followed by group and then developmental culture. Hierarchical culture received the lowest emphasis.

For Association B, group culture received the highest score while hierarchical culture received an extremely low score. Rational culture received the second highest score, which was then followed by development culture. Variations of scores for each description were relatively small in group and rational culture, compared to developmental or hierarchical culture. This result indicates that, in general, workers in Association B shared more similar views about the organisation's group and rational organisational culture values.

The workers in Association C generally shared similar perceptions of cultural values identified in the workplace. While all four culture quadrants obtained relatively high scores, group culture received the highest score on average. Group culture was followed by rational culture, while hierarchical culture received the lowest emphasis.

For all these WA sport associations, group culture was strongly emphasised, which suggests that 'people' values of sport are clearly recognised. This may be a tradition in sport, especially as Australian sport has a strong reliance on volunteers, and is a quality that distinguishes sport organisations from other types of organisations. The slightly lower emphasis on rational and developmental culture may be indicative of the newer trend of professionalism in sport. These findings may reflect tension between group and rational culture in particular, which arises as professional officers (paid staff) take over the management of sport organisations from the volunteers.

All the sport associations exhibited low to very low emphasis on hierarchical culture, suggesting that these attributes are less evident and less valued, and perhaps that the organisational structures are less hierarchical, although organisational charts for the associations were not investigated. This may be related to the trends that some sport associations in recent years have moved from more bureaucratic structures to more horizontal and responsive structures, such as WA Squash in the early 1990s.

The emphases on specific organisational culture in sport organisations may well affect planning process by adopting a particular approach to planning. This possibility was systematically estimated by running multivariate regression.

*Volunteer/paid worker perceptions of organisational culture*

Interviews were conducted to explore the perception of organisational culture by CEOs/Presidents and board members in each association. Interesting findings emerged from both the survey given to the workers and from the interviews with selected people. The interviewees emphasised group, development and hierarchical cultures but not rational culture. In comparison, survey results show that the workers perceived an emphasis on group and rational cultures. Hierarchical culture was the least emphasised by the survey respondents, but was one of the cultures most emphasised by the interviewees. This indicates the different perceptions between general workers (paid and volunteer workers) and the interviewees (who were CEOs/Presidents and relatively seniors volunteers). The interviewees had been with their respective associations for a significantly longer duration, and might have had a better understanding of the organisational culture of their associations. Alternatively, the organisations might have moved from a hierarchical to a flatter structure, and the younger and paid workers may have recognised that the hierarchical culture had been replaced by rational culture.

The current trend of professionalism in sport would emphasise some characteristics related to development and rational culture, where rational culture was not formerly emphasised by volunteers. However, it is premature to conclude from these findings that volunteers are likely to be slow in adapting to the trend of professionalisation, as the interviewees in Associations A and B also emphasised development culture. The results of the interviews also suggest that the interviewees, most of whom were volunteers, generally preferred flexibility to control.

## ***Planning Processes***

### *Overview*

The research question 2 (RQ2) was *What are the development plans and planning processes for each sport association? How does each association perceive the development planning processes?* The sport associations, while not obviously aware of Chapman's (1992) model, perceived that their sports generally followed the four stages of the planning process that Chapman advocated for sport in Australia.

It could be expected that the ten steps and seven sections of the planning process would be evident – for they follow the standard model for strategic planning. However, it appears that some stages of Chapman's model were missed or neglected by the three sport associations participating in this study. All sport associations understood the development planning process. The individual respondents appeared to understand the planning process and were active in various stages of the review and development. However, it also appears that the associations generally did not perceive a high value of paid workers' and volunteers' opinions in the planning process – indications from the respondents suggest that the person responsible was not selecting the best people for the task of reviewing and developing the respective plans.

As the demographic profiles of the associations surveyed in this research revealed, some workers in these associations had long experiences in the respective sport or association. Their experiences and professional knowledge on various aspects of the sport and the association could be a valuable contribution to the development planning process of the association. It would improve both the content and process of the development plan if the associations took their workers' opinions into account more actively and systematically.

It was found that the workers in the three associations had similar perceptions in regards to their plans and planning processes. Statistical differences in responses were found in only three of the ten general questions, two of the ten steps, one of the seven essential areas and four of the ten result areas. For all of these, where comparison was possible, the workers in Association A had the strongest and most positive perceptions, followed by those in Association B.

In addition, the respective association's overall achievement of their plans was not rated highly. While most statements regarding the general aspects of the planning process received high scores, there might be important links among the three statements with the lowest scores: volunteers' opinions were not valued highly, the most suitable people were not selected for the planning process and the association could not achieve the outcomes of its plan. This can provide important suggestions for an association and its funding agencies. Sometimes the association did not achieve its planned goals because the outcomes described in the plan may not have been sufficiently reasonable or practical. In this case, encouraging more intensive involvement of volunteers with longer experience or selecting the most appropriate people in the planning process may help the association's chance of achieving its outcomes. Involvement of the most appropriate people in the planning process also can be a good indicator for the funding agency to evaluate the possibility of the association achieving successful outcomes.

---

#### *Ten general steps*

It appears that there was a very strong agreement of acceptance of the ten steps. However, marginally lower emphasis was perceived on the review stages of the planning processes – the three statements with lowest scores were all associated with the review of plans. This may be the result of the staff not being aware of this part of the planning process or the associations not being active enough in conducting the initial reviews at the commencement of each planning phase.

The fact that they did not work very hard to achieve the outcomes should be very closely related to the aforementioned suggestion that the plan established might not be so reasonable or practical, resulting in a lack of motivation for the workers. Alternatively, it might indicate that the monitoring of the implementation of the development plan was not properly executed. If this is the case, the associations should prepare a more systematic and adequate monitoring system for the proper implementation of the plans. The funding agency also should ask the sport associations to set up reasonable outcomes in their developing plans and establish proper monitoring systems. It may be interesting to explore whether sport associations with better monitoring systems achieved more funding from funding agencies.

#### *Seven essential sections*

The workers in the sport associations generally expressed having strong perceptions of the structure of the plans that matched Chapman's model. Workers in all three associations particularly agreed that their organisations' development plans included such components as why their organisations existed and what they should achieve. They also include a single summary table and a program summary. In contrast, the statements with low scores were related to action elements – the broad goals and previous years' plan achievements were not reviewed properly in the organisation's development plan, and the specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in the year were not properly presented.

These findings indicate that while these associations had such historical components as their purpose of establishment and their goals to achieve, the workers pointed out that their previous year's achievements were not properly reviewed, which indicated that the associations failed to complete the planning activities. The plans would not be regarded to be completely finished until their achievements were thoroughly reviewed. The low scores in reviewing are consistent with the finding in the *Ten*



*General Steps* that the review stages of the planning processes received relatively low scores.

#### *Ten key result areas*

Basically, all the respondents perceived that key result areas were evident in their respective association's development plans, while some distinct differences were evident across the sport associations. Compared to the other parts, workers in each association showed different perceptions on this part of the development plan. Compared to Associations B and C, Association A's plan did not clearly include some of the key results that the plan is expected to contain, such as addressing the issue of facility management, maintenance and future development. As Association A should have facilities, considering the nature of its sport, the low scores for this statement indicated that their development plan did not sufficiently include plans regarding management, maintenance and development of those facilities.

All three associations equally understood the demand for major events and properly considered important issues related to training and professional development. It should also be noted that perception was generally low for athlete development, which includes development structure for athletes. In particular, athlete development specifies detailed and measurable objectives and also includes the development of rules, safety, guidelines and the equality of officials. On the flipside, they showed high perceptions of management and marketing promotion.

Overall, all the survey respondents perceived that their plans had most of the items that Chapman suggested, either implicitly or explicitly. Nevertheless, it was still possible to find that some of their perceptions were different across the associations, which implied that there must have been critical factors that determined the patterns in perceiving the planning processes. Regression analysis was carried out to find systematic relationship between organisational culture and the planning process. The significance of demographic characteristics was also examined.

### ***Demographics, Organisational Culture and Planning Processes***

This part deals with the research question regarding the relationship between organisational culture and the planning process: **RQ3**. *How does organisational culture influence the plans and planning processes?*

Regression analysis using these variables found that group cultural value was significantly related to the association's plans and planning process; an association with stronger group cultural value was more likely to take ten steps, include seven essential areas and report ten results related to *performance* in its planning processes. Group culture was also positively related to the response of the respondents on ten general questions (*individual/employee involvement*): An association with stronger group culture is more likely to emphasise the involvement of workers in planning processes. Hierarchical culture (*stability*) was likely to positively relate to the association's ten general questions (*importance of planning*). In other words, an association that has stronger hierarchical culture emphasising *stability* of the organisation is more likely to emphasise the importance of planning. In contrast, the other factorised hierarchical culture (*predictability*) was found to be negatively related to the association's importance of planning. That is, an association that has a stronger hierarchical culture, emphasising *predictability*, is less likely to recognise the importance of planning. This is difficult to understand intuitively and needs further investigation.

These findings implied that the effect of hierarchical culture on the planning processes should be interpreted with caution, as the effect could vary depending on how the weights were allotted to hierarchical cultural values in factorising. It was also found from the regression analyses that an association with stronger emphasis on

rational culture was likely to pay more attention to the ten key result areas suggested by Chapman, especially those related to *management* of the organisation.

Demographic profiles of respondents sometimes affected the perception of planning processes. For example, a female worker was more likely to perceive that her association's planning processes were better developed because the workers' participation was encouraged even though the ten steps were not properly taken in planning processes. A worker with longer experience in the current occupation was more likely to perceive his/her association's planning processes as less developed or that involvement of the workers into the planning processes was not encouraged. In contrast, the worker with longer experience was more likely to perceive that the importance of planning was emphasised in her/his association. The status of the worker, whether she/he was a volunteer or paid employee also seemed important; a volunteer worker was more likely to perceive that her/his association appreciates the importance of planning high. In addition, the differences between associations were also found in regression analysis.

This study also examined the profiles of organisational culture, the perception of the plans and planning processes and the relationship between these two through interviews. The results of the interviewees were reasonably supportive of the quantitative findings. In addition, more in-depth information related to research issues was obtained. While each interviewee's answers (and therefore their perceptions) regarding the organisational cultural emphases of the association were sometimes substantially different from one another, their views on the plans and planning process were surprisingly similar. As discussed in the previous section, while they were not aware of Chapman's framework, the plans they had, in fact, contained most of the items suggested by Chapman.

In summary, this study investigated the demographic profiles of the three sport associations in Western Australia, using both quantitative methods based on survey

and qualitative methods based on interviews. It then developed organisational cultural profiles of the participating sport associations using Quinn and Spreitzer's (1991) competing values framework for organisational culture. The study examined development plans and planning processes for each participating sport association utilising the two methods, and taking into consideration guidelines published by the ASC (1990). Finally, it explored relationships between organisational cultural profiles and development planning processes, using statistical analyses and qualitative measures.

## **Conclusions and Recommendations**

### ***Conclusions of this Study***

The findings from this study present at least five important recommendations for sport organisations and national and state governments, as well as relevant academic disciplines. First, this study revealed demographic profiles and cultural profiles of the three sport associations, which enhances our understanding of the sport associations. It was found that the three associations shared, in general, similar demographic profiles. Nevertheless, their cultural profiles were substantially different in certain aspects, which could affect the plans and planning processes. These findings of demographic and cultural similarities and differences between each sport association should be important information for the state government, one of the most important external stakeholders and financial sources of a number of state sport associations.

Second, some of the demographic profiles were found to be significantly related to certain aspects of the planning processes. This implies that a sport association's planning processes, which are crucial for development of the association, are significantly affected by the unique demographic profile that the association

possesses. For example, this study found that a female worker perceived her association's general aspects of the planning processes in terms of individual/employee involvement were more likely to be weak, and the content of ten general questions were less likely to be included in the planning processes. A worker with longer experience in the current occupation had mixed views about the general aspects of the planning processes; she/he was more likely to perceive that his/her association's individual/employee involvement in the planning was weak, but planning itself was important. A volunteer worker was more likely to perceive that his/her association's planning was important, compared to paid-employees. This information that the development plans or the planning processes were affected by demographic profiles of the workers in the association should be invaluable information for leaders of the association when preparing or establishing the development plan.

Third, while governments put much emphasis on the plans and planning processes for more efficient and effective operation of sport associations, studies investigating the plans or planning processes are rarely found, as are studies that provide a foundation for the practical application of theories on the planning processes. Chapman (1992) provided one of few guides available for practitioners that systematically analyses the development plan and the planning processes. Thibault, Slack and Hinings (1993, 1994) discussed a framework for the analysis of strategy and strategic planning for not-for-profit sport organisations, but did not provide all the points to be included in a development plan. Furthermore, no study has explored the forces behind, each association's planning processes, such as demographic profiles and organizational cultures. In this regard, this thesis is seminal.

Fourth, regression estimation revealed that, even after important variables such as demographic and cultural profiles were included, each association had significantly different plans and planning processes. This implies that even if associations had similar demographic and cultural profiles, they would still have different plans and

planning processes. Therefore, when governments or practitioners work with sport associations, they must understand that each association has its own unique features in preparing, finalising and implementing development plans.

Fifth, the approach adopted in this thesis, which relates organisational cultural values with the planning processes in sport associations, has been unprecedented, notwithstanding its presence and importance. Therefore, it will make a constructive contribution to research in the fields of management and organisational culture studies as well as in sport associations. This study also has implications for stakeholders of sport associations, in particular, the state government, by showing how the development plans or planning processes were determined. All the crucial findings with regard to the relationship between organisational culture and the planning processes were discussed in detail in Chapters 9 and 10. For example, while group culture had strong positive effects on the planning processes and the contents of development plans, developmental culture did not have significant effects, contrary to expectation. The effect of hierarchical culture was mixed and limited to the general perception of the planning processes, and rational culture positively influenced the association to include ten result areas in the development plan. These results imply that each association should strive to become aware of and understand its own unique organisational culture and demographic profile. It should then develop a planning process that suits its culture with respect to its specific aims and the broader environmental context.

---

### *Recommendations for Further Research*

The contributions of this thesis are multi-fold as mentioned earlier. Nevertheless, it also provokes further issues for possible future research. Two most important research issues follow.

First, while certain aspects of the development plan or the planning processes were found to be determined by some demographic and cultural profiles, it was also found that portions of variations in the workers' perception of the development plan and the planning processes could be explained by association dummy variables. While it is conjectured that certain unique traits of an association which are not explained by demographic or cultural profiles may be due to some intrinsic factors, such as the composition of membership in terms of members' gender, age or regions, it was not further explored in this study. It provides further research possibility to rigorously find which other variables work to result in the difference in the plans and planning processes.

Second, this study carried out quantitative analysis based on the survey of 39 respondents. The major reason that only 39 observations were available in this study is that the state sport associations participating in this study had a small number of workers including both paid employees and volunteers, despite that they were relatively large associations. In WA, even the associations of the most popular sports did not have a large number of workers. While this number of observations still provides substantial findings, more rigorous and different types of analyses could be carried out, resulting in a larger sample producing more robust and interesting results.

## REFERENCES

- Adair, D., & Vamplew, W. (1997). *Sport in Australian history*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Altheide, D., & Snow, R. (1991). *Media worlds in the Post-journalism era*. New York: Aldine De Gruyter.
- Armstrong, T. (1988). *Gold lust: Federal sports policy since 1975*. PhD Thesis, Macquarie University, Sydney.
- Australian Sports Commission (1987). *Strategic plan: 1987-88 to 1988-89*. Canberra: AGPS.
- Australian Sports Commission (1990). *Preparing and implementing development plans: A manual for sporting organisations*. Canberra: AGPS.
- Australian Sports Commission (1998). *Evaluation of the Australian sports commission's impact on sports performance and participation in Australia*. Canberra: Australian Sports Commission.
- Australian Sports Commission (1999). *Annual Report 1998/1999*. Canberra: Australian Sports Commission.
- Australian Sports Commission (2003). <http://www.ausport.gov.au>.
- Baird, K., Harrison, G., & Reeve, R. (2007). The culture of Australian organizations and its relation with strategy. *International Journal of Business Studies*, 15(1), pp.15-41.
- Bell, P., & Bell, R. (1993). *Implicated: The United States in Australia*. Melbourne: OUP.
- Bellamy, R. (1989). Professional sports organizations: Media strategies. In Wenner, L. (ed.), *Media, sports and society*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Booth, D., & Tatz, C. (2000). *One-eyed: A view of Australian sport*. NSW: Allen and Unwin.
- Bradbury, T. (1994). New Zealand's national pastime – A business? Paper presented to the *Australian Society of Sport Administrators Conference*. Brisbane.
- Bradley, G. (1994). *Management review of soccer operations in Australia*. Sydney: Australian Soccer Federation.



- Brown, S. (1995). *The rise of national leagues: Sport and organisational changes in Australia*. PhD Thesis, The University of Western Australia.
- Bryson, J. (1988). *Strategic planning for public and nonprofit organizations. A guide to strengthening and sustaining organizational achievement*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (1990). Formulating strategies to manage the issues. In D. Gies, J. Ott, & J. Shafritz (Eds.), *The nonprofit organization. Essential readings*, pp. 166-176. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Budd, A. (2001). Capitalism, sport and resistance: reflections. *Culture, Sport and Society*, 4, 1-18.
- Buenger, V., Daft, R., Conlon, E., & Austin, J. (1996). Competing values in organizations: Contextual influences and structural consequences. *Organization Science*, 7, 557-576.
- Cameron, K. (1978). Measuring organizational effectiveness in institutions of higher education. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23, 604-632.
- Cameron, K. (1986). A study of organizational effectiveness and its predictors. *Management Science*, 32, 87-112.
- Cameron, K., & Freeman, S. (1991). Cultural congruence, strength, and type: Relationships to effectiveness. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 23-58.
- Cameron, K., & Quinn, R. (1999). *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Cashman, R. (1998). *Paradise of sport*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Chapman, S. (1992). *Planning in sport: A guide for sporting organizations*. Canberra: Australian Sports Commission.
- Chelladurai, P. (1985). *Sport management: Macro perspective*. London, Ontario: Sport Dynamics.
- Christensen, C. (2006). *What is an organization's culture?* Harvard Business School Case Study 9-399-104.
- Coakley, J. (1990). *Sport in society, issues and controversies*. St Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby College Publishing.

- Cole, R. (1979). Diffusion of Participatory work structures in Japan, Sweden and the United States. In Goodman, R. and Associates (Eds.), *Changes in Organisations*, 166-225. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Colyer, S. (2000). Organizational culture in selected Western Australian sport organizations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 14, 321-341.
- Colyer, S., Soutar, G., & Ryder, P. (2000). Organizational culture profiles in local government authority recreation services: Some Australian evidence. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, summer, 73-87.
- Connolly, T., Conlon, E., & Deutsch, S. (1980). Organizational effectiveness: A multiple constituency approach. *Academy of Management Review*, 5, 211-218.
- Crawford, D. (2001). *Constitutional review of the West Australian Football Commission*. Perth: Western Australian Football Commission.
- Cuskelly, G., McIntyre, N., & Boag, A. (1998). A longitudinal study of the development of organisational commitment amongst volunteer sport administrators. *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, 181-202.
- Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1982). *Corporate cultures: The rights and rituals of corporate life*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1988). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Penguin.
- Denison, D., & Spreitzer, G. (1991). Organizational culture and organizational development. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 1-21.
- Department of the Arts, Sport, the Environment, Tourism and Territories (Department of the Arts) (1992). *Government expenditure on sport and recreation: Technical paper No.4*. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Service.
- Department of Industry, Science and Resources (2000). *Shaping up: A review of Commonwealth involvement in sport and recreation in Australia*. Canberra: AGPS.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2001). Electronical Home Page (<http://www.isr.gov.au>)
- Department of Sport and Recreation, WA (1993, 1996). *Sport census*. Perth.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (2003). *Strategic directions for Western Australian sport and recreation 2003-2005*. Perth.

- Department of Sport and Tourism (1990/91). *Annual Report*. Canberra.
- Doherty, A. (1999). Managing cultural diversity in sport organizations: a theoretical perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, 13, 280-297.
- Elazar, D. (1994). *Federal systems of the world: A handbook of federal, confederal and autonomy arrangements*. Harlow, Essex: Longman Group Ltd.
- Farmer, P., & Arnaudon, S. (1996). Australian sport policy. In Chalip, L., Johnson, A. and Stachura, L. (Eds). *National sports policies: An international handbook*. Westport: Connecticut: Greenwood Press.
- Fayol, H. (1949). *General and industrial management*. London: Pitman.
- Goldlust, J. (1987). *Playing for keeps*. Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.
- Gratton, C. (1998). The economic importance of modern sport. *Culture, Sport and Society*, 1, 101-17.
- Greene, W. (2003). *Econometric analysis*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Gregory, K. (1983). Native-view paradigms: Multiple cultures and culture conflicts in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28, 359-376.
- Hall, R. (1982). *Organizations: Structure and process*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Handy, C. (1988). *Understanding voluntary organizations*. London: Penguin Books.
- Hatch, M., & Cunliffe, A. (2006). *Organizational theory: Modern symbolic and postmodern perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hofstede, G. (1998a). Identifying organizational subcultures: An empirical approach. *Journal of Management Studies*, 35, 1-12.
- Hofstede, G. (1998b). Attitudes, values and organizational culture: Disentangling the concepts. *Organization Studies*, 19, 477-492.
- Hogan, K., & Norton, K. (2000). The price of Olympic gold. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 3, 203-218.
- Hoye, R., & Cuskelly, G. (2003). Board-executive relationship within voluntary sport organisations. *Sport Management Review*, 6, 543-574.

- Imershin, A. (1977). Organizational change as a paradigm shift. *Sciology Quarterly*, 18, 33-34.
- Investigating Committee into the Development of Sport in Western Australia (1978). *The development of sport in Western Australia*. Wembley, WA: Community Recreation Council of Western Australia.
- Johnson, C., Wood, R., & Blinkborn, S. (1988). Spuriousness and spuriousness: The use of ipsative personality tests. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 153-162.
- Kadmos Group (1998). *Management improvement in sport and recreation and the potential role of benchmarking in it (Consulting project report)*. Perth, WA.
- Kimberley, J., & Rottman, D. (1987). Environment, organization and effectiveness: A biographical approach. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24(6), pp. 595-622.
- Kleinbaum, D., Kupper, L., & Muller K. (1988). *Applied regression analysis and other multivariable methods*. Boston: PWS-KENT Publishing Company.
- Kotter, J., & Heskett, J. (1992). *Corporate culture and performance*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kuhn, T. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: The University of Chicago press.
- Lincoln, J., Olson, J., & Hanada, M. (1978). Cultural effects on organizational structure: The case of Japanese firms in the United States. *American Sociology Review*, 43, 829-847.
- Loasby, J. (1967). Long-range formal planning in perspective. *The Journal of Management Studies*, IV, 300-308.
- Lynch, R., & A. Veal (1997). *Australian leisure*. Sydney: Longman.
- Mandle, W. (1973). Cricket and Australian nationalism in the nineteenth century. *Journal of the Royal Australian Historical Society*, 59, 225-245.
- McKay, J. (1991). *No pain, no gain? Sport and Australian culture*. Sydney: Prentice Hall.
- McKay, J., & Miller, T. (1991). From old boys to men and women of the corporation: The Americanization and commodification of Australian sport. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 8, 86-94.
- Miller, T. (1999). Televisualization. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 23, 123-125.

- Ministry of Sport and Recreation (1996). *Sport census*. Perth, WA: MSR.
- Ministry of Sport and Recreation (1999/2000). *Annual report*. Perth: Ministry of Sport and Recreation.
- Mintzberg, H. (1994). *The rise and fall of strategic planning*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.
- Meyerson, D., & Martin, J. (1987). Cultural change: An integration of three different views. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24, 623-647.
- Neuman, L. (2003). *Social research methods*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Ogbonna, E., & Harris, L. (1998). Organizational culture: It's not what you think.... *Journal of General Management*, 23, 35-48.
- Olafson, G. (1990). Research design in sport management: What's missing, what's needed? *Journal of Sport Management*, 4, 103-20.
- Ouchi, W., & Wilkins, A. (1985). Organizational culture. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 11, 457-483.
- Ouchi, W., & Wilkins, A. (1992). Organizational culture. In Westoby, A. (ed.), *Culture and power in educational organizations*, 223-252. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Parker, S., & Paddick, R. (1993). *Leisure in Australia*. Melbourne: Longman Cheshire.
- Parkhouse, B. (1990). *The management of sport: its foundations and applications*. St Louis, MO: Mosby-Year book.
- Parks, J., & Zanger, B. (1990). *Sport and fitness management: Career strategies and professional content*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Pettigrew, A. (1979). On studying organizational cultures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 570-581.
- Quinn, R. (1988). *Beyond rational management*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Quinn, R., & McGrath, M. (1985). The transformation of organizational cultures: A competing values perspectives. In P. J. frost, L. F. Moore, M. R. Louis, C. C. Lundberg, & J. Martin (Eds.), *Organizational culture*, pp.315-334. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Quinn, R., & Rohrbaugh, J. (1981). A competing values approach to organizational effectiveness. *Public Productivity Review*, 5, 122-140.

- Quinn, R., & Rohrbaugh, J. (1983). A spatial model of effectiveness criteria: Towards a competing values approach to organizational analysis. *Management Science*, 29, 363-377.
- Quinn, R., & Spreitzer, G. (1991). The psychometrics of the competing values culture instrument and an analysis of the impact of organizational culture on quality of life. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 115-142.
- Robbins, S. (1975). *Organizational behavior: Concepts, controversies and applications*. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Rowan, J. (1998). Skiing Australia: reorganising for the future. *Sport Management Review*, 1, 77-91.
- Schall, M. (1983). A communication-rules approach to organizational culture. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28, 557-581.
- Schein, E. (1984). Coming to a new awareness of organizational culture. *Sloan Management Review*, 25, 3-16.
- Schein, E. (1985). How culture forms, develops and changes. In Kilmann, R., Saxton, M., Serpa, R. & Associates (Eds.), *Gaining control of the corporate culture* (17-42). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schein, E. (1996). Culture: A missing concept in organization studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41, 229-240.
- Shilbury, D. (1994). Sport management: Defining the field. Paper presented to the *Australian Society for Sport Administration Conference*, Brisbane.
- Shilbury, D., & Deane, J. (1994). *Sport management in Australia – An organisational overview*. Mimeo, Deakin University.
- \_\_\_\_\_ (2001). *Sport management in Australia – An organisational overview*. Melbourne: Strategic Sport Management.
- Skinner, J., Stewart, B., & Edwards, A. (1999). Amateurism to professionalism: Modelling organisational change in sporting organisations. *Sport Management Review*, 2, 173-192.
- Slack, T. (1996). From the locker room to the board room: Changing the domain of sport management. *Journal of Sport Management*, 10, 97-105.

- Slack, T. (1997). *Understanding sport organizations*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Slack, T., & Hinings, C. (1987). Planning and organizational change: A conceptual framework for the analysis of amateur sport organizations. *Canadian Journal of Sport Science*, 12, 185-193.
- Smith, A., & Shilbury, D. (2004). Mapping cultural dimensions in Australian sporting organizations. *Sport Management Review*, 7, pp.133-165.
- Smith, A., & Stewart, B. (1995). Sporting club cultures: An exploratory case study. *Australian Journal of Leisure & Recreation*, 6(4), pp.31-37.
- Smith, A., & Stewart, B. (1999). *Sport management: A guide to professional practice*. St Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- SPSS (2002). *SPSS 11.0 for Window*. Richboro, PA: SPSS
- SRWA (2000). *Business plan 2000 (Brochure)*. Perth: Sport and Recreation WA.
- Stewart, R., & Smith, A. (1999). Special features of sport. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 2, 87-99.
- Stoddart, B. (1986). *Saturday afternoon fever: Sport in the Australian culture*. Sydney: Angus & Robertson.
- Sydow, J., & Windeler, A. (1998). Organizing and evaluating interfirm networks: A structurationist perspective on network process and effectiveness. *Organization Science*, 9, 265-283.
- Terry, G. R. (1960). *Principles of management*. Champaign, IL: Irwin.
- Thibault, L., Slack, T., & Hinings, B. (1991). Professionalism, structures and systems: The impact of professional staff on voluntary sport organisations. *International Review for Sociology of Sports*, 26, 83-99.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (1993). A framework for the analysis of strategy in nonprofit sport organizations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 7, 25-43.
- \_\_\_\_\_. (1994). Strategic planning for nonprofit sport organizations: Empirical verification of a framework. *Journal of Sport Management*, 8, 218-233.
- Thomas, J., & Nelson, J. (1990). *Introduction to research in health, physical education, recreation and dance*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Publishers.

- Tichy, N. (1982). Managing change strategically: The technical, political and cultural keys. *Organizational Dynamics*, 11, 59-80.
- Trenberth, L., & Collins, C. (1994). *Sport management in New Zealand: An introduction*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press Ltd.
- Tsui, A. (1990). A multiple-constituency model of effectiveness: An empirical examination t the human resource subunit level. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35, 458-483.
- Van der Zwaag, H., & T. Sheehan (1978). *Introduction to sport studies: From the classroom to the ballpark*. Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown Pub.
- Veal, A., & Lynch, R. (2001). *Australian leisure*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) Sydney: Longman.
- Viallon, R., Camy, J., & Collins, M. (2003). The European integration of a new occupation, the training and education strategies of national professional organizations: The case of the fitness sector in France and the United Kingdom. *Managing Leisure*, 8, 85-96.
- Wagner, J., Stimpert, J., & Fubara, E. (1998). Board composition and organizational performance: Two studies of insider/outsider effects. *Journal of Management Studies*, 35, 655-677.
- Walton, E., & Dawson, S. (2001). Managers' perceptions of criteria of organizational effectiveness. *Journal of Management Studies*, 38, 173-200.
- Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organization*. New York: Free Press (translated by A. Hendeson and T. Parsons).
- Weese, W. (1995). Leadership and organizational culture: An investigation of Big Ten and Mid-West American conference campus recreation administrations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 9, 119-134.
- Westerbeek, H., Shilbury, D., & Deane, J. (1995). The Australian sport system, its history and an organisational overview. *European Journal for Sport Management*, 2, 42-58.
- Wikipedia (2007). <http://en.wikipedia.org> (downloaded on 26 November 2007)
- Wilson, B. (1990). Pumping up the footy: the commercial expansion of professional football in Australia." in Rowe, D. and Lawrence, G. (Eds.) *Sport and leisure: Trends in Australian popular culture*. Sydney: Harcourt Brace and Jovanovich.
- Wood, J., Wallace, J., Zeffane, R., Kennedy, D, Schermerhorn, J., Hunt, J., & Osborn, R. (1998). *Organisational behaviour: An Asia-Pacific perspective*. Brisbane: John Wiley & Sons.



- Yeung, K., Brockbank, J., & Ulrich, D. (1991). Organizational cultures and human resource practices: An empirical assessment. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 59-81.
- Zammuto, R. (1984). A comparison of multiple constituency models of organizational effectiveness. *Academy of Management Review*, 9, 606-616.
- Zammuto, R., & Krakower, J. (1991). Quantitative and qualitative studies of organizational culture. *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 5, 83-114.
- Zeigler, F. (1987). Sport management: Past, Present, Future. *Journal of Sport Management*, 1, 4-24.

## **APPENDIX A**

### **LETTER OF INVITATION**

March 14, 2002

Sooyoung Tcha  
PhD candidate  
School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure  
Faculty of Business and Public Management  
Edith Cowan University  
Joondalup Campus  
100 Joondalup Drive  
Joondalup, WA 6027

Mr. \_\_\_\_\_  
Chief Executive Officer  
Association's name  
Address

Dear Mr \_\_\_\_\_,

You are invited to participate in a study of organisational culture and planning processes in Western Australian sport associations.

My name is Sooyoung Tcha, and I am currently studying at Edith Cowan University for a PhD degree in Sport Management. My thesis will be entitled Exploring the Relationship between Organisational Culture of Sport Associations and Their Development Planning Processes: Western Australian Evidence

Sport organisations are valuable assets in Australia, contributing to community participation in sport and achieving remarkable success in international competition. As you are already aware, sport organisations are facing rapid changes such as higher emphasis on professionalisation and efficiency. However, just a few studies have been conducted on the relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness for sport organisations. In addition, the influences of organisational culture on development planning processes have not received any attention from researchers. This study will lay a corner-stone for the study of sport organisations, and will assist sport managers to develop a better understanding of organisational characteristics of sport associations in Australia.

Your organisation, \_\_\_\_\_, is invited to participate in this study to examine the relationship between organisational culture and planning processes. If you decide to participate, your employees and Board members will be asked to complete a questionnaire. The responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and privacy, and will be used for the research purposes only. Your employees' and your organisation's anonymity will be maintained throughout the research process. The data from the questionnaires will be presented in aggregated form so no individual response can be identified.

To supplement the analysis based on the survey, interviews will be held with selected people from your organisation. Details of the interview – when, where, for how long and with whom - will be determined in due course, in a way to minimise any inconvenience to your organisation or employees. I also may need access to records such as annual reports from your association to collect relevant data such as the number of members, general financial data and the record of the organisation in national and international level competitions.

Benefits to your organisation will include a 'snapshot' of your organisation's organisational culture, which will be helpful to support planning and management strategies. In addition, a summary of the results for your organisation will be provided.

If you have any questions about this invitation, you can contact me on [REDACTED]  
You can check the authenticity of this study with my supervisor Dr Sue Colyer at 9400-5429.

Your favourable response to this invitation will be greatly appreciated by \_\_\_\_\_  
to support the advancement of the research project.

Sincerely,

Sooyoung Tcha

## **APPENDIX B**

### **RESPONSE TO THE INVITATION**

---

Sport Association's name  
Address

Sooyoung Tcha  
PhD candidate  
School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure  
Faculty of Business and Public Management  
Edith Cowan University  
Joondalup Campus  
100 Joondalup Drive  
Joondalup, WA 6027

## RESPONSE TO THE INVITATION

\_\_\_\_\_ Yes, we will participate in the study.

\_\_\_\_\_ No, we will not participate in the study.

If Yes, please provide full contact details of the person who I should reach for the further study.

NAME: Mr/Mrs

Office Address:

Phone/Fax numbers:

Email Address:

Thank you for your cooperation again.

## **APPENDIX C**

### **FORM OF DISCLOSURE**

## Form of Disclosure

You are invited to participate in a study of the relationship between organisational culture and development planning processes in sport associations. Your knowledge and experience of your sport organisation will be of great value to this study.

My name is Sooyoung Tcha, and I am currently studying at Edith Cowan University for a PhD degree in Sport Management under the supervision of Dr Sue Colyer and Associate Professor Francis Lobo. My thesis will be entitled Organisational Culture of Sport Organisations and Development Planning Processes: Western Australian Evidence.

If you decide to participate, you are requested to have an interview. It will take you less than 60 minutes to complete the interview. The responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and privacy, and will be used for the research purposes only. You and your organisation's confidentiality will be maintained throughout the research process. Should you wish your interview withdrawn after you complete it, you may do that. Your current position will not be prejudiced in any way by your refusal to participate in this survey.

General benefits from this study include a better understanding of organisational culture profiles of sport organisations. This understanding will enhance the knowledge of the relationship between the organisational culture and the planning process. The outcome may generate ideas on how to improve the future working environments and efficiency of the organisation.

Benefits to your organisation will include a 'snapshot' of your organisation's organisational culture, which will be helpful to support planning and management strategies. In addition, a summary of the results for your organisation will be provided.

If you have any questions about this invitation, you can contact me on [REDACTED]. You can check the authenticity of this study with my supervisor Dr Sue Colyer of School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure, Edith Cowan University on 9400-5429.

If you have any concerns about the project or would like to talk to an independent person, you may contact Dr Kandy James on 9400-5428.

Thank you for your cooperation and participation.



# **APPENDIX D**

## **QUESTIONNAIRE**

---

**ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF SPORT ORGANISATIONS  
AND DEVELOPMENT PLANNING PROCESSES:  
WESTERN AUSTRALIAN EVIDENCE.**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

This is an invitation for you to participate in a study about the relationship between organisational culture and development planning processes in your association.

This is an anonymous questionnaire. Please ensure that you do not write your name, or any other comments that will make you identifiable, on the attached. By completing the questionnaire you are consenting to take part in this research. As such you should first read the enclosed Disclosure Statement carefully as it explains fully the intention of this project.

**GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS :**

1. Please complete the questions. This questionnaire contains 12 pages (including this page).
2. The questions require you to respond in different ways. Some questions require you to circle an appropriate response or insert a number (e.g., gender or age) or selected point on a scale. Other questions require you to write a few words in a space provided.

There are no right or wrong answers. The answers to the questions draw on your knowledge and experience of your sport organisation.

3. If you have any difficulties understanding the questions, or have any other questions concerning this survey, please call Sooyoung Tcha (phone: [REDACTED])

**I. CONFIDENTIALITY**

All the information you provided will remain confidential. Only summary information will be documented in a research report.

**II. RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please use the enclosed envelope to return the questionnaire on or before the 6th of December, 2002. As the postage has been prepaid, there is no need for you to attach any stamps.

Thank you for assistance in completing this questionnaire!!

## Form of Disclosure

This is invitation for you to participate in a study of the relationship between organisational culture and development planning processes in sport associations.

My name is Sooyoung Tcha, and I am currently studying at Edith Cowan University for a PhD degree in Sport Management under the supervision of Dr Sue Colyer and Associate Professor Francis Lobo. My thesis is entitled *Exploring the Relationship between Organisational Culture of Sport Associations and Planning Processes: Western Australian Evidence*. Your organisation agreed to participate in this study, and the CEO advised me circulate this survey to you.

If you decide to participate, you are requested to complete this questionnaire. It is expected to take you less than 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The responses will be treated with strict confidentiality and privacy, and will be used collectively for the research purposes only. You and your organisation's anonymity will be maintained throughout the research process. The data from the questionnaires will be presented in aggregated forms so no individual response can be identified. Should you wish your questionnaire withdrawn after you return it, this may not be possible as there will be no identifying mark on a form. Your current position will not be prejudiced in any way by your participation nor your refusal to participate in this survey.

General benefits from this study include gaining a better understanding of sport association's organisational culture profiles, enhancing the knowledge of the relationship between the organisational culture and the planning process, and generating ideas on how to improve the future working environments and efficiency of the organisation.

Benefits to your organisation will include a 'snapshot' of your organisation's organisational culture, which will be helpful to support planning and management strategies. In addition, a summary of the results for your organisation will be provided.

If you have any questions about this invitation, you can contact me on [REDACTED] or [REDACTED]. Should you be so inclined, you can check the authenticity of this study with my supervisor Dr Sue Colyer of School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure, Edith Cowan University on 9400-5429.

If you have any concerns about the project or would like to talk to an independent person, you may contact Dr Kandy James (9400-5428).

Thank you for your cooperation and participation.

## QUESTIONNAIRE

Coding to identify sport: C

### I. Organisational Culture

These statements refer to different organisational characteristics. You can select the statements that best describe your organisation. Each of these items contains four descriptions of sport organisations, and you have 100 points to allocate between the descriptions. Please distribute 100 points among the four descriptions depending on how similar a description is to your association. None of the descriptions is any better than the others; they are just different.

#### FOR EXAMPLE

In question 1, if association A seems very similar to mine, B seems somewhat similar, and C and D do not seem similar at all, then I might give 70 points to A, the remaining 30 points to B and none to C or D.

#### 1. Institutional Characteristics (Please distribute 100 points)

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association A is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association B is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association C is a very formalised and structured place. Bureaucratic procedures generally govern what people do.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association D is a very production oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People aren't very personally involved.

2. Institutional Leader (Please distribute 100 points)

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The head of association A is generally considered to be a mentor, a sage, or a father or mother figure.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The head of association B is generally considered to be an entrepreneur, an innovator, or a risk taker.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The head of association C is generally considered to be a coordinator, an organiser, or an administrator.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The head of association D is generally considered to be a producer, a technician, or a hard-driver.

3. Institutional Glue (Please distribute 100 points)

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The glue that holds association A together is loyalty and tradition. Commitment to this organisation runs high.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The glue that holds association B together is a commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being first.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The glue that holds association C together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organisation is important here.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: The glue that holds association D together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment. A production orientation is commonly shared.

4. Institutional Emphases (Please distribute 100 points)

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association A emphasises human resources. High cohesion and morale in the organisation are important.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association B emphasises growth and acquiring new resources. Readiness to meet new challenges is important.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association C emphasises permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important.

\_\_\_\_\_ points: Association D emphasises competitive actions and achievement. Measurable goals are important.

## II. Organisational Values

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with the description of your association's emphasis. Please circle the number that best describes your association, using the following rating scale from 1 to 7. If you disagree with the statement then circle 1 or 2, and if you agree with the statement then circle 6 or 7.

<b>In my organisation:</b>	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
1. Participation and open discussion are encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Expansion, growth and development are important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. There is an emphasis on control and centralisation of management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Employees are empowered to act and take a responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Innovation and change are encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Efficiency, productivity and profitability are emphasised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Direction of the organisation, objective and goal are clearly set up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Flexibility and decentralisation of the organisation are prevailing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Human relations, teamwork and cohesion are important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Stability, continuity and order are encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. There is acceptance of employees' concerns and ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Task is focused, and accomplishment and achievement of goals are important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Creative problem solving processes are encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Outcomes of performance are predictable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Excellent outcome with high quality is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Tasks are routinised and structure is formalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### III. Planning Processes for Developing Your Sport Organisation

The following section explores the planning processes of the sport association at which you work. Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with the following statements by circling the number that best describes your situation. Use the following rating scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 7 means 'strongly agree' to the statement.

Please read each statement carefully in relation to development and/or business plans prepared by your sport association, and circle the most appropriate number describing your association and your feelings.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
1. My sport organisation actively uses its development plan, business plan or similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I understand the content of my association's development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I believe that planning processes are important for sport associations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I actively participate in planning processes in this association.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My association values my opinions in planning processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My association values all paid employees' opinions in planning processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My association values volunteers' opinions in planning processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My sport association recognises trends and changes relevant to its management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is clear to me how my organisation selects those who are responsible for planning processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I think those who are selected for planning processes are the best people to be involved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree			
11. I think that my association recognises its current position when starting planning processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. I know that my organisation properly monitors how the development plan is implemented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. I understand the various goals and objectives of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. I understand the strategies that my organisation uses to achieve its objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. I have an opportunity to read draft plans before they are finalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16. I can provide feedback to the planning committee (or to whomever relevant) before any plan is finalised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17. I feel that my association works hard to achieve the outcomes outlined in the plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18. I understand the direction in which my organisation is headed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19. I feel that my association achieves the outcomes of its plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
20. My association uses information about factors affecting the outcomes for the next plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
21. My organisation has program budget summary in its development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22. The specific strategies and activities to be undertaken in each year are identified in my organisation's development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	



	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
23. My organisation's development plan provides the reader with a brief background to the organisation and an overview of the plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Previous years' plans and achievement are reviewed in my organisation's development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. The broad goals of the organisation are stated clearly and concisely in my organisation's development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. A single summary table listing all the development outcomes covered by the plan is provided in the development plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. My organisation's development plan clearly states why it exists and what it is striving to achieve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. My organisation uses a plan that addresses the issue of facility management, maintenance and possible future facility development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. The development plan of my organisation includes plans for marketing and promotion activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Demand for major events is recognised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. My organisation includes many components about management in development plans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. My organisation's plan includes the development of rules, safety, guidelines and the quality of its officials.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Sport science aspects (e.g., target setting for education, programs, seminars, athlete testing and research into athlete performance) are included in my organisation's plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
34. My organisation's plan includes a development structure for athletes and specifies specific and measurable objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. My organisation considers target population for growth and the way to encourage participation for each level of sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. My organisation concentrates on achievements in special programs such as specific publications, exhibitions, programs or fund raising activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. My organisation's plan considers various issues relevant to training and professional development (of staff and employees) such as coaching management, resources, accreditation courses and non-accreditation programmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. Objectives for the level of participation, exposure, financial outcome are considered.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

#### IV. Demographic Details of Respondent

This part of the questionnaire asks you for some general personal information for statistical purposes and for interpreting the results. Any information you provide will remain confidential.

- What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_ Years
- What is your gender? Male ☐ or Female ☐
- How long have you been in this sport profession? \_\_\_\_\_ Years
- How long have you been in this association? \_\_\_\_\_ Years
- What is your employment status in this association? (Please answer for both (i) and (ii).)

(i) Volunteer ☐ or Paid employee ☐

(ii) Full time ☐ or Part time ☐

- What is your current position/title in the organisation?

\_\_\_\_\_

- What is your highest educational qualification? (Please specify.)

\_\_\_\_\_

**V. More about Your Organisation**

This part asks your opinions about your organisation. Please write a few lines in a space provided.

1. What is it about your sport organisation that makes it different from other sport organisations?

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

2. What do you like the most about your organisation?

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

3. What would you like to suggest to your organisation for planning future?

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

4. Do you have any other comment (on your organisation or this survey)?

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

Thank you for your participation. When you have completed this survey form, please insert it into the envelope provided and post it. If you have any question, please contact Sooyoung Tcha [REDACTED] Please return this form on or before December 6.

**CLOSURE OF QUESTIONNAIRE**