Exploring the Social Responsibility of Sport Organisations

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November 9th, 2016

This thesis is submitted in total fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The social responsibility of an organisation is contextual and premised on the relationship that an organisation has with society. However, organisations and societies exist in variable forms. What society expects of an organisation in one context is likely to differ in another context. Despite extensive development in management literature, the view that all organisations possess responsibilities has rarely extended beyond commercial contexts. For example in the sport industry, community sport organisations are rarely considered to have responsibilities beyond their voluntary non-profit nature. In this thesis the sport sector was used as a lens to investigate this phenomenon given the variety of different organisational forms that make-up the sector. The purpose of this thesis was to explore how organisational responsibility was perceived between and within three archetypal sport organisations. Each archetype represented an organisational field and neo-institutional theory was applied to underpin the differences between these fields. Three archetypal organisations were developed as conceptual tools based on document analysis and available reports: a community sport organisation (CSO), a national sport organisation (NSO) and an elite sport organisation (ESO). A global panel of experts was selected from sport management and sociology academics and national sport organisation managers. The expert panel consisted of 56 experts from 12 countries, 33 were academics and 23 were managers in NSOs. The Delphi method was used to determine consensus during three successive survey iterations. Each consecutive survey aimed to build consensus amongst the expert panel regarding the perceived importance of social responsibility issues in each archetype. The analysis occurred in two stages. Between organisation differences were analysed using repeated measures analyses of variance. Internal differences were determined based on how important the expert group perceived the issue to be to the organisation. The results indicated that the perception of organisational responsibility varied between archetypes. In each organisation, financial and legal responsibilities were highly important. However, anti-corruption and staff training (ESO, NSO) and inclusive participation (VSO, NSO) were only identified as important in two organisational types. Winning (ESO), social capital and community cohesion (CSO), and ethical leadership (NSO) were identified as important only in one archetype. Each of the three archetypes was perceived to have identifiable and multiple responsibilities to society. The national sport organisation had the highest perceived social responsibility (23 issues), followed by the community sport organisation (17 issues) and the elite sport organisation (13 issues). This is a new finding in the sport and social
responsibility field, and marks an extension of the current knowledge concerning the
social responsibility concept from corporations to the broader classification of
organisations. Extending this finding further, social responsibility was perceived to be
contingent on what the organisation is (constitutionally), what the organisation does (its
product and services) and the position it occupies in society (within a given institutional
environment). In sport management the idea that organisations have a responsibility to
society is predominately investigated from the perspective of corporate social
responsibility (CSR). “Corporate” and “social” qualifiers limit the conceptual focus to a
narrow set of highly commercial organisational forms and a specific type of “social”
responsibility. An unintended consequence of this has been that responsibility
discourse remains concentrated within the corporate paradigm, instead of a broad
expectation of all organisations. For theory, the diversity of organisational types within
the sport industry may offer a context that broadens our understanding of (social)
responsibility from the limited focus of corporate entities to a continuum of
organisations ranging from non-profit to profit driven. For practice, it is recommended
that the results of this research are used in conjunction with current social responsibility
approaches to help frame (or benchmark) the actions of sport organisations against
social expectations within specific organisational contexts.
STUDENT DECLARATION

Doctor of Philosophy Declaration

“I, Jonathan Robertson, declare that the PhD thesis entitled ‘Exploring The Social Responsibility Of Sport Organisations’ is no more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work”.

Signature          Date
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all the people that have made this thesis possible, without your constant support, patience, kindness and humour this thesis would never have been completed. Professor Hans Westerbeek, I can’t express how important and influential your guidance, care and empathy have been over the past several years. For always making time, even when you didn’t have any, and helping shape a pile of “world changing” ideas into a (almost) coherent piece of work. It has been my privilege to work and learn from you throughout the PhD process and I look forward to many years of collaborating together. Associate Professor Rochelle Eime, thank you so much for your continued support and ability to wrap sound doses of reality in humour to keep me on track. I am indebted to you both for the time and commitment that you have both brought to my studies and for guiding me through the ups and downs of the PhD rollercoaster.

To the broader Victoria University community your support has made this PhD possible. To my colleagues Andy, Guy, Jarrod, Caitlin, Claire, Petra, Tea, Fleur, Ali, Simon, Ryan, Myrla, Mel, James, Sarah and the rest of the L203 crew for the continual banter, laughs and comradery that gets us through the collective insanity of a PhD. To the amazing academic staff Professor Bob Stewart, Associate Professors’ Ramon Spaaij and Clare Hanlon, Dr Jack Harvey and rest of my colleagues in the Sport in Society group for your all round academic support from teaching, to research and life in general. To Dom, Lynn and Teresa, for assisting me through the changing university rules and procedures from start to finish.

Thanks should also go to my extended networks of colleagues who have helped mould and develop this PhD during various exchange periods, conferences, meetings and conversations. Special thanks should go to Jan-Willem van der Roest, University of Utrecht; Jochen Perck, Vrije Universiteit Brussel; Alex Thurston, Loughborough University; Sarah Cobourn, University of Technology Sydney; and, the broader SMAANZ and EASM PhD and academic communities for their contributions that have shaped my thinking along the PhD journey.

Finally to my friends and family, none of this would be possible without you and your unwavering support over the years. My close friends, who simply were there rain, hail or shine for a quiet one, a round of golf or anything and everything except the PhD. Mum and Jackie for your continual, unwavering support and optimism to push me to “just get it done”, especially to Jackie for your extensive proof reading of often painful early drafts. To Dad, thank you for your unconditional love and backing throughout the
process, reading drafts and always taking an interest in whatever I was reading on any particular day. Last, but not least, to my beautiful soon to be wife Chia Yee. Thank you for being there along the PhD roller coaster. For putting up with those long days and giving up weekends, your love and support has been the foundation that has supported me through this whole process.

Caminante, no hay camino, se hace el camino al andar...

Antonia Machado, 1912
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AFL – Australian Football League
CEO – Chief Executive Officer
CFP – Corporate Financial Performance
CSO – Community Sport Organisation
CSP – Corporate Social Performance
CSR – Corporate Social Responsibility
CRSM – Cause Related Sport Marketing
EASM – European Association for Sport Management
EPL – English Premier League
ESO – Elite Sport Organisation
FFP – Financial Fair Play
FIFA – Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GDP – Gross Domestic Product
GRI – Global Reporting Initiative
ICC – International Cricket Council
IOC – International Olympic Committee
IPL – Indian Premier League
ISO – International Organisation for Standardisation
NASSM – North American Society for Sport Management
NBA – National Basketball Association
NFL – National Football League
NHL – National Hockey League
NSO – National Sport Organisation
RAND Corporation – Research ANd Development Corporation
SCSR – Sport Corporate Social Responsibility
SMAANZ – Sport Management Australia And New Zealand
US – United States
UEFA – Union of European Football Associations
KEY DEFINITIONS

Society - “the structured social relations and institutions among a large group of people living in a particular locality, or who have a certain shared interest” (Giddens & Sutton, 2014, p. 43)

Organisational Field - “those organisations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognised area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 148)

Societal Sector - “a collection of organisations operating in the same domain, as identified by the similarity of their services, products or functions, together with those organisations that critically influence the performance of the focal organisations: for example, major suppliers and customers, owners and regulators, funding sources and competitors” (Scott & Meyer, 1991, p. 117)

Organisations – “social units (or human groups) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals. Corporations, armies, schools, hospitals, churches, and prisons are included; tribes, classes, ethnic groups, friendship groups, and families are excluded” (Etzioni, 1964, p. 3)

Social Responsibility – “responsibility of an organisation for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 3)

Archetype – “a set of ideas, beliefs and values that shape prevailing conceptions of what an organisation should be doing, of how it should be doing it and how it should be judged, combined with structures and processes that serve to implement and reinforce those ideas” (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988, p. 295)
KEY TERMS

Country Archetype - Neutralia

Neutralia is a post-industrial Western economy on par in developmental terms with countries in North America, the European Union and countries such as South Korea, Japan, Australia and New Zealand. Neutralia has 50 million citizens and with a sport system that is supported by government funding. The full description of this archetype can be seen in Appendix 1 and the development is outlined in section 3.5.

Organisational Archetype One - National Sport Organisation

The national sport organisation was conceptualised as “GoSport Neutralia”, a national sport organisation governing the fourth most popular sport in Neutralia. Around two million people participate in the sport, which like many sports has gone through a period of commercialisation in the last three decades. This has meant that the organisation has dual purposes to facilitate both elite and mass participation involvement in the sport. The non-profit organisation governs the sport in a federated-state model and has 120 employees. GoSport Neutralia generated around $200 million in revenue last financial year and reinvested over 95% of this back into the sport. The full description of this archetype can be seen in Appendix 2 and the development is outlined in section 3.5.

Organisational Archetype Two - Elite Sport Organisation

The elite sport organisation was conceptualised as Scottsdale Sports Club Inc, a privately owned elite sport club in the first division of a popular sport. The club has a successful history, a large facility and employs 53 people. The archetype relies on media coverage, ticket sales and sponsorship to cover its operating costs and the level of success influences its financial position. The full description of this archetype can be seen in Appendix 3 and the development is outlined in section 3.5.

Organisational Archetype Three – Community Sport Organisation

The community sport organisation was conceptualised as a community sport organisation called “Oldtown Sports Club” with five senior and eight junior teams in an outdoor team sport. The organisation was relatively large with around 400 members and relatively good facilities. Oldtown sports club is a non-profit organisation that relies on volunteers and is relatively financially secure. The full description of this archetype can be seen in Appendix 4 and the development is outlined in section 3.5.
CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to serve as an introduction presenting the research significance, questions and thesis structure. It lays the foundation for a review of the literature by defining the parameters of the project, limiting the scope to the sport industry, describing the key areas within the sport industry and introducing the conceptual tool of archetypes.

1.1 Significance of the Research Study

The identification (and justification) of what is the responsibility of organisations to society has become a considerable issue for sport organisations around the world (Godfrey, 2009). Infamously, the sporting goods manufacturing industry was negatively affected from public backlash about working conditions in their supply chains in the 1990s (Klein, 1999). More recently, issues such as the health and safety of elite players in contact sports (Gardner, Iverson, Williams, Baker, & Stanwell, 2014; Hanna & Kain, 2010); protecting vulnerable youth in community sport (Lang & Hartill, 2014; Nichols & Taylor, 2010; Parent & Demers, 2011); and corruption in international sporting organisations have become prominent in the public discourse (Jennings, 2011; Maennig, 2005; Mason, Thibault, & Misener, 2006). Taken in isolation each issue has raised questions regarding the relationship between a particular type of sport organisation and society. In the context of the sport industry, the ability to understand the multidimensional factors at play between organisations and society remains limited.

In modern society, organisations are identified as having certain responsibilities to society (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011; International Organization for Standardization, 2010). Consequently the conceptualisation of responsibility that accounts for distinctive environmental factors becomes important because it underpins what is considered acceptable organisational behaviour in a specific organisational context. National sport organisations receive hundreds of millions of dollars of taxpayer money annually and are responsible for delivering elite and mass participation sport. Elite sport organisations provide a form of entertainment that regularly attracts national and international audiences in the same way as the gladiators did for a government that promoted “bread and circuses” in ancient Rome. Parents entrust their children to community sport organisations to play and develop skills in a safe and friendly environment. Even though these organisations possess considerable influence, power
and resources, little is known beyond the commercial sport setting about the type of responsibility these organisations are perceived to have to society.

Bowen’s (1953) fundamental questions regarding the nature of a corporate organisation’s responsibility to society prompted the development of over half a century of CSR research in the management area (Carroll, 1999). The continuation of this tradition has resulted in the application of CSR concepts to sport management over the past decade (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006, 2009; Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Breitbarth, Hovemann, & Walzel, 2011; Cobourn, 2014; Godfrey, 2009; Paramio-Salcines, Babiak, & Walters, 2013; Sargaert, Theeboom, Timmerman, & Vanreusel, 2012; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walker & Parent, 2010). Yet, the same fundamental questions have remained unaddressed in sport organisations that are not highly commercial or corporate entities. In contrast to the above tradition, the discourse developed throughout this research is based on the premise that CSR, as a concept, has natural limitations when applied to organisations that are by definition not corporations. In the sport sector this observation is particularly salient considering most organisations are non-profit and the dominant paradigm to consider their responsibility is biased towards corporate organisations. For now, it is important to introduce how this research differentiates and extends upon existing knowledge to lay the foundation for a broader understanding of responsibility in sport organisations in the next chapters.

The basic premise of this research is that all organisations have a responsibility to society. The responsibility of any given organisation is like the human genome; it has a distinctive sequence in each individual whilst sharing significant commonalities with the rest of the population. This distinctive sequence is what in this thesis is considered the organisation’s social responsibility configuration. Continuing with the analogy, the specific configuration of one organisation’s social responsibility practice differs from others in the same way that an individual’s genetic sequence differs from other humans, and more significantly from other forms of life. A corporation’s social responsibility configuration differs slightly from other corporations, and more significantly from structurally different organisations such as non-profits. An organisation’s responsibility is likely to vary due to differences in size, orientation, product, nation, geographic reach, temporal period and numerous factors in its social environment (Godfrey, Hatch, & Hansen, 2010; Matten & Moon, 2008; Rivoli & Waddock, 2011; Walker & Parent, 2010). In the context of the sport industry the differences in the conception of responsibility are apparent. The international governing body of football does not have the same responsibility as a self-employed football coach. A sporting goods manufacturer with a global supply chain has more
comprehensive responsibility than the smallest shoe retailer it supplies its products to. The football teams in the top professional leagues around the world have a vastly different conception of responsibility than local amateur football clubs.

In an organisational universe of such diversity it quickly becomes apparent that there is no single answer to the question “what is the social responsibility of a sport organisation?” The purpose of this thesis is to investigate how organisational responsibility is perceived between and within three archetypal sport organisations. To do so is to give an account of expert perceptions on the rational responsibilities organisations possess in different contexts.

1.2 The Research Setting

This is an empirical research project aimed at developing the concept of organisational responsibility in the sport industry. Neo-institutional theory is used as a tool to deconstruct and compartmentalise organisations in society. Broadly institutional theories relate to the way organisations relate to their environment (Greenwood, Oliver, Sahlin, & Suddaby, 2008). To demarcate society into groups of organisations, three organisational levels are identified: sectors, fields and individual organisations.

First, society is defined as “the structured social relations and institutions among a large group of people living in a particular locality, or who have a certain shared interest” (Giddens & Sutton, 2014, p. 43). Organisations exist within the inclusive term of society, although some organisations are more similar to one type of organisation than another. The second level of differentiation is the “societal sector” that Scott and Meyer (1991, p. 117) describe as:

“a collection of organisations operating in the same domain, as identified by the similarity of their services, products or functions, together with those organisations that critically influence the performance of the focal organisations: for example, major suppliers and customers, owners and regulators, funding sources and competitor”.

The sport sector is a global sector. In its broadest sense, sport is part of the entertainment and leisure industry that is the third largest global industry, after cars and oil (Westerbeek, 2000). Sport as an activity has several features that make it a distinctive activity in society including:

“1) sport has a set of defined rules; 2) modern sport is highly organised with fixed structures and often-substantial systems of infrastructure; 3) sport remains a physical pursuit that includes an element of “play like”
activity; 4) equipment and facilities are essential features of contemporary sport; 5) at the heart of all sport lies an intrinsic uncertainty of outcome and 6) modern sport requires both cooperation and conflict, within the framework of a competition”

(Smith & Westerbeek, 2004, p. 123)

In broad terms and based on these features the sport sector differentiates itself from other societal sectors.

The sport sector is further deconstructed into organisational fields at the third level of analysis. Although fields and sectors can often be thought of as synonymous, for the purpose of this research fields are classified as component parts of sectors and defined as “those organisations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognised area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 148). Collectively groups of similar sport organisations form organisational fields in the sport sector. Organisational fields can be thought of as the component parts of the sport industry including, but not limited to elite sport organisations, community sport organisations, manufacturers, retailers, facilities and governing bodies. Finally, the sport sector and its respective organisational fields are made up of sport organisations. Sport organisations, can be defined as “a social entity involved in the sport industry; it is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary” (Slack & Parent, 2006, p. 5).

Organisational fields in the sport sector were determined based on the types of products and services an organisation produced. A product is “anything that can be offered to a market to satisfy a want or need, including a physical good, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information, and ideas” (Kotler, 2006, p. 178). For example, an elite sport team provides a form of mass entertainment product; community sport organisations offer sport provision services to local communities; and national sport organisations provide an administrative and governance service to members. In developing a product based typology for the sport sector Westerbeek (2000) described the sport industry as consisting of “those organisations producing sport-related products that are substitutable. Within the sport industry, however, one can identify different categories [organisational fields] of organisations that produce substitutable sport products within the category, but quite different (not substitutable) between categories”. Based on this differentiation several

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1 Shilbury’s (2000) framework developed from Porter (1998) defined the sport industry as a group of clusters dependent on product type. Similar definitions have referred to categories (Westerbeek, 2000; Westerbeek & Shilbury, 1999) and dimensions/components (Chelladurai, 1994).
organisational fields were defined including sporting goods (e.g. manufacturers), sport consultation services (e.g. elite athlete management firms) and facility dependent sport services. Facility dependent sport services were further deconstructed into three separate organisational fields: participant sport (e.g. community sport organisation), corporate sport (e.g. elite sport organisation) and hybrid sport (e.g. national sport organisation). Given the centrality of facility dependent sport services to the sport industry the scope of this study was restricted to these three organisational fields and is specifically highlighted in Figure 1.

For this research “archetypes” were developed to represent a typical organisation in each organisational field based on Max Weber’s concept of ideal types. Archetypes are used as conceptual tools rather than tools for evaluation, and represent an “average” organisation. However, as with averages, many organisations in society will vary from the average archetypal organisational form (Gerth & Mills, 1977).

Figure 1 – Product Based Typology of the International Sport Sector (adapted from Westerbeek, 2000).

The organisational archetypes in this study were contextualised within an archetypal country with standardised information regarding mean age, life expectancy, gross domestic product (GDP) growth, inflation, political system, sports system and sports funding structure etc. Each respective archetype detailed organisational information such as economic surplus, number of employees and participants.

The neo-institutional approach demarcates societal sectors, organisational fields and organisations (archetypes). Consequently responsibility actions of organisations at each level can be conceptually differentiated. For example, the leading measure of sustainability and social responsibility globally, the Global Reporting
Initiative (GRI) provides tailored sector guidance to ten different social sectors including the oil and gas sector, food processing sector and the media sector (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012a). Godfrey, Hatch and Hansen (2010) expand on this idea to demonstrate that organisations in different sectors engage in CSR for different reasons and in different ways compared to organisations in other sectors. Based on this observation in combination with literature that suggests sport is an identifiable social institution, in this study the sport sector is singled out for further examination.

1.3 Research Aims and Questions

The primary aim for this project is to explore how organisational responsibility is perceived between and within three archetypal sport organisations.

The overarching research questions for the project are:
1. What are the social responsibilities of sport organisations?
2. How does organisational responsibility differ between and within three archetypal sport organisations?

The four specific research questions are:
RQ1. What are the similarities and differences in perceived organisational responsibility between three archetypal sport organisations?
RQ2. What are the perceived organisational responsibilities of an archetypal national sport organisation?
RQ3. What are the perceived organisational responsibilities of an archetypal elite sport organisation?
RQ4. What are the perceived organisational responsibilities of an archetypal community sport organisation?

1.4 Structural Overview

This thesis is presented as a standard thesis. Whilst the discussion chapters are formatted as standalone peer-review publications, the literature review and introduction are developed in line with a standard thesis. At the time of submission, none of these chapters have been published in peer review journals, however three had been submitted to various journals (although not accepted). As is practice, and to
avoid unnecessary repetition, the methodology is expanded in key sections and supplemented by the methods section in each respective discussion chapter. The final integrated discussion is condensed to draw together the key findings and conclusions from each section. The overall structure of the thesis is presented in Table 1.
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<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>CHAPTER SYNOPSISES</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>This chapter serves as an introduction presenting the research significance, questions and thesis structure. It lays the foundation for a review of the literature by defining the parameters of the project, limiting the scope to the sport industry, describing the key areas within the sport industry and introducing the conceptual tool of archetypes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>Within the defined parameters outlined in the introduction, this chapter provides a review of the literature on social responsibility and sport organisations. The chapter utilises aspects of neo-institutional theory to develop a conceptual framework that broadens the conception of responsibility from a relatively narrow conception of ‘corporate social’ responsibility to the generic ‘organisational’ responsibility. The conceptual framework developed demonstrates the socially constructed nature of social responsibility that is contingent the specific context of an organisation. The results chapters individually investigate perceived responsibilities between (chapter 4) and within (chapter 5-7) three contexts: a national, a community and an elite sport organisation.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>This chapter outlines the methodology for the program of research. The chapter details how the Delphi method was developed to bring various expert perceptions about social responsibility in particular contexts toward consensus. Furthermore, the specific procedure taken to develop archetypes, collect and analyse data are explained in detail.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>The fourth chapter is a comparative chapter that investigates how the configurations of organisational responsibilities to society vary in different organisational fields of the sport sector, using three archetypal organisations: an NSO, a CSO and an ESO. The chapter addresses research question one and found that there was variance in the perceived responsibilities of different sport organisations by the expert panel. The following three chapters take a more in depth look at each respective organisational context.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>This chapter addresses the second research question and explores the perceived organisational responsibility priorities within an archetypal NSO. The results indicate that NSO’s may possess an extensive responsibility to society and have a particular focus on human rights, governance and financial viability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>This chapter addresses the third research question and explores the perceived organisational responsibility priorities within an archetypal CSO. The results indicate that CSO’s may possess a moderate responsibility to society and have a particular focus on human rights, labour practices and financial viability within the organisation.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>This chapter addresses the fourth research question and explores the perceived organisational responsibility priorities</td>
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within an archetypal ESO. Describe the dominant characteristics of ESOs' responsibilities to society. The results indicate that ESO’s may possess a comparatively smaller responsibility to society and have a particular focus on economic responsibilities combined with fair operating practices, labour practices and some human rights issues.

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<th>Integrated Discussion &amp; Conclusion</th>
<th>The final chapter develops an integrative discussion that brings together the proceeding chapters based on the conceptual framework outlined in the literature review. The key findings are listed as 1) the organisational archetypes possessed a high perceived level of responsibility to society; 2) the configuration of this responsibility varied between archetypes; 3) several core responsibilities were perceived as important (and not important) regardless of context; 4) there were issues in each archetype that were distinctive to that archetypal context; 5) the number, and relative importance of issues varied between archetypes; and 6) a limit to the responsibility of each archetype was identified.</th>
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CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review has two main sections. The first section reviews the development of the concept of corporate social responsibility from its corporate management beginnings into the sport industry and its current status within sport management. The second section uses a neo-institutional approach to conceptualise organisational responsibilities in different organisational fields: an elite sport organisation (ESO), a community sport organisation (CSO) and a national sport organisation (NSO).

The chapter aims to challenge the underpinning business case assumptions of social responsibility and broaden the concept to the responsibility of organisations. By doing so the intent is to demonstrate organisational prefixes to the idea of responsibility constrain the broader development of the responsibility agenda. For example, the ‘corporate’ prefix to social responsibility is not congruent with the multiple organisational forms that may also possess social responsibilities such as non-profits or government organisations. In further developing this line of reasoning, issues based prefixes (i.e. social) promote of myopic view of responsibility in the same way as describing responsibility in solely environmental or economic terms. The process followed in this chapter highlights the redundancy of these qualifiers and simplifies the concept to the responsibility of organisations, or organisational responsibility. The nature of an organisation’s responsibility is therefore contingent on the specific context the organisation exits within. Consequently, corporate social responsibility is applicable to describe the social (i.e. community, philanthropic) responsibilities of a corporation, just as non-profit environmental responsibility is appropriate for describing the environmental impacts (i.e. water use, pollution) of an organisation that does not seek profits for shareholders. It should be noted, that due to the historical use of ‘social’ and ‘corporate social’ responsibility, these concepts will be used interchangeably in parts throughout this thesis.

The chapter concludes with a conceptual framework that identifies how organisational responsibility, contingent on the context of the organisation, could be constructed differently in different organisational contexts. The utility of this conceptual framework is that it opens up new ground in the investigation of organisation-society relationships in the sport industry by incorporating community sport clubs, elite sport clubs and national sport governing bodies in ways the narrow conceptualisation of CSR could not. It is incongruent for a community sport club to possess a corporate social responsibility. In contrast, it is consistent for such a community sport organisation to
possess a form of responsibility that can be investigated within its specific organisational context. Based on the development of this conceptual framework, the chapter concludes with a review of the current limitations of the concept of CSR within sport management research.

2.1 Corporate Social Responsibility

Academic research into the social responsibility of organisations is historically founded on the development of the “corporate social responsibility” concept, mainly within the United States and predominately focussed on the corporate organisational form (Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1979, 1999). Frederick (1986b, 1994) described the expansion of corporate and society relationships from responsibility (CSR\textsubscript{1}, 1950-1970) to responsiveness (CSR\textsubscript{2}, 1970-1990) and then rectitude (CSR\textsubscript{3}, 1990-2010). The development of the CSR concept shifted from vaguely describing the normative imperative for corporations to behave morally (responsibility); to effective strategies aimed at managing changing social expectations within an economic framework (responsiveness); and finally to a point where ethical decision making is embedded within key corporate decisions as part of everyday operations (rectitude). The conceptual development was narrowly defined with the terms “corporate social”. Subsequently, the concept of responsibility developed on business case assumptions and motives to behave responsibly (Vogel, 2005, 2006) and influenced the responsibility discourse toward instrumental problems such as the relationship (or lack thereof) between social and financial (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003).

The “corporate social” myopia of organisation-society relations limits the breadth of the organisational responsibility discourse. On one hand Bowen’s (1953, p. 5) series of questions regarding “precisely what are the social responsibilities which businessmen may be expected to assume” have increasingly been answered in multidimensional constructs that account for the internal pluralism of the modern corporate organisation (Carroll, 1979; Matten & Moon, 2008; McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006; Wood, 1991). On the other hand, these approaches seem to be absent in in organisational forms that are not corporate. For example, Bowen’s 60-year-old fundamental question could be rephrased to: precisely what are the social responsibilities that a manager may be expected to assume? The answer to this question is variable and dependent upon the institutional environment of the
organisation. The remainder of this literature review expands from this observation and tracks the development of the concept of CSR.

Corporate social responsibility is a “tortured concept within the academic literature. Sparked by a relatively simple idea – corporations have obligations to society that extend beyond mere profit-making activities – scholars have struggled to achieve a clear paradigm, let alone a common language to guide the conversation" (Godfrey & Hatch, 2007, p. 87). Academia is overflowing with definitions of responsibility. Carroll’s (1999) review of the evolution of the CSR definitional construct yielded 25 definitions. More recently Dahlsrud (2008) analysed 37 definitions based on frequency counts on Google. Commonalities in definitions included references to stakeholder, social, economic, voluntariness, and environmental dimensions of organisational responsibility. Adding another layer of complexity to an already problematic concept the ISO 26000, a multinational, multiyear effort to develop guidance on social responsibility produced 106 pages of “guidance”, complete with eight core subjects, 36 issues and 315 actions and expectations regarding socially responsible organisational behaviour (International Organization for Standardization, 2010). Moreover, the appendices to the document provided 75 separate initiatives or tools to identify social responsibilities in various contexts. The GRI has followed a similar course, containing six dimensions, 37 aspects and 84 indicators of social responsibility (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011). The crux of the issue is that more definitions are not required. Identifying an infinite list of actions that may be considered the responsibility of an organisation is also of little benefit here. Rather efforts need to be undertaken to understand responsibility practices that are required by society and an organisation in a given context.

At its most expansive, CSR is housed within business and society scholarship. Godfrey, Whetten and Rands (2002) outline three major streams of business and society scholarship: 1) business ethics linked to philosophical underpinnings; 2) ideology, values and attitudes built upon the psychological and sociological disciplines; and 3) corporate social responsibility that investigates what, if any, responsibilities corporations have to society and is founded on sociology and management thinking. The literature on corporate social responsibility is reviewed here.

CSR developed within the context of post-WW2 United States from the 1950s onwards and was focused on identifying the social responsibilities of the expanding organisational type, the corporation (Carroll, 1999). From the seminal works, social responsibility was immediately concerned with the Social Responsibilities of the Businessman (Bowen, 1953), to the exclusion of other types of organisations or managers. Central reasons for investigating social responsibility in corporations was
the view that corporations held considerable resources and power within society and were therefore required to discharge this power in a responsible way. Particularly influential during this time were the writings of Keith Davis (Davis, 1960, 1967, 1973), who developed the Iron Law of Responsibility that suggested “in the long run those who do not use power in a manner which society considers responsible will tend to lose it” (Davis & Blomstrom, 1966; 1971, p. 95). A position that is echoed in many of the corporate scandals that became apparent in the 1990s. In the sporting context, a pointed example came from a 13 year old boy from the Bronx during the height of the public backlash against working conditions in Nike factories in South East Asia stating, “Nike, we made you. We can break you” (Klein, 1999, p. 374).

Returning to the development of CSR theory in the United States, Davis and other early scholars came under criticism from colleagues and business that identified certain areas of responsibility as beyond the realm of what a corporation should be held accountable for (Chamberlain, 1973; Galbraith, 1978; Perrow, 1972). Most well-known and (often incorrectly) cited is an article from Milton Friedman (1970) in the New York Times. Although Friedman is highly critical of “unwitting puppets” and “analytical looseness” of the social responsibility discourse developed within the 1960s, his critique is reserved to a particular organisational context. First, he decouples the responsibility of the individual, clearly differentiating between the individual proprietor who is free to pursue social objectives on the basis that he is spending his own money, and, the corporate executive that works as an agent for shareholders of publically owned corporations in a free-enterprise United States. This differentiation in Friedman’s argument is often overlooked and drastically changes the context of responsibility. In the latter context, the role of the corporate executive is generally to work as an agent of his employers (shareholders), “to make as much money as possible while conforming to the basic rules of the society, both those embodied in law and those embodied in ethical custom” (p. 1). Second, he identifies that the pursuit of profit is not the sole ambition of all organisations and that public corporations such as schools and hospitals may pursue non-financial objectives. Finally, Friedman promotes an analogous concept to the much-hyped strategic social responsibility approach (Porter & Kramer, 2002, 2006, 2011) by conceding that deductible charitable contributions and investing in local communities is appropriate where there is alignment with company objectives. Whilst it is tempting to take snippets from the title *The Social Responsibility of Business is to Increase its Profits*, or the critical aspects of the article, to do so largely misses the point (Friedman, 1970). Friedman argued a specific point, in
a specific context, at a specific point in time, and provided much needed critical insight into the vague corporate social responsibility discourse.

Theoretically, the broad economic and social concerns were progressively integrated during the 1970s resulting in what many consider the seminal framework for corporate social performance in 1979. Carroll (1979) integrated the perspectives of business and society relations into a three dimensional framework of corporate social performance (Figure 2). Broadly, he identified that for a business to “fully address the entire range of obligations business has to society, it must embody the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary categories of business performance” (p. 500). Carroll identified these four categories as the organisations’ “total social responsibilities” and clearly identified that these categories were not mutually exclusive, cumulative or additive. Although more magnitude was given to economic and legal categories of responsibility than to ethical or discretionary (a point reinforced by his “pyramid of social responsibility” conceptual model (Carroll, 1991). The second dimension focuses on the “philosophy of responsiveness” and outlined a continuum of responsiveness to a social issue from reaction to proaction.

Figure 2 – Carroll’s (1979, p. 503) Corporate Social Performance Model

The third dimension identified the “social issues involved” for a business and requires further clarification given the relevance to the conceptual framework to follow. Although the conceptual framework did not attempt to exhaustively identify the social
issues involved it did identify a wider variety of issues than many modern frameworks, including: consumerism, environment, discrimination, product safety, occupational safety and shareholders. Furthermore, Carroll identifies the dynamic and contingent nature of organisational (business) social responsibility:

“The major problem is that the issues change and they differ for different industries... [adding that] particular social issues are of varying concern to businesses, depending on the industry in which they exist as well as other factors. A bank, for example, is not as pressed on environmental issues as a manufacturer. Likewise, a manufacturer is considerably more absorbed with the issue of recycling than is an insurance company... business executives do not have a consensus on what social issues should be addressed. Thus, we are left with recognition that social issues must be identified as an important aspect of corporate social performance, but there is by no means agreement as to what these issues should be.”

(emphasis in text) (Carroll, 1979, p. 501).

Several of these seminal observations were taken up and adopted in the research to follow. These include the variability of social issues between different types of organisations and the lack of consensus regarding what social issues an organisation should respond to. Although several conceptual advances are outlined below, the concepts outlined in Carroll’s model remain central to the researchers understanding of social responsibility in organisations.

The development of stakeholder theory of the organisation was based on the idea that organisations were responsible to a variety of stakeholders, rather than solely as an actor to generate shareholder wealth. Freeman (1984, p. 46) identified a stakeholder as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation’s objective”. Stakeholder approaches increased the expectation that an organisation responds to multiple legitimate requests from external stakeholders. The stakeholder approach is one of the central theoretical approaches to social responsibility and has been used in the major conceptualisations of social responsibility practice such as the GRI and ISO 26000 and the initial conception of sport corporate social responsibility (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Stakeholder theory advanced social responsibility conception via expanding the number of groups that could lay legitimate claims on the organisation. The difficulty of this approach from an institutional perspective is that whilst each legitimate external claim appears rational, collectively multiple external claims can produce internal irrationality as meeting one requirement from one stakeholder group (e.g. shareholders) is not necessarily congruent with other stakeholder groups (e.g. activists, employees) (Bromley & Meyer,
Nevertheless, stakeholder theory was the major theoretical advance in the 1980s and broadened the view of which stakeholder groups’ organisations were responsible to.

During the 1990s new ideals of social performance and responsibility simultaneously emerged within the corporation. Donna Wood (1991) extended Carroll’s (1979) conceptual framework by integrating principles of legitimacy, public responsibility and managerial discretion; processes of environmental assessment, stakeholder and issues management; and, outcomes of the social impacts, programs and policies of a corporation’s behaviour. Of particular interest is the extension of how and where principles of legitimacy were generated from. At the institutional level principles of legitimacy are granted by society that gives power to business via consumption. Consequently to maintain the powers inferred to corporations, corporations must use their power and resources responsibly (Davis, 1973). At the organisational level principles of public responsibility interact when organisations take responsibility for the outcomes of their influence on society (Post & Preston, 1975). Lastly, at the level of the individual principles of managerial discretion occur on the basis that managers are moral actors with their own individual social responsibilities (Carroll, 1979). The expanded understanding of the sources of legitimacy coupled with developing processes and outcomes was the major conceptual development in the 1990s.

In the 2000s the breadth of issues and approaches that were considered an organisation’s social responsibility rapidly expanded to include issues ranging from cause related marketing to universal human rights (Garriga & Mele, 2004) (see Figure 3). The management literature was primarily concerned with instrumental approaches that rationalised a link between corporate financial performance (CFP) and corporate social performance (CSP) (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky, 2011; Orlitzky et al., 2003), and thus increasingly focused on the strategic use of social responsibility issues and themes (Porter & Kramer, 2002, 2006, 2011). Margolis and Walsh (2003) analysed 127 studies between 1972 and 2002 and found that four out of every five studies used the business case paradigm to investigate the influence of social performance on financial performance. Only one in five studies investigated the reverse situation, whether improved financial performance influenced social performance. The meta-analyses found that social performance was positively associated with financial performance in around half the studies, whereas social performance was positively associated with financial performance in nearly three quarters of studies that tested this relationship (albeit from a smaller sample of studies). The problem, as Margolis and
Walsh (2003, p. 273) see it is that the propositions put forward in the business case view of social responsibility (that social responsibility is good for business) “restrict organisational scholars’ ability to develop a more expansive approach to understanding the relationship between organisations and society”. The view that social responsibility should be undertaken for financial purposes limits the scope of responsibility research. This position becomes more evident when the profit motive is removed, as is the case in non-profit organisations.

Figure 3 – Garriga and Mele’s (2004) Mapping of CSR Approaches

Campbell (2007) is considered a central voice in institutional approaches to social responsibility. Building on Margolis and Walsh’s (2003) premise that CSR research needs to move beyond the business case, Campbell describes the conditions in which corporations are likely to undertake socially responsible behaviour from an institutional perspective. Campbell (2007, p. 951) defines socially responsible corporate behaviour as meeting a “minimum behavioural standard” that consists of two conditions, an organisation should:

“not knowingly do anything that could harm their stakeholders – notably, their investors, employees, customers, suppliers, or the local community within which they operate [and secondly], if corporations do cause harm
to their stakeholders, they must then rectify it whenever the harm is discovered and brought to their attention."

A minimal threshold of responsibility highlights the flip side of the responsibility discourse - proactively avoiding harm. Proactively avoiding harm goes hand in glove with actively pursuing social good. Nevertheless, it is the pursuance of explicit “good” rather than the avoidance of implicit “bad” that has dominated the sport management discourse on social responsibility. For example, several conceptualisations are based on the position that responsibility begins after legal and economic requirements have been met (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Sheth & Babiak, 2010). The minimal threshold approach would suggest that economic and legal requirements are so central to the idea of responsibility that they should be overtly pursued in the same way as the public relations around philanthropic donations. A practical example is the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA). Although the organisation may exceed expectations in several proactive social and environmental programs, it can be argued that it simultaneously fails to meet the minimal behavioural standards related to corruption, match-fixing and negative externalities from the major events they host. In the sport sector the majority of major controversies come from doing harm, rather than failing to deliver an often undefinable good (Godfrey, 2009). Accordingly, implicit and obvious assumptions regarding the minimal requirements for responsible behaviour seem the most logical place to begin to identify organisational responsibility.

The degree in which firms are likely to engage in socially responsible activity is affected by economic conditions and mediated by institutional factors (Campbell, 2007). That is, if a firm is in a weak economic environment or the market is extraordinarily competitive (to be restrictive on profit margins) or uncompetitive (the reputation of a corporation will have little effect on monopoly power), then a corporation will be less likely to behave in a socially responsible way. Institutional factors that mediate this relationship include: well-enforced regulation from the State; effective self-regulation within an industry to avoid potentially more prohibitive state regulation; private organisations such as NGO’s, the press and institutional investors whom monitor corporate behaviour and are capable of mobilising resources to change it; strong normative pressures that are institutionalised in the business environment such as business school curricula or industry publications; organisational members of socially progressive trade associations; and, engagement in dialogue with a variety of stakeholder groups (Campbell, 2007). These factors change within and across institutional environments. Assumptions that are made in one institutional environment (e.g. a corporation) may not hold in another (e.g. a local non-profit). For example,
collective action is seemingly incongruent with a volunteer run sport club, just as monitoring the behaviour of national sport governing bodies by NGO’s is a not an applicable institutional force to pressure such organisations to behave in a more responsible manner.

In this sense, Aguilera, Rupp, Williams and Ganapathi (2007, p. 855), may be right when they suggest that the diffusion of CSR around the world “is not so much isomorphism defined by institutional analysts (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) but, rather, a modification process referred to as translation, whereby CSR principles and practices imported from elsewhere are adjusted to the local conditions”. Although isomorphism on a global level is unlikely, institutional analysis may be of more utility to investigate how social responsibility processes are translated and modified within local conditions such as an organisational field or particular industry sector (Matten & Moon, 2008). For example, even within an organisational field differences will exist between types of organisations such as elite sport organisations in one sport compared to another. The act of modification and translation of social responsibility concepts has already taken place in the commercial aspects of the sport industry in areas such as environmentalism (Trendafilova, Babiak, & Heinze, 2013). However, little attention has been paid to how these concepts could be modified to social responsibility behaviour in the various non-commercial areas of the sport industry.

This section has investigated some of the conceptual developments in CSR over the past 60 years. Early CSR was predominately an extension of explicit philanthropy and charitable contributions in the United States in the 1950s and 1960s developed by business ethicists. Push back came from economic theorists, mainly Friedman (1970; 1962), who argued that when executives act on behalf of shareholders in corporations, executives should work primarily toward meeting a fiduciary responsibility to this stakeholder group within norms of social and legal expectations. These early developments had three lasting effects on the developing paradigm of social responsibility. First, that the concept was restricted to the corporate organisational form, and this view is still pervasive today despite expansion beginning to occur in other sectors of society (Bromley & Meyer, 2013; Global Reporting Initiative, 2012a). Second, that social responsibility only begins after financial and legal requirements have been met (Davis, 1973; McWilliams & Siegel, 2000), despite the majority of cases of social irresponsibility occurring due to breaches in economic and legal responsibilities. Finally, that social and financial performance are incompatible with one another, it took four decades to accept that social performance may positively influence financial performance (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky et al., 2003). In the
corporate sector, many of these key debates have matured to a point where they are now well understood. This has led to an expansion of a more nuanced and contextual understanding of organisational responsibility, that it is contingent on the type of institutional environments and levels of analyses (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Matten & Moon, 2008). In the following section the literature related to social responsibility practice in the international sport industry will be reviewed. A neo-institutional perceptive is adopted to demonstrate that the discourse on organisational responsibility has been dominated by a focus on corporate organisational forms and not yet been extended into other organisational types such as non-profit organisations.

2.2 Social Responsibility in the Sport Sector

Social responsibility in the sport industry is not a new phenomenon. Sport organisations (the social responsibility of sport organisations) and organisations that use sport for a social purpose (the social responsibility via sport organisations) have historically provided social outcomes to society. Hargreaves (1986) for example, describes that many institutions used sport to meet social and economic objectives as early as the industrial revolution (1750-1850) and during the Victorian period (1837-1901), in Britain, in such diverse sectors as public schools, corporations and religious groups. Putnam (2000) highlighted how the demise of the local bowling league in the United States led to people “bowling alone” as a metaphor for the demise of a broader stock of social capital in American society. Assigning the term organisation to, in this case, the local bowling league extends the corporate concept of responsibility into organisational territory that it has yet to be developed within. What's more, it is argued that although potentially possessing a reduced responsibility to society compared to large corporations, “sport” organisations nevertheless possess identifiable responsibilities to society. For instance, the responsibility of a bowling league to organise bowling competitions and thus be a site for social capital production by facilitating community interaction. What now follows draws heavily on “sport corporate social responsibility” discourse (SCSR) (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007), conceptualised within post-industrial western economies that has developed from an extension of the CSR paradigm. The underpinning of this research is the idea that all organisations possess a responsibility to society rather than this being limited to the field of social units society calls corporations. Consequently, the perception of organisational responsibility between and within three different organisational forms in the sport
industry (community, elite, national) is to be investigated in this thesis. To achieve this, a review of the literature on corporate social responsibility in sport is required.

In the same way that the responsibility of corporations can be traced back to corporate philanthropists such as Andrew Carnegie's principles of charity and stewardship (Carnegie, 1962) and the responsibilities of the businessman (Bowen, 1953); the relationship between sport organisations and society is neither new, nor novel in a historical sense and has occurred since time immemorial. For example, Pierre de Coubertin’s aim to reform the French education system through sport eventually led to the Olympic Games, now the largest sporting event in the world (MacAloon, 2008). This literature review starts in the early 1990s. Prior to the 1990s sport management and CSR within sport management academia more broadly were underdeveloped fields of academia. Initial research in the SCSR was heavily focussed on organisations that manufactured and marketed sporting apparel, footwear and hardware. Subsequent developments have seen the expansion of the concept of responsibility into various aspects of the international sport industry (Waddington, Chelladurai, & Skirstad, 2013).

Progressive outsourcing of manufacturing to countries with lower minimum wage and working standards laid the foundation for societal concerns regarding the responsibility of sporting organisations such as sporting goods manufacturers. Social responsibility issues became prominent with the concern for human rights of workers in the supply chains of sporting goods manufacturers (Klein, 1999). The tipping point for this came in 1996 when the New York Times ran a scathing opinion piece on the exploitative working conditions faced by a mostly young (often under working age), female workforce in the supply chains of sporting goods manufacturers (Herbert, 1996). On the back of these community concerns regarding the way sports products were produced, several collective actions were taken that combined the non-governmental labour, religious and human rights organisations to lead a public boycott of Nike products and change government policy regarding fair working conditions (Sage, 1999). Moreover, Nike’s main competitor adidas-Salomon AG increased net sales 5.7% during the same period of time (adidas-Salomon, 1999).

Subsequently, structural changes occurred within sporting goods manufacturers. New positions were created such as the “Vice President of Corporate Responsibility” and “Social and Environmental Affairs Departments” were developed and managed by newly created senior positions. Corporate (social) responsibility reports were included in company communications as companies tried to respond to calls to become more transparent and implement the practical changes of dealing with
new institutional pressure that they had previously not been accustomed to deal with (DeTienne & Lewis, 2005). Various forms of regulation and codes of conduct increased the regulative pressures to abide by new standards of organisational practice (van Tulder & Kolk, 2001). Competitors quickly mimicked the actions of Nike to minimise the public scrutiny placed on their organisations (Frenkel & Scott, 2002; Yu, 2008). During the 1990s the institutional environment for social responsibility in sporting goods manufacturers shifted as the issue of labour practices and working conditions in South East Asia matured from a latent responsibility to a heavily institutionalised responsibility; and organisational positioning adapted from reactive to proactive stances, and even to the point of promoting social issues as organisations learnt how to deal with the new institutional landscape (Zadek, 2004). As social responsibility became embedded in profit orientated companies, such as sporting goods manufacturers, instrumental approaches to CSR were rationalised under the business case ideas regarding if and how social performance may influence financial performance.

The lessons from the sporting goods segment of the sport industry had wide-ranging implications in the sport industry. The primary mechanism through which the business case approach to responsibility was rationalised within the sport industry was via cause-related sport marketing (CRSM). CRSM initiatives became common ways to overtly express organisational responsibility via sport (Lachowetz & Gladden, 2002). CRSM is based on the belief that organisations via affiliating with a particular social cause or issue can improve their brand image or purchase intent by offering a differentiated product aligned with that particular cause (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). This approach is particularly congruent with the idiosyncrasies of mass-media distribution and communication power that come with highly commercialised sport (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). For example, when Nike produced over 50 million wristbands to raise money and awareness for cancer research and patient care, it produced shared value for both the organisation and the cause (McGlone & Martin, 2006; Porter & Kramer, 2011). CRSM is now ubiquitous within elite sport and has particularly strong ties with views of social responsibility that align with profit-maximising behaviour. In particular, North American scholars have tended to focus more and more on the influence of cause-related marketing on consumers in attempts to determine the “value” of such actions. To individuals who identify with a professional sport team, CRSM may increase the consumer attitudes and purchase intent, however this relationship is often mediated by how the individuals view the team (e.g. fan, non-fan) (Kim, Kwak, & Kim, 2010; Lee & Ferreira, 2013; Roy & Graeff, 2003). Similar
findings indicate that cause related sport sponsorship positively influenced attendee’s impression of a professional golf event, and identified that females may be more receptive to CRSM messaging than males (Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark, 2003). Further CRSM research has been conducted to investigate how environmental responsibility communications can influence donor intention in collegiate sport (Walker, 2013) and to determine if and how CSR practices are valued by sport fans (Walker & Kent, 2009).

Around the mid-2000s a broader expansion of social responsibility research occurred in the field of sport management. Scholars conceptualising how the phenomenon of social responsibility, as observed in the corporate sector, could be applied in elite sport settings led the expansion of the social responsibility concept into sport management (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). This expansion was supported by special editions of leading Journals surrounding the topic of Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport (Bradish & Cronin, 2009, Journal of Sport Management 23(6)); Special Issue on Corporate Responsibility, Sustainability and Stewardship within Sport (Kent, 2011, International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing 10(1-2)); the role of social responsibility, philanthropy and entrepreneurship in the sport industry (Ratten & Babiak, 2010, Journal of Management and Organisation 16(4)); and, Special Issue: Governance and CSR Management in Sport (Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos, & van Eekeren, 2015, Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society 15(2)). Furthermore texts devoted entirely to sport and corporate social responsibility began to emerge such as Routledge Handbook of Sport and Corporate Social Responsibility (Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013) and Sports Governance, Development and Corporate Responsibility (Sargaert et al., 2012). In concluding their editorial Bradish and Cronin (2009, p. 696) stated given the potential influence of social responsibilities on sport organisations “we believe that CSR should be regarded as one of the most important components of contemporary sport management theory and practice”. The realisation that sport was a distinctive area of institutional life led to a new phase in social responsibility development in sport that concerned wider ethical considerations such as good governance, the environment and community outcomes of sport organisations and events.

The initial drive to develop a broad multidimensional approach to social responsibility for sport was put forth by Smith and Westerbeek (2007) who suggested that a) corporations could discharge their responsibilities by using the distinctive features implicit in sport, later developed into the social responsibility via sport
argument, and b) that sport organisations themselves have a responsibility to society, later developed into the social responsibility of sport paradigm. Identifying that “the social responsibilities implicit to sport remain underdeveloped” (p. 10) the authors identified seven distinctive features of SCSR: mass media distribution and communication power; youth appeal; positive health impacts; social interaction; sustainability awareness; cultural understanding and integration; and, immediate gratification benefits. Social responsibility via sport is thus prevalent in the above discourses regarding CRSM and in the area of sport for development. In both cases these fields draw on unique features implicit in sport, such as mass media distribution and youth appeal, to achieve marketing and developmental goals. Alternatively, the focus of this program of research focuses on the social responsibility of sport organisations and tracks its conceptual development since this time.

Critically, Smith and Westerbeek (2007, p. 10) based on Gems (1999) were concerned with the “chief issue facing SCSR comes in avoiding the ideological homogeneity propagated by Americanised sport business… [in particular] sport business would take a McDonald’s approach, emphasising standardised products punctuated only by the “hyper-reality” of over-zealous marketing”. An increasingly homogenised approach to social responsibility (or McDonald’s approach) is observable in elite team sport via the growing similarity in how these types of organisations discharge their perceived responsibilities via alignment with a charitable foundation (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009) (see Figure 4 and 5), community partnerships, and social marketing programs (Walker & Parent, 2010). This limited scope on overt CSR “programs” and “departments” runs counter to Campbell’s minimum behavioural standards and Fredericks embedding of moral frameworks in corporate decision-making by decoupling social responsibility practice, from “core business” actions. For example, the influential application of social responsibility by Babiak and Wolfe (2006, p. 215) focused the social responsibility at the Super Bowl XL in Detroit “chose to focus on these [ethical and discretionary] areas of CSR as we were interested in voluntary, as opposed to obligatory conformity with economic and legal” dimensions of responsibility. The decoupling of explicit from implicit social responsibility, particularly in the sport industry, hinders the holistic ability to conceptualise the social responsibility of sport organisations. Rather it fosters an environment where only overt organisational actions are conceptualised as part of the organisations’ social responsibility. The consequence of this approach is socially responsible “programs” and “departments” as a modest substitute for holistic and integrated “socially responsible organisations".
Babiak and Wolfe (2009) neatly address organisational motives for US professional sport teams to engage in socially responsible activities in one of the first research projects in the area of social responsibility in sport field. The determinants of social responsibility espoused by senior executives of professional sport teams were identified as a combination of the external institutional environment and internal resources available to the organisation. Externally institutional pressures such as key constituents, the highly connected nature of the sport industry and pressure from the governing bodies were identified as factors that determined a team's social responsibility. Conversely, the value (e.g. government subsidised stadium infrastructure), scarcity (e.g. brand recognition due to high media exposure and barriers to new entrants) and inimitability (e.g. the competitors that do exist cannot imitate the persona of a star player) of elite sport organisations’ internal resources predicate an approach to CSR that differs from corporate sectors. In response to multiple demands from external stakeholders, sport organisations may produce internally complex and pluralistic organisational structures (Chelladurai & Skirstad, 2011; Gammelsaeter, 2010; Kraatz & Block, 2008).
Frameworks to address the internal complexity of social responsibility in sport organisations have only recently begun to be conceptualised in elite team sport organisations. In European professional football, Breitbarth and Harris (2008, p. 182) describe CSR as “an umbrella construct integrating other forms of organisations (e.g. associations, non-profits)… the concept and its application largely remains dynamic, diverse and context specific”. Within this context, Breitbarth and Harris (2008) generated a cyclical conceptual model that identifies the manner in which CSR creates value for a professional football organisation (financial, cultural, humanitarian and reassurance), the value created generates organisational benefits (profits, participation, competitiveness, relevance), which in turn increases organisational resources (political power, stakeholder integration, organisational ethics and strategic functions) that fosters the development of CSR. The framework was applied to four “typical” national football contexts in England, Germany, the USA and France. The findings of the research indicated that political, integrative and ethical approaches varied between contexts and instrumental approaches were evident in each national context. This adds weight to the line of reasoning advanced in this review, that organisational responsibility is variable and contingent upon environmental factors.

Using this as a starting point Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel (2011) attempted an "intellectual leap" to develop a strategic approach to CSR measurement in professional European football. Based on a mixture of “balanced scorecard
approaches” (Figge, Hahn, Schaltegger, & Wagner, 2002; Hubbard, 2009; Kaplan & Norton, 1992) and the Global Reporting Initiative 3.0 Sustainability Guidelines (2006), they identified three core performance areas of CSR: economic (e.g. memberships numbers, brand value); integrative-political (e.g. CSR awards, participants in CSR projects); and, ethical-emotional (e.g. physical activity in region, club credibility) (Breitbarth et al., 2011). This framework is one of the few integrative frameworks to holistically conceptualise social responsibility within the context of an elite sport organisation. The conceptual model (Figure 6) extends the social responsibility in sport discourse in two ways. First, it includes and extends on the idea of economic value to include integrative-political and ethical emotional dimensions. Second, it integrates both implicit and explicit actions that may be perceived to be holistic social responsibilities of an organisation.

Figure 6 – Schematic CSR Performance Scorecard for Professional Football Club (Breitbarth et al., 2011)

The literature thus far has suggested that social responsibility is contingent on national/cultural (e.g. Germany vs. United States), industry (e.g. sport vs. non-sport) and sub-industry (e.g. football vs. other sports) differences in institutional contexts. Walker and Parent (2010) add to this literature by demonstrating differences in the social orientations on the basis of organisational type and geographic reach. They found that the level of social involvement varied between sport teams, leagues and organisations (manufacturers, media and international sport organisations). As the
geographic reach of the organisation increased so did the responsibility actions the organisation pursued. For example professional sport teams were likely to engage in local social responsibility activities that engender trust and reciprocity in the local geographic community such as local philanthropy or community initiatives. Sport leagues that related to a larger region or nation are more likely to be responsive to broader society needs and address these through nation (league) wide programs (e.g. NBA Cares) in addition to local activities (the cumulative effect). Finally, companies, organisations and international governing bodies develop their relationship a step further by adopting a broader approach as global citizens within society. The citizenship of such organisations is consequently conditional on meeting universal requirements regarding human rights, the environment and adequate financial reporting. The main advance of this research was an understanding that as an organisation's geographical reach expands so too does its social responsibility. Whilst Matten and Moon (2008) proposed differences in social responsibility were contingent on national institutional frameworks (e.g. differences in political, financial, educational and labour and cultural systems), Walker and Parent (2010) identified differences in terms of the organisations’ geographical scope and did not consider national institutional differences. Social responsibility therefore conceptualised as contingent on both organisational size/scope and national institutional differences. The concept that organisational responsibility differs between contexts is expanded upon below using (neo) institutional theory.

In sport management theory there is a gap in the collective understanding of the social responsibility of sport organisations. Social responsibility is limited in conceptualisation to highly commercialised settings. There is negligible research that investigates the social responsibility of organisations outside commercial settings. In the case of the sport sector, the diversity of institutional environments and the organisational forms within them provides an opportunity to investigate the responsibility in a variety of organisational forms. The following section will outline the conceptual framework used in this research.

2.3 (Neo) Institutional Theories and Institutional Environments

This section lays the foundation for deconstructing society into groups of organisations that are similar to each other and therefore share similar social responsibility practices. Aspects of neo-institutional theory and institutional fields are used to complete this task. Societal sectors are introduced to represent the large
industries in society (e.g. the sport industry) and organisational fields are used to represent sub-groups of similar organisations within these industries (e.g. national, community and elite sport organisations) (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Scott & Meyer, 1991). The result of this process is the conceptual framework used in this PhD (Figure 9). The conceptual framework that is developed rejects social responsibility as a single all-encompassing umbrella concept. Instead it is proposed that the responsibility of an organisation is contingent upon multiple contextual factors such as organisational type, purpose, time period and geographic location that the organisation operates within.

Institutional approaches to organisational research concern how internal and external environments shape organisational structures, values and practices. Neo-institutional theories grew out of Selznick’s (1949, 1957) “old” institutional theory, that focussed on local political approaches to vested interests, group conflict and the political processes of informal organisational structures. Developing from this premise both neo-institutional and institutional theories share a concern for the dialectical relationship between organisations and their environments that is shaped by context dependent factors (e.g. culture, history, nation). Organisational responsibility is a product of this continually changing dialectical relationship between organisational objectives and societal expectations. The old institutionalism was apt to describe a local organisational environment. In this environment the immediate organisational context was the focus of theoretical development. Selznick’s (1949) institutional theory focussed on internal stakeholders and conflicts, institutionalisation occurred within an organisation, organisational structure was informal and irrationality within this structure came from vested interest groups. Neo-institutional theory extends on institutional theory in several ways. The conceptual focus shifted from the local organisational foreground to investigate a broader, non-local, background of institutional environments (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). This broader focus emphasised formal over informal organisational structures and suggested that organisational rationality was constrained by the pursuit for legitimacy within the institutional environment. For example to fit in with social expectation a rational profit maximising organisation may philanthropically donate money to a charity. The act of donation constrains the rational profit maximising orientation of the organisation, whilst increasing its external legitimacy within the institutional environment. By shifting to the understanding of institutional environment, neo-institutionalism focuses on more abstract concepts such as organisational forms, logics and configurations rather than institutionalisation within a single organisational context in a given local environment. For example, a traditional institutional approach
may focus on the internal dynamics and structures of a local golf club, whereas a neo-institutional approach is more likely to pursue a broader view of the pressures that influence that club at a macro level including government regulation, social norms and other golf clubs in the region.

Institutionalism can be viewed broadly in social sciences, for example, as applied to the capitalistic market, bureaucratic state, democracy, nuclear family, religion and other social institutions that exist within society (Friedland & Alford, 1991). However the application of institutional theory herein solely refers to analyses of organisational groups and their environments. To this end, the view of institutional theory adopted in this research mirrors that of DiMaggio and Powell’s (1991, p. 10) “people in different societies of institutional domains, at different times, hold varying assumptions about the interests that motivate legitimate action, the auspices under which persons or collectives may act, and the forms of action that are appropriate”. The neo-institutional approach is therefore used to investigate how legitimate action in the form of social responsibility varies between institutional domains (environments).

The cornerstone of the conceptual worldview is that society exists as an amalgam of bounded institutional environments (Meyer & Rowan, 1977) and within each environment the practice of social responsibility may vary. These environments have been defined by various terms such as “organisational field” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983); “industry systems” (Hirsch, 1972) and “societal sectors” (Scott, 1995; Scott & Meyer, 1991). The deconstruction of society into its component parts rests on neo-institutional theory, in particular, the view of “institutional environments” as an abstract concept for groupings of organisations. There are several terms that can be used to describe such environments and they are often temporally, geographically and conceptually variable. For the purposes of clarity, the remainder of this section will focus on three concepts within institutional theory in relation to social responsibility: 1) societal sectors; 2) organisational fields and 3) the single archetypes representing three distinct organisational fields.

2.4 Organisational Responsibility and Societal Sectors

The first institutional environment studied for this research is the sport sector. At the macro level the term societal sector is used to define sectors of society such as the education sector, the utilities sector and the sport sector. Scott and Meyer, (1991, p. 117) define a societal sector as including:
“(1) a collection of organisations operating in the same domain, as identified by the similarity of their services, products or functions, (2) together with those organisations that critically influence the performance of the focal organisations: for example, major suppliers and customers, owners and regulators, funding sources and competitors”.

Societal sectors are not geographically or temporally bounded and are similar to the concept of industries. Societal sectors are conceptualised as macro component parts of society and broadly based on the concept of industrial sectors that sell products and services that are relatively substitutable to one another (Scott & Meyer, 1991). In the case of the sport sector, one sport is relatively substitutable for another and many sport organisations share suppliers (e.g. sporting goods manufacturers) and funders (e.g. national governments).

The plurality of societal sectors has implications for social responsibility application. Established on Friedland and Alford’s (1991) work, Thornton and Ocasio (2008, p. 104) conceptualise society as “an inter-institutional system of societal sectors in which each sector represents a different set of expectations for social relations and human and organisational behaviour”. In the context of sport, Godfrey (2009, p. 698) identifies that “sport—writ large—exists as a significant social institution, both in terms of economic and social impacts on the society of which it is a key part”. Of specific value here however, is the way sport can contribute to the broader CSR discourse, in particular suggesting that:

“CSR, for both scholars and practitioners, needs to move from “traditional” (manufacturing and service) business contexts and expand its reach into economic sectors such as health care, education, culture and sport. By spreading between institutional fields within society, CSR has the opportunity to be viewed as more legitimate” (Godfrey, 2009, pp. 699-700).

Therefore rather than defining social responsibility as a unitary concept academia may benefit from moving away “from an aggregated notion of CSR to a discussion of multiple and multifaceted CSR’s” (Godfrey et al., 2010, p. 317).

To demonstrate the contingent nature of social responsibility, Godfrey, Hatch and Hansen (2010) analysed 25 industrial sectors and found heterogeneity between industries was a strong factor in determining the type of social responsibility activities organisations participated in. For example, they found that manufacturing and service organisations invest in their employees, minimising environmental impacts and protecting their consumers by producing “socially responsible” products. As they are geographically distant from the consumer there is less of a focus on community
activities than in industries such as the beverage or financial services industries that are embedded in communities with their customers. In this case these organisations tended to invest more heavily in community activities. The concept that social responsibility is contingent upon its environment supports Dahlsrud’s (2008) assertion that the complexity in social responsibility definitions does not arise from the broad categorical dimensions, but rather how the concept is socially constructed in a specific context. That is, it is logical that the organisations meet basic social, economic and environmental needs; however, certain environments will necessitate the addition of certain social responsibility practices contingent upon the specific context of the sector.

The manifestation of sector specific patterns of social responsibility is apparent in the development of social responsibility measurement via the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI). Whilst the GRI is designed as a tool to measure the sustainability practices of an organisation, sustainability and social responsibility have become increasingly synonymous. The GRI reporting framework was first developed in 1999 and is in its fourth iteration as of 2012. The report consists of economic, environmental and social (labour practices and decent work; human rights; society; product responsibility) categories. In 2001 the first sector specific guidelines had been developed to supplement the main report and meet sector specific needs. At present 10 sector guidelines exist to support the central reporting framework (an example of the sector specific topics in brackets), these include: airport operations (noise, continuity of operations); construction and real estate (land degradation, contamination and remediation); electric utilities (access, efficiency, availability, reliability, disaster/emergency planning); event organisers (inclusivity; soft and hard legacies); financial services (product portfolio; auditing; active ownership); food processing (health and affordable food; animal welfare); media (freedom of expression; portrayal of human rights; cultural rights; intellectual property; protection of privacy; content creation and disseminations); mining and metals (materials stewardship; resettlement); non-governmental organisations (resource allocation; socially responsible investment; ethical fundraising; gender and diversity; stakeholder engagement; monitoring and evaluation); and, oil and gas (reserves; fossil fuel substitutes; involuntary resettlement; emergency preparedness; asset integrity and process safety) (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012a). Therefore, whilst it is reasonable for an airport to consider noise control and a non-governmental organisation to consider the ethics of fundraising, the inverse relationships do not necessitate the same level of emphasis within an organisation. Airports do not need to strongly consider ethical fundraising, just as non-governmental organisations do not need to consider the implications of wholesale
noise pollution on a community. The first dimension of the conceptual framework is built on this premise, that different organisational sectors of society will demonstrate different types of social responsibility (Figure 7).

Figure 7 – Y-Axis of Conceptual Framework - Societal Sectors

2.5 Organisational Fields in the Sport Sector

Although often used interchangeably to describe institutional environments, organisational fields are identified as a form of “sub-sector” or group of organisations within an identifiable social sector. DiMaggio and Powell’s (1983, p. 148) conceptualise organisational fields as “those organisations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognised area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products”. Society is therefore described as a sum of societal sectors and expresses the logical plurality inherent in investigating the responsibility of organisations. The concept of organisational responsibility needs to be conceptualised within context specific organisational fields.

The international sport sector is not a homogenous sector made up from similar organisations. Rather the use of organisational fields within sectors implies that despite commonalities between the products and services that aid the provision of sport, differences exist between the function, purpose and structure of organisations within the sport sector. Building on this idea, various dimensions of differentiation can be identified at different conceptual levels. At the macro, or sector level, sport
differentiates itself from other sectors by the very nature of the products and services it offers (Smith & Westerbeek, 2004). For example, the finance sector and the sport sector are fundamentally different and therefore will inherently pursue different ideas of their responsibility to society. The same happens at the meso level of organisational fields (Figure 8). For example, sporting goods manufacturers are likely to have a different concept of organisational responsibility than a community sport organisation. Finally, at the micro-level organisations within the same field are going to differ in regard to their social commitments due to an infinite number of contextual variables within their institutional environment. The remainder of this thesis focuses on the meso level of organisational fields.

Whilst seemingly an unremarkable assertion, the proposition that organisations within an organisational field have similar social responsibilities may lead to more strategic approaches to socially beneficial activities. For example, an elite sport organisation that understands it has an identifiable and finite social responsibility may choose to allocate scarce resources to an activity within its social remit if the extent of the organisation’s social responsibility is clearly defined.

Figure 8 – X-Axis of Conceptual Framework - Organisational Fields

2.6 The Contingent Concept of Responsibility
The final aspect of the conceptual framework is the recognition that responsibility is a dynamic concept and is contingent on a number of factors other than the sector and field it resides within. For example, multiple academics have outlined how responsibility varies between nations, cultures and over time (Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Matten & Moon, 2008). In the sport sector cultural differences play out on the responsibility of sport organisations in a number of ways. For example the focus and manifestation of elite sport policy varies greatly between countries (de Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg, Shibli, & Bingham, 2009). Indeed, the prevalence and popularity of sport organisations are dependent on the sociohistorical development of the sport systems in any given country (Van Bottenburg, 2001). Rivoli and Waddock (2011) demonstrate that responsibility may be progressively institutionalised over time, and that once radical ideas, will over time, come to be seen as responsible and then become expected or required via regulation (e.g. the difference in social expectations of Nike from 1990 to 2010). Duran and Bajo (2014) suggest that both industrial sector and country of origin influence the responsibility configurations of organisations’. In the context of sport organisation’s an elite sport club in 1950, 2000 and 2050 will have changing concepts of responsibility, just as a football club in Japan, Finland and New Zealand are likely to apply varying conceptions of the responsibility at the present moment. Time and national institutional environments are amongst the influences on organisations that may affect an organisation’s responsibility. The complete conceptual framework developed by the researcher for this project is presented below in Figure 9.

The conceptual framework (Figure 9) outlines differences in social responsibility systems based on three dimensions: 1) societal sectors, 2) organisational fields and 3) contextual variables (e.g. time, culture). The framework is an abstract and simplified model that visualises the plurality of organisational responsibility configurations that may exist. An organisational field in one sector is not comparable to an organisational field in another nor is the model implying hierarchical relations. The model shows that with contextual variation the focus of social responsibility is reconstructed as well. Social responsibility is contingent on variables such as history and culture. To further identify, theorise and summarise the construct of organisational responsibility in sport organisations, three distinctly different archetypal organisations were designed to allow for generalisation and theorisation.
2.7 Gap in the Research

This chapter has outlined the progression of corporate social responsibility concept from the 1950s corporate environments in the United States, to the corporate scandals of the 1990s. At that stage the concept of CSR began to “crossover” from purely a management concept into the sport industry and subsequently sport management as awareness of social issues relevant to sporting goods manufacturers was raised by their failure to take responsibility for low wage and sweatshop labour in countries where they had outsourced production to. Since the mid-2000s the idea of CSR has progressively expanded throughout the highly commercialised field of elite sport. Conversely, with limited development in the broader sport sector, especially beyond the highly commercialised sport settings, there is a significant gap in the understanding of responsibility of organisations in the wider sport sector. This research
therefore aims to identify what the social responsibilities of sport organisations are, and, specifically how organisational responsibility differs between and within three archetypal sport organisations. In the following chapter the design and methodology underpinning this research are detailed.

By adopting the organisational view outlined above, it is apparent that corporate social responsibility is a highly constrained concept to explain the responsibility of multiple organisational types in society. Organisational responsibility is identified as a more appropriate term to describe this concept across organisational types (Neves & Bento, 2005). Re-conceptualising social responsibility this way makes corporate social responsibility applicable for describing a corporation where the corporation’s features are able to be identified, just as valid as identifying a non-profit organisation’s social responsibility. In this sense I reiterate my belief that all organisations have a level of responsibility to society and that the configuration of this responsibility is variable across organisational types. Following the research and methodology outlined below (chapter three) a comparative investigation of the social responsibility configurations between each archetype is offered (chapter four), before an in-depth discussion regarding social responsibility within each archetype is undertaken (chapters five, six and seven).
CHAPTER THREE - RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The aim of this chapter is to outline the research design and methodology for the program of research. The chapter details how the Delphi method was developed to bring various expert perceptions about social responsibility in particular contexts toward consensus. Furthermore, the specific procedure taken to develop archetypes, collect and analyse data are explained in detail.

3.1 Epistemology

This research adopts a constructionist epistemological position. According to Crotty (1998, p. 42) constructionism is the view that "all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context". For social responsibility, this raises particular questions. The most common perspectives and frameworks for social responsibility are based on North American and European scholarship. In the context of this body of work, I am particularly interested in the variations in which social responsibility is constructed in the sport sector. The social constructionist approach to organisational responsibility research in the sport sector builds on Campbell’s (2007, p. 950) argument that "socially responsible corporate behaviour may mean different things in different places to different people and at different times, so we must be careful in how we use the concept and how we define it". The Delphi method was used to construct consensus around organisational responsibility in three archetypal organisational contexts.

3.2 The Delphi Method

The Delphi technique is a consensus generating method designed to elicit responses from a group of experts on unknown, future or complex problems. A general definition of the technique is “a method for structuring a group communication process so that the process is effective in allowing a group of individuals, as a whole, to deal with a complex problem” (Linstone & Turoff, 2002, p. 3). The Research ANd Development (RAND) Corporation developed the method in the 1950s. The major client of the RAND Corporation at the time was the US Air Force and particular uses of the Delphi method were concerned with forecasting warfare scenarios during the cold war. The initial application that grew out of this method was particularly focussed on
technology development and decision making (Dalkey, 1969; Martino, 1983). Still, even since its early application there has been a stream within Delphi research that is concerned with determining group values for non-forecasting purposes (Rescher, 1969). This research builds on the use the Delphi method as an approach that considers personal values and social goals rather than its more predominate usage as a tool for forecasting future scenarios.

The Delphi method has been used extensively in both sport management and the broader sport sciences (Choi, Cho, & Kim, 2005; Donaldson et al., 2015; Reneker, Moughiman, & Cook, 2015). Within sport management the Delphi method has also been used as an approach to understanding the future of the sport management field of academia (Costa, 2005); environmental responsibility actions within sport facilities (Mallen, Adams, Stevens, & Thompson, 2010); health promotion within community sport organisations (Kelly et al., 2013); the development of steroid policies in high school sport in the United States (Wooff & Swain, 2014) and the historical change in the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) toward more professionalised fields of sport management practice (Bowers, Green, & Seifried, 2014). The latter research continued a long tradition of NASSM members conceptualising sport management using the Delphi approach (Zanger & Groves, 1994). This study builds conceptually and methodologically on the use of the Delphi method in the academic field of sport management. Historically, sport management publications have been methodologically based on Martino’s (1983) Delphi method description (Bowers et al., 2014; Costa, 2005; Kelly et al., 2013).

The Delphi method has three characteristics that differentiate the method from focus groups, 1) anonymity, 2) iteration with controlled feedback and 3) statistical group responses. The Delphi method proceeded with an anonymous expert panel of academics and sport managers (see 3.3 for participant selection). Second, the method called for three survey iterations with controlled feedback occurring between rounds one and two (see 3.6 for data collection). Statistical group responses are presented in each of the four results chapters (chapters four to seven).

3.3 Participant Selection

Rationale

Social responsibility is a heterogeneous concept. Therefore a heterogeneous expert panel needed to be selected. The International Standards Organisation identifies several content areas of social responsibility including governance, human rights, labour practices, the environment, fair-operating practices, consumer issues and
community involvement and development (International Organization for Standardization, 2010). Furthermore measurement criteria and social responsibility investment indices add an economic component to the concept of social responsibility (DJSI, n.d.; FTSE4Good, n.d.; Global Reporting Initiative, 2011). Participants were selected on the basis of diverse expertise in the sport management field. Selection of experts was therefore not targeted at specialists in social responsibility, rather it was determined that appropriate expert panels should be constructed to characterise the breadth of issues that fall under the umbrella term "social responsibility".

Two expert groups were identified to form a combined group (the “expert panel”). The expert panel consisted of academic and industry members whom were selected based on industry experience, general knowledge of the sport industry and ability to conceptualise the importance of multiple social responsibilities in the three archetypal sport organisations. Expert panel member information was gathered from publically available websites such as their academic profile page and national sport organisation websites (see Table 2).

Table 2 – Expert Panel Groups

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<th>Academic</th>
<th>Industry</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>46 female, 79 male</td>
<td>27 female, 132 male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>63 professors, 54 associate professors, 9 unspecified</td>
<td>152 executive managers, 7 middle managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries</td>
<td>United States (56), Canada (25), Australia (13), United Kingdom (10), New Zealand (5), Norway (3), Germany (3), the Netherlands (2), Greece (2), France (2), Switzerland (1), South Korea (2) and Mexico (1).</td>
<td>Australia (16), New Zealand (17), England (8), Scotland (6), Wales (5), Canada (11), United States (14), the Netherlands (13), South Africa (12), India (13), Finland (12), Sweden (13), Singapore (13) and the Philippines (6)</td>
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<td>Broad Topic Areas / Sports Governed</td>
<td>Race, gender, economics, organisational studies, marketing, ethnicity, management, physical activity, policy, volunteerism, sociology, community development, diversity, governance, inequality, culture, sponsorship, social capital, consumer behaviour, social responsibility, ethics, labour policy, risk management and law</td>
<td>Football codes (European, Australian, league, union), swimming, volleyball, athletics, basketball, table tennis, baseball, softball, rowing, golf, hockey, cycling, cricket, badminton, netball, tennis, golf, ice hockey, squash, handball and lacrosse</td>
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The academic cohort of the expert panel consisted of 124 sport management and sociology senior academics from journal editorial boards. Given their experience and diversity across a number of social issues this cohort was considered appropriate
to canvass a breadth of critical content knowledge. The approach builds on previous research that has surveyed academics to determine trends in management research into social issues (Carroll, 1994). The editorial boards of three leading sport management journals and one sport sociology journal were selected as the initial expert panel. Management and sociology editorial boards in the sport field cover a wide variety of content areas and include senior academics that are widely considered experts in their field. The aggregated group (academics) were considered an appropriate starting point to construct the expert panel. Of the 124 academic experts 62 were professors, 54 were associate professors and eight were either unspecified or held the title of doctor, 45 were female and 79 were male. The most represented countries were the United States (56), Canada (25), Australia (12), United Kingdom (10), New Zealand (5), Norway (3), Germany (3), the Netherlands (2), Greece (2), France (2), Switzerland (1), South Korea (2) and Mexico (1). The diversity of sport management and sport sociology experts is intentional due to their ability to bring critical discourse from areas such as governance, organisational studies, marketing, economics, ethics, race and gender amongst other issues that ultimately underpin the concept of social responsibility.

The second cohort that made up the expert panel was senior national sport organisation managers’. Participants were selected with the assistance of publically available data on national sport organisation websites. Efforts were made to attain a wide representation of sports in each country. Access to information varied between countries on the basis of cultural differences (e.g. privacy of information posted on publically available websites) and the relevance of the sport in that particular country. Where appropriate the following sports were generally included: football codes (soccer, Australian rules football, rugby league, rugby union), swimming, volleyball, athletics, basketball, table tennis, baseball, softball, rowing, golf, hockey, cycling, cricket, badminton, netball, tennis, golf, ice hockey, squash, handball and lacrosse. Senior managers from these organisations were included in the expert group if the sport had a national governing body in that country (including a board and staff members) and the contact details of senior managers were publically available. For the purposes of this research senior managers from national sport governing bodies were considered likely to have operational knowledge of both community and elite sport organisations and be the location for agenda setting regulation such as rules and policies regarding organisational behaviour. The expert panel was developed from Australia (16), New

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2 Where duplication occurred the above titles were used. For example, assistant and associate professors were considered to be the same position.
Zealand (17), England (7), Scotland (6), Wales (5), Canada (11), United States (14), the Netherlands (13), South Africa (12), India (13), Finland (12), Sweden (13), Singapore (13) and the Philippines (6). The total initial expert panel was 158. The size was larger than the academic panel as it was felt that this group would have a lower response rate. 151 (96%) of the 158-sample frame were considered executive officers within the national sport organisation. The remaining 4% consisted of middle to senior managers that had their contact details publically available, were considered to meet the above criteria and were included where the contact details for senior managers were not publically available.

The choice to select senior managers and executives from NSO’s was based on three assumptions; 1) managers were more likely to work with both community and elite sport organisations, therefore possessing a good knowledge of the three organisational archetypes, 2) executive managers were more likely to have a high proficiency in English to enable them to represent and manage their sport nationally and internationally and 3) senior managers were more likely to possess the broadest view of their sport industry given their position. The primary aim of the Delphi method is to generate consensus from within an expert panel. A conscious decision was made to exclude community and elite managers from the sample frame. This decision was made on the basis that community and elite sport club managers are less likely to possess knowledge in each of the three organisational archetypes; in many countries where English proficiency is high, but English is not the primary language spoken (e.g. continental Europe), English proficiency could not be guaranteed at the community level; and finally, sample frames of experts at the community level are not easily definable (e.g. what would a community sport expert look like and how would they be able to inform the research regarding elite and NSO contexts?). The process resulted in the selection of sport management experts that had both extensive experience and a broad knowledge base of social issues in sport organisations.

**Expert Panel Size**

The initial expert panel size selected was purposeful and based on a conservative approach to account for published drop off rates in previous Delphi studies and the minimum numbers required for an effective Delphi process. Dalkey (1969) identifies that the accuracy of a Delphi study increases when the panel size increases to 11. Consequently, the minimal sample was 11 participants. Previous
literature has also identified dropout as a concern for Delphi studies given the multiplicity of survey rounds, and identified maximal dropout rates of up to 40% (Day & Bobeva, 2005; Mallen et al., 2010). Drop out had not been a concern in previous sport management studies that purposefully sampled their expert panel (Costa, 2005), however, in other sport management studies drop out had been a concern and reported as high as 31.25% (Mallen et al., 2010). To account for this, the initial sample frame was conservatively constructed to allow for a response rate of 25% (284*0.25 = 71) and a conservative 60% maximal dropout between survey rounds two and three (round two: 72*0.4= 28; round three: 29*0.4= 11 participants).

3.4 Item Development

Social responsibility items were developed from two of the most widely accepted global measures of organisational responsibility and a review of the sport management and social responsibility literature. The two primary documents that social responsibility items were developed from were: the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) – Guidance on Social Responsibility (ISO 26000) and the Global Reporting Initiative GRI 3.1 (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011; International Organization for Standardization, 2010). The choice of these two standards was made on the basis of their breadth, use and general acceptance as the leading approaches to identifying organisational responsibilities. Furthermore, both measures have gone through a decade of development with the ISO 26000 development process starting in 2001 (Frost, 2011) and the GRI starting in Boston in 1997 (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012b). Furthermore, since the release of ISO 26000 in 2010, numerous and ongoing attempts have been made to integrate both measures into a single combined approach, leading to broad adoption of both measures in practice.

The intent of the above organisations and their respective “guidance” and “measures” of the social influence of organisations falls between the philosophical ambitions of sustainable development and the strategic rhetoric of “corporate social” responsibility management (Breitbarth et al., 2011). Unlike Breitbarth et al (2011, p. 728) whose intent was to develop an “industry-specific measurement model on the strategic level of CSR”, the intent of this program of research is not to measure, but rather to understand how organisational responsibility is perceived between and within three archetypal sport organisations. To determine this, the first step was to construct an initial item list from the ISO 26000, GRI 3.1 and from a review of relevant sport management literature on social responsibility. For context, an overview of the major
social responsibility dimensions covered in the forthcoming overview is outlined in Table 3.

Table 3 – Overview of Social Responsibility Dimensions from the Literature

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<td>ISO 26000</td>
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ISO 26000 – Guidance on Social Responsibility

The International Organisation of Standardisation describes the overarching philosophical view that “the objective of social responsibility is to contribute to sustainable development” (2010, p. vi). The scope of the ISO 26000 (2010, p. 1) is to “provide guidance to all types of organisations, regardless of their size or location on concepts, terms and definitions related to social responsibility” as well as various other aspects of the broad paradigm of social responsibility. Broadly, the ISO 26000 covers seven content areas of social responsibility titled social responsibility “core subjects”. These are organisational governance, human rights, labour practices, the environment, fair-operating practices, consumer issues and community involvement. Three-hundred-and-fifteen principles, considerations, actions and expectations were identified (collectively titled “social responsibility items” herein). These 315 social responsibility items formed the basis of the initial item list for this research.

The development of the ISO 26000 occurred over several years with multiple stakeholder groups. The instrument can be considered one of the world leading conceptualisations of social responsibility. The ISO 26000 (2010, p. v) was established using:

"a multi-stakeholder approach involving experts from more than 90 countries and 40 international or broadly-based regional organisations involved in different aspects of social responsibility. These
experts were from six different stakeholder groups: consumers, government, industry, labour, non-governmental organisations (NGOs); and service support, research, academics and others”.

Gender representation, development stages of countries and stakeholder groups were controlled as much as possible. The extensive development and general acceptance of the document as a leading form of social responsibility guidance was the key consideration for using it as the foundation for this research.

Global Reporting Initiative 3.1

The Global Reporting Initiative is “a leading organisation in the sustainability field. GRI promotes the use of sustainability reporting as a way for organisations to become more sustainable and contribute to sustainable development” (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012b). The third iteration of the reporting guidelines (G3) was released in 2006 and developed in collaboration with more than 3000 experts in the field. The updated version of this guidance (G3.1) was released in 2011 with expanded sections that included more emphasis on gender, community and human rights issues. In May 2013 the fourth generation of the guidelines was released (G4). Several of the changes made in G4 were also included in the ISO 26000 and thus included in the initial item list (e.g. supply chain, governance, ethics, anti-corruption and environmental disclosures were further enhanced in G4). The G3.1 guidelines were used as a secondary item list and combined with the ISO 26000.

The G3.1 guidelines contained three “categories”: social; environmental and economic. The social category was further compartmentalised into labour practices and decent work; human rights; society and product responsibility. Governance is included in a more practical sense than the ISO 26000 and is part of a broad review of the organisation's strategy and profile. These seven categories are sub-divided into 37 “indicator aspects”. Each indicator aspect is further subdivided into “core” (55) and “additional” (29) indicators within each aspect (see Appendix 5). In total the G3.1 guidelines added an additional 48 items to the 315 outlined in the ISO 26000. This produced an initial item list of 363 social responsibility items.

Sport Management and Social Responsibility Literature

The social responsibility in sport management research field is in its adolescence. This section briefly outlines some of the key influences that aided the development of the initial item list.

Walker and Parent (2010)
Walker and Parent (2010) integrated central terms (responsibility, responsiveness and citizenship) in the corporate social responsibility literature within the global sport industry with a particular interest in the North American field of professional sport. They qualitatively analysed content from nearly 100 sport organisation websites to compare their respective representations of social responsibility. The paper built on Walker and Kent’s (2009) thematic emergence of four social responsibility dimensions from a sample of American football fans and determined four key areas, 1) philanthropy, 2) community involvement, 3) youth educational initiatives and 4) youth health initiatives. Walker and Parent (2010) added 5) community development, 6) fair business practices, 7) conduct codes, 8) worker safety; 9) cultural diversity, 10) the environment, 11) volunteerism, and 12) other. Based on the level of social involvement the researchers then classified each team’s website into one of the three streams: social responsibility; social responsiveness or corporate citizenship. Several of the items that were developed specifically for the sport context and that were not already identified in the above measures were included into the initial item list. These areas included a focus on youth health and education, philanthropy and volunteerism.

Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel (2011)

Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel (2011) provide an integrated approach to develop a strategic management tool for measuring social responsibility in professional football in Europe. This influenced the item development in two ways. First, a review of content areas to measure sustainability and corporate social responsibility was detailed. The review incorporates several previous studies (Figge et al., 2002; Global Reporting Initiative, 2006; Hubbard, 2009; Kaplan & Norton, 1992) and presents six areas that influence the social responsibility of an organisation: economic/financial; innovation/learning; consumers/products; society/stakeholder; employees/work environment; environment; and, human rights.

Second, the review produces a conceptual model of corporate social responsibility performance in European football clubs (see Figure 6). The model, generated from a meta-analysis of CSR motivations and objectives, provides three core CSR performance dimensions: economic, integrative-political and ethical emotional. Whilst allowing for the context specific nature of organisational strategies and goals, Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel (2011) suggest 5-6 relevant objectives within each dimension and provide sample indicators to measure each dimension. These include fan, network and image objectives for the economic dimension, political,
participation and infrastructure objectives for the integrative-political dimension, and; physical activity promotions, credibility and role model objectives in the ethical-emotional perspectives. The six dimensions of the meta-analysis and the specific objectives and indicators were considered as part of item development for this research.


Babiak and Wolfe (2006, 2009) built on their earlier analysis of the corporate social responsibility at Super Bowl XL in Detroit by identifying the internal resources (valuable, rare, inimitable) and external pressures (context, content, constituents and cause) that drive CSR in professional sport teams. In this environment, social responsibility was found to be distinctive on the basis of fan/consumer passion; monopoly power and government support of leagues (economics); transparency via heightened media exposure and complex stakeholder environment (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). Professional teams in the United States were consequently more likely to discharge their social responsibility through explicit community involvement initiatives via youth, education, health and community programs (Sheth & Babiak, 2010). Identifying the need to develop indicators of social responsibility specific to the sport industry, Babiak and Wolfe (2013) used social investment indices (e.g. Dow Jones Sustainability Index, Financial Times and London Stock Exchange (FTSE), FTSE4Good) to develop six pillars (areas) of social responsibility relevant to professional sport organisations: labour relations, environmental management and sustainability, community relations, philanthropy, diversity and equity, and corporate governance. In line with the above studies, these areas were included in the initial item list.

Sport as a distinctive environment (Smith & Stewart, 2010; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Stewart & Smith, 1999)

Smith and Westerbeek (2007) identified that “sport” corporate social responsibility possesses several distinctive features that make sport an appealing vehicle for corporate organisations to deliver social responsibility activities. These distinctive features included: 1) mass media distribution and communication power; 2) youth appeal; 3) positive health impacts; 4) social interaction; 5) sustainability awareness; 6) cultural understanding and integration; and, 7) immediate gratification benefits. Furthermore Smith and Stewart (2010) identify similarities (market share, profit, and brand) and differences (unstable performance quality; anti-competitive
practices; media scrutiny of players and restriction of movement between employers) between professional sport and business contexts. Several of these factors were considered in the item development.

Table 3 demonstrates there was significant overlap between the main categories of social responsibility in the sport management literature and the categories outlined in the GRI 3.1 and ISO 26000. Furthermore, as has been alluded to, the sport management literature is predisposed to focus on the professional sport setting and limited attention has been directed towards other sport settings such as community and national sport organisations. For this reason, social responsibility items included in the survey instrument may not be limited to sport management literature. Instead, as the item list developed, issues such as youth focus, philanthropy, media exposure, and winning were considered where appropriate.

3.4.1 Refining the Item List

The initial item list was developed using the following process. Based on the structuring of social responsibility in the ISO 26000 and GRI 3.1, the concept of social responsibility was ordered in a hierarchy of three levels: “dimensions”, “issues” and “items”. Dimensions are the most generic and outlined in Table 3. Social responsibility issues (or sub-categories) occur within dimensions. For example within the social responsibility dimension of “environment”, multiple social responsibility issues exist such as prevention of pollution, resource use and climate change adaption. The third level of the hierarchy is social responsibility “items”. Items are used to identify aspects, actions and expectations of social responsibility practice that indicate the organisational response to a social responsibility issue.

The seven ISO 26000 social responsibility dimensions and 36 issues were used as the fundamental structure (see Appendix 6). Following this, the six GRI 3.1 dimensions and 37 social issues were layered on top of the ISO 26000 framework. Dimensions and issues that were similar to those already in the ISO 26000 were discarded. Dimensions and issues that were conceptually distinct from those present in the ISO 26000 were added. The result from this combination was the addition of the economic and removal of consumer issues dimension. In total seven social

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4 The term “dimensions” (macro) and “indicators” (micro) are utilized to describe social responsibility from the language of the Global Reporting Initiative. As indicators imply measurement, the term was replaced with “items” in this research. The term “social issue” (meso) is adopted from the ISO 26000 to replace ‘aspects’ in the Global Reporting Initiative. The purpose of combining the language from both reports is to avoid ambiguity in language throughout the research.
responsibility dimension remained: human rights, governance, economic, labour practices, fair operating practices, community development and environment.

The author and supervisors (the research team) collectively refined and developed the initial item list on the basis of the ability to conceptualise social responsibility issues across multiple organisations’ archetypes. The research team consisted of an 1) the lead researcher who completed the initial dimension synthesis outlined above and has several years’ experience in the sport industry across community, elite and international sport organisations, 2) expert in the sport management and social responsibility field with over 20 years’ experience in the discipline and 3) an expert in participation, health and education within national sport delivery systems with over 10 years’ experience in the discipline. Collectively, the research team met several times to refine the item list.

There were two primary considerations in the first meeting regarding the usability of the survey process and applicability of the social responsibility items to archetypal settings. The usability of completing a multitude of social responsibility items was a central concern. Prior to considering items, there were already more than 50 individual social responsibility issues to consider. The time for participants to rank each item, combined with multiple iterations within the Delphi method necessitated a refinement of the item list. Second, several assumptions were made about the institutional environment based on the construction of the organisational archetypes. These included the organisations position within a post-industrial western economy and general conception of social responsibility been predicated on a number of preliminary environmental factors. For example, a foundation of basic human rights is extensively covered in the social responsibility frameworks. However, within the context of the item list issues regarding civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights were deemed implicit within the archetypal context. Similarly, a narrow conception of environmental responsibility and consumer issues was pursued due in part to the heavy reliance on context for subjective decision-making. For example, to perceive the importance of environmental responsibility at the item level, significant information regarding the type of organisation, product/services produced, and resources consumed and discarded went well beyond the scope of what can be effectively communicated using an organisational archetype. Such an approach made specific questions regarding precise environmental impacts and protection of consumers redundant at this level of abstraction.

The second meeting focussed on refining the item list. The initial item list from the above synthesis was 66 items. During the second and third meeting and in line with
the above assumptions the item list was reduced to 25 items. The third meeting focussed on developing the specific language of each item to put into the pilot survey.

Pilot Survey

The initial item list and Delphi survey rounds were piloted within an Australian University in May/June 2013 (Appendix 7). The main intent of the pilot survey was to check the wording of the social responsibility items and the likely completion time of each survey round (Gratton & Jones, 2004). The pilot study occurred in an Australian university and involved 13 sport sociology and sport management scholars completing the three round Delphi study. The survey was adapted to promote specific feedback regarding how accurately the statements describe the essence of the social responsibility issue; a prompt to allow participants to rephrase any or all items; identify new items that they felt were important; and, provide feedback on the user-friendliness, archetype descriptions and any general comments. The pilot participants were not involved in the global Delphi study; however their feedback did provide several opportunities to improve the social responsibility item statements and archetypal case studies.

3.5 Archetype Development

The conceptual tool for this study is developed from Max Weber’s antipositivist position of “ideal types” (Weber, 1962). In translating Weber’s writings, Gerth and Mills (1977, p. 59) describe “ideal types” as “the construction of certain elements of reality into a logically precise conception”. This perspective is elaborated further in the work of Kikulis, Slack and Hinings (1992, p. 344) who describe the introduction of design archetypes as, “along the lines of “ideal types”, design archetypes are simplified models that isolate the elements of organisational design and their interrelationships”. Design archetypes as used in Kikulis et al (1992) are based on Greenwood and Hinings (1988, p. 295) definition that design archetypes are “a set of ideas, beliefs and values that shape prevailing conceptions of what an organisation should be doing, of how it should be doing it and how it should be judged, combined with structures and processes that serve to implement and reinforce those ideas”. Archetypes are neither evaluatory nor exemplary of an organisational typology, rather they represent the most common features of such an organisation and in the real world most organisations would fall somewhere between these types (Gerth & Mills, 1977). The organisational archetypes were contextualised within an archetypal country (titled “Neutralia”) with
standardised information regarding mean age, life expectancy, GDP growth, inflation, political system, sports system and sports funding structure (Appendix 1). An archetypal organisation was developed for three organisational fields in the sport industry: a community sport organisation (titled “Oldtown Sport Club”); a national sport organisation (titled617“GoSport Neutralia”); and, an elite sport organisation (titled “Scottsdale Sports Club Inc”). The archetypes detailed organisational information such as economic surplus, number of employees and participants (Appendices 5, 6 and 7).

The way organisational archetypes are conceptualised in this project is a partial representation of an organisational field. That is, whilst the program of research uses archetypes as representations of common forms of organisations within an organisational field, there are obvious limitations with this approach. First, a single organisational archetype that represents an organisational field is the highest level of abstraction. Multiple archetypes exist within organisational fields, just as inestimable real world organisations are represented by one archetype. In this sense, the way that archetypes have been conceptualised herein, is the antithesis of case study research (Yin, 2003). This is most accurately exemplified by the use of Kikulis, Slack and Hinings (1992) three archetypes to represent Canadian sport governing bodies: the kitchen table, boardroom and executive office archetypes were designed to represent a range of archetypes within the organisational field of national sport organisations. Rather than pursue all three, and in line with the rationalising and bureaucratising of organisational forms in this area, the executive office archetype was chosen as the basic archetype structure for a national sport organisation. Similarly, a taxonomy of structural design types has been produced for amateur sport clubs that illustrates the heterogeneity of types within the community sport organisational field (Kikulis, Slack, Hinings, & Zimmermann, 1989). Rather than conceptualising multiple variants of community sport organisations that exist a large community sport organisation with high membership and resources was chosen. Similarly, the elite sport organisation represents a highly commercialised sport club that is privately owned. The pursuance of these organisational archetypes is developed as a stepping-stone to identify the inconsistency of applying the ubiquitous term “corporate social” responsibility to contexts where the concept is materially different to the initial intent and design. Consequently, it is acknowledged that the representation of an entire organisational field by one organisational type is a high level of abstraction that is used for the purpose of comparing a common form of organisation in one organisational field to another common form of organisation in another organisational field.
National Archetypal Context - Neutralia

The intent of the Delphi method was to provide participants with an initial context to comment on. Therefore the formation of the context was highly important as it provides all participants with the same starting point (Martino, 1983). An archetypal context titled Neutralia was provided to participants. The core information was sourced from Euromonitor 2009 data and contained several factors including: population, mean age, life expectancy, gross domestic product (GDP) growth, inflation, unemployment rate, literacy rate and possession of telecommunication devices (mobile, internet and television) (see Table 4) (Euromonitor International Ltd, 2011). The archetype was designed to represent a post-industrial Western economy's demographic data. To achieve this, data from ten countries were averaged: Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, United Kingdom and the United States. The population of Neutralia was lowered from the average of these 10 countries (75 million) to 50 million due to the large populations of the United States and Japan skewing the data. Real GDP growth and inflation were both higher than the Euromonitor data indicating a change from the post global financial crisis data that was collected in 2009. For this reason 2012 data were reviewed resulting in the adjustment to a slightly higher inflation rate and GDP growth to more accurately represent the post global financial crisis landscape. Literacy and telecommunications were deemed to be ubiquitous. The access to the Internet was considered higher than the Euromonitor data presented given the measure presented is for household computers and does not necessarily account for access through mobile devices.

Further information was provided regarding the Neutralia archetype including a secular democracy and regular elections. Basic information regarding the archetypal sports system was given to participants. The information provided a broad scope for the conception of the national sport system as a federated club based sport system, which is partially funded through government funding and is split between elite and grassroots performance. Therefore, to remain financially viable club and affiliation fees heavily supplement the sports system. The approach remained conceptually broad to align with the variety of sport systems apparent in different nations (Hoye, Nicholson, & Houlihan, 2010).
Table 4 – National Demographic Data (Euromonitor International Ltd, 2011).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Population ('000)</th>
<th>Average Age (Years)</th>
<th>Life Expectancy (Years)</th>
<th>Real GDP Growth (%)</th>
<th>Inflation (% growth)</th>
<th>Unemployment Rate</th>
<th>Adult Literacy Rate (%)</th>
<th>Possession of Mobile Telephone (% homes)</th>
<th>Possession of Internet Enabled Computer (% homes)</th>
<th>Possession of Colour TV Set (% homes)</th>
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<td>90.7</td>
<td>74.7</td>
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Organisational Archetypes – Elite, Community and National Organisational Archetypes

Three organisational archetypes were developed to represent three common forms of organisation that are central to the sport industry – elite, community and a national sport organisation. The availability of information was not as centralised as in the national country context. Therefore a wider variety of information sources were used to form each respective organisational archetype. Each archetype was constructed in five sections: 1) an overview, 2) organisational history, 3) organisational structure and values, 4) market position, and 5) expert consultancy role. The first and last sections were the same for each archetype. The overview section simply introduced the organisational context whilst the expert consultancy section directed the participants in how to complete the survey. Key aspects of each archetype are outlined below and each archetype is provided in full in appendices 4-7.

GoSport Neutralia

There were several assumptions outlined in the development of GoSport Neutralia regarding the organisation’s history, structure and values, and market position. To develop information regarding each of these contextual areas, research was conducted on real world organisations to determine the accuracy of each archetypal description.

Key pieces of information in the historical context of GoSport Neutralia were that the organisation governs a traditional sport that has been played for more than 70 years, has a four percent participation rate, increased professionalisation in the last thirty years and a strategic balance between mass participation and elite sport policy priorities. The age of the organisation is congruent with many well-established sports around the globe. A four percent participation rate is common for organised sport in many developed Western economies. For the purposes of clarity team and organised sport (e.g. football, tennis, and basketball) is differentiated from individual physical activity and recreation (e.g. gym, walking, jogging, and gardening). In Australia, in 2011-2, swimming (7.8%), cycling (7.6%), golf (4.8%), tennis (4.2%), soccer (2.7%) and netball (2.5%) are the most popular forms of sport participation (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Ham, Kruger and Tudor-Locke (2009) used the American Time Use Survey (2003-5) and the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (1999-2004) to determine that the most popular participation sports between 2003 and 2004 in the US were basketball (6.0%), golf (5.8%), tennis (1.8%) and bowling (1.8%), and, exercises included biking (11.0%) and swimming (5.8%). In England, in 2012, the most popular sports participated in at least once per week were swimming (6.65%), athletics
(4.50%), football (soccer) (4.46%) and cycling (4.29%)(Sport England, 2013). The focus on organised sports produces a lower participation rate more relevant to the GoSport Neutralia archetype. Data collection methods and measures of participation varied greatly between countries; however, the research team determined that the above figures provide support for the generic statement that around 4% of the 50 million citizens of Neutralia play the sport.

This national-state-local structure sport system model is a common structural form in many Western economies (Hoye et al., 2010), and thus was a straightforward choice for the archetypal system in which GoSport Neutralia was placed. Additionally, the professionalisation of national sport organisations has been a central organisation change discourse in sport management. National sport organisations’ went through a considerable period of organisational change in the 1980s. The process of professionalisation has been largely documented within the context of Canadian national sport organisations (NSO) in the 1980s (Amis, Slack, & Hinings, 2002, 2004; Kikulis et al., 1992; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1995a, 1995b; Slack & Hinings, 1992) and further applied to NSO’s in countries such as Australia (Skinner, Stewart & Edwards 1999), England (O’Brien & Slack, 1999, 2003, 2004) and Bulgaria (Girginov & Sandanski, 2008). The assertion that this also occurred in GoSport Neutralia was generated from this pool of literature.

The organisational structure of GoSport Neutralia was generated from a review of medium to large national sport governing bodies in Australia, Canada, England, New Zealand and the United States. Tennis, football (soccer), basketball and swimming national sport organisations were reviewed in each country where the data were available. Furthermore sport codes specific to each country’s regional context were included in Australia (Australian rules football, netball, rugby league and rugby union), New Zealand (netball, rugby league and rugby union), England (netball, rugby league and rugby union), Canada (hockey) and the United States (basketball, baseball, American football and hockey). Data on number of employees and revenue was available for 22 out of the 35 national sport organisations. The data were normalised for country population and currency using figures from June 1, 2013. The results of this process are presented in Table 5.

Despite variance in the size and finances of the organisation, the results indicated that normalised revenue for these organisations would be around $193m and the average board size was around 10 people. The research team decided to state the revenue of GoSport Neutralia was $200 million with a board of 12 people based of this information. Furthermore, the review suggested that the average staff numbers for
these organisations were 164 people. These data were skewed on the basis that the Australian Football League (AFL) (660) only had data on employment figures within their national system (including state based associations) and the relatively large size of the English rugby (555) and football associations (753). Conservatively, it was decided to reduce the archetypal number of employees from 164 down to 120. Finally, small decreases in participation were assumed on the basis that the sport that GoSport Neutralia governs is an organised sport. In general, organised sports' participation has decreased in New Zealand and England and to a lesser extent Australia over the past decade (Australian Sports Commission, 2012; Sport England, 2013; Sport New Zealand, 2007).

GoSport Neutralia was developed as an archetypal context for a national sport organisation based on the information listed above. The archetypal context was given to sport management experts as a common organisational context from which to develop their perceptions of social responsibility. Further, contextual information was purposefully avoided as much as possible to allow the expert panel to develop a generic conception of responsibility for the archetype.
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Organisation</th>
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<th>Currency</th>
<th>Revenue (m)</th>
<th>Currency Conversion (June 1, 2013)</th>
<th>Normalised Revenue</th>
<th>Country Population</th>
<th>Population Ratio (50 million residents)</th>
<th>Normalised Revenue for 50m residents</th>
<th>Board Size</th>
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<td>9</td>
</tr>
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<td>129</td>
<td>AUD$</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>23032700</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>202.13</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
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<td>47</td>
<td>AUD$</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>23032700</td>
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<td>13.36</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14</td>
<td>AUD$</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>23032700</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>28.61</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.96</td>
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<td>AUD$</td>
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<td>0.96</td>
<td>409.0</td>
<td>23032700</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>887.87</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Australian Rugby Union (2012)</td>
<td>154</td>
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<td>96.6</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>23032700</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>201.71</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>English Football Ass. (2013)</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>£</td>
<td>318.0</td>
<td>1.5207</td>
<td>483.6</td>
<td>64100000</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>377.21</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England Netball (2012)</td>
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<td>£</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>1.5207</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>64100000</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>9.49</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basketball England (2013)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>£</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.5207</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>64100000</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rugby Union (England) (2012)</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>£</td>
<td>116.6</td>
<td>1.5207</td>
<td>177.3</td>
<td>64100000</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>138.31</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>NZD$</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.8023</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4471000</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Football (2012)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>NZD$</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>0.8023</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>4471000</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>87.03</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Swimming New Zealand (2012)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>NZD$</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>0.8023</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4471000</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>38.58</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Netball New Zealand (2012)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>NZD$</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>0.8023</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>4471000</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>138.17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZ Rugby League (2012)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>NZD$</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>0.8023</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>4471000</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>70.88</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZ Rugby Union (2013)</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>NZD$</td>
<td>117.0</td>
<td>0.8023</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>4471000</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>1049.76</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming Canada (2013)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>CAD$</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>0.9681</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>3516000000</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>12.53</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey USA (2013)</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>USD$</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>3165000000</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA Football (2012)</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>USD$</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>3165000000</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA Baseball (2012)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>USD$</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3165000000</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US Tennis Association (2012)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>USD$</td>
<td>302.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>302.0</td>
<td>3165000000</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>47.71</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>164.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>92.9</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100.7</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>$193.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>10.2</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicates employment figures were for the governing body and state affiliations. Therefore may be higher than the governing organisation itself.
Scottsdale Sport Club

The Scottsdale Sport Club archetype was developed from an analysis of the highly commercialised sport leagues in five post-industrial Western economies: the 18 teams in the Australian Football League, North America’s 30 team National Hockey League, the 20 English Premier League’s teams, New Zealand’s five Super Rugby teams and the 32 National Football League sides in the United States. These leagues were chosen to provide a guide to the upper limit of commercial elite sport organisations and develop a conservative archetype based on this information.

The average attendance for these leagues was around 34,000 people. Considering these were the largest leagues in each country the average attendance and thus capacity for each stadium was rounded down to a 30,000-seat stadium (see Table 6). The assumption is therefore of average crowds lower than capacity and stadium sizes common to several sports.

Table 6 – Average Match Attendance NFL, EPL, AFL, NHL and Super Rugby (AFL, 2012; Deloitte Ltd, 2012; Sporting Intelligence, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>League</th>
<th>Average Attendance (2012)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Football League (NFL)</td>
<td>67579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Premier League (EPL)</td>
<td>34601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Football League (AFL)</td>
<td>31509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super Rugby*</td>
<td>16000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Hockey League (NHL)</td>
<td>17455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>33436.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*New Zealand conference only

Second, the type of elite sport organisation determines the level of disclosure and ability to develop accurate archetypes. For example, in the United States, national football and hockey teams are nearly all privately owned. The Green Bay Packers in the NFL is an exception as it is a publically owned non-profit company. The EPL is relatively similar with a majority of private owners controlling the interests of clubs in the top division. Alternative structures exist in the AFL in which clubs are structured as non-profit companies that cannot distribute profits. Members, the national league or state associations but not private interests control these organisations. The final organisational structure investigated was the hybrid model apparent in Super Rugby franchises. To ensure ongoing financial viability, the five Super Rugby teams in New Zealand were restructured in a public/private ownership mix. The restructure meant that the local grassroots associations in the teams’ geographic area owned a
percentage of the team and private investors owned a percentage. On balance, the
decision was made to develop the archetype under private ownership in line with top
sport leagues around the world (see Table 7).

Table 7 – Ownership Structures in the NFL, EPL, AFL, NHL and Super Rugby

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>League</th>
<th>Ownership Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Football League (NFL)</td>
<td>Private Ownership (except Green Bay Packers)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Premier League (EPL)</td>
<td>Private Ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Football League (AFL)</td>
<td>Member Based Companies Limited by Guarantee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super Rugby*</td>
<td>Public/Private Hybrid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Hockey League (NHL)</td>
<td>Private Ownership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*New Zealand conference only

The level of employment in sport organisations varies greatly. For example in
2015 Manchester United Football Club was identified as having 837 full-time
employees (Manchester United, 2015). The exact number is difficult to determine. As a
proxy self-reported data from the organisational LinkedIn accounts for the five leagues
were used. From the 105 teams, 95 teams had a LinkedIn presence that provided an
estimate of the organisations’ employees ranging from 1-10000+ (see Appendix 8).
Figure 10 demonstrates that 90% of the sport teams self-reported their numbers of
employees ranging between 51 and 500 individuals. The archetype was developed on
the basis that 68% of teams had a number of employees that ranged from 51-200.
Furthermore, as the archetype did not specify a type of sport the employee information
was phrased in a manner that did not include players as staff. Taking this into account
and on the basis that the sport teams investigated were some of the largest sport
organisations in the world, a conservative figure of 53 individuals was chosen to align
with the bottom end of this employee range.

Organisational revenue was difficult to determine given the global economies of
scale for the world’s largest sport competitions. For example the top 20 teams that play
in the English premier league had average revenues of US$174.9m in 2011-12,
conversely the top 92 teams in professional English football had an average revenue of
US$47.9 million (Deloitte Ltd, 2012). Across the 98 teams in Europe’s five largest
football markets England, Germany, France, Italy and Spain the average team revenue
was US$114.1m.
Two NFL teams the Dallas Cowboys and New England Patriots generated more revenue than the combined revenues of the 18 teams in the Australian Football League (Forbes, 2012; Ozanian, 2012). Given these disparities in revenue, and the view that these organisations were clearly the highest commercially orientated entities in team sport, their revenue figures were used as ceiling figures for the elite sport organisation archetype. A conservative approach to organisational revenues was taken of $59 million dollars for Scottsdale Sports Club. For context, that is slightly higher than the average professional football team in England.

The history, structure and market position of Scottsdale Sport Club were designed to represent a moderate privately owned elite sports club in a commercialised sport league. The archetypal nature of Scottsdale is designed not to be commensurate with a single type of sport. The intent of the archetypal development is not to represent a single type of sport, rather to be able to comment regarding a context that clearly and coherently represents an archetypal elite sport organisational form.

**Oldtown Sport Club**

The Oldtown Sport Club was designed to be a large community sport organisation within a given community. The club has five men’s, two women’s and eight junior teams. Over the past decade the club has averaged around 130 senior members and 250-300 junior members, although no indication is given of the current level of membership. The senior membership base is similar in size to that of clubs in the UK who average 114 adult members; however the junior club is much larger than...
the UK average of 90 juniors (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2014). In the UK setting the Oldtown Sport Club would be comparable to an athletics, tennis, bowls or triathlon club (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2014). Nevertheless, club size is variable. Wicker and Breuer (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) outline that clubs in Germany average 420 members, with 15.3% having more than 800 members, whilst Scotland averages 133 members with the actual number likely to be even lower given the multitude of large clubs in a small population (Allison, 2001). The sport club is locally embedded in the community with links to schools, government and businesses. This is in line with the concept that community sport organisations have network resources that they can leverage such as schools, kindergartens, business enterprises and health insurance providers (Wicker & Breuer, 2011).

The Alliance Report (2014) identified that the average UK sport club had 24 volunteers with one or two paid staff; one of the paid staff was normally the coach. Wicker and Breuer (2011) found that German sport clubs averaged 23 central and 73 secondary volunteers, on average 10.7 people volunteered on the board and one-in-three clubs had a paid staff member of some description. Given the larger junior supporter base assumed in the archetype, three paid positions were outlined (senior and junior coaches and operations manager) with the remainder of the positions been filled by volunteers.

Oldtown Sports Club is a non-profit organisation governed by a 12-person board, annual revenues of around $500,000 and a healthy $55,000 surplus in the bank. The archetype had larger revenues than most sports clubs other than golf clubs (£418 830) in the UK, with the average club income at £42,845. Community sport organisation revenue averages ranged from £4844 (baseball/softball) to £128434 (rugby union) (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2014). Conceptually, Oldtown Sport Club is described as a large sport club that was 3-5 times larger than the average sport club based on revenue. Furthermore, Oldtown is in the majority of sport clubs that have an operating surplus (48%) compared to those that are either breaking even (28%) or in deficit (24%) (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2014). In Germany, the average revenue for a sport club was €57186 from a mixture of member fees, public subsidies, economic activities and other activities (Wicker & Breuer, 2011).

In summary, the Oldtown Sport Club is designed as a comparative archetype to the national and elite sport archetypes. The organisation is in line with club sizes outlined in the literature and has a higher level of revenue. The purpose of this archetype is its use as an alternative position to the other two archetypes.
3.6 Data Collection

Round 1

The Delphi process occurred in three successive rounds. Each survey round sequentially built on the previous round. The first round invited the entire expert sample frame to participate in the survey. A project website was established to provide participants with a central location for the project information and to aid in recruitment (www.socialsportproject.com) (Appendix 9). The site contained information about the project, plain language statements and a project overview in the form of a two-minute video. Participants were also emailed directly via the emails attained on their publically available webpages. Each participant was given an “information for participants” document that provided an overview of the research project, project scenarios, and benefits from participating, how the information will be used, potential risks and information regarding the research team conducting the study (Appendix 10). The initial survey contained four archetypal contexts outlined above, a consent form (Appendix 11). The three survey rounds are presented in appendices 12, 13 and 14.

The first survey asked two questions for each of the three archetypal organisations. The first question asked participants to identify, on a five-point Likert scale, the relative importance of each of the 25 items developed from the literature review and refined during the pilot study.

Q1) Please identify the relative importance of [ORGANISATION NAME] intentionally addressing the below social responsibility issues.

A five-point Likert scale was developed to rate issues from very low, low, moderate, high to very high importance for each respective item. There was no clear consistency between scale developments in previous sport management studies. Various studies used various scales suitable to their particular research context ranging from four (Kelly et al., 2013), to five (Mallen et al., 2010) and seven point scales (Bowers et al., 2014; Costa, 2005). In reviewing consensus measures of Delphi methods, von der Gracht (2012, pp. 1529-1530) identified “the determination of consensus by a certain level of agreement is particularly meaningful if nominal scales or Likert scales are used for the degree of agreement”. A five-point Likert scale was deemed appropriate for the research questions asked. Furthermore, given the repetitious nature of responding to 75 items (three organisations by a 25 social responsibility item list); there was a practical intent to produce a format that was timely to complete. The second question allowed for the addition of any additional items to the
item list that would be included in the second round. This question was open ended and particularly pertinent as it gave the expert panel an opportunity to identify items not identified in the pilot project. The open ended nature of these questions allowed for responses to be included in the second round and for the participant group to identify any social responsibility issues that were excluded in the initial item development.

2) Do you think the organisation has an obligation to fulfil any additional important social responsibilities that we may have missed?

The final question outlined a generic open-ended question that allowed participants to provide any additional information they felt relevant to the research project.

3) Any additional comments?

Round 2

The second round built on the data gathered in the first round. The purpose of the second round was twofold. First to give participants the opportunity to consider their answers in response to the median group answers, and second, to prioritise specific items that participants identified as important in the first round. The first question was presented as follows:

1) The first question gives you the opportunity to reconsider the importance of social responsibility issues in light of group responses if both of the following conditions are met: a) The level of agreement for the issue within the group is below 90%, and b) Your response was greater than one rating scale point away from the median group response.

Both the median group response and the individuals' response were presented in round two. Next to these the original five point Likert scale was presented with a sixth option of “no change”, and an optional open ended question text box to present any “reasoning for maintaining current response outside of group agreement”. Pragmatic considerations were considered here also. Participants did not have to re-rank items that had already reached 90% consensus (within one rating scale point of the median value). Where this consensus measure was not reached only those participants that were outside one rating scale point were given the opportunity to revise their responses.
in light of group opinion. The second question was a repeat of the format of questions in the first round and asked participants to:

2) Rank additional items that were nominated as important by participants and not included in the first round.

Eight additional items were added in the second round and re-ranked by the participant groups.

Round 3

The third and final round of the Delphi sequence diverted from traditional Delphi methods that normally continues until established levels of agreement are reached. The third round instead sought to discriminate further between those issues that had reached consensus in the second round. To achieve this, the third round asked prioritising questions and qualitative open-ended questions to determine the actions an organisation could take to achieve the five highest social responsibility priorities.

For each of the items that had reached consensus amongst the expert group, participants were asked to rank the first to the fifth highest social responsibility priorities for the particular organisation in question. From this participants were asked to elaborate on actions that they believed the archetypal organisation could undertake to effectively demonstrate the intent to act in a socially responsible manner. Each participant was asked the following questions:

1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of each organisation to behave in a “socially responsible” way for the long term?

2) Which action(s) could each organisation undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1?

The results were collated and a priority order generated from the third and final round of the study. A thankyou email was sent to participants following their completion.
3.7 Data Analysis

The data were analysed using basic quantitative and qualitative procedures. First, data were analysed using simple descriptive statistics during the data collection phase to determine the level of agreement in each stage. Second, between case analyses occurred to determine the differences in social responsibility profiles between each organisational archetype (e.g. RM-ANOVA,). Finally, within case analysis occurred for each organisation on the basis of weighting the most important social responsibility issues. Participant statements that best identified the social responsibility issue or dimension were interpreted and used to illustrate the expert responses.

3.7.1 Determinants of Consensus

Determinants of consensus are central to the conceptualisation of social responsibility in this project. As von der Gracht (2012) describes that results can change significantly with the choice of consensus measures adopted. In the medical field, Naylor, Basinki, Baigrie et al (1990) demonstrated that depending on how consensus is defined, consensus can range from 0% consensus for total agreement between all participants to 23.2% consensus if the simple majority (e.g. 50% agreement) was deemed appropriate by the researchers.

Given the breadth of consensus measures available, two relatively conservative measures of consensus were chosen. The first two Delphi rounds asked participants to rate the importance of social responsibility items on a five-point Likert scale. Consensus was determined based on the median value due to the use of the ordinal scale data. The first consensus determinate was for central responses. If the median response was between two and four inclusive, the level of consensus was 90% of the expert group within one rating scale point of the median value. For example if the median value is three then consensus is reached when 90% of the expert panel respond within two, three or four. That is, there is not a strong group of outliers. The second consensus determinant was for extreme responses. If the interpolated media value was less than two or greater than four then the consensus threshold was lowered to 80% of the expert panel responding within one rating scale point. Consensus under these conditions occurs when 80% of the expert group respond between one and two, or, four and five. Because there is one less rating scale point to determine consensus, the level of consensus is lowered by 10%.
### 3.7.2 Discrimination of Responsibility Issues between and within Archetypes

The analysis of the Delphi data occurred between and within the three organisational archetypes. Inter-archetype analysis was conducted between each archetype using a two-factor repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) to determine the perceived importance of social responsibility, organisational archetype and the category/archetype interaction. One-factor ANOVA’s were completed to identify any variance in perceived importance of the respective social responsibility categories between each archetype.

Intra-archetype analysis also occurred individually within each organisational archetype. The highest perceived social responsibility priorities were determined by applying a weighting factor developed in the final round of the Delphi process to the social responsibility issues that reached consensus in second round. The weighting factor was calculated from the participants that identified their top five social responsibility priorities in the final round. The sum of priority scores was divided by the maximum possible sum that could be given to a single social responsibility issue. This fraction was added to 1.0 to develop the weighting factor. The weighted means of the most important social responsibility issues allowed the research team to more clearly discriminate between the social responsibility issues that reached consensus and were identified as highly important within a given archetype. Subsequently, perceived similarities and differences in social responsibility configurations were able to be further explored.

### 3.8 Research Design and Methodology

The research design and methodology chapter has extensively outlined the development and design of the Delphi method used in this research and the underpinning construction of the expert panel participants, social responsibility items and archetypal development.

An overview of the data collection and data analysis was also presented in a truncated format in this chapter. This is intentional and designed to complement the article format of the forthcoming discussion chapters. Each chapter contains a standard methodology section that includes and extends upon several aspects of the data collection and data analysis used in this research. Due to the constraints of the article format the participant selection, archetype development, and item development are presented in an abridged format within each chapter. Chapter four presents the
between archetype findings in response to research question one, whilst chapters five, six and seven present the results to research questions two, three and four. Following this is an integrated discussion (chapter eight) that aims to bring each stand-alone chapter together into a cohesive final discussion.
CHAPTER FOUR - RESULTS

4.1 Configurations of Responsibility in Sport Organisations

Abstract
The social responsibility of organisations is premised on the realisation that all organisations have a responsibility to society. However, less is known about the responsibility of organisations that are not corporate. The purpose of this article is to explore how perceptions of social responsibility vary between different types of sport organisations. The study draws on established management concepts of neo-institutional theory and configurations to develop three archetypes: a community sport organisation (CSO), a national sport organisation (NSO) and an elite sport organisation (ESO). A global expert panel was formed from senior sport management academics and national sport organisation managers in 12 countries (n=56). This research used the Delphi method that asked global experts to rate the importance of social responsibility issues for each organisational configuration in three sequential survey rounds. The results indicated that each archetype shared operational responsibilities regarding financial and legal responsibilities, but differed in areas of inclusive participation (CSO, NSO); anti-corruption and staff training (ESO, NSO); winning (ESO); social capital and community cohesion (CSO); and, ethical leadership (NSO). In summary, organisations possess a socially constructed configuration of responsibilities to society. The perception of what are important social responsibilities within a configuration varies between institutional environments. Understanding social responsibility as an organisational concept, as extension of it largely being a corporate concept, is perhaps more important to sport management studies due to the prevalence and variety of non-profit organisational forms within the sport industry. In practice, social responsibility may bring together the various social expectations placed on sport organisations into a single multidimensional framework of organisational responsibility that is specific to an organisation’s context.

Highlights:
- Social responsibility in sport organisations is not synonymous with corporate social responsibility.
- Social responsibility is finite and contingent on environment and resources.
- Sport organisations have distinct configurations of social responsibility.
- For sport organisations economic and legal actions are “social” responsibilities.

Keywords: social responsibility; sport; configurational approach; non-profit
1. Introduction

Social responsibility of organisations has largely been conceptualised within a single organisational form, that of corporate organisations. In this paper the view of “corporate” social responsibility is challenged on the basis that the term “corporate” is a limited qualifier that artificially restricts the heterogeneity of responsibilities that different organisations have to society. Non-profit, business and government organisations are conceptualised to be part of the abstract meta-category of “organisation” (Bromley & Meyer, 2013). The “organisation” has a multitude of responsibilities to society that can be summarised as social, environmental and economic (Elkington, 1997). Stated differently, a community sport organisation does not have the “corporate” responsibility of a sporting goods manufacturer, in the same way that a sporting goods manufacturer does not have “non-profit” specific social responsibilities. At the outset of this paper we postulate that each organisational type has an identifiable form of responsibility to society that is influenced by its institutional environment. Organisations are “social units (or human groups) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals” (Etzioni, 1964, p. 3). The concept of social responsibility is considered variable and contingent on the particular context of the organisation.

In sport management studies there is an opportunity to expand the social responsibility discourse due to the heterogeneity of organisational forms that exist in the sport industry (Slack, 2014; Westerbeek, 2000). Within sport there is a need to expand our understanding of organisational responsibility beyond the work that has been done in regard to corporate sport settings.

Social Responsibility in an Inter-institutional Society

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a dynamic concept that has become an increasingly important area of investigation for management researchers over the past several decades (Rivoli & Waddock, 2011). The term CSR is generally understood to mean the “responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society” (European Commission, 2011, p. 6). Expectations of socially responsible behaviour vary between national contexts. In the United States social responsibility has traditionally been seen as an explicit set of actions communicated in the language of philanthropic and discretionary activities of the organisation. In contrast, traditional European views to CSR conceptualise a more holistic approach that widely reflect implicit legal and normative expectations of society (Matten & Moon, 2008). The more expansive European view of responsibility includes issues such as human rights; labour and employment practices; environmental issues; anti-corruption; community involvement;
disability inclusion; privacy; social and environmental responsibility in the supply chain; financial disclosure; and volunteerism (European Commission, 2011, p. 7). This research broadly conceptualises social responsibility as the aggregate of multiple social responsibilities.

Society is an amalgam of various institutional systems. Based on Friedland and Alford’s (1991) work, Thornton and Ocasio (2008, p. 104) conceptualise society as “an inter-institutional system of societal sectors in which each sector represents a different set of expectations for social relations and human and organisational behaviour”. This inter-institutional worldview is apparent in global social responsibility measurement. The Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) was launched in 1999 as a measure of social responsibility and has become a prime standard of social responsibility measurement for organisations (Tschopp & Nastanski, 2013). A reason for the GRI’s success as a measure of CSR is its relevance in different industrial sectors (e.g. mining, media, food processing organisations) (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012a). The practice of diversifying social responsibility measurement demonstrates that social responsibilities (plural) are socially constructed and contingent upon the institutional environment.

**The Social Construction of Social Responsibility Configurations**

Social construction implies that individuals construct and reconstruct their knowledge of the world they live in (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). In the context of social responsibility Dahlsrud (2008, p. 6) states that social responsibility is “socially constructed in a specific context”. For example, the relationship between the social and financial performance of organisations is socially constructed dependent on the dominance of institutional logics within an academic field (Orlitzky, 2011). Furthermore, organisations that operate under dissimilar institutional logic in diverse industries have demonstrated variable social responsibility practices (Godfrey et al., 2010). The premise that realities are socially constructed aligns with Godfrey et al. (2010) contention that CSR practice is pluralistic, and not a singular “one size fits all” paradigm.

Contingency theory suggests that realities are socially constructed and consequently there is no “best” way to establish an organisation within a given environment. Developed from this premise, the configurational approach discusses that groups of organisations share common combinations of characteristics (Meyer, Tsui, & Hinings, 1993; Miller & Friesen, 1984). The practice of investigating organisational configurations has a long and diverse history in the management and sociology literature (Short, Payne, & Ketchen, 2008). Organisational structures (Mintzberg, 1980);
strategies (Porter, 1980); ideal types (Weber, 1947); typologies (Miles & Snow, 1978); taxonomies (Hambrick, 1984) and archetypes (Miller & Friesen, 1978) are good illustrations of the use of configurations in seminal organisational management literature. The effectiveness of archetypes has been exemplified in sport management literature as a tool to explain change and professionalisation of national sport governing organisations (Kikulis et al., 1992). Adopting the position that corporate social responsibility "is based in sociology and management" (Whetten et al., 2002, p. 379), the configurational approach has value in explaining corporate social responsibility.

There have been several attempts to demonstrate the configuration of an organisation's responsibility to society (Carroll, 1991; Porter & Kramer, 2011; Schwartz & Carroll, 2008; Wood, 1991)\(^5\). A social responsibility configuration is the aggregate of social responsibilities exhibited by an organisation. Most renowned is Carroll's (1979, p. 500) four category configuration that defines social responsibility as encompassing "the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time". Carroll's (1979) categorical configuration has been the dominant paradigm in the study of corporate social responsibility from the management perspective over the last four decades. The definition was later developed into the "pyramid of social responsibility" (Carroll, 1991), and "fits" best when applied to corporate manufacturing and service industries (Pinkston & Carroll, 1996; Snow, Miles, & Miles, 2005). Carroll's (1979) configuration was adopted as the starting point for expanding the conceptualisation of sport organisations responsibility to society due to the models prevalence in social responsibility literature, simplicity and previous use to conceptualise social responsibility in elite team sport in the United States (Sheth & Babiak, 2010).

**Development of Social Responsibility in the Sport Industry**

Differentiating between the social responsibility via sport and the social responsibility of sport debates is important. Social responsibility via sport describes the use of sport as an activity by non-sport organisations to fulfil various social responsibility and development goals (Coalter, 2007; Houlihan & Green, 2011). Under this paradigm sport has several distinctive features that are appealing to achieve social objectives, including mass media distribution, youth appeal, positive health impacts, social interaction, sustainability awareness, cultural understanding and integration, and immediate gratification benefits (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Alternatively, the social responsibility of sport encompasses the social responsibility efforts undertaken by sport

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\(^5\) For an overview of CSR definitions please see Dahlsrud (2008, pp. 7-11).
organisations. Babiak and Wolfe (2013, pp. 21-28) suggest that six “pillars of social responsibility in sport” exist, namely: labour relations (e.g. training for post playing career), environmental management and sustainability (e.g. new facility construction); community relations (e.g. community development programs); philanthropy (e.g. foundations attached to sport clubs); diversity and equity (e.g. measures to improve equal opportunities in employment), and, corporate governance (e.g. anti-corruption measures). The approach advances the concept of social responsibility in sport management by combining explicit (environment, community relations, philanthropy) and implicit (labour relations, governance, diversity and equity) social responsibilities, developed from social investment indices (Dow Jones Sustainability Index, Financial Times Stock Exchange), within the context of North American professional sport teams and leagues. At present, the conceptualisation of social responsibility is limited to highly commercialised sport settings. This research will use standardised indices to expand this conception to sport organisations that are not highly commercial organisations.

Research into social responsibility in sport management is in its formative years (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007) relative to management literature in general (Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1979, 1991, 1999; Davis, 1960, 1973; Friedman, 1970). The earlier research into social responsibility in the sport industry has been conducted in commercial settings such as professional sport clubs and sporting goods manufacturers (Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013). Waddington, Chelladurai and Skirstad (2013) describe the evolution of corporate social responsibility from the management literature to its transition into the sport management literature over the past two decades. They argue the “long-term development of CSR has occurred in a series of phases, or waves, each of which can be broadly understood as a response by corporates to criticism of what have been widely perceived as wrongful or socially irresponsible actions” (Waddington et al., 2013, p. 48). The presence of widespread and highly publicised social irresponsibility in both elite sport organisations and sporting goods manufacturers led to a relatively direct translation of the concept and subsequent expansion of corporate social responsibility principles and practice in the elite sport and sport manufacturing fields (Anagnostopoulos, Byers, & Shilbury, 2014; Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Breitbarth et al., 2011; Cobourn, 2014; DeTienne & Lewis, 2005; Filo, Funk, & O’Brien, 2013; Godfrey, 2009; Kihl, Babiak, & Tainsky, 2014; McGlone & Martin, 2006; Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013). The development of social responsibility principles and practice has not yet been extended to other fields of the sport industry.
Sport organisations have been identified as possessing idiosyncrasies that differentiate them from business organisations including: uncertainty of outcome, competitive balance and media scrutiny (Chadwick, 2011; Smith & Stewart, 2010; Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2014). However, such comparisons are constructed on the basis of an oversimplified dichotomy between a generic business organisation and elite competitive team sport organisation, and do not account for the heterogeneity of organisations within the sport industry. For example a community sport organisation does not have mass media coverage and the resultant pressure that comes from heightened media scrutiny. National sport governing bodies (NSO) do not conduct staff meetings in front of 50,000 irrationally optimistic fans. Neither is expected to deliver a financial return to shareholders. Sport organisations, and by extension the manner in which a sport organisation’s responsibility to society is socially constructed, is different in each organisational context.

This paper builds on the premise that all organisations have a responsibility to society and that such responsibilities are not limited to organisations that consider themselves “corporate” in nature. The emergence of the concept of social responsibility began in the mid-20th century in the corporate sector, and then expanded to sporting goods manufacturers in the 1990s. Social responsibility has primarily been investigated in the “sport industry” through the lens of highly commercialised sport organisations in the past decade. The almost exclusive research focus on elite sport and sport-manufacturing organisations has left a substantial gap in our understanding of the social responsibilities of sport organisations outside these specific contexts.

This study aims to investigate how perceptions of social responsibility vary between different types of sport organisations: a national sport organisation, a community sport organisation and an elite sport organisation. The research aims to answer two questions:

First, what are the perceived similarities and differences in social responsibility configurations between three types of sport organisation?

Second, what are differences in the relative importance assigned to Carroll’s (1979) four categories of social responsibility for three organisational archetypes in the sport industry?
2. Methodology

The Delphi technique is a consensus generating method designed to elicit responses from a group of experts on unknown, future or complex problems. A general definition of the technique is “a method for structuring a group communication process so that the process is effective in allowing a group of individuals, as a whole, to deal with a complex problem” (Linstone & Turoff, 2002, p. 3). The method, based on Martino (1983), has been used extensively to investigate several complex problems in sport management literature. Costa (2005) used a Delphi approach to survey 17 sport management scholars, predominately from the US to determine the future direction of the sport management field. Her approach was more exploratory in nature and involved an open response in the first round to set questions. The second and third round subsequently sought to generate consensus using a seven point Likert scales and probability measures. In the area of environmental management in sport facilities Mallen et al., (2010) selected senior managers from sport facilities, again with a North American focus. The 16 expert respondents were asked questions regarding the future uptake of environmentally sustainable projects within their sport facilities in the next five to 10 years and replicated Costa’s (2005) analytical techniques with the exception that a five point Likert scale was utilised instead of a seven-point scale. In an Australian example, Kelly et al., (2013) invited 26 health promotion experts to work toward consensus regarding health promotion in community sport. Unlike the previous two studies, this process provided initial scale items to participants and then analysed them based on a combination of ‘importance’ and ‘feasibility’ four-point Likert scales to generate consensus in the second and third rounds. A combination of these three approaches was utilised in this study. Identifying the responsibility of sport organisations to society is a complex problem that has only recently been conceptualised in the elite sport context (Breitbarth et al., 2011; Sheth & Babiak, 2010). However, identifying the social responsibilities of non-profit sport organisations (that form the majority of the sport industry) is relatively unknown.

Participants

Expert participants were selected on the basis of experience, general knowledge of the sport industry and ability to conceptualise the importance of multiple social responsibilities in the three archetypal sport organisations. In line with the broader view of social responsibility pertaining to the organisational whole (e.g. “the European view”), and in contrast to a narrower view of social responsibility as a specific program or confined set of explicit actions, executive managers and senior academics
were chosen in favour of social responsibility managers. Executive managers from national sport governing bodies formed the first part of the expert panel (n=159). Sport governing bodies routinely have to work at both elite and community levels of sport and were identified as appropriate industry experts for conceptualising social responsibility in each of the three organisational contexts. This approach builds on and broadens the methodology used in previous research in the US regarding the professional sport industry (Sheth & Babiak, 2010) that engaged elite sport team executives as an appropriate group to conceptualise perceptions of social responsibility in this context. Senior academics from the editorial boards of three sport management and one sport sociology journal (n=125) were included in the expert panel. Members of editorial boards were selected on the basis that they are considered sport experts with an ability to apply the concept of social responsibility to archetypal sport organisations from their respective disciplinary field of expertise. Combined, the panel consisted of sport management generalists from academia and industry, who were able to provide informed opinion on social issues in all three archetypal contexts. An initial sample of 284 sport management practitioners and academics were invited to participate in the research project (Table 2). The university ethics committee granted ethics approval in July 2013.

**Item Development and Piloting**

The social responsibility item list was developed from a review of the sport management and social responsibility literature, and, two globally used measures of social responsibility: the International Standards Organisation 26000 Guidance on Social Responsibility (ISO 26000) (International Organization for Standardization, 2010) and the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) 3.1 (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011). The process of item development occurred in three phases. First, the ISO 26000 and GRI’s item hierarchies were mapped. Mapping the documents identified 13 categories, 73 sub-categories and 363 actions, expectations and aspects (315 in ISO, 48 in the GRI) (issues). A review of the sport management and social responsibility literature was conducted and added to the initial item list. The ISO 26000 was used as the initial framework, comparable items were combined and multiple lower level items were aggregated around seven social responsibility categories and a preliminary item list of 66 issues.

During the second phase the research team used the seven categories as a framework of an organisation’s social responsibility configuration. The list of 66 issues was refined to those single issue(s) that most accurately reflected each social
responsibility category. In addition pragmatic considerations were made regarding the
time to complete each Delphi round; the level of detail provided in each case study and
the relevance of each social responsibility issue in the context of each case study. The
result of this process was a refined list of 25 social responsibility issues.

The third phase was based on Carroll’s (1979) definition of social responsibility
and was chosen in preference to later models (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008; Wood, 1991)
on the basis of its simple categorisation of social responsibility and explanatory power.
The research team coded each social responsibility item to one of the four social
responsibility categories a priori (economic, legal, ethical and discretionary).

The item list and survey were then piloted on 13 academics from an Australian
University. The intention of the pilot study was to check the wording of the items and
the likely completion time (Gratton & Jones, 2004). The survey was distributed to the
pilot group in June 2013. The survey distribution schedule allowed for a two-week
response period followed by a week for the research team to analyse the data and
provide controlled feedback in the form of median responses. This process was
subsequently repeated with the global expert panel in July and August 2013.

Archetypes

The concept of archetypes was adopted to represent common forms of
organisations (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988; Kikulis et al., 1992; Miller & Friesen, 1978). Based on Max Weber’s “ideal types”, archetypes construct “certain elements of reality into a logically precise conception” (Gerth & Mills, 1977, p. 59; Weber, 1947). Three archetypes were developed to represent: a community sport organisation, a national sport organisation and an elite sport organisation. Several internal and external characteristics were specified for each archetype including year of incorporation, number of employees, revenue, surplus/profit, number of members, number of participants, funding source, board structure and main products and services. The organisational archetypes were contextualised within an archetypal country with standardised information regarding mean age, life expectancy, GDP growth, inflation, political system, sports system and sports funding structure. In keeping with the tradition of configurational models, archetypal case studies were given to participants to represent each different organisation (Appendices 12, 13 and 14). Organisations were denoted by neutral names and no mention of specific sport characteristics, country of origin or identifying factors pertaining to a specific type of sport were included.
Data Collection

The Delphi method used in this research consisted of three sequential survey rounds aimed at generating consensus and identifying priorities within the social responsibility configurations of each organisation. Each survey round contained Likert scale items and open ended questions. The first survey contained 25 social responsibility items that the expert panel was asked to rank on a five point Likert scale (from one, very low importance to five, very high importance). The open ended questions in the first round allowed participants to identify items that they felt were important and not included in the initial 25 item list.

During the second round the expert panel was asked to rank eight additional items identified in the first round on the five point Likert scale of importance. The use of the Likert scale allowed for a threshold of consensus to be based on certain levels of agreement amongst experts. Levels of agreement have ranged from 51% agreement to more than 80% agreement on the top two measures on a five point Likert scale in previous studies and are “particularly meaningful if nominal scales or Likert scales are used” (von der Gracht, 2012, p. 1530). Based on these studies, consensus among the expert panel was reached under either one of two conditions. If the median value lay between two and four inclusive, then the condition of consensus was 90% of the expert panel responding within one rating scale point of the median value. If the interpolated median value was less than two, or greater than four, then the consensus threshold was lowered to 80% of the expert panel responding within one rating scale point.

When an item did not reach consensus after the first round, participants who responded outside consensus criteria where given the opportunity to maintain or revise their response in the second round. Participants were given controlled feedback in the form of the group median response, their first round response, and an open-ended question for elaboration of their perception of a responsibility item. The re-ranking allowed the participants to work toward consensus and determine whether there was a substantial subgroup that disagreed with the perceived importance of a particular item.

The third round was designed to achieve greater discrimination between social responsibilities regarded as important for each archetype, by focussing on prioritisation of key items within the social responsibility configuration of each archetype. The items that reached consensus and were identified as highly important for each organisational archetype were presented again to the expert panel. Each panel member identified

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6 The eight additional social responsibility items that were identified by respondents were subsequently coded to Carroll’s (1979) social responsibility configuration prior to round two.
7 For example if the median value is central (e.g. three) the consensus condition is that at least 90% of responses are two, three or four. However if the median is extreme (e.g. five) than the consensus condition is that at least 80% of responses are four or five.
their highest five organisational priorities for each archetype (coded five to one in descending order of priority) and indicated through open-ended responses how they would expect to see these actioned within the specific archetypal context.

**Data Analysis**

The data analysis occurred in two stages to address a) the perceived importance of Carroll’s social responsibility categories across archetypes and b) the prioritisation of social responsibility issues within archetypes.

Using the data from round two, a mean value of perceived importance was calculated for each of the four Carroll social responsibility categories with regard to each of the three archetypes. The 12 resulting variables were analysed in a 2-factor repeated measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) to test the effects on perceived importance of social responsibility category, organisational archetype and the interaction between social responsibility category and organisational archetype. Because there was a significant interaction, 1-factor ANOVAs (analyses of the simple effects) were conducted to test the differences in perceived importance between organisational archetypes within each social responsibility category. Post hoc pairwise comparisons were used to detect the pattern of significant differences. Where Mauchly’s test indicated a violation of sphericity (a key RM-ANOVA assumption) the Greenhouse-Geisser adjustment was used.

To determine the prioritisation of social responsibility, issues within each archetype data from round three was used. For each archetype a priority-based weighting factor was calculated for each item, by expressing the sum of priority scores for the item as a fraction of the maximum possible sum of priority scores, and adding this fraction to 1.0. The resulting weighting factor potentially ranged from 1.0 (no participant regarded the item as high priority) to 2.0 (all participants regarded the item as having the highest priority). The mean scores from round two were then multiplied by the weighting factor to produce a priority-weighted mean score.

**3. Results**

**Delphi Round One and Two**

In the first survey round 56 experts (33 academics and 23 industry experts) responded (19.7% response rate), 34 of whom were male and 22 female. The expert group was drawn from 12 countries and included industry experts representing 14 different sport governing bodies. During the first survey round participants identified a further eight social responsibility items that were added to the second survey list. Forty-
nine panellists responded to the second survey round (87.5% response rate). After the first two rounds 77 out of the 99 items (3 archetypes by 33 social responsibility issues) had reached consensus. Of the 77 items that reached consensus, 53 also had a mean value above high importance. The number of highly important issues that reached consensus varied between organisational archetypes. The national sport organisation (23) had the highest number of important social responsibility issues, followed by the community sport (17) and elite sport organisations (13).

In the two-way RM-ANOVA of perceived importance scores, there were significant main effects for social responsibility category (F (1.89, 90.79) = 62.23, p<.001) and organisational archetype (F (2, 96) = 13.13, p<.001), and a significant interaction between social responsibility category and organisational archetype (F (3.68, 176.69) = 11.32, p<.001). Because there was a significant interaction we also conducted an analysis of simple effects, i.e. four separate 1-factor RM-ANOVAs to test the differences between organisational archetypes within each social responsibility category. The results of these analyses are summarised in Table 8.

There were significant inter-archetype effects for all social responsibility categories except the economic category (Table 8). No significant differences were found between archetypes in the economic category. The expert panel perceived ethical (METH=4.25, p<.001) and discretionary (MDIS=3.77, p<.001) categories of social responsibility to be of higher importance in the national sport governing archetype compared to the elite sport archetype (MDIS=3.47; METH=3.95). Additionally, the national sport governing archetype was identified as possessing higher perceived legal (MLEG=4.28, p<.001) and ethical (METH=4.25, p<.001) social responsibilities than the community sport archetype (MLEG=3.90; METH=4.01). The elite sport archetype had a higher perceived legal (MLEG=4.19, p<.001) responsibility than the community sport archetype (MLEG=3.90).

Round 3

In the third round 28 usable responses were received, a response rate of 61.2%. To discriminate between the priority areas for social responsibility in the third and final round participants were asked to nominate in order of priority, their top five social responsibility issues for each archetypal organisation. Table 9 shows the three archetypal organisations and the 33 social responsibility issues ranked by the expert group. Social responsibility issues that were rated on average above four ("highly important") and had reached consensus, are indicated by the grey shading in Table 9. The shading indicates the patterns of perceived importance, for example whether the
issue was perceived to be important in three, two, one or zero of the archetypal organisations. The perceived priority of the issue was given a numerical “rank” next to the mean responses of each item. The purpose of ranking the values was to easily visualise the differences in importance between social responsibility items. For example the item “maximise participation in the sport” was ranked the highest in both the sport governing and community sport archetypes to indicate the item was the highest perceived priority. Conversely, the participation item was ranked 27th in the elite sport archetype.

A set of seven “social responsibility dimensions” was identified on the basis of the perceived importance of social responsibility items in each archetype. These differ from Carroll’s categories and were developed from interpretations of third round data a posteriori (as opposed to a priori based on Carroll’s CSR categories). An item was assigned to a particular dimension according to the archetype or combination of archetypes for which its priority-weighted mean score was above 4.0 (“highly important”). A name was then assigned to each dimension based on the commonalities among the items assigned to that dimension. Seven social responsibility dimensions were identified: operational; inclusive participation; competition integrity and training; ethical leadership; winning; social capital and community cohesion, and non-essential social responsibilities. Table 9 presents the seven social responsibility dimensions.
### Table 8 – RM-ANOVA of Inter-Archetype Variance in Carroll’s CSR Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CSR Category</th>
<th>ECONOMIC</th>
<th>LEGAL</th>
<th>ETHICAL</th>
<th>DISCRETIONARY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F (dF, M)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>F (dF, M)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F(2, 96) = 2.74, p = .07</td>
<td>F(2, 96) = 34.97, p &lt; .001</td>
<td>F(1.78, 85.24) = 19.20, p &lt; .001</td>
<td>F(2, 96) = 8.59, p &lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Err</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Err</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESO</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSO</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESO</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9 – Social Responsibility Dimensions of Three Archetypal Sport Organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Responsibility Dimensions</th>
<th>Carroll CSR Category (1979)</th>
<th>Sport Governing Archetype</th>
<th>Community Sport Archetype</th>
<th>Elite Sport Archetype</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operational</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by assuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks and possess appropriate training</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to owners/members</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure the organisation is an equal opportunity employer</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise the use of the organisation's sports facilities</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inclusive Participation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8 Items were coded to Carroll’s CSR categories: economic (ECO); Legal (LEG); ethical (ETH) and Discretionary (DIS).
9 There were two results in which the threshold for high importance was reached (4) and consensus within the group was not. In these cases the social responsibility item was excluded from the respective social responsibility category.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the 'uncertainty of outcome' within a sporting contest and/or the organisation's integrity</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Ethical Leadership</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop equality and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Publicly stating social goals and performance indicators</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>24</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through subsidies, access times, locations etc.</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Winning</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Prioritise on field sporting success within the organisation</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Social Capital and Community Cohesion</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Non-essential</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise health promotion opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
<td>ETH</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Implement socially responsible procurement practices within the supply chain</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Overtly express the freedom to associate and collectively bargain</td>
<td>LEG</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
<td>DIS</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>33</td>
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4. Discussion

This paper is the first to consider the contingent nature of social responsibility in across various organisational contexts in the sport industry. The aim of the study was to identify the range of social responsibilities of sport organisations and to explore the variation between those configurations. Carroll’s (1979) formative configuration of social responsibility into economic, legal, ethical and discretionary categories was used as a simple explanatory model. The results indicated that the community sport organisation had a lower legal responsibility than both the NSO and the elite sport archetype. The NSO had a higher ethical responsibility than both the community and elite sport archetypes. The NSO also had a greater discretionary responsibility than the elite sport organisation. Differential perceptions of social responsibilities in different contexts provided the impetus for a more in-depth discussion into social responsibility dimensions. Overall, the findings of this study indicate seven dimensions of similarities (operational responsibilities, inclusive participation, competition integrity and staff training, and non-essential social responsibilities) and differences (ethical leadership, winning and social capital and community cohesion) between the configurations of social responsibility in each archetype. These seven dimensions of social responsibility will now be discussed.

Operational Social Responsibilities

The expert panel identified nine social responsibilities that were highly important in all three archetypes. Collectively, these issues were classified as operational social responsibilities. Operational social responsibilities included economic, legal and ethical issues pertaining to the daily operations of an organisation (financial viability, occupational health and safety, equal opportunity and facility use). Operational social responsibilities refer to managerial and bureaucratic organisational logics that promote formal business plans as a means to ensure ongoing financial viability, and, adherence to laws and regulations (Gammelsaeter, 2010). Operational responsibilities primarily account for areas of responsibility that have strong normative expectations attached to them. In many respects these responsibilities represent a broader (European) view of implicit actions that are more in line with those “that reflect wider policy arrangements” rather than explicit (North American) views of social responsibilities aligned with philanthropy (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 405). For example, financial management and injury prevention are implicit social responsibility issues, something that society expects an organisation should do. Organisations are only negatively influenced by implicit social responsibilities when they are breached (e.g. concussion, financial
transparency). In many respects operational responsibilities represent an organisation meeting society’s basic implicit expectations of an organisation, prior to taking action to exceed them via explicit social responsibility programs and actions.

When social irresponsibility in sport organisations does occur it is often due to a breach in daily “implicit” operational responsibilities. In most recent and highly publicised controversies the main issues included financial irresponsibility in European football (Perry & Leach, 2012); concussion related injury in American football jeopardising the occupational health and safety of players, and resulting in class action lawsuits against the National Football League (Hanna & Kain, 2010); heightened exposure of gender inequality in employment, remuneration and media coverage (Adriaanse & Schofield, 2014; Flake, Dufur, & Moore, 2013); and, failure to protect children and appropriately accredit coaching staff in community sport organisations (Lang & Hartill, 2014; Parent & Demers, 2011). Incidences of breaches in operational responsibilities suggest that the social responsibility of sport organisations should begin with the skillful management of day-to-day operations. This is a pragmatic and seemingly obvious finding. However, it does have implications for the conceptual development and practice of socially responsible management in the sport industry. Social responsibility begins with the fulfillment of fundamental operational responsibilities that are seemingly obvious when explicitly stated, however frequently overlooked when implicitly assumed, as the above examples of “irresponsibility” demonstrate. Adopting Carroll’s (1979) framework of social responsibility, we suggest each of the three archetypes share common operational responsibilities (predominately economic and legal) that form the basis of an organisation’s configuration of social responsibilities to society. Beyond operational responsibilities we argue that the social responsibility varies between organisational types. The manner in which expert perception of social responsibility varies between archetypes provides the stimulus for the remainder of the discussion.

Inclusive Participation Social Responsibilities

_Inclusive participation_ was identified as an important dimension of social responsibility for the national sport organisation (NSO) and community sport archetypes, but not the elite sport archetype. Seven social responsibilities were considered important for inclusive participation including: maximising the number of participants and volunteers; creating an accessible and inclusive sport setting, with a particular emphasis on social equality procedures (gender, race, disability); and, governance frameworks to achieve social objectives within a diverse stakeholder
environment. Maximising participation in the sport was the most important social responsibility issue for both archetypes, higher than ensuring financial viability\(^\text{10}\). Furthermore, in both organisations experts perceived creating an accessible and inclusive sport setting to be more important than ensuring fiscal responsibility to owners/members. The emphasis of non-financial issues challenges several of the assumptions held in “corporate” social responsibility.

The underlying premise of the business case for social responsibility is that improved social performance may correlate with improved financial performance, or simply, the doing good to do well argument (McWilliams & Siegel, 2000; Vogel, 2006). However, the inverse relationship is seemingly more appropriate for describing the relationship between social and financial performance in NSO’s and CSO’s. By virtue of maintaining daily operations in a sustainable way, non-profit sport organisations create socially beneficial outcomes. An example of this is maximising sport participation. Nicholson, Hoye, and Houlihan (2011) assert that increasing sport participation generates several benefits for society including: increasing the talent pool for elite sport, improving social interaction and acting as a preventative measure to a variety of population health problems faced in modern Western societies. Therefore, within the limits of good governance and appropriate use of resources the business case justification for social responsibility is reversed. By doing well financially NSO’s and CSO’s are able to produce more socially beneficial outcomes. However, the features of inclusive participation were not found in the elite sport organisation archetype. We therefore argue that inclusive participation is a distinctive dimension of the social responsibility configuration in the community and national sport organisation archetypes.

**Competition Integrity and Training Social Responsibilities**

The dimension of *competition integrity and training* is specific to national sport organisation and elite sport archetypes and contains three social responsibilities: anti-corruption; adherence to anti-competitive behaviour; and, training and personal development to facilitate player transition post career. The competition integrity and training dimension was not identified as highly important to the community sport archetype. Elite teams and leagues have devoted extensive resources to develop anti-corruption measures within their sport. Michel Platini, president of the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) identified match fixing as the biggest threat to

\(^{10}\) Ensuring financial viability was the 3\(^{\text{rd}}\) and 5\(^{\text{th}}\) highest social responsibility priorities in the national sport organisation and local sport organisational archetypes respectively.
European football, his colleagues in various sporting codes around the world have echoed similar sentiments (Maennig, 2005). In 2013 a Europol investigation found that a “total of 425 match officials, club officials, players, and serious criminals, from more than 15 countries, are suspected of being involved in attempts to fix more than 380 professional football matches” (Europol, 2013). The consequence of corruption affecting the legitimacy and integrity of elite sport competitions creates the need for organisations to include broader anti-corruption measures and training into their social responsibility configurations than may be the case in other industrial sectors.

Professional development (training) is also required for athletes to ensure their welfare as they transition toward retirement. Many athletes find the transition to retirement difficult, and the process can lead to negative outcomes for their physical (e.g. long term injury) and mental (e.g. depression and anxiety) health, social relationships, and financial stability post-career (Fox, West, & Drew, 2012; Guskiewicz et al., 2007; Schwenk, Gorenflo, Dopp, & Hipple, 2007). Training and development is particularly important for athletes who may not be able to equally pursue educational and vocational opportunities due to their athletic sporting career (Aquilina & Henry, 2010). Unlike other sectors of institutional life it is incumbent on elite sport organisations and sport governing bodies, particularly when they focus on the athletic development of minors, to include personal development and training as a key social responsibility consideration.

**Distinctive Social Responsibilities**

The results demonstrated few *distinctive* social responsibilities. Out of the 33 social responsibilities in each of the three archetypes (99 in total), only six responsibilities were identified as highly important in only one archetype. This indicates that although social responsibility configurations are different between archetypes, substantial similarities also exist. Each archetype had one distinctive social responsibility dimension: the elite sport archetype had a focus on *winning*; the community archetype on *social capital and community cohesion*; and a cluster of responsibilities focused on *ethical leadership* for the national sport organisation.

The national sport organisation (NSO) archetype had four social responsibilities that made up the distinctive dimension of *ethical leadership*, these included: raising awareness of social issues, publically stating social goals, providing equitable access to the sport and developing social responsibility resources. As the peak national governing organisation for a sport, experts perceived ethical and moral leadership a key aspect of a NSO’s responsibility to society. This distinguishes the NSO social
responsibility configuration from other organisations. Corporations and other sport organisations are not obligated to create regulation and standards for affiliated organisations to abide by, or set the social policy agenda. The creation of regulation and social policy makes the configuration of social responsibility distinctive from other organisations. The social responsibility configuration of the NSO was perceived by the expert panel to be the most extensive, containing 23 social responsibilities. The duel factors of elite performance and inclusive participation led to the NSO demonstrating a more complex social responsibility configuration than the two sport club archetypes.

The elite sport archetype’s distinctive dimension was a prioritisation of winning within the social responsibility configuration. Neither of the other two archetypes placed as high an importance on this characteristic. Winning is a logical priority of an elite sport organisation, it is often implicit and thus overlooked as an explicit responsibility action. Whether a focus on winning is either beneficial or detrimental is not the critical question asked. Rather, the principle that on-field performance will play a central role in organisational strategy, resource allocation and remain a key mandate for the organisation’s existence is at the core of the analysis. At the organisational level, sporting performance therefore needs to be considered an important social responsibility for an elite sport organisation. Whilst on-field performance was distinctive to the social responsibility configuration of an elite sport archetype it needs to be considered within the broader set of responsibilities discussed throughout this section.

The distinctive social responsibility dimension for the community sport organisation archetype was contributing to social capital and community cohesion. The prevalence of social capital principles is extensive within the sport management literature for community sport organisations (Hoye & Nicholson, 2008; Seippel, 2008), and provides a good indication of the explicit requirement of a community sport organisation to be active in the local community (Zakus, Skinner, & Edwards, 2009). Community sport organisations have distinct characteristics of a small geographic reach and high community involvement in the daily operations by volunteers and players. Therefore, building social capital and community cohesion is a pragmatic extension of the organisational context. Whilst this is intuitively obvious, it is distinctive in comparison to organisations with a larger geographic reach or professional workforce, such as governing bodies or elite sport organisations (Walker & Parent, 2010). Consequently when the social responsibility of a community sport organisation is conceptualised, community building activities such as local fundraisers, school partnerships and social interaction within the club become central characteristics of the social responsibility of the organisation in that specific context. Using this example, it is
clear that a community sport organisation does have an apparent responsibility to society; on the other hand the organisation’s responsibility is clearly non-corporate in nature.

Non-essential Social Responsibilities

The results indicate that eight social responsibilities did not reach consensus or were rated as below high importance in each of the three archetypes. Sixteen additional issues were not considered highly important in at least one of the archetypes. Combined, these issues formed the *non-essential* dimension of responsibilities within the social responsibility configurations of each archetype and incorporated local investment, donation of surplus resources and community education. Conceptually the non-essential dimension represents a conceptual advance in social responsibility literature and responds to the lack of research investigating what social issues are beyond the responsibility of an organisation. The identification of a concept of social responsibility that is subject to limitations could add value in socially responsible management by identifying what actions are optional in a particular context. By focusing on a limited set of high priority social responsibilities, sport organisations can legitimately address some criticisms of social responsibility such as determining success based on measures of organisational, rather than social benefit, or (not) evaluating the long term influence of their actions on society (Levermore, 2011, 2013; Walker, Heere, & Kim, 2013). Using an example to illustrate the point, the priority for a socially responsible community sport organisation is to devote resources to maximise participation and provide a safe and inclusive sporting environment. If these primary goals are not met, then it is questionable whether social responsibilities with a lower organisational priority could be legitimately pursued (e.g. donate to a local charity or provide education opportunities). All organisations face resource constraints, therefore the most important social responsibilities should be prioritised.

The conceptualisation of social responsibility into a holistic organisational configuration extends the corporate concept of social responsibility toward applicability in non-profit sport contexts. The social responsibility of an organisation is not based on a single issue. Rather a coordinated response to multiple social responsibilities simultaneously. Therefore, whilst individual social responsibilities have been investigated in sport governing (e.g. corruption in FIFA and the IOC (Jennings, 2011; Mason et al., 2006)) and community sport (e.g. social capital (Hoye & Nicholson, 2008)) contexts; this research conceptualises such issues as distinctive aspects within a broader, multidimensional configuration of responsibility to society.
Limitations and Implications

There were several limitations in this study. Archetypes were used as a tool for conceptual development. Using archetypes as conceptual tools enabled the concept of social responsibility to be extended to organisational contexts that are not commonly associated with social responsibility thinking. Archetypes also enabled common organisational forms to be expressed and contextual variables to be idealised based on shared characteristics. Despite the purposeful design of archetypes as common forms of organisations, their use as a conceptual tool and subsequent analysis limits the statistical generalisability of the findings.

Additionally, the sample frame was selected from review boards of sport management journals and publically available NSO websites and this limits the research in two ways. The response rate to round one was 19.7%. The response rate was consistent with previous Delphi studies; however given the subjectivity of “social responsibility” it is possible that participants were more likely to participate in the research if they had strong opinions of social responsibility. Finally, only sport management academics and NSO managers were selected on the basis that they were more likely to have applicable knowledge of each organisational context. Participants from community and elite sport organisations were not represented in the expert panel due to the likelihood their knowledge of organisations was not transferable across organisational contexts. In research following this project, such community and elite club experts may be consulted specifically to deepen our knowledge in one organisational context.

Practice is the application of theory. Whilst business management has increasingly embraced social responsibility education, the call for sport managers to be educated in areas of social responsibility has only recently been suggested (Bradish, Mallen, & Wolff, 2013). Furthermore, if the evolution of corporate considerations of social responsibility can act as a blue print for the development of social responsibility in the sport industry, it is likely that the dissemination of sector specific measures of social responsibility may become the norm in future. Sport managers would be well served to understand their organisations’ social responsibility and benchmark themselves against similar organisations.

5. Conclusions

This paper has demonstrated that perceptions of social responsibility vary between different types of sport organisations. The results of the investigation show
that the perceived importance of Carroll's (1979) legal, ethical and discretionary social responsibility categories varied between archetypes. The work contributes to our existing knowledge of social responsibility in the sport industry in three main ways. First, this research advances the position that all organisations have a responsibility to society. Second, perceived configurations of social responsibilities vary between organisations in different institutional environments. Finally, this research made progress towards conceptualising social responsibility as a naturally limited phenomenon in each institutional environment. In each archetype social responsibility was founded on legal and financial operational responsibilities. Moreover, the elite sport organisation had a social responsibility to maintain the integrity of the competition they played within, train and develop players and work toward on-field sporting success. The community sport organisation social responsibility configuration encompassed creating an inclusive setting for sports participation and developing social capital and community cohesion. Beyond operational responsibilities the national sport organisation was responsible for inclusive participation, competition integrity and staff training as well as providing moral and ethical leadership to multiple stakeholder groups. In summary, we argue that social responsibility is premised on the realisation that all organisations have a responsibility to society. Nonetheless, social responsibility within organisations is socially constructed, finite and variable between institutional environments. Understanding social responsibility as an organisational concept, in contrast to a corporate concept, is perhaps more important to sport management studies due to the prevalence and variety of non-profit organisational forms within the sport industry. In practice, social responsibility may bring together the various social expectations placed on sport organisations into a single multidimensional framework of organisational responsibility that is specific to an organisation’s context.
CHAPTER FIVE - RESULTS
5.1 Conceptualising the Responsibility of a National Sport Organisation

Aim: National Sport Organisations (NSO’s) receive significant public resources and possess coercive power over elite and mass participation sport systems. Yet, as an organisation, the social responsibility of an NSO is poorly understood. The purpose of this research is to identify the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal NSO.

Methodology: The methodological approach taken in this study is based on the Delphi method. Items were developed from the Global Reporting Initiative, International Organisation for Standardisation and a review of the sport corporate social responsibility literature. Data for this study were collected from a global panel of sport management academics (n=33) and NSO managers (n=23), in three sequential survey rounds that aimed to establish consensus around the most important social responsibility issues to a NSO.

Results: NSO’s have a broad responsibility to society. However, the findings indicated that the primary role of an NSO was considered to be maximising participation in the sport coupled with a strong regulative responsibility to assure that human rights, labour and fair operating practices are implemented within organisations under their influence. Areas of social responsibility that are noted in the literature that were perceived to be less important for a NSO to pursue were philanthropy, social capital and on-field performance.

Conclusions: NSOs are public entities funded by taxpayer money and have considerable institutional power. There is no reason that such organisations should not deliver on the same minimum expectations of social responsibility that are placed on corporations. This research demonstrates that NSOs are perceived to have a finite social responsibility that should primarily be concerned with governance, human rights, economic, labour and fair operating areas of responsibility practice. The research could be used to analyse and evaluate NSOs’ based on the extent that they implement responsible practices relative to other NSOs.
“Sports organisations are in the public sphere. They’re backed by public money. They wield power. Why should they escape scrutiny?” (Jennings, 2011, p. 390)

1. Introduction

The central thesis of this paper is based on two observations regarding the relationships between organisations and society. The first observation is that all organisations, not only corporations, have a level of responsibility to society. Second, an organisation’s responsibility to society is socially constructed and contingent on the institutional context. Building on these observations a theoretical argument is presented, informed by empirical data from senior sport management academics and NSO senior managers that conceptualises the social responsibility of an archetypal national sport organisation.

Prior to conceptualising the responsibility of a national sport organisation to society it is important to frame the relationship between organisations, society and social responsibility more broadly. Etzioni (1964, p. 3) describes modern organisations as “social units (or human groups) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals. Corporations, armies, schools, hospitals, churches, and prisons are included; tribes, classes, ethnic groups, friendship groups, and families are excluded”. Organisations are set within societies. A society can be defined as “the structured social relations and institutions among a large group of people living in a particular locality, or who have a certain shared interest” (Giddens & Sutton, 2014, p. 46). The responsibility of an organisation to society is termed the organisations social responsibility (Neves & Bento, 2005). The International Standards Organisation Guidance on Social Responsibility defines social responsibility as the “responsibility of an organisation for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 3). The social unit, or organisation, that is the focus of this research is the national sport organisation. NSOs have been identified as pursuing dual core objectives of international sporting success and mass participation (Nicholson et al., 2011). Using the above definitions, the conceptualisation of social responsibility is based on the following understanding of society-organisation relationships of an NSO: an NSO is an organisation that is deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific international sporting and mass participation goals, and is responsible for the results of its decisions and activities on the structured social relations and institutions among a large group of people living in a particular locality, or who have a certain shared interest. Using this as the starting point, the purpose of this study is to identify the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal NSO.
Corporate Social Responsibility and Sport

In the broader management literature social responsibility has been demonstrated to be a dynamic concept. The degree that a corporation acts responsibly is contingent on many factors such as; institutional environment (Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011; Gjølberg, 2009; Halme, Roome, & Dobers, 2009; Matten & Moon, 2008); strategic orientation of the organisation (Galbreath, 2009); industrial sector (Duran & Bajo, 2014; Godfrey et al., 2010); temporal period (Rivoli & Waddock, 2011); and ownership structure (Oh, Chang, & Martynov, 2011). Drawing on this as our starting point, we argue that the social responsibility of an NSO must be contoured to the institutional context of that particular organisational type.

The paradigm that corporations are the sole organisational form to possess a responsibility to society is deep rooted in social responsibility theory and practice. The title of Howard Bowen's (1953) seminal text “The Social Responsibilities of the Businessman” set the tone for half a century of development in the field of “corporate social” responsibility that investigates organisational behaviour in a narrowly conceived range of organisational forms (see Carroll (1999) for a more complete overview). Born from this context the 20th century saw fundamental changes in the way society viewed corporations more broadly in social life (Davis, 1967, 1973; Frederick, 1986a). One time profit maximising organisations were required to develop principles, processes and outcomes that attended to legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities in addition to their economic responsibilities (Friedman, 1970; Friedman & Friedman, 1962). The growing complexity of social responsibility led to integrative attempts to understand the concept (McWilliams et al., 2006; Schwartz & Carroll, 2008; Wood, 1991).

The concept of corporate social responsibility infamously entered the sport management discourse via perceived breaches in the responsibility to society of sporting goods manufacturers in the 1990s (DeTienne & Lewis, 2005; Klein, 1999; Menon & Menon, 1997). Following a period of adjustment during the late 1990s, sport companies rapidly reformed their organisational practices to comply with newly formed environmental and labour codes of conduct (van Tulder & Kolk, 2001). The functionalist “business case” approach to social responsibility was subsequently adapted from the corporate management literature (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky et al., 2003; Porter & Kramer, 2002, 2006, 2011; Vogel, 2006) and applied heavily within North American professional sport settings (Irwin et al., 2003; McGlone & Martin, 2006; Roy & Graeff, 2003). The remnants of this approach are visible in current sport management literature that investigates the influence of social responsibility on consumers (Walker &
Kent, 2009, 2013) and intrinsically works off the neo-liberal presumption that there is an optimal cost for social responsibility that will maximise the organisational benefit (McWilliams & Siegel, 2000).

Narrow instrumental approaches to corporate social responsibility began to shift to more holistic and context specific conceptions of social responsibility in the sport industry. Smith and Westerbeek (2007) investigated the distinct attributes that sport could offer corporate organisations as a vehicle to discharge their social responsibility including mass media distribution and communication power, youth appeal and positive health impacts. Around the same time Babiak and Wolfe (2006) broadly applied Carroll’s (1979, 1991) concepts of corporate social responsibility to the sport industry (Super Bowl XL) for the first time, representing a more holistic approach to the social responsibility at major sport events. From this platform Breitbarth and Harris (2008) developed a conceptual model for corporate social responsibility in professional European football. Based on a synthesis of four typical national football systems in Germany, US, England and Japan, Breitbarth and Harris (2008) developed a conceptual model which linked CSR approaches to the organisational value that is created and how such value may form competitive advantages (relevance, participation, profits and competitiveness) for the organisations engaged in such approaches. Subsequently, the Journal of Sport Management released a special issue on Corporate Social Responsibility in Sport (23 (6)) in November 2009 (Bradish & Cronin, 2009).

This marked a broad acceptance and expansion of social responsibility research in sport management (Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013; Sargaert et al., 2012). For the most part the expansion of social responsibility research has occurred in two primary domains: content development that has focussed on empirical studies, and secondly, theoretical/conceptual advances. Primarily, empirical approaches to social responsibility have furthered the North American, neo-liberal views of social responsibility as a set of discretionary organisational activities that can be considered broadly within cost/benefit analyses to the organisation rather than wider social benefits to the community. Empirical approaches to social responsibility in sport have included consumer responses and the business case for social responsibility (Walker & Kent, 2009, 2013); community involvement and the association with foundations of professional sport clubs (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Cobourn, 2014; Hindley & Williamson, 2013; Kihl et al., 2014); social responsibility governance and decision making (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Hamil, Walters, & Watson, 2010), environment (Babiak, Mills, Tainsky, & Juravich, 2012; Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Jin, Mao,
Zhang, & Walker, 2011; Trendafilova, Babiak, et al., 2013; Trendafilova, Pfahl, & Casper, 2013; Uecker-Mercado & Walker, 2012; Walker & Mercado, 2013) and philanthropy (Babiak et al., 2012; Ratten & Babiak, 2010). The focus of these studies has been predominately on professional sport leagues, teams and sport facilities. In sport governing organisations, the closest investigations into organisational responsibility have come from critical insights into corruption and governance at the international level (Pielke, 2013; Tomlinson, 2014; Jennings, 2011). So far, there has been no research that has investigated the responsibility either as a holistic concept, or at the national level in sport governing bodies.

Previous research was used to build an appropriate framework to conceptualise the organisational responsibility of an NSO. First, that social responsibility is a dynamic concept and varies between institutional/industry contexts (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012a; Godfrey et al., 2010). Second, the sport area is an identifiable social institution, complete with conceptually heterogeneous groups of institutions, organisations and actors that may interpret and implement their respective responsibilities to society differently (Chadwick, 2011; Giulianotti, 2015; Sheth & Babiak, 2010; Smith & Stewart, 2010) Third, the use of neo-institutionalism to explain the broad adoption of social responsibility practices that may be distinctive to particular institutional contexts (Godfrey, 2009). For example the broad adoption of environmental practices in professional sport teams and leagues in the United States (Trendafilova, Babiak, et al., 2013). Finally, returning to Godfrey’s (2009, p. 712) concluding remarks “as sport becomes an increasingly prominent economic and social institution across the globe, the question of what social responsibilities [sport organisations and actors]… should constantly be asked”. The following section shifts from the broad social responsibility and sport literature to describe social responsibility within the institutional context of a national sport organisation.

Social Responsibility in the Institutional Context of NSOs

The aim of this section is to describe the institutional context of a NSO’s social responsibility using Matten and Moon’s (2008) institutional framework (Figure 11). The framework is based on Whitley’s (1992, 1999) comparative business systems approach that suggests organisational relationships are socially constructed and institutionally variable and therefore diverge between institutional environments. The framework was originally designed to hold the organisational type (corporation) constant and look at the differences between national cultures (Europe and the United States). Nevertheless, this model has utility in holding the context constant (an archetypal post-
industrial Western economy) and changing the organisational type from a corporation to a national sport organisation. Whilst we do recognise there are clear differences in the sports systems between Westernised nations (Nicholson et al., 2011), examples from these contexts are used to demonstrate an archetypal national sport organisation within a broader more abstract view of society. The conceptual framework has three sections 1) the national institutional framework (political, financial, education/labour and cultural systems), 2) archetypal context of a national sport organisation, and 3) institutional pressures on an NSO within an organisational field. The conceptual framework aided the development of an archetypal national sport organisation as an explanatory tool based on Kikulis, Slack and Hinings (1992) executive office archetype of a national sport organisation.

**National Institutional Framework**

NSOs are reliant on political systems for funding in many Western economies. In Australia for example, the central governing body that funds national sport organisations (the Australian Sports Commission) received around 0.34%, or AUD$220 million out of AUD$60.8 billion in 2008/9, of the Federal government budget between 2003 and 2009 (Hoye & Nicholson, 2009). As an organisation, NSOs are simultaneously dependent on centralised governments for public funding and responsible for discharging this funding to their respective members. Governments have argued that implicit social benefits of sport policy provision accrue to broader society (Eime et al., Forthcoming). Over the past century public policy involvement in the sport discourse sector has contextually continued to be an important part of many government portfolios dependent upon the particular needs of the government at the time (Chappelet, 2010; de D'Amico, 2012; Hargreaves, 1986; Hoye & Nicholson, 2009; Tan, Cheng, Lee, & Ko, 2009).

The primary financial systems for NSOs differ from the corporate context. There is an additional emphasis on the role of the State rather than the stock market as a source of financial resources. Wicker and Breuer (2014) found that revenue diversification, hosting major events and cost optimisation complimented State funding and improved the financial performance of national sport governing organisations in Germany. The responsibility attached to government funding promotes acting in the public interest rather than private interests that often prevail in corporate contexts. In effect, this funding relationship produces a direct “social contract” between NSOs and society (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1994).
The education and labour systems relate to the availability of appropriately trained human resources. NSOs have a dichotomous relationship with regard to such systems. On the one hand, the rise of professionalised bureaucratic structures in NSO’s has increased the requirements for functional and specialised staff with specialised skill sets developed via educational attainment (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Kikulis et al., 1992). On the other hand, and in contrast to corporations, NSO’s are indirectly reliant on voluntary labour to achieve their goals via policy implementation at the grassroots level. For example, whilst a certain professionalised skill set is required to develop policy solutions to social issues such as injury prevention in mass participation sport, the implementation of such policies is reliant on grassroots volunteers (Donaldson, Leggett, & Finch, 2012; Skille, 2008).

The cultural systems between post-industrial Western economies vary significantly with regard to the underlying assumptions they hold regarding the purpose of sport in their respective countries (Nicholson et al., 2011). For example mass participation is a strong cultural focus of the Norwegian national sport system; whereas in Australia a stronger focus is placed on elite sport pathways (Green & Collins, 2008). A nation’s culture can influence the priorities for bodies with financial resources split between elite sporting success (e.g. Olympic success) and grassroots population outcomes delivered through club based delivery systems (e.g. population health and social capital) (Green, 2007; Hoye & Nicholson, 2009). In the same way as the corporate social responsibility of a corporation can vary between American and European cultures (Matten & Moon, 2008), the underlying cultural systems of a nation are likely to influence the perception of social responsibility for a national sport organisation.

Archetypal Context

To determine the social responsibility of an NSO within the institutional context outlined above, the features of an NSO archetype need to be explained in three areas: the nature of the organisation; organisation of market processes; and, coordination and control systems. Archetypes are sets of “structures and systems that reflects a single interpretive scheme” (Greenwood & Hinings, 1993, p. 1052). The NSO is primarily based on Kikulis, Slack and Hinings (1992) executive office design archetype that is publicly funded, professionally led with few volunteers, employs specialised staff who have formal roles and decision making power.

The nature of a NSO is determined by the structural features that are allowed within the national institutional context (Matten & Moon, 2008). In post-industrial
western economies NSOs are non-profit organisations that do not have owners and are reliant (at least in part) on forms of government funding and subsidy. Dichotomous goals of elite sport performance and mass participation are often pursued under the justification that they are in the public’s interest (Hoye et al., 2010). Non-profit clauses are embedded within the constitution of many of these types of organisations, disallowing the distribution of profit to private interests. Direct ownership is not possible in these organisations. Consequently the pursuit of economic surplus is undertaken for public rather than private interests.

National sport systems possess an idiosyncratic organisation of market processes. The organisation of market processes is described as “how the economic relations between actors are organised and coordinated” (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 408). Whilst direct competition between NSOs is not openly apparent, a form of indirect competition exists in areas such as participation numbers and competition for funding and facilities. For example, over the last two decades NSOs have increased the marketing of their sport products and services to younger participants in select sports resulting in increased participation within these sports (Eime et al., Forthcoming). Although engaging in a form of competition for participants, NSOs also regulate against open competition in order to maintain competitive balance in many sport leagues to maintain the intrinsic uncertainty of outcome in the sporting contest (Woratschek et al., 2014). Market processes are relatively homogenised by influential regulative associations (e.g. government funders) whom wield institutional power to pressure NSOs to meet certain social requirements as conditions of funding.

Coordination and control systems were defined in terms of employee-employer relationships. Workplace regulation to protect employee rights such as occupational health and safety and fair working conditions are assumed and more likely to be aligned with progressive European employee regulation rather than the free market regulation in the United States (e.g. a basic national health care system and living wage is assumed). The coordination and control systems that govern the employer-employee relationship in NSO’s are considered analogous with those of similar corporate organisations.

Social Responsibility and Institutional Context for an Archetypal NSO

Neo-institutional theory describes the processes that pressure organisations to become increasingly similar to each other to enable them to be seen as legitimate actors within their institutional environment (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). A term used to describe a particular type of institutional environment is an organisational field that
describes organisations that “in the aggregate, constitute a recognised area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 148). National sport organisations occupy an organisational field. They operate under similar regulatory agencies and supply similar products from similar resources. Within organisational fields isomorphic pressures are likely to make organisations, and subsequently, an NSO’s social responsibility more homogenous. The following outlines the coercive isomorphism, normative pressures and regulative processes that may influence the homogenisation of social responsibility in NSOs (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

There are increasing pressures for national sport organisations to behave in a socially responsible manner. Neo-institutional approaches examine the way institutional environments influence organisations via coercive, mimetic, and normative forces (Campbell, 2007; Greenwood et al., 2008). The regulative role of national sport organisations places them in a distinctive situation. Like corporations they are subject to coercive isomorphic forces from institutional actors. For example sport governing organisations may come to possess increasingly professionalised and commercialised organisational structures due to changes in its institutional environment such as government funding arrangements or competition with rival leagues (Skinner, Stewart, & Edwards, 1999). NSOs have a disproportionate ability to write regulation by comparison to other organisational types. A clear example of this is the ability to restrict player payments and movement via drafts, salary caps, and restrictive player transfer regulations. Similar coercive power is held, literally for some NSOs, in regards to the rules of game, that directly relate behaviours that are accepted and restricted within under the cultural banner of a given sport. Accordingly a relatively distinctive feature for NSOs is to discharge coercive pressures on organisations they govern via regulation and national programs. NSOs are therefore simultaneously influenced by, and exert influence via, coercive pressures.

Mimetic processes occur when organisations adopt successful characteristics of similar organisations in the same organisational field. Concussion policies in contact football sports are a good example of mimetic processes. Following a substantial lawsuit against the US National Football League (NFL) regarding the concussion of players and negative effects on their long-term quality of life, several other contact sports have adopted regulation to minimise the risk of harm to their players.

Normative pressures regarding standards for legitimate organisational behaviour, or the way stakeholders expect an organisation to act, are the final areas of
isomorphic institutional pressure. The way international sport federations enact transparent governance practices provides insight into the normative pressures NSOs can face. Organisations such as the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) have made headlines for breaches in their perceived responsibility through allegations of poor governance practices (Jennings, 2011; MacAloon, 2008; Pielke, 2013; Tomlinson, 2014). In 2014 FIFA lost several of its major sponsors due in part to the most recent corruption allegations, including Sony, Emirates and Johnson & Johnson. Normative pressures regarding corruption and good governance are likely to force these organisations into producing appropriate governance practices and transparency.

Figure 11 – Social Responsibility and Institutional Context for an Archetypal NSO (adapted from Matten & Moon, 2008)

The literature review and conceptual framework have demonstrated the development of sport and social responsibility research and the institutional context of an NSO that may lead to a distinctive configuration of organisational responsibility for an NSO. So far, little consideration has been given to what, if any, responsibility NSOs have to society. This is particularly surprising given the substantial public resources and organisational power these organisations have on national societies. The research is of significance because it begins to question the responsibility of a national sport
organisation within society. For example, it is not possible to assess the relative social performance of an NSO without first knowing what it is responsible for. Adopting the framework outlined above, the research question that will be developed throughout the remainder of this paper is: What are the perceived organisational responsibilities of an archetypal national sport organisation?

2. Methodology

The aim of this study was to investigate expert perceptions of the social responsibility of national sport organisations. To do this the Delphi method was used (Martino, 1983). The Delphi method is a technique that aims to develop consensus among anonymous expert group members through sequential survey rounds (Day & Bobeva, 2005). The method is particularly useful for exploratory research regarding complex problems or future scenarios. In sport management the method has been used to investigate health promotion in community sport organisations (Kelly et al., 2013); environmental responsibility in sport facilities (Mallen et al., 2010) and the future of the sport management field (Costa, 2005). The Delphi method uses sequential surveys and controlled feedback to develop consensus amongst the expert group.

Participant Selection

Expert participants were selected on the basis of their experience and ability to conceptualise social responsibility in different organisational contexts. For this reason senior managers from national sport organisations and senior academics from leading sport management and sport sociology journals were selected. The management sample frame was 159 NSO managers and was drawn from publically available website data from 14 countries with high English proficiency (England, United States, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Scotland, Wales, India, Philippines, Singapore, Sweden, Finland and South Africa). Senior management positions were invited to participate (CEO, directors, presidents) rather than content specialists (social responsibility managers) as the intent was for a broad understanding of social responsibility at the organisational level. The academic sample frame was drawn from the editorial boards of three sport management and one sport sociology journal, and consisted of 125 people. Given the diversity of issues in the sport management discipline, the academic sample frame combined a number of issues that are broadly investigated under the term “social responsibility”. Collectively, the two sample groups formed the “expert panel” of 284 sport management experts (see Table 2).
Item Development

Social responsibility is a notoriously difficult concept to define. Consideration was given to where and how to source relevant items to holistically assess the perceptions of social responsibility in an NSO. After reviewing sport management and social responsibility literature the two most prevalent social responsibility standards were adopted as the initial item framework. These were identified as the Global Reporting Initiative 3.1 - International Sustainability Reporting Standards and the International Standards Organisation (ISO) ISO 26000 Guidance on Social Responsibility (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011; International Organization for Standardization, 2010). Each document possessed a conceptual hierarchy of macro (categories), meso (sub-categories) and micro (actions, expectations and aspects) approaches to social responsibility. In total, 13 categories, 73 sub-categories and 363 actions, expectations and aspects were identified from the two measures. Where approaches to identifying social responsibility were similar they were combined into a single item. This resulted in a preliminary item list of 66 items.

The national sport organisation context was one of three contexts that participants were asked to respond to, 204 items (66 items per context) were deemed impractical to timely participant completion. Similar items were merged into single higher-level items and items that required specific contextual information beyond the scope of what could be delivered in an archetypal context were removed. Second, the combined item list included items that were context specific such as resource use and facilities that could not be provided within an archetypal context. The research team used the ISO 26000 macro level social responsibility categories as the framework to reduce the number of items in the second phase. The research team consisted of three members: 1) a sport management professor with over 20 years’ experience in sport management and social issue studies, 2) an associate professor in sport management and health with over 10 years’ experience in participation, health and education within national sport delivery systems, and 3) the lead researcher who completed initial item list and has several years’ experience working in the sport industry. The research team met several times over three weeks to refine the item list and did not participate in the subsequent pilot or global survey rounds. The result of this process was that the initial 66-issue item list was refined to 25 social responsibility items.

The final step in refining the item list was to pilot test the Delphi instrument. The pilot Delphi process was conducted with 13 academics from an Australian University in June 2013. The pilot study allowed the research team to check the wording of the items, completion time, have a dry run at analysing the pilot data and check whether
the pilot group thought any additional items should be included/excluded (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Several amendments were made to the item list following the pilot round including the addition, deletion and rewording of several items. Following the completion of the pilot Delphi process, the global Delphi study was completed during July and August 2013.

Data Collection and Analysis

The Delphi method adopted consisted of three sequential rounds. The first and second round aimed to generate consensus among the expert group, whilst the third round aimed to discriminate between the most important social responsibility issues that had reached consensus. Each survey round had both Likert and open-ended questions. During the first round participants were asked to rank the 25 social responsibility items on a scale of importance (from very low, to very high importance) and identify any social responsibility issues that they felt were important, but not included in the first round item list.

Eight additional items were identified as important in the first round and subsequently included for ranking in the second round. Additionally those items that did not reach consensus were redistributed to the experts who fell outside the conditions for consensus in the first round. The ordinal scale narrowed the measures of consensus available. Consensus was identified as being met when one of two consensus measures were reached (Costa, 2005; Kelly et al., 2013; von der Gracht, 2012). The first consensus measure was based on 90% of responses within one rating scale point of the median value, if the median value was between two and four inclusive. For extreme responses (less than two or greater than four), the consensus measure was lowered to 80% of responses within one rating scale point of the median value.

The third round aimed to discriminate between the highest social responsibility priorities for an NSO identified in the previous two rounds. The items that reached consensus and were deemed as highly important to an NSO were redistributed to the expert panel. Panel members were asked to identify their five highest social responsibility priorities for an NSO. The social responsibility priorities were given a descending numerical value from five to one in order of priority by each expert. A priority based weighting factor was developed for each item from this information. The weighting factor was calculated as the sum of priority scores for an item as a fraction of the maximum possible sum of priority scores. This fraction was then added to 1.0 to give a weighting factor between 1.0 (no expert panellist identified the item as one of the
top five social responsibility priorities for the NSO) to 2.0 (all panellists identified the item as the top social responsibility priority for the NSO). The mean scores from round two were multiplied by the weighting factor to produce a priority weighted mean score. The weighted score determined the perceived priority of the most important social responsibility issues for the archetypal national sport organisation.

3. Results

Round 1

A survey was administered that allowed a two week response time from the expert panel. Reminder emails were sent after one week. Following the two week period there was a one week gap between survey rounds that allowed the research team to analyse the data and provide controlled feedback to the group. The initial survey was distributed to 284 participants with a response rate of 19.7% (n=56; 33 academics, 23 managers) in the first round, non-responses were excluded from subsequent rounds. Males were over represented (60.7%) compared to females (39.3%).

The first survey round asked participants to rank the 25 survey items and identify any additional social responsibility items that they felt were important and not on the initial item list. Only four items did not reach the predetermined consensus levels after round one (environmental responsibility, freedom to associate, contributions to socially beneficial organisations and local investment). The remaining 21 items reached consensus and were removed from re-distribution in the second round. Eight new items were identified as important to the social responsibility of sport organisations that were not included in the initial list of 25 items11.

Round 2

The second survey round had 49 responses, a response rate of 87.5% (26 academics and 23 managers). The second round allowed participants who fell outside the predetermined consensus levels to reconsider their opinion in light of the median group response. The entire participant group ranked eight additional items that were identified by participants in round one. After the second round 28 out of the 33 items had reached consensus. The median values for the remaining five items were between

1) safeguard individuals from harm; 2) create an accessible and inclusive sport setting; 3) develop injury prevention strategies; 4) develop equality and diversity resources; 5) maximise sport facility use; 6) provide personal development and training opportunities; 7) identify organisational resource capacity for social responsibility programs; and, 8) implement socially responsible procurement within the supply chain
two and four and had consensus measures of between 85.42-89.80%. From the 28 items that reached consensus, 23 also had a mean value greater than four (high importance). The 23 items that had a mean value above "high importance" (four on the Likert scale) and had reached the predetermined consensus levels were then selected for prioritisation in the third round.

**Round 3**

The final round had 28 useable responses, a response rate of 61.2% (19 academics and nine managers). The expert group was asked to rate its top five social responsibility priorities from the 23 highest priorities for the archetypal NSO identified in round two. This allowed a weighting factor to be developed and applied to the mean responses of the second round to determine social responsibility issues that the expert group felt had the highest priority within the organisation. Table 10 demonstrates the social responsibility priorities from these responses. Participant feedback also indicated that a lower response rate could have been due to summer holidays in the northern hemisphere. The study compares favourably with recent Delphi studies in the sport management literature, despite the greater dropout in round three (Costa, 2005; Kelly et al., 2013; Mallen et al., 2010).
Table 10 – Social Responsibility Priorities for an Archetypal NSO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Organisational Priority</th>
<th>Weighted R3 Mean</th>
<th>Round 2 (n)</th>
<th>Social Responsibility Item</th>
<th>Social Responsibility Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human Rights Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Develop equality and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Ensure the organisation is an equal opportunity employer</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Governance Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Publicly stating social goals and performance indicators</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to owners/members</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Prioritise on field sporting success within the organisation</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labour Practices Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by assuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks and possess appropriate training</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Overtly express the freedom to associate and collectively bargain</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fair Operating Practices Dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the 'uncertainty of outcome' within a sporting contest and/or the organisation's integrity</th>
<th>Fair Operating Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
<td>Fair Operating Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Implement socially responsible procurement practices within the supply chain</td>
<td>Fair Operating Practices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Community Development Dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Maximise the use of the organisation's sports facilities</th>
<th>Community Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through subsidies, access times, locations etc.</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise health promotion opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Maximise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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**Environmental Dimension**

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<th>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</th>
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<td>24</td>
<td>3.94</td>
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4. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal national sport organisation. The discussion utilises participant responses and examples to illustrate the construction of organisational responsibility in an NSO. The discussion is structured around seven dimensions of organisational responsibility. The most important dimensions of responsibility for an NSO were identified as human rights, governance, economic, labour practices, and fair operating practices. Equitable access to sport facilities was also identified as an important responsibility as part of the community development dimension, however, the remainder of issues in the community development and environmental responsibility dimensions were perceived to be of lower importance to the organisation.

Human Rights

The expert panel identified each of the seven issues within the human rights dimension as highly important to the responsibility configuration of an archetypal NSO. These were maximising participation in the sport; creating an inclusive sport setting; developing equality resources; complying with anti-discrimination legislation; ensuring inclusion in the sport regardless of ability or gender; and, ensuring the organisation is an equal opportunity employer. The highest priority for an NSO was to maximise the participation in the sport they govern. Whilst access to sport is identified as a human right (UNESCO, 1978), it is not unexpected given that maximising participation in sport is a strategic priority of NSOs. The expert panel identified that maximising participation in the sport by “promot[ing] sport as widely and actively as possible” (Participant 1, Sport Management Professor, United Kingdom) was a central function of responsible NSO practice. Issues of equality, inclusion and access are supportive of the maximising participation strategic focus of NSOs. For example, in its most recent strategic plan (2011-15) the English Football Association states that “football for everyone” is one of its three primary goals and key actions to achieve this are to “get more people playing the game; develop better players and coaches; provide a safe and fun experience of football; protect and improve facilities; and, grow the women’s game” (The FA Group, 2011, p. 3). Four of the seven highest social responsibility issues were identified as participation, inclusion, and equity responsibilities that are founded on human rights and congruent with the organisational strategy and goals of NSOs. Part of the social responsibility discourse for an NSO should therefore include indicators for participation growth, the implementation of inclusion strategies and the presence of inclusion statements and policies. In the case of an NSO, strategies to improve
inclusion based on ability could consider a tool such as the “inclusion spectrum” that integrates people with a disability into sports participation on a continuum from full and modified forms of integration to parallel, adapted and discrete forms of the sporting activity (Misener & Darcy, 2014). Conceptually this marks a shift from “corporate social” responsibility themes. The analogous concept in the corporate setting would be to state increasing the organisation’s market share as a key social responsibility. Because the sale of a good or service does not signify the same positive benefits intrinsically associated with sports participation, it is unlikely that such a measure could rightfully be considered part of a corporation’s responsibility to society. Collectively the human rights dimension provides the overarching strategic focus and key social responsibility dimension for an NSO.

**Governance**

The second highest priority dimension of social responsibility was perceived to be effective governance that may be conceptualised as the tangible extension of an NSO’s human rights foundation. In principle, NSOs do human rights via governance practices and policies that compel members to behave according to set guidelines. Governance is a fundamental component of an NSO’s responsibility to society at both the organisational and institutional levels. The results indicated that areas such as governance frameworks, equality and diversity resources, publicly stating social goals, raising awareness of social issues and setting social equality policies and procedures, were important social issues for an NSO to consider as part of its organisational governance. The ISO 26000 states that “organisational governance is the most crucial factor in enabling an organisation to take responsibility for the impacts of its decisions and activities and to integrate social responsibility throughout the organisation and its relationships” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, pp. 21-22). The capacity for delivering organisational responsibility is predicated on the capability of the board and management to develop and deliver on such actions.

Organisational governance is particularly critical when the governing relationship with regional associations is considered (Ferkins, McDonald, & Shilbury, 2010). NSOs are able to coercively influence the sports delivery system at the institutional level (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 1995). As part of the NSO’s organisational remit, NSOs form, implement and enforce regulation in a manner that is more similar to State lawmakers and are important actors in facilitating normative and regulative behaviours. An NSO can be constitutive in the development of social policy, as one participant described “it is an NSOs task to develop policies for its members:
through these policies, clubs should be assisted with the implementation of equity and diversity opportunities; provide incentives for implementation” (Participant 28, Sport Management Professor, Canada). Governance responsibilities transcend the organisation and extend into the organisation’s influence on society. This aspect of social responsibility is another distinctive aspect of the responsibility of an NSO compared to a corporation. The corporation is likely to have contractual relationships, and subsequently coercive powers, over its supply chain. Unlike an NSO the corporation has little influence in forming such regulation, is not responsible for implementing it and is only afforded a position of power based on the contractual arrangements negotiated based on financial considerations. In contrast, an indicator of social responsibility within NSO’s could include measures to determine the types of positive social regulation the organisation is able to formulate and implement within its club and association based sport delivery system.

**Economic Responsibilities**

The current study found that the economic dimension of financial viability (third highest) and fiscal responsibility to members (eighth highest) remained highly important components to the organisational responsibility of an NSO despite the archetypal organisation receiving substantial funding from government. The importance of economic responsibilities in the form of ensuring financial viability and fiscal responsibility to members aligns with corporate social responsibility theory (Carroll, 1979; Wood, 1991). However, the justification for sound financial management differs from a corporation. Under “corporate social” responsibility the fiscal responsibility to maximise the financial return to shareholders is the dominant logic of the organisation (Friedman, 1970). In contrast, a national sport organisation does not have shareholders and the revenue it generates is not to be distributed for private wealth generation. As a participant responded “if the NSO is not financially viable, it ceases to exist; this will be a negative outcome for every stakeholder connected to the organisation” (Participant 28, Sport Management Professor, Canada). Financial viability is therefore pursued on the basis of maximising the organisation’s social value proposition. For the national sport organisation, the value proposition was identified as “participation and high performance are the two key plank[s] of this organisation” (Participant 55, Senior Manager, Australian NSO).

The strategic priority of maximising ethical considerations such as participation is clear evidence of differences in how NSOs and corporations see themselves in relation to society, and consequently how each organisation configures its social
responsibility priorities. The social responsibility for a NSO was premised on the organisation’s ability to maximise participation – rather than shareholder wealth. Ensuring financial viability and ensuring fiscal responsibility to owners/members were perceived to be less important than maximising participation in the sport and creating an accessible and inclusive sport setting. Consequently, the central conditions under which social responsibility in corporations was founded and key debates in the CSR discourse become relatively redundant when applied to an NSO. For example, the primacy of shareholder wealth creation is nullified, as NSOs are predominately publically funded. Subsequently the business case arguments (e.g. does social performance influence financial performance? (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky et al., 2003)) need to be substantially reframed in the NSO context.

In the business case scenario, expenses were minimised and profits maximised on the justification that expenditure on social initiatives was incongruent with shareholder interests (Vogel, 2006). The inverse relationship exists in NSOs, expenses are minimised and revenues maximised for the purpose of pursuing social benefits such as participation within an ethical framework. Accordingly, it is important that an NSO adopt appropriate financial management tools that optimally utilise the financial resources available to it (Winand, Zintz, & Scheerder, 2012). In the German context, Wicker and Breuer (2014) investigated the financial condition of 1080 sport governing bodies. They found that 72.4% of German governing bodies could break even in 2011, and, revenue diversification was higher in NSOs than other industrial sectors (Chang & Tuckman, 1994). Furthermore, the researchers found that strategic actions such as revenue diversification, hosting major events and cost optimisation may improve the financial position of an NSO (Wicker & Breuer, 2014). Improving the financial position is congruent with corporate social responsibility literature that suggests “all other responsibilities are predicated upon economic, because without it the others become moot considerations” (Carroll, 2012, p. 8). However, the rationale for doing so is in the public interest, rather than for the purpose of private wealth generation. Consequently, in the NSO context, the construct of social responsibility does not start beyond financial and legal responsibilities as in many corporate conceptions of social responsibility (e.g. McWilliams & Siegel, 2000). Rather financial management is required to produce and allocate appropriate resources to facilitate the organisation’s social mission.

Labour Practices

The labour practices construct had two main components that were perceived to be highly important in an NSO: direct responsibility for the organisation’s employees
and regulative responsibilities for the indirect influence the organisation had on its stakeholders via the regulation it creates. At the organisational level, the responsibility to assure equitable labour practices in NSOs was similar to corporate social responsibility. Participants identified the need to “appoint or contract a [health and safety] professional” (Participant 47, CEO, New Zealand NSO) and to “proactively exceed the minimum requirements and stand for this” (Participant 48, Senior Manager, Australian NSO), to be able to work within a safe working environment. The foundation of this component was that an NSO has a responsibility to hire and manage paid staff and volunteers under similar labour and human resource management systems as profit orientated organisations. However, in Australian state sport governing bodies paid staff were identified as operating under more formal human resource management systems than volunteers and in general state sporting bodies “deploy[ed] human resource management in a relatively unsophisticated way” (Taylor & McGraw, 2006, p. 247). Striking a balance between internal (organisational) and external (institutional) human resource and labour management systems, in combination with (in)directly working with a dual paid and voluntary labour force, presents unique responsibility challenges for an NSO. NSOs therefore possess dual responsibilities internally to effectively manage both paid staff and volunteers; and, externally to ensure appropriate legislation is developed for organisations that fall under its governance to do the same.

In many respects the social responsibility of an NSO to facilitate responsible labour practices exceeded that expected of corporations. For example, in regards to health and safety NSOs were perceived to have the responsibility to “develop and disseminate training methods that will minimise risk of injury without compromising quality … help clubs to obtain and evaluate qualified sports trainers” (Participant 4, Sport Management Professor, United States). Regulative responsibilities for health and safety practices are apparent in the NSOs of many contact sports, such as adoption of concussion policies by football codes around the world. These leagues and NSOs have written regulation to minimise the risk of concussion related injury, due in part, to significant legal action against the NFL in the United States. Finally, unlike corporations, there is a significant push to provide personal development and training opportunities for athletes to develop post career. Corporate conceptions of training and development aim to up skill employees to improve their skill and become more effective at performing a given task. It is unlikely an accounting firm would train an individual in the skills required in the employee’s next job. By comparison NSOs do exactly that, by helping establish training and development programs for elite athletes in order for them to have a career post their retirement from a given sport.
Fair Operating Practices

The fair-operating practices dimension is an extension of the governance dimension and relates directly to the institutional pressure a socially responsible NSO applies to organisations it governs to maintain and enhance integrity within the sport. Typically, regulative pressures occur externally to the organisation such as government or regulatory agencies (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 1995). Conversely, when the governing agency (in this case the NSO) is the object of study, the manner and efficacy in which regulative pressure is exerted on society can become part of the concept of responsibility for that organisation. In other words, it would be socially and morally irresponsible for a national sport organisation not to act on corruption within its sphere of influence, despite the organisation not being directly implicated. As one participant described “without integrity, nothing will work effectively... institutionalised procedures are crucial” (Participant 5, Sport Sociology Professor, United States). The effect of corruption and corruption allegations in the management of sport threatens its moral and financial integrity. FIFA for example, has lost several of its major sponsors due in part to the most recent corruption allegations, including Sony, Emirates and Johnson & Johnson. Corruption allegations at the organisational level raise questions about the ability of such organisations to regulate corruption within their sport system. The development of transparent and accountable organisational practices and applicable legislation to address corruption in sport is therefore considered a key component of a national sport organisation’s responsibility to society.

Community Development

The expert panel inconsistently valued the importance of the community development dimension. On the one hand, maximising and providing equitable access to sporting facilities were moderately important. On the other hand five of the lowest eight priorities came from the community development dimension including, volunteer participation, philanthropy, and promoting health, educating and investing in local communities. The participants perceived the community involvement of the NSO as relatively indirect. Unlike corporate perceptions of actively getting out into the community (e.g. school visits from elite athletes on behalf of their club), the community benefit is implicit in the everyday sports provision of NSOs. Philanthropy in the form of “contributing surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related” was the lowest priority identified by participants. This is a major change from corporate thinking. Philanthropy is not considered highly important in the way experts construct social responsibility for NSOs. Rather, that the responsibility of an NSO
should primarily concern itself with core business such as human rights, governance, labour practices and fair operating practices in an economically responsible way prior to attending to non-core business such as overt community development.

Environment

The responsibility of an NSO to abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability was in contrast to current CSR literature. Participants identified it as moderately important. Whilst we understand that social responsibilities may be achieved simultaneously, the results indicate that participants perceived it to be a lower priority than many operational and ethical considerations. Furthermore, lower normative pressures associated with a lower public profile in comparison to elite sport teams and large multinational corporations may place less pressure on these organisations to demonstrate their environmental responsibility. These conclusions are harder to determine given the limited research on environmental responsibility at the national level. Although increasing attention has been paid at the international level, due to the potential environmental impact of hosting major events such as the Olympic games, the focus has been on the singular event and not the organisation itself. There is a large scope for investigating environmental responsibility in national sport organisations. Critically our research has demonstrated that environmental responsibility may be less of a priority for organisations when competing interests are considered. To this end, research into environmental responsibility in NSO’s should consider the simultaneous responsibilities of the organisation and the role of various stakeholders in the implementation of social responsibilities.

Limitations and Implications

This study had several research limitations. The absence of theoretical development in the social responsibility of NSOs prompted the use of archetypes as an explanatory tool. The strengths of developing an archetypal NSO were the ability of a diverse expert panel to discuss the same organisational context. Additionally, the archetypal approach allowed the development of an organisational case study that is comparative with an idealised national setting. Whilst theoretically generalisable to a population of NSOs (given that the archetype is intended to be the most common form of organisation), the limitation of this approach is the inability to statistically generalise the findings and therefore future research could survey a sample of NSOs to identify their organisational actions.

Social responsibility and sport management literature has only existed for a decade. Societal expectations of responsible organisational behaviour are spreading to
all forms of organisation after several decades of management development and focus on the corporate organisational form. The sport industry, and, by extension sport management literature, has an opportunity to capitalise on this expansion via investigating the theoretical and practical manifestations of organisational forms in non-profit and government funded organisations. In practice, NSOs receive significant public funding, hold coercive and regulative power, and directly influence large parts of a nation’s society. In spite of this, society seemingly does not hold NSOs to the same level of scrutiny as corporations despite examples of irresponsibility in NSOs (e.g. concussion, corruption, labour practices). Practical implications could include reframing the social responsibility discourse in NSOs to include aspects of social responsibility communications, an expectation of demonstrable long-term positive social outcomes and a minimum suite of actionable socially inclusive policies. Particularly fruitful lines of further enquiry could critically analyse the NSO’s role in society and extend to the participation versus elite policy development. For example an initial critique could analyse NSO reports and consider for the public money invested in these organisations what demonstrable return does society get? How is it measured? What is not included in these reports compared to standardised responsibility measures such as the Global Reporting Initiative? Second, the development of a governing body working group to produce a set of comparable, relevant and context specific measures of social responsibility (such as the working groups that lead to the GRI and ISO 26000 development) would assist in developing a benchmark for NSO social responsibility.

Conclusion

In summary, we have argued that NSOs have an identifiable responsibility to society consisting of human rights, governance, economic, labour practices, fair operating practices, community involvement and environmental responsibilities. The social responsibilities of an NSO cannot be considered the same as those noted in the corporate discourse. NSOs hold significant power over national sports delivery systems, write regulation that influences large parts of society and receive hundreds of millions of dollars in taxpayer money. Despite this there is no research or public discourse on what, if any, responsibilities these organisations have to society. Corporations do not, and should not, have a monopoly on society’s expectation of responsible organisational behaviour. All organisations, large and small, profit, non-profit and publically owned have a responsibility to society, and this includes NSOs. Amongst other things this research could be used to better analyse and evaluate the extent that NSOs implement responsible practices relative to other NSOs.
CHAPTER SIX - RESULTS

6.1 Conceptualising the Responsibility of a Community Sport Organisation

**Aim:** Despite extensive development in management literature, the view that organisations possess a multidimensional responsibility to society has not extended to voluntary “non-profit” organisational forms such as community sport organisations (CSOs). Rather, CSOs are often conceptualised as implicitly producing a diverse range of social outcomes. This research paper aims to identify the perceived organisational responsibility of a CSO.

**Methodology:** To do so 56 sport management experts from 14 countries participated in a global Delphi study. The study asked experts to rate the importance of 33 social responsibility items developed from the Global Reporting Initiative (3.1), the International Organisation for Standardisation and a review of the sport corporate social responsibility literature in three sequential surveys.

**Results:** The results indicate that community development, labour practices, human rights, economic and governance dimensions of organisational responsibility were perceived to be of most importance for a CSO. By comparison the environmental and fair operating practices dimensions were perceived to be less important to the dimensions within a CSO’s responsibility to society.

**Conclusions:** This research can be used to understand socially responsible organisational actions within the constraints of a CSO’s institutional environment. CSOs are different from corporate organisations. This does not mean that just because CSOs do not pursue profit, they do not possess certain responsibilities to society. Rather, the findings present the concept of organisational responsibility and emphasise the implicit evasion of harm as much as the overt and explicit pursuit of social benefit. For sport management theory this paper lays a foundation for investigating responsibility as a multidimensional construct within CSOs, in contrast to issues being investigated individually and without considering possible connections between issues. For practice at the community level, social responsibility has the potential to frame broad organisational performance approaches such as those occurring in some social responsibility areas such as Goodsports in Australia or Clubmark in the United Kingdom.
1. Introduction

This research investigates disconnect in the relationship between social responsibility as a concept and community sport organisations (CSO’s). Misener and Doherty (2014, p. 493) define community sport organisations as:

“a large subset of non-profit and voluntary organisations that have a primary mandate to provide recreational and competitive sport services to their members. CSOs also have a distinctive position in the heart of communities around the world because of their non-profit governance model and ability to generate social capital, foster volunteerism, and build social networks among individuals and other organisations”.

Community sport organisations consequently occupy a primary location in the sport sector (Delaney & Madigan, 2009). In the UK there are over 151,000 CSOs, between 12.5% and 14% of the UK population are members of a community sport club (Nichols, 2003). Around 35.2% of people played sport once a week in England in 2012-3 (Sport England, 2013). In Canada, there are more than 33,000 CSOs (Pedersen, Parks, Quartermann, & Thibault, 2011) with around 26% of the adult population participating regularly in sport (Canadian Heritage, 2013). In Australia there are over 50,000 CSOs (Commonwealth of Australia, 2011) and in 2013-14 the Australian Bureau of Statistics found that 28% of people were involved in organised sport in either playing (25.6%) or non-playing (2.4%) roles (ABS, 2014). In New Zealand 74.2% of people participated in sport or active recreation, despite only around 22.2% of people competing in some form of organised sport competition (Sport New Zealand, 2015). In the United States around 18.2% of people in the participated regularly in organised sport (Ham et al., 2009). Although measures of club numbers and participation rates are notoriously variable, they do indicate the substantial influence that the community sport organisation has within society.

Contrasting the prevalence of CSOs in Western societies is the scarcity of research that investigates the holistic responsibility of such organisations. Generally, the concept of social responsibility considers the “responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society” (European Commission, 2011, p. 6) in terms of social, environmental and economic responsibilities of an organisation (Elkington, 1997). In management research the responsibilities of an organisation have been applied to highly commercialised settings such as the Super Bowl (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006) and based on foundations in corporate social responsibility (Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1979; Wood, 1991). Specifically, corporations are viewed as having an explicit responsibility to society, whilst the responsibilities of CSOs are implicitly tied to the community
objectives of the organisations (e.g. the mandate to maximise participation). The result of this conceptual dichotomy is the rapid development of corporate social responsibility research in commercialised sport settings (Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013). By comparison, there is a scarcity of social responsibility research on CSOs. Instead multiple dimensions of social responsibility are independently pursued in sub-fields of sport management such as governance, social capital and volunteerism.

This paper contributes to sport management research by extending the concept of social responsibility and applying it to CSOs. The research aims to take one of the seminal questions of corporate social responsibility research and apply it to a community sport setting. Specifically, what are the perceived organisational responsibilities of an archetypal community sport organisation? To do so, a review of the social responsibility research will be provided followed by the development in the institutional context of a community sport organisation in relation to institutional pressures to behave in a socially legitimate manner.

“Corporate Social” Responsibilities of Organisations

The concept of corporate social responsibility is not new and has been developed in highly commercial industries such as the manufacturing sector since the middle of the 20th century (Bowen, 1953). After nearly three decades of theoretical development Carroll (1979) identified that a corporation’s social responsibility consisted of economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities to a variety of social issues (discrimination, shareholders, product safety, the environment) and could range from proactive to reactive responses by the organisation. Building on this model, Wood (1991) conceptualised the social performance of an organisation is based on principles of legitimacy, public responsibility and managerial discretion; processes of environmental assessment, stakeholder and issues management; and, outcomes of the social impacts, programs and policies of a corporation’s behaviour. Since this time there have been numerous attempts to integrate the broad concepts into identifiable domains (economic, legal and ethical) (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008).

Despite this advancement the concept of social responsibility in the sport industry remains relatively new and confined to highly commercialised organisational forms. Early interest in social responsibility was predominately based in the United States and aligned to commercial interests via cause related marketing through Nike’s Livestrong campaign (McGlone & Martin, 2006); event sponsorship for charitable fundraising (Irwin et al., 2003) and consumer attitudes to cause related marketing in professional football (Roy & Graeff, 2003). These early attempts to understand social
responsibility via cause related marketing mimicked the instrumental and business case (Vogel, 2005) approaches that were trying to link social and financial performance in the general management literature (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky et al., 2003). Whilst the efficacy of social performance may have a positive benefit on financial performance in corporate settings (Orlitzky, 2011), the relevance of economic motivations to pursue responsible organisational behaviour is questionable in the largely non-profit sport industry.

A shift in social responsibility in the sport industry followed early instrumental approaches. Smith and Westerbeek (2007) broadly investigated the overlap between corporate social responsibility and the social responsibilities that are intrinsic to sport. They found that sport corporate social responsibility had distinctive dimensions including mass media distribution and communication power, youth appeal, positive health impacts, social interaction, sustainability awareness, cultural understanding and integration and immediate gratification benefits. Albeit under the corporate paradigm, this marked one of the early attempts to demonstrate the utility of conceptualising the sport industry as a distinct field of social responsibility inquiry. The initial divergence laid the foundation for further conceptual advances in the conceptualisation of social responsibility in professional European football (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Breitbarth et al., 2011); professional sport leagues in the United States (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009, 2013; Sheth & Babiak, 2010) and the social responsibility of major sport events such as the Super Bowl (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006).

In the commercialised settings Walker and Parent (2010) argue that the social responsibility of sport organisations becomes more contingent on the local environment the smaller the geographical focus of the organisation. The authors argue that for elite sport teams in the United States, describe the “local geographic community as an immediate institutional environment thus serves both as a touchstone for legitimacy and as a target for social involvement, shaping both the nature and level of [corporate social responsibility] and influencing local understandings, norms, and rules” (Walker & Parent, 2010, p. 208). Nevertheless, Walker and Parent’s (2010) focus remained on elite teams such as the Philadelphia Eagles and the Boston Celtics and does not extend to voluntary or community sport organisations. The following section attempts to make this extension and outlines the development of an institutional context to conceptualise the social responsibility of an archetypal CSO.
Social Responsibility and Institutional Context for an Archetypal CSO

The framework used to describe the social responsibility of a community sport organisation is adopted from Matten and Moon’s (2008) comparative framework of corporate social responsibility differences between the United States and Europe. The framework used by Matten and Moon specified environmental conditions in both the United States and European societies that led to variable conceptions of social responsibility that they termed explicit and implicit social responsibility. In Europe, they argued that approaches to social responsibility favoured an implicit approach as many of the functions of American approaches to social responsibility were naturally supplied by the State such as health care. Conversely, in light of a gap in State supplied benefits such as a healthcare system, approaches to social responsibility in the United States were more explicit regarding the actions that corporations identified as socially responsible. The comparative framework developed by Matten and Moon is the starting point for investigating responsibility in CSOs. Instead of altering the institutional environment (e.g. Europe vs. United States) and keeping the organisation constant (e.g. the corporation), the framework is adapted to keep the institutional environment constant (i.e. a post-industrial western economy) and alter the organisational form under investigation (i.e. a community sport organisation). The framework consists of three main sections: the national institutional framework, the organisational field and details regarding the organisation (Figure 12).

National Institutional Framework

The national institutional framework identifies the relevant environmental conditions that underpin social responsibility (financial, political, education and labour and cultural systems). Community sport organisations do not receive financial resources from a central source such as the stock market; rather they are more likely to derive income from internal sources such as membership and admission fees that act to reduce their reliance on the external environment (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). In contrast, corporations rely heavily on the external environment for their revenues (e.g. the sale of goods and services). The financial reporting standards also vary due to the non-profit classification of community sport organisations. CSOs are therefore likely to have reduced financial reporting requirements and pay less or no tax on the revenues they produce. Notwithstanding the benefit from avoiding tax expenses, and in part due to the non-profit mission, around a quarter of CSOs in England and up to a third in Germany don’t make an operating surplus (Sport and Recreation Alliance, 2014;
Wicker & Breuer, 2011). The financial system that community sport organisations operate within is a major difference between CSOs and corporations.

Community sport organisations primarily operate around voluntary labour systems within the local community. Cuskelley, Hoye and Auld (2006) suggest that sport volunteers make up around a quarter of volunteers in Australia (26%), Canada (18%) and England (26.5%). Although professionalisation and commercialisation are continually increasing in various areas of the sport sector such as sport governance (Kikulis et al., 1995b), the paid employment at the community level still remains uncommon. Human resources in the form of volunteers have been identified as one of the most scarce and therefore important resources for community sport organisations (Cuskelley, 2004; Cuskelley, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011). Identifying labour practices as a responsibility for community sport organisations highlights idiosyncrasies that need to be considered as part of a community sport organisation’s social responsibility. On the one hand, aspects of corporate labour practices such as planning, training and support for employees need to be adapted to manage a workforce that primarily consist of volunteers in order to retain their services to the organisation (Cuskelley, Taylor, et al., 2006). On the other hand, central tenants of labour practices in the corporate setting such as workplace regulation may be less applicable (e.g. collective bargaining). Volunteerism should be considered an important part of the organisation’s social responsibility as an extension to those responsibilities that are afforded to the paid workforce in social responsibility literature.

The cultural systems of community sport are broadly conceptualised as a social institution “because it has become imbued with values and is taken for granted as a fixture of social life” (Godfrey, 2009, p. 699; Selznick, 1957). Godfrey (2009) expands on the role of sport as a social institution in modern society by identifying its cognitive (e.g. the notion of fair play), regulative (e.g. accepted restraints of trade in leagues to maintain “balanced” competition) and normative (e.g. fandom and volunteerism) influences of Western societies. Significant segments of the population in Western societies participate and volunteer in community sport organisations. Moreover, sport organisations and spectatorship provide cultural value as a “third place” that facilitate sociability and informal relationships outside of work and home environments (Melnick, 1993). In the Australian setting Zakus, Edwards and Skinner (2009, pp. 994-995) argue that “well-managed sport can play a role in generating social capital as it can facilitate the building of networks of trust, safety and mutuality within a community”. Community sport organisations can be thought of as central to the social institution that is sport within Western cultures such as Australia, England and Canada.
Archetype Development a Community Sport Organisation

The national institutional framework informs the structure of organisations within cultural boundaries. In the context of this research, a generic national institutional framework was developed to position an archetypal community sport organisation within a post-industrial Western society. As a conceptual tool, archetypes are developed from Max Weber’s “ideal types” (Weber, 1962) that construct ‘certain elements of reality into a logically precise conception’ (Gerth & Mills, 1977, p. 59). An archetype is defined as ‘a set of structures and systems that reflects a single interpretive scheme’ (Greenwood & Hinings, 1993, p. 1052). Based on these considerations features that influence the structure of CSOs are elaborated upon and include the nature of the organisation; the organisation of market processes and the coordination and control systems.

The national institutional framework determines the way that organisations can structure themselves within a given country. Whilst national variability exists the basic premise that differential organisational structures exist between profit orientated corporations and non-profit community associations is assumed. For example at the community level CSOs predominately operate within a non-profit organisational structure that constrains the distribution of profits external to the organisation, prevents direct ownership and generally has basic financial disclosure requirements. Corporate organisations possess direct ownership structures that prioritise shareholder value and thus increase the transparency and accountability of corporations regarding financial disclosures. The community sport archetype was thus premised on a non-profit member based organisation.

The market processes of CSOs at the community level are organised on the basis of mutual cooperation and competition. Anti-competitive behaviour and competitive balance are generally considered features of sport competitions (Chadwick, 2011; Smith & Stewart, 2010). Although the competitive balance may be lessened at the community level due to a lower commercial imperative to provide uncertainty of sport outcomes compared to elite sport competitions, mutual cooperation is required to maintain ongoing club competitions. For example, CSOs often produce the same product (e.g. participation in a particular sport), are associated within the same league or competition and barriers to entry are often high (e.g. the infrastructure costs of establishing a new community sport organisations are prohibitive). Therefore CSOs are more likely to exist in forms of association or mutual alliances rather than free market competition as seen in the corporate sector. The community sport
archetype provided sport participation opportunities within a local area and is one of several clubs in a competition.

Volunteer management and governance principles dictate the coordination and control systems of a CSO. The increasing professionalisation and employment of paid staff in community sport organisations is changing the coordination and control systems from informal to formal regulations that see the organisation as a workplace. For example, the Australian Sport Commission (2013) released a document titled ‘Sporting Clubs Guide to a Safe Workplace’ that identified the health and safety responsibility and actions to be undertaken within a CSO. The identification of worker rights within a CSO is increasingly identifying the implicit social responsibilities held within such organisations.

Institutional Pressures for Social Responsibility in CSO’s

The arguments put forward by Matten and Moon (2008) represent a comparative approach between implicit and explicit social responsibilities. Explicit responsibilities are those “responsibility policies, programs, and practices enacted by and explicitly articulated by companies”, in contrast, implicit responsibilities are “responsibility practices enacted by companies that reflect wider policy arrangements, and that are not articulated as reflecting these companies’ own discretion and initiative” (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 405). Using this as our starting point we argue that corporate sport organisations are increasingly turning to explicit social responsibility actions in the pursuit of external organisational legitimacy (or internal insurance benefit) from stakeholders (e.g. publically stated environmental policies) (Godfrey, 2009; Trendafilova, Babiak, et al., 2013). Corporate sport organisations are therefore more likely to publically produce social responsibility communications and invest in social partnerships and programs to explicitly demonstrate commitments to society (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). By comparison, we suggest that institutional factors pervade the community sport organisational field and produce a normative approach to social responsibility in which adherence to “wider policy arrangements” is pursued in response to mimetic, normative and coercive pressures.

Neo-institutional theory describes the homogenisation of organisational structures and action in the pursuit of legitimacy within a given institutional environment (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Various terminology has subsequently been used to define institutional environments including sectors (Scott, 1995), industry systems (Hirsch, 1972) and organisational fields (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). For the conceptualisation of community sport organisations it is proposed that community sport organisations exist
as an organisational field, or “those organisations that, in the aggregate, constitute a recognised area of institutional life: key suppliers, resource and product consumers, regulatory agencies, and other organisations that produce similar services or products” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 148). Contrary to Matten and Moon’s (2008) findings that explicit social responsibility is expanding from its North American beginnings into the European context, we suggest that implicit social responsibility is spreading within the CSO organisational field, the result of which is the relative homogenisation of social responsibility actions within CSOs. The increasing homogenisation of implicit social responsibilities can be explained by neo-institutionalism’s coercive isomorphism, normative pressures and regulative processes (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

**Coercive Isomorphism**

Coercive isomorphism is a powerful force in the development of implicit socially responsible behaviour at the community level. Coercive isomorphism is the “formal and informal pressures exerted on organisations by other organisations upon which they are dependent and by cultural expectations in the society within which organisations function” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). In the case of CSOs coercive pressure occurs from regulation and legislation at the national, state and local level. The influence of coercive isomorphism can be viewed by the development of legislation in community sport over the past three decades. For example, sexual abuse of children gives rise to legislation for the prevention of child abuse in sport clubs such as working with children checks (Nichols & Taylor, 2010; Parent & Demers, 2011); player insurance and organisational policies to minimise the risk of injuries (Donaldson et al., 2012; Swan, Otago, Finch, & Payne, 2009); and the homogenisation of standard coaching accreditation in a variety of sports (Taylor & Garratt, 2010). The result of these practices, in aggregate, is a form of isomorphism toward a select set of social issues that are implicitly considered the “responsibility” of community sport organisations. The profile of social issues that community sport organisations respond to is increasingly becoming similar due to the coercive pressures placed on these organisations by legal (e.g. the State) and regulative (e.g. sport governing bodies) pressures.

**Mimetic Processes**

Mimetic processes occur when “organisations model themselves on other organisations” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). In the corporate sport sector the successful relationship between corporate sport organisations and
foundation/charitable partners has been mimicked in leagues and competitions around the world (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). In the community sport setting mimetic processes are less clearly definable. For example, at the community level mimetic processes could include the adoption of successful health based participation initiatives (e.g. the reduction in alcohol consumption and smoking) if proven successful at another CSO in the local environment. The adoption of such an organisational action is neither coercively imposed on the organisation via regulation, nor would it be considered a socially expected norm. Thus, if the decision were made on the basis that such a scheme was successful at another location this would be an example of a mimetic process.

**Normative Pressures**

Normative pressures in traditional neo-institutionalism refer to the legitimating actions of educational and professional networks to set standards that legitimate occupational practice (e.g. receiving a degree in accountancy legitimates you as a qualified accountant) (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). In the corporate setting organisational behaviour can be legitimated on the basis of several forms of social responsibility accreditation from investment indices (FTSE4Good, DJSI), to international standards (GRI, ISO 26000) and even stricter forms of social business (e.g. BCorp and Fair Trade certification). A similar trend toward normalising behaviour is apparent in the community sport sector via the creation of normative standards by sport governing organisations. One such normalising influence is the ClubMark accreditation program operated by Sport England to ensure “the welfare of members and encourages everyone to enjoy sport and stay involved throughout their lives” (Sport England, n.d.). The program mandates the adoption of child/member protection policies, engagement with the local community, insurance and a minimum annual service delivery to the local community as the basic criteria for accreditation (Clubmark, 2015). Normative pressures are also apparent in legitimating the position of a coach within community sport. The influence of this normative pressure can be viewed by the rise of coaching accreditation for volunteers and the inverse demise of volunteer coaches that have not gone through any form of training. These types of actions influence the political systems of sport and generally promote dual goals of community sport provision in the pursuit of socially beneficial objectives, whilst simultaneously pursuing elite sporting success at international events.
Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework has been adapted from Matten and Moon (2008) to be applicable to an archetypal community sport organisation. The community sport organisation is embedded within a national institutional framework and the community sport organisational field. The organisation’s position within this context influences the implicit social responsibilities of a CSO via distinctive institutional pressures. The aim of this paper is to identify the perceived organisational responsibility of a community sport organisation.

Figure 12 – Social Responsibility and Institutional Context for an Archetypal CSO (adapted from Matten & Moon, 2008)

2. Methodology

Method

The method selected for this project was the Delphi method. The Delphi method is a consensus generating approach that has been used in sport management to determine the future of the sport management field (Costa, 2005); environmental responsibility in sport facilities (Mallen et al., 2010); health promotion factors in community sport (Kelly et al., 2013); steroid use in high school sports (Woolf & Swain, 2014) and professionalisation in sport management practice in the North American
Society for Sport Management (NASSM) (Bowers et al., 2014). Early uses of the Delphi method were as a predictive tool for future scenarios and decision making (Dalkey, 1969). Over the past several decades the method has begun to be used to develop consensus regarding unknown problems amongst groups of experts. Delphi studies have been traditionally based on the forecasting methods outlined by Martino (1983) and this study follows in this tradition (Costa, 2005; Kelly et al., 2013; Mallen et al., 2010). First, participants were anonymous to each other. Anonymity allows opinions to be judged on their merit and for group members to change their opinions freely. Second, the data are collected in three survey iterations separated by controlled feedback. After the first and second rounds participants were given controlled feedback from the moderators in the form of average group response and the most important social issues identified. Finally, perceived item importance and consensus measures were presented in the format of statistical group responses.

**Participant Selection**

Participation selection occurred as part of a larger study that investigated the concept of social responsibility in multiple sport organisation archetypes. Experts were required to possess generalist knowledge regarding multiple sport contexts. Academics and managers were selected as the two sample groups of experts. The academic expert group was generated from the editorial boards of one sport sociology journal and three sport management journals. In total 125 sport management and sociology experts were invited to participate in the project, 62 were professors, 54 were associate professors and nine had either an unspecified title or held the position of doctor. The manager expert group was developed from publicly available website data in 14 countries and 24 sports. Consistent with the selection strategy of identifying experts in the field 96% of the 159 experts identified were employed in executive positions in national sport organisations (e.g. executive director, chief executive officer, secretary general, general manager etc.). The remaining 4% (seven people) held middle to senior management positions in organisations where the senior managements contact details were unavailable.

Participants were selected on the basis of knowledge of three organisational contexts in the sport industry (elite, community and national sport organisations), English proficiency, and the ability to critically analyse the importance of social issues in archetypal contexts. Community and elite sport managers were not included in the expert panel as it could not be guaranteed that they had knowledge of each of the three sport organisation settings. The conservative size of the expert panel was larger.
than previous studies to ensure an adequate sized Delphi panel (Dalkey, 1969). The university ethics committee granted ethics approval in June 2013.

**Item Development**

The social responsibility item list was developed based on two of the most prevalent and globally accepted conceptualisations of social responsibility and sustainability: the International Organisation for Standardisation’s ISO 26000 Guidance on Social Responsibility (2010) and the Global Reporting Initiative’s – Sustainability Reporting Guidelines (2011). Both measures have been developed for over a decade and are widely used by organisations around the world. To develop the social responsibility item list, the item hierarchies in each document were respectively mapped. Each document identified macro, meso and micro levels of social responsibility and these were combined in the initial item list. At the macro level 13 social responsibility categories were identified, 73 social responsibility issues at the meso level and 363 social responsibility items at the micro level. To simplify the social responsibility hierarchy the ISO 26000 document was used as the initial framework. Only categories and issues from the GRI 3.1 that were dissimilar to those present in the ISO 26000 were added to the framework. Seven social responsibility categories were identified: community development, labour practices, human rights, economic, governance, fair-operating practices and the environment. To simplify the hierarchy duplicate issues were removed resulting in the identification of 66 social responsibility issues. The research team collectively identified and refined the item list to 25 social responsibility items they felt most adequately represented the initial list of social responsibility issues. This Delphi method was then piloted with 13 sport management and sociology academics from an Australian university. The pilot study allowed the research team to identify the likely completion time and have a pilot run at analysing the data to address any final issues prior to the global distribution (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Following the pilot study data collection occurred between July and August 2013.

**Data Collection**

Data were collected in three sequential survey rounds (Martino, 1983). Each survey round contained Likert scale and open-ended questions regarding the perceived social responsibility of the archetypal community sport organisation. Each survey round allowed two weeks for participants to complete the survey; separated by a week for the research team to preliminarily analyse the data and provide controlled feedback.
Conservative measures of consensus were used in comparison to previous Delphi studies (von der Gracht, 2012). For an item to have been deemed to reach consensus one of two conditions had to be met. First, if the median value was between two and four inclusive, then the condition of consensus was 90% of the expert panel responding within one rating scale point of the median value. Second, if the interpolated median value was less than two, or greater than four, then the consensus threshold was lowered to 80% of the expert panel responding within one rating scale point. If the item did not reach consensus then participants who fell outside one rating scale point of the median value were given the opportunity to revise their response in light of group opinion and describe their reasoning for maintaining their position outside of group consensus.

The first survey round asked participants to rate the 25 social responsibility issues developed above on a five point Likert scale of importance (from one - very low importance; to five - very high importance). The open-ended questions allowed participants to identify areas of social responsibility they thought were important and not included in the first survey round. In round two the items that did not reach consensus were redistributed to those participants who were outside the group consensus measures. Eight additional items were identified as important to the community sport organisation, but not included in the initial item list. These eight items were distributed to all participants in round two to be ranked for the first time on the same five point Likert scale of importance.

All items that reached consensus and had a mean perceived importance above highly important (greater than four) were redistributed to participants in the third round. The third round was designed to discriminate between highly important social responsibility issues within the archetypal community sport organisation. Each participant identified their five highest priorities for a community sport organisation and described how they would expect to see such priorities actioned within a community sport organisation.

Data Analysis

Data analysis occurred sequentially throughout the data collection process as outlined above. Following round three a weighting factor was developed to discriminate between the most important social responsibility issues that had reached consensus. The sum of the priority scores assigned to each social responsibility issue was expressed as a fraction of the maximum possible sum of priority scores and the fraction was added to 1.0. The weighting factor for round three could therefore range from 1.0
(although participants identified this issue as highly important no participant identified it in the top five highest social responsibility priorities for the community sport organisation), to 2.0 (all participants regarded this social responsibility item as the highest social responsibility priority for a community sport organisation). The round two mean scores were then multiplied by the weighting factor to produce a priority weighted mean score of the importance of social responsibility issues to the community sport organisation. The results of the data collection and analysis processes identified 33 social responsibility items.

3. Results

The response rate from the expert sample was 19.7% that produced an initial expert panel of 56 members who completed the first survey. More males (34) than females (22) responded, from 12 different countries and representing 14 different national sport organisations and 32 different universities. After the first round, 10 social responsibility issues had reached consensus, 15 had not. Participants identified eight social responsibility issues that were important to include in the item list and distribute in the second round.

Forty-nine members of the expert panel responded to the second survey round, a response rate of 87.5%. A further 18 social responsibility issues reached consensus in the second round, taking the total issues that reached consensus to 28 issues. Only five social responsibility issues did not reach consensus after the second round: freedom to associate; anti-competitive behaviour; philanthropy (surplus resources to social benefit organisations); local investment and prioritising on-field sporting success. Of the 28 social responsibility issues that reached consensus 17 were also identified as highly important to community sport organisations. These social responsibility issues were redistributed to the expert panel in round three. The response rate for the final round was 61.2% leaving 28 useable responses. Participants were asked to select their five highest social responsibility priorities and rank them from first to fifth most important to the CSO. This allowed the research team to discriminate between the highest social responsibility priorities for the community sport archetype.

Table 11 outlines the key results from this process. The items that either did not reach consensus or were perceived as being below high importance are shaded in grey. Table 11 is ordered firstly by social responsibility category developed from the ISO 26000 and GRI 3.1, then by the weighted third round mean. The discussion section will elaborate on each of the seven social responsibility categories.
Table 11 – Social Responsibility Priorities for an Archetypal CSO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Organisational Priority</th>
<th>Weighted R3 Mean</th>
<th>Round 2 (n)</th>
<th>Social Responsibility Item</th>
<th>Social Responsibility Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human Rights Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure the organisation is an equal opportunity employer</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Develop equality and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
<td>Human Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labour Practices Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by assuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks and possess appropriate training</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Overtly express the freedom to associate and collectively bargain</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to owners/members</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Prioritise on field sporting success within the organisation</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Governance Dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>objectives</td>
<td>Dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Publicly stating social goals and performance indicators</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Community Development Dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>objectives</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise the use of the organisation's sports facilities</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise health promotion opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through subsidies, access times, locations etc.</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fair Operating Practices Dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>objectives</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the 'uncertainty of outcome' within a sporting contest and/or the organisation's integrity</td>
<td>Fair Operating Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
<td>Fair Operating Practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Implement socially responsible procurement practices within the supply chain</td>
<td>Fair Operating Practices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Environmental Dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>objectives</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
<td>Environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Discussion

This study is the first study to investigate the concept of organisational responsibility in community sport organisations. Although extensive research has been completed on social issues at the community level (e.g. social capital, volunteerism, governance etc.), such issues lack an aggregated synthesis into a single concept. The success of doing so in the corporate world has provided the impetus for the research team to take the concept of CSR and investigate how this might be translated to the community sport context. By understanding responsibility holistically within the resource constraints of the CSO context, applicable guidelines and resources may be developed to improve the provision of sport at the local level. Organisational responsibility was deemed an applicable term to identify the responsibility of organisations that are not corporate in nature and was conceptualised in seven responsibility dimensions: human rights, labour practices, economic, governance, community development, fair operating practice and environment. The purpose of the discussion section is to discuss the social responsibility dimensions and items the expert panel perceived to be most important for a CSO.

Human Rights

The expert panel identified six of the seven human rights items as highly important to an archetypal CSO. Human rights issues broadly included participation, access to sport, anti-discrimination, gender (dis)ability and equal opportunity employment. Developing equality resources was considered a lower responsibility than the former issues for a CSO. Community sport organisations implicitly hold a higher level of ethical conduct than corporations due to their non-profit missions and intention to work for the public benefit, rather than for private wealth creation. Ethical behaviour therefore implicitly underpins community sport provision, and yet explicit statements of such behaviour are often lacking. As a CEO from a national sport organisation in the US stated “it's the fundamental role of a sporting organisation. If you're maximising participation you're doing many things correctly and your policies inevitably support participation. It's a foundational responsibility” (Participant 50, CEO Canadian NSO). The ability to create an accessible and inclusive sport setting was the third highest social responsibility priority for a community sport organisation and best summarised as addressing “all the other independent social issues - revise, review, maintain currency, empower the board to understand the importance” (Participant 50, CEO Canadian NSO). From this fundamental perspective issues of equality and inclusion “form club culture - behaviours are rewarded or chastised under culture banner - what
we stand for... proactively encourage and promote an open for all philosophy and culture” (Participant 48, Senior Manager, Australian NSO). Initiatives that support inclusion and equality are implemented via centralised sport bodies to support CSOs to meet their ethical requirements. In the Australian context examples include “Come Out To Play” that focuses on gender and sexuality based discrimination in sport (Symons, Sbaraglia, Hillier, & Mitchell, 2010); various ethical and integrity issues associated with grassroots participation (ASC, 2010); and national anti-racism strategies (Australian Human Rights Commission, 2015). The need for these programs illustrates that some CSOs are not implicitly “good” and the requirement for ethical guidelines is needed. The social responsibility framework builds on this premise to describe that ethical behaviour is one of many dimensions that is required for holistic responsible behaviour at the community level.

Labour Practices

The labour practices dimension includes “all policies and practices relating to work performed within, by or on behalf of the organisation” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 33). The results indicated the highest priority social responsibility issues in this dimension include safeguarding individuals from harm, volunteer participation, occupational health and safety, data protection and privacy and injury prevention strategies. The overriding labour practice issues were volunteer management and the health and safety of diverse stakeholder groups within the organisation. Volunteers have been identified as one of community sport organisations’ most scarce resources (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). Subsequent considerations should be made to “put in place a volunteer management program to recruit, train, and retain volunteers” (Participant 21, Sport Management Associate Professor, Canada). This is “due to the lack of capacity (paid) [it is] important to have a volunteer base to develop other needed areas” (Participant 40, CEO, Australian NSO). Consequently, the maintenance of the voluntary labour force is important to a community sport organisation. In order to understand the volunteer experience, management, retention and recruitment, the labour practices dimension developed under the corporate paradigm may need to be expanded in the CSO context (Warner, Newland, & Green, 2011). Indicative of the need to develop specific labour practices in the CSO contexts is the requirement to check the backgrounds of potential volunteers for criminal history. Prevalent concerns from experts were circumstances in which children have been put in harm’s way due to a lack of such management processes. These breaches in organisational responsibility have resulted in coercive regulation to “ensure all coaches
and volunteers have completed the appropriate police, working with children checks” (Participant 42, CEO, Australian NSO) in countries such as Australia, Scotland and Canada (Nichols & Taylor, 2010; Parent & Demers, 2011). Furthermore, injury prevention plans and a heightened sense of occupational health and safety were considered pertinent particularly in higher contact sports such as football codes (Donaldson et al., 2012; Gardner et al., 2014). In contrast, collective bargaining that is considered central to basic labour rights was considered the second least important social responsibility issue. The low perceived importance of this issue indicates that some responsibility issues may be less important in the CSO context.

**Economic**

The expert panel identified fiscal responsibility and financial viability as central concerns to a CSO. Conversely, prioritising on-field sporting success within the organisation was the fifth lowest priority for a community sport organisation. The economic dimension is adopted from the GRI 3.1 report and is defined as the “organisation’s impacts on the economic conditions of its stakeholders and on economic systems at local, national and global levels” (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011, p. 21). Economic responsibilities were clearly not perceived as the most important social responsibility issues for a community sport organisation. Whilst this is to be expected given the non-profit nature of such an organisation, it does highlight a point of difference in discourse between the responsibilities expected for a corporate and a community organisation. Economic responsibilities were perceived as a mechanism to realise the organisations’ non-financial objectives, as an Australian CEO of a national sport organisation stated “the club needs a solid financial base from which to exist. They cannot offer reductions for fees to support disadvantage etc. without some $$ in the bank” (Participant 46, CEO, Australian NSO). In this sense the influence of social performance on financial performance (or the business case) that is prevalent in corporate social responsibility (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky et al., 2003) may be flipped in the non-profit setting to investigate the influence of improved financial performance on the social performance. Successful financial performance would enable CSOs to more easily achieve their primary motives of maximising participation in a safe, accessible and inclusive sport setting.

**Governance**

Ensuring appropriate governance frameworks and setting social equality policies and procedures were deemed the highest two governance priorities in a
community sport organisation, more so than raising awareness of social issues, identifying resource capacity for socially responsibility programs and publically stating social goals. The dimension of organisational governance is defined as “the system by which an organisation makes and implements decisions in pursuit of its objectives… [and] is a core function of every kind of organisation as it is the framework for decision making within the organisation” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 21). In many respects governance underpins social responsibility. Participants described the importance of organisational governance as “this is where it [social responsibility] begins and is sustained. Have democratically elected board members and institutionalise procedures for regular input and response from membership” (Participant 5, Sport Sociology Professor, United States), adding that “the sport club is a social club and therefore its first social responsibility is to its members; effective governance is the overarching role of the board and without this the [organisation] is bound for chaos” (Participant 7, Sport Management Professor, Canada).

The governance component of social responsibility is an extension of corporate governance within corporate social responsibility literature. Corporate governance and non-profit governance possess similarities and differences that require consideration in a community sport organisation (Hoye & Doherty, 2011). Hoye and Cuskey (2006, p. 6) identify that an organisation’s conformity to accountability measures and organisational performance are central to both corporate and non-profit governance, nevertheless “unique characteristics of non-profit organisations have created a governance framework different to that of a corporation”. Such characteristics include the non-profit motives of CSOs, complex stakeholder networks involved in decision-making, a variety of organisational forms and the relationships between volunteer, paid employees and the board. Despite sport governance developing into a prominent sub-discipline within sport management, relatively few explicit links have been made between the role of governance and the social responsibility discourse in sport management. Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos and van Eekeren (2015) identify that multidisciplinary and critical views will shape the social responsibility and governance in sport discourse moving forward. For community sport organisations, an extension of non-profit governance literature with regard to appropriate frameworks and systems for dealing with pertinent social issues could be a starting point for this conversation.
Community Development

The community development dimension is defined within the ISO 26000 as “an organisation's proactive outreach to the community. Community development is aimed at preventing and solving problems, fostering partnerships with local organisations and stakeholders and aspiring to be a good organisational citizen of the community” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 63). Although maximising participation is the primary concern of the organisation, supplementary factors such as facility use and social capital were also deemed central in the conceptualisation of a CSO’s responsibility back to the local community it is embedded within. Social capital and facility use encapsulated the implicit responsibility to “make a concerted effort to ensure that the club builds a strong relationship with the community” (Participant 47, CEO, New Zealand NSO). Other aspects of community involvement were only considered of moderate importance. Of particular note it was not felt that community education, local investment and the philanthropic activities were as important to the social responsibility profile of a CSO. In particular the “contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related” was deemed a form of philanthropy and considered the least important social responsibility. The low import of philanthropic contributions was in direct contrast to explicit forms of social responsibility, particularly in the United States (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Carroll, 1991). This raises a logical point for considering the social responsibility concept in CSOs, given the non-profit constitutional form of a CSO philanthropy was identified as an unlikely mechanism for this type of organisation to discharge its social responsibility. Given the prevalence of philanthropic discourse in corporate conceptions of responsibility, the absence of philanthropic initiatives may be distinctive to the responsibility of non-profit sport organisations.

Fair Operating Practices

Fair operating practices are defined as a concern for “ethical conduct in an organisation's dealings with other organisations” and includes issues such as anti-corruption, anti-competitive behaviour and socially responsible procurement in the supply chain (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 48). Anti-corruption issues were considered of moderate to high importance, and marginally missed the criteria for inclusion in the most important social responsibilities given the selection criteria was based on consensus and perceived importance. Nevertheless, relative indifference to corruption is telling when compared to other sport contexts such as elite sports competitions. By comparison to corruption allegations that have engulfed
sport leagues and organisations (Jennings, 2011; Mudgal, 2014), participants identified
data protection as a more important social issue then anti-corruption measures. Along
the same lines some social issues that are appropriate in corporate sectors such as
promoting fair competition within the market place (or, promoting anti-competitive
behaviour) simply are not perceived to be as important in CSOs. For example, CSOs
rely on simultaneous cooperation and competition with other teams in their leagues, or
"coopetition" (Woratschek et al., 2014). An idiosyncrasy of the social responsibility of
CSOs is the reliance on competitors to produce their primary sport participation
service. Eliminating corruption and promoting fair-operating practices were
conceptualised as outside the responsibility of a CSO.

Environmental Responsibility

Environmental responsibility is the “responsibility for the environmental impacts
caus ed by [an organisations] activities” (International Organization for Standardization,
2010, p. 41). The issue was summarised as abiding by principles of environmental
responsibility and sustainability and was not identified as highly important in the context
of the archetypal CSO. The position that environmental responsibility (even broadly
conceived) is collectively not highly important to community sport organisations runs
counter to the development of social responsibility literature in more commercialised
settings (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Trendafilova, Babiak, et al., 2013). The ability
for such organisations to demonstrably influence resource use, pollution, climate
change and biodiversity is potentially lower for the community sport compared to larger
sport organisations. However, such findings are made tentatively given the purposefully
limited context in the archetype development. For example, a golf club or ski club, are
likely to have different environmental responsibilities to a table tennis or squash club.
Thus, it is suggested that environmental responsibility in particular be broadly
considered as a moderate social responsibility for community sport organisations that
is heavily contingent on the context of the organisation.

5. Conclusions

This study delved deeper into the social responsibility that a community sport
organisation has to society. Social responsibility is often implicitly fulfilled via actions
that reflect broader normative, coercive and mimetic pressures that influence
community sport organisations to behave in a certain way. Within this context, social
responsibility practices aren’t always equally valued. First, community sport
organisations do have a level of responsibility to society. Second, the responsibility of a
CSO is different to a corporation. Third, the presence of corrective, all-be-it soft regulation in advanced sport systems such as Australia, England and Canada highlight the need to address issues of responsibility at the community level. Fourth, the lack of a comprehensive yet practical resource for CSOs demonstrates the need for further development in the area of responsibility at the local level. Finally, social issues are likely to be contingent on the organisational context, given the values driven orientation of community sport organisations.

This research offers several avenues for future research. Normative pressures toward “measures” of social responsibility in community sport clubs are already identifiable in Australia (e.g. Goodsports) and England (e.g. ClubMark) via processes that track how successful an organisation is or is not in meeting what are considered to be legitimate social expectations of a CSO. The shift toward coercive regulation and legislation imposed on CSOs is changing the perception of what are legitimate relationships between CSOs and society. Coaching accreditation, police checks, alcohol and food licenses, insurance and injury prevention are now commonplace at the community level. Combined, these trends represent a shift toward higher levels of expectations for legitimate behaviour at the community level. Future research could identify how an organisation can work to meet these expectations within the resource constraints of a community sport organisation. How contingent are these expectations on the specific institutional environment between sports? And, conceptually what are the boundaries of a CSO’s responsibility to society?

This paper lays a foundation for investigating responsibility as a multidimensional construct within CSOs, in contrast to a range of issues being investigated individually and without considering that some may be connected. At the community level, social responsibility has potential to frame practical efforts to measure organisational performance of CSOs. With issues such as player safety, child protection and volunteer accreditation becoming the norm it will be interesting to see where the social responsibility of community sport clubs is positioned 20 years from now.
CHAPTER SEVEN - RESULTS

7.1 Conceptualising the Responsibility of an Elite Sport Organisation

**Aim:** The paradigm of corporate social responsibility broadly considers relationships between business and society. Yet sport management has differentiated itself as a field of inquiry on the basis that it possesses dissimilar features to conventional business. The purpose of this paper is to identify the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal elite sport organisation (ESO).

**Methodology:** Utilising the Delphi method, senior sport management academics (n=33) and managers (n=23) were asked to rank the most important social issues for an archetypal ESO in three iterative rounds seeking group consensus.

**Results:** The findings indicated a narrow perception of social responsibility in ESOs that prioritised economic, labour and fair operating responsibilities. Governance, community and environmental responsibilities were generally considered a lower organisational priority. The human rights dimension demonstrated a mixed response with focus on anti-discrimination organisational actions.

**Conclusions:** This research adds to the sport management literature in three ways. First, it draws on insights of sport management experts to develop a concept of social responsibility that accounts for the distinctive context of ESOs. Second, it differentiates the responsibility of “corporate” and “elite sport” organisations. Finally, it proposes that relatively few actions may need to be prioritised by an elite organisation to be perceived as a legitimate organisational actor. Future research may benefit from a more critical social responsibility in sport discourse around the underrepresentation of implicit organisational responsibilities that avoid negative social outcomes, compared to overt explicit actions that pursue social benefit. For practice, this research indicates that a shift towards measuring the positive and negative social impacts of the organisation’s core responsibility actions may be the next logical advance in social responsibility practice for elite sport organisations.
1. Introduction

The origin of sports associations with social outcomes dates back to the early industrial revolution (1750-1850) in British public schools, corporations and religious groups (Hargreaves, 1986). However research into the contingent nature of social responsibility in the context of elite sport has only recently advanced (Sheth & Babiak, 2010). By extension the application of social responsibility concepts can be considered a relatively new area of study within sport management literature (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006, 2009; Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Breitbarth et al., 2015; Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Westerbeek, 2010). Recent sport management research has largely focussed on individual and organisational philanthropy (Babiak et al., 2012; Walker & Kent, 2013); environmental responsibility (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Walker, 2013; Walker & Mercado, 2013); social advocacy and marketing (Irwin et al., 2003; McGlone & Martin, 2006; Roy & Graeff, 2003) and the organisational benefits from socially aware consumers (Walker & Kent, 2009). Furthermore, whilst the production of certain types of social capital is a prominent research area in community sport studies (Coalter, 2007; Nicholson & Hoye, 2008), commercially orientated sport organisations are also being conceptualised as sites that produce specific types of social capital (Spaaij & Westerbeek, 2010).

The inherent problem with social responsibility – conceptually at least – is the breadth and plurality of the term. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in its broadest sense can be defined as “the fundamental idea … that business corporations have an obligation to work for social betterment” (Bowen, 1953; Frederick, 1986a, p. 4). To conceptualise this in the elite sport context two competing aspects need to be held at the same time. The first is that CSR is a multidimensional construct, broadly defined by Carroll (1979, p. 500) as “the social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organisations at a given point in time” (emphasis added). The second aspect is that the multiple dimensions that collectively construct the concept of CSR are fluid and their importance is contingent on particular organisational and institutional contexts. The second aspect is often overlooked. In Carroll’s (1979, p. 501) seminal article he states that “the major problem is that the issues change and they differ for different industries… [adding that] particular social issues are of varying concern to businesses, depending on the industry in which they exist as well as other factors”. Consequently the institutional environment and type of organisation become important. If social responsibility is contingent on the organisation’s environment then the concept of organisational responsibility may be more appropriate (Neves & Bento, 2005). In this
sense, the field of study is the meta-category of organisations (Bromley & Meyer, 2013) and the term prior to responsibility qualifies the nature of this responsibility. Thus, “corporate social” responsibility specifies the investigation of social issues in corporations. In contrast, organisational responsibility for ESOs infers a more accurate description of the responsibility of an organisation within an elite sport institutional environment.

Views about the application of social responsibility in ESOs vary significantly. The perception about the social responsibility of ESOs has developed from within the paradigm of “corporate” social responsibility/performance (Carroll, 1999; Wood, 1991). As a conceptual framework CSR is most appropriate to identify the responsibility of a corporate organisation. Contrary to this position, Smith and Stewart (2010) have identified that sport holds four special features that differentiate elite team sport organisations’ from typical corporate organisations’: unstable performance quality; anti-competitive practices; media scrutiny of players and restriction of movement between employers. Taking this further, Babiak and Wolfe (2013) suggest that the passion involved in sport; inimitable economic position with regard to government support and competitive balance between teams; transparency of ESOs enforced by heightened media exposure; and, complex pluralistic stakeholder relationships lead to an organisational environment that has a distinctive social responsibility. Whilst many elite sport teams may think of themselves as corporate “sport” organisations that supply a sport product or service, the inclusion of the “sport” qualifier differentiates them from the “corporate entity” (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Despite this, it is the “corporate” entity that researchers have used in the theoretical development of the corporate social responsibility concept. This differentiation proposes that sport social responsibility (Skinner, 2010), or social sport business (Westerbeek, 2010) is distinct from, rather than a derivative of, “corporate social” responsibility (Carroll, 1999).1999).

Social Responsibility and Institutional Context for an Archetypal ESO

This study’s conceptual framework is adapted from Matten and Moon’s (2008, p. 413) model that conceptualises social responsibility within a specified institutional environment (Figure 13). The model is built on the premise that the corporate social responsibility of an organisation is contingent on the environment it is embedded within. The conceptual model is reused for a new purpose in this article. Rather than investigating how the responsibility of a corporation changes in different institutional
environments (e.g. different nations), the institutional environment is held constant and the central organisation is altered from a business corporation to an ESO.

For Matten and Moon (2008), as with several management scholars during the past decade, national differences were identified as a source of variation in social responsibility practice between corporations in different contexts (Habisch, Jonker, Wegner, & Schmidpeter, 2005; Maignan & Ralston, 2002). National and industry variance in the social responsibility practice of corporations has become one of the dominant questions in CSR literature following nearly four decades of investigating the influence of social performance on financial performance (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Orlitzky et al., 2003). Similar approaches have investigated variability in responsibility practice between elite team sport organisations in Europe, the United States, Japan and Australia (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Cobourn, 2014).

Figure 13 – Social Responsibility and Institutional Context for an Archetypal ESO (adapted from Matten & Moon, 2008)

The conceptual model has three main aspects. First and central to the conceptual model is the archetypal organisation, and the manner in which it configures its collective responsibilities based on the institutional environment it is embedded within. Second, the national institutional framework develops on the idea that countries differentially legislate how organisations can form, the market processes that govern
competition, and the regulation that determines how organisations are coordinated and controlled (Whitley, 1992, 1999). Third, the model is developed from neo-institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) and identifies institutional pressures within the elite sport organisational field. These include coercive isomorphism, mimetic processes and normative pressures that may influence the social responsibility of one ESO to become more similar to another ESO. Each aspect of the conceptual framework will now be explained, to identify the idiosyncrasies of the elite sport institutional environment.

Within any national institutional framework, the legal form of an ESO fundamentally differs. The term elite sport organisation does not denote a particular type of organisational form. Individuals looking to form a legal entity that participates in an elite sport league can choose from a wide variety of legal structures. Predominately these are either forms of privately incorporated companies as common in North American and several European top sport leagues, or, companies/associations that cannot distribute profits and are controlled by a member elected board. The nature of an organisation alters the fundamental premise of organisational social responsibility. If, for example, the organisation is a privately held company, then corporate social responsibility concepts may be more analogous to such an organisation. If, however, the organisation disallows the distribution of surplus financial resources to owners, then the fundamental debates that have shaped the development of corporate social responsibility, such as the primary economic motives of organisations, seem unsuitable to describe the responsibility of non-corporate organisations.

Market processes, or “how the economic relations between actors are organised and coordinated” (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 408) of ESOs vary considerably from corporate organisations. The identification of market processes that reduce external competition and promote competitive balance between teams has long been identified as a feature of elite sport (Smith & Stewart, 2010). New sport teams face high barriers to entry into leagues that simultaneously act to reduce free-market competition, in a Keynesian economic sense. Simultaneously, in the absence of free-market competition the controlling bodies (e.g. leagues, associations, governing bodies) are able to strongly exert regulative influence on the competitive landscape within the league. In highly regulated professional sport leagues such as the National Football League (NFL), competitive balance rather than free market competition is pursued via the strict implementation of draft, salary cap and player movement restrictions. The presence of anti-competitive practices, and widespread cooperation between ESOs leads to a set of market processes that are distinctively suited to the institutional environment of elite team sport. The control over market processes by a central body
can mean variation exists in the social norms accepted in elite sport compared to regular corporations in a society. For example the Rooney rule in the NFL stipulates a higher level of equality in employment practices than in the general population. Simultaneously, rule 46 in the National Hockey League (NHL) official rules (titled “Fighting”) is significantly more lenient on what would be considered assault in the general population (NHL, 2015).

The coordination and control systems refer to the governance features of organisations and the relationships between owners and employees. The shift toward professionalised ESOs has seen several features of elite sport align with the corporate ideals of coordination and control. Most notably for social responsibility, professionalisation has, and is, transitioning elite sport from a place of recreation to a workplace. Inclusive in this process are the expectations that are placed on corporations are now also being met and sometimes exceeded in particular elite sporting contexts. ESOs are now more explicitly required to address issues of occupational health and safety, good governance and financial transparency as would be expected in any corporate organisation. Additionally, ESOs may exceed social norms to address issues such as the welfare of players post career given the physical effect on athlete’s bodies throughout their career and the young age that they entered the sport system.

The third aspect of the model addresses the institutional pressures within elite sport organisational fields. Mimetic processes occur when "organisations model themselves on other organisations" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). Mimetic processes are readily apparent in both North American professional sport and the top two divisions of English football via the creation of relationships with foundations to deliver their social responsibility (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009) (see Figures 4 and 5). Coercive isomorphism is the “formal and informal pressures exerted on organisations by other organisations upon which they are dependent and by cultural expectations in the society within which organisations function” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 150). The primary sources of formal coercive pressures on ESOs come from governing bodies. When a national sport organisation implements a new policy or strategy that is uniformly adopted across the teams it governs, the organisations that conform become more similar. For example, “Financial Fair Play” ensures organisations operate within the same financial guidelines in European football and “NBA Cares” positively coerce NBA teams to deliver on their responsibilities to communities in similar ways. Finally normative pressures outline the legitimating actions of educational and professional networks to set standards that legitimate
occupational practice (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Normative pressures suggest that "professionals" hired by an ESO, receive similar training and education, therefore making the organisations they enter more similar to each other. For example, coaching accreditation accredits an individual as a legitimate professional coach; however, as teams and leagues put coaches through the same accreditation process, the basic skills of a professional coach become more homogenous.

Sport management research into social responsibility has developed from academics in management and economics such as Carroll (1979, 1991, 1999, 2012; Schwartz & Carroll, 2008), Porter and Kramer (2002, 2006, 2011), Friedman (1970; Friedman & Friedman, 1962) and McWilliams and Seigel (2000). The primary focus of these approaches was directly concerned with the corporate organisational form and in most cases a publically owned form of company that highlighted the fiduciary duty to owners to not only produce, but maximise a return on their financial investment. This research extends from this position to consider organisations that are prevalent in the sport industry. Operating within this paradigm set in place nearly four decades of research that investigated the relationship between financial performance and social performance. Once this debate was largely settled with two highly influential meta-analyses by Orlitzky et al (2003) and Margolis and Walsh (2003), the corporate social responsibility discourse shifted to the contextually contingent nature of social responsibility across nations corporations (Habisch et al., 2005; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Matten & Moon, 2008). This paper extends this previous research by conceptualising responsibility as an organisational phenomenon, and that corporate social responsibility is simply one way of expressing the responsibility of an organisation. Understanding that social responsibility may be contingent upon the institutional environment in which the organisation resides, the remainder of the paper will aim to answer the following research question: what are the perceived organisational responsibilities of an archetypal elite sport organisation?

2. Methodology

Method

The Delphi method is a technique to elicit responses from anonymous expert panellists regarding a complex problem (Day & Bobeva, 2005; Martino, 1983), and has recently been used in sport management (Costa, 2005), sport facility (Mallen et al., 2010) and health promotion through sport (Kelly et al., 2013) research. The Delphi method was deemed an appropriate method to theoretically investigate the social responsibility of ESOs due to the inherent complexity and multidimensionality of the
problem, and, the ability of the method to bring together diverse expert opinions toward a general consensus. The data collection method chosen for this study is based on Martino’s (1983) modified Delphi technique (Costa, 2005; Mallen et al., 2010). Based on these established techniques 284 expert panellists were invited to participate in three survey iterations between July and August 2013.

**Survey development**

Survey items were developed from the two most prevalent social responsibility standards, the International Standards Organisation (ISO) 26000 – Guidance on Social Responsibility and the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) 3.1 (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011; International Organization for Standardization, 2010). These standards were combined with an extensive review of sport and social responsibility literature. The research process began by combining the existing thematic hierarchies (dimension, issue and item) of both the ISO 26000 and the GRI 3.1. Where commonalities arose, issues and items were combined. The second stage overlaid a review of the sport management and CSR literature on this framework to include social responsibility items that may be distinctive to sport such as maximising participation and on field performance. The research team then collectively refined the list and item language, resulting in a 25-item list of social responsibility statements. The university’s ethics committee granted ethics approval in July 2013.

**Survey Instrument and Piloting**

The survey was distributed electronically using Qualtrics survey software. The survey design consisted of three successive survey iterations separated by controlled feedback from the research team. The research team determined that it was important to provide participants with a common point of departure (archetypal organisational and country case studies) due to the heterogeneity of the expert panel. As Martino (1983) described context is necessary, as without it, experts will simply create their own particular context (e.g. political, economic, and cultural) from the paradigms that they reside within. Based on Max Weber’s “ideal types” (Weber, 1962), an archetypal approach was used to explore the concept of social responsibility for an ESO. In translating Webers writings, Gerth and Mills (1977, p. 59) describe “ideal types” as “the construction of certain elements of reality into a logically precise conception”. This idea is elaborated further in the work of Kikulis, Slack and Hinings (1992, p. 344) who describe the introduction of design archetypes “along the lines of “ideal types”, design archetypes are simplified models that isolate the elements of organisational design and
their interrelationships”. Archetypes neither evaluate nor exemplify an organisational
typology. Rather they represent the most common features of such an organisation and
in the real world most organisations would fall somewhere between these types (Gerth
& Mills, 1977). Participants received a case study about an ESO archetype that was
contextualised within an archetypal country case study.12 No information that specified
a particular type of sport was given. For each archetype participants were asked to rate
each social responsibility item on a five-point ordinal scale of importance (very low –
very high).

The initial survey instrument was piloted with 13 sport and sociology
researchers within an Australian University. The aim of the pilot was to check if the
wording of items was clear and unambiguous, in a logical sequence, assess the likely
completion time and allow the researcher a “dry run” at analysing the data (Gratton &
Jones, 2004, p. 127). The pilot group was not involved in the subsequent study.
Following the pilot survey several grammatical changes were made to the items and
the wording of the country context was amended to improve participant understanding.

Participant Selection

The Delphi method requires the selection of panellists who are experts in their
respective fields (Martino, 1983). Experts were selected based on their knowledge of
issues related to sport management and social issues/outcomes in sport organisations.
To account for the variety of social issues in social responsibility management studies
the research team identified two expert groups – academic and industry. Academic
experts (N=125) were identified as holding positions on the editorial boards of three
leading sport management journals and one sociology journal. Industry experts
(N=159) were drawn from publically available websites of national sport organisations
in 14 countries and across 19 different sports. Industry experts were deemed to hold
senior or middle management positions (Chief Executive Officer, General Manager,
General Secretary, Director and Community Manager13). This delivered a total sample
of 284 experts that accounted for both a 25% anticipated response rate to the first
round and conservative dropout between survey iterations of 60% (Costa, 2005;
Dalkey, 1969; Dalkey, Brown, & Cochran, 1970; Day & Bobeva, 2005; Mallen et al.,
2010)14. Information about the project’s purpose, a research timeline, country context

12 see appendix four and six
13 The language of management positions differed based on country and organisational type,
the list outlined in text represents some of the common titles from expert panellists.
14 284x25%= 71 (Round 1); 72x0.4= 28 (Round 2); 29x0.4 = 11 (Round3)
and an invitation to participate in the research was distributed to the 284 experts at the start of July 2013.

**Consensus and Fundamental Constructs**

Consensus in general, and in Delphi studies in particular, is difficult to define. Von der Gracht (2012, p. 1529) reviewed consensus measures and found eight different measures used in varying capacities and combinations within Delphi studies: stipulated number of rounds; subjective analysis; certain level of agreement; average percentage of majority opinions; cut-off rate mode, mean/median ratings and rankings, standard deviation; interquartile range; coefficient of variation and post group consensus. The exploratory and repetitious nature of the Delphi survey design led the researchers to select a five-point Likert scale\(^{15}\) in favour of more in depth measurement scales. The ordinal scale therefore dictated how consensus measurement was used. In this study consensus was reached if 90% of participants were within one rating scale point of the median value. The only exception to this rule was when the median value was four-and-a-half or five. In this case, consensus was reached when 80% of participants were within one rating point of the median value (e.g. four and five). The mean was not used as a consensus measure; however it was used as an explanatory tool and to determine the level of perceived importance of social responsibility items. Highly important social issues were therefore developed when the mean value of the item was greater than or equal to high importance (4.0) and consensus between participants had been achieved. This ensured that only those social responsibility items that were on average of at least “high importance” and had reached group consensus were included as highly important social issues for the ESO archetype.

3. **Results**

**Round 1**

The first round asked participants to rank the importance of each social responsibility item and identify any new items that they felt were not included in the item list. 56 participants accepted the invitation to participate in the first round, a response rate of 19.7%. The expert group included 33 academic (24 professors, nine associate professors) and 23 industry experts (18 senior managers; five middle managers). The expert group came from 12 countries and represented 14 different

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\(^{15}\) The Likert scale items were designated a numerical value for analysis where Very High Importance equalled five to Very Low Importance equalling one.
Sports. 34 participants were male and 22 were female. The qualitative responses from the open-ended questions provided the basis for a discussion and coding of eight new social responsibility items for round two. These were incorporated into a 33-item list for round two (Table 12). Seven items reached consensus after round one. The level of disagreement amongst the remaining 18 items ranged from 10.7% to 21.4%.

**Round 2**

The second round provided the opportunity for participants who scored outside one rating scale point of the median value to reconsider their position in light of group responses. Participants were asked to rank the eight new items identified in round one. 49 participants (28 academic, 21 industry) completed the second round, a response rate of 87.5%. The seven non-responses were removed. A further 16 items reached consensus during this round. Just over two thirds of social responsibility items had reached group consensus after round two (23 out of 33). All items over 4.0 reached consensus. The mean scores for the remaining 10 items ranged from 2.86 to 3.98 and the average level of disagreement amongst the panel ranged from 10.2% to 16.33%.

**Round 3**

The third round asked participants to rank the five most important social responsibility items for the organisation from those items that had reached consensus and were identified by experts as highly important. There were 30 participants in the final round, and 28 usable responses (19 academic, nine industry), a response rate of 61.2%. The 13 social responsibility items that had a mean response above 4.00 (high importance) were selected from the 23 items that had reached consensus in round two. Participants were prompted to provide qualitative responses regarding the actions an ESO could take to implement these responsibilities within the ESO. The prioritisation of the five most important social responsibility items allowed the research team to develop a weighting factor of importance in the third round. The weighting factor was expressed as a fraction of the expert panel’s perceived priority of an issue. If all participants identified the social responsibility item as the single highest social responsibility issue for an ESO the weighting factor would be 2.0. If no participants identified the social responsibility item as in the top five social responsibility priorities for the ESO (despite the expert panel collectively perceiving the issue to be highly important in the second

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*16 Countries: Australia, Canada, Finland, Germany, Greece, Netherlands, New Zealand, Scotland, Singapore, South Africa, UK, USA. Sports: Basketball, Handball, Hockey, Netball, Rugby League, Rugby Union, Soccer, Softball, Squash, Swimming, Table Tennis, Tennis, Volleyball, Water Polo*
round) then the weighting factor was 1.0. The weighting factor from round three and the mean scores from round two were multiplied to generate a priority weighted mean score. This score enabled greater discrimination between the highest social responsibility issues for an ESO, and allowed the research team to clearly identify the organisation’s highest social responsibility priorities. Table 12 presents the results from this process. The seven social responsibility dimensions are presented, within each dimension, the items are ordered on the basis of their priority-weighted importance from round three. Those items that were not identified as highly important to the organisation are shaded in grey.
Table 12 – Social Responsibility Priorities for an Archetypal ESO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Organisational Priority</th>
<th>Weighted R3 Mean</th>
<th>Round 2 (n)</th>
<th>Social Responsibility Item</th>
<th>Social Responsibility Dimension</th>
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<td><strong>Economic Dimension</strong></td>
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<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to owners/members</td>
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<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>5.66</td>
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<td>Prioritise on field sporting success within the organisation</td>
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<td><strong>Human Rights Dimension</strong></td>
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<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
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<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
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<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
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<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
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<td>Develop equality and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
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<td>28</td>
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<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
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<td><strong>Fair Operating Practices Dimension</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the 'uncertainty of outcome' within a sporting contest and/or the organisation's integrity</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>4.75</td>
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<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Implement socially responsible procurement practices within the supply chain</td>
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<td><strong>Labour Practices Dimension</strong></td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by assuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks and possess appropriate training</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>5.23</td>
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<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>11</td>
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<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
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<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
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<td>Overtly express the freedom to associate and collectively bargain</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>3.14</td>
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<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
<td>Labour Practices</td>
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<td>Community Development Dimension</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.54</td>
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<td>Maximise the use of the organisation's sports facilities</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through subsidies, access times, locations etc.</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Maximise health promotion opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
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<td>3.10</td>
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<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
<td>Community Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance Dimension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.94</td>
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<td>Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
<td>Governance</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
<td>Governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Publicly stating social goals and performance indicators</td>
<td>Governance</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
<td>Governance</td>
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<td>Environmental Dimension</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
<td>Environment</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
4. Discussion

This study investigated the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal elite sport organisation. The results indicated a relatively narrow conception of perceived organisational responsibilities that are highly important for an ESO. Economic, fair operating and labour practices were clearly identified as important dimensions of responsibility, as well as the anti-discrimination aspect of human rights and the community use of the organisation's sport facilities. In contrast, dimensions of governance, environment and community involvement were not rated as important as the aforementioned dimensions. The results did however differ from previous research on the social responsibility of ESOs that found ethical and philanthropic social responsibilities were perceived to be of higher importance than economic and legal responsibilities for professional sport teams in the United States (Sheth & Babiak, 2010). The difference may be accounted for by the focus on the social responsibility of an organisational whole rather than a social responsibility program within an organisation. The social responsibility of an ESO was conceptualised in seven social responsibility dimensions: human rights, labour practices, economic, governance, community development, fair operating practice and environment. The discussion section will discuss each dimension in relation to the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal ESO.

Economic Responsibilities

The most prominent responsibility dimension identified in this study was economic responsibilities. Three of the top six most important social responsibilities were identified as economic in nature. These included financial viability, fiscal responsibility and prioritising on field success. Financial management is so ingrained in the fabric of an organisation that it is not uniformly applied as an item of choice in social responsibility discourse, practice and measurement, but rather, as a basic principle of being in business. The ISO 26000, for example, does not account for economic responsibility as a core social responsibility subject or issue despite Carroll (2012, p. 8) emphasising that “all other responsibilities are predicated upon the economic because without it the others become moot considerations”. As is the case with implicit responsibilities good financial management practice becomes more apparent by its absence within an organisation. The Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) for example, has progressively introduced its “Financial Fair Play” (FFP) legislation across European Football since 2009 in response to endemic financial mismanagement in elite football clubs (Muller, Lammert, & Hovemann, 2012, p. 118).
This is exemplified by just over 55% of European football organisations making a net loss in 2011 (n= 695), despite European football club income growing an average 5.6% per annum between 2006-11 (UEFA, 2012, p. 105). In 2014 and following a combined loss of £149m in the prior two years, Manchester City was fined £49m and had the number of players they could take into the Champions League capped under FFP legislation (BBC, 2014). As one participant outlined, a fundamental social responsibility for ESOs should be to take actions to “ensure proper budgeting and accounting procedures are in place… Identify viable revenue generation and cost saving options” (Participant 15, Sport Management Associate Professor, Canada). After all, a bankrupt organisation is unlikely to produce any lasting socially beneficial outcomes.

On field performance was conceptualised as an ESO’s raison d’être and was linked to economic performance given the financial return associated with winning in professional sport via prize money, sponsorship and membership. Despite the importance of on-field performance for elite sports organisations, little consideration for conceptualising sporting performance within the broad social responsibility literature is apparent. Sporting performance is core to business in the same assumed manner as economic performance is for corporate organisations and is often excluded from broad social responsibility theory and practice in the same way. As one participant described, on field performance “seems to be its social mandate and thus the club has a responsibility to prioritise this; it should be made clear and not clouded over with other perhaps more socially acceptable objectives; i.e., its social responsibility is to its true mandate” (Participant 7, Sport Management Professor, Canada). In many respects the on field performance of ESOs is the primary objective – or responsibility – of the organisation particularly for key stakeholder groups such as fans and supporters. Nevertheless, winning at all costs in sport may be analogous to financial greed in the corporate sector, and therefore any business requires strong leadership and an organisational culture that is founded on principles of integrity.

**Human Rights**

The second dimension of organisational responsibility for an ESO is human rights and, in particular, equality with regards to employment and anti-discrimination practices. Participants expressed the minimal expectation that equal employment opportunities and a workplace free from discrimination are incorporated into a broader diversity and equity agenda within an ESO. Increasingly sport organisations are

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17 By comparison, the EU economy grew on average 0.5% per annum during the same time period.
extending explicit anti-discrimination regulation above and beyond that required by federal laws. A good example is the Rooney rule in the NFL. Despite its controversies, the rule simply requires NFL teams to interview at least one minority candidate for a coach or general manager opening – no assurances of employment are made. Madden and Ruther (2011) suggest this policy has had a positive influence on the provision of equal opportunities to applicants for such positions. Conversely, beyond the provision of a basic human right, it is argued the ruling has had little effectiveness in increasing the number of minority coaches in the NFL to 2009 (Solow, Solow, & Walker, 2011). Whilst increased regulation is a start, an operational intent to broadly embed equality and social inclusivity policies within an ESO is required to provide a workplace that promotes equality and diversity. As one senior manager described, fundamentally addressing equality and diversity within the organisation would require the organisation to “ensure equality and diversity is embedded across all areas of the business […] an approach which is motivated entirely by legal requirements is unlikely to be truly inclusive as the focus is on the minimum to comply and being reactive. Whereas a more holistic approach will be proactive and innovative” (Participant 56, Senior Manager, United Kingdom NSO).

A cut-off point of highly important (4.0) was selected to determine those issues that were most important to the ESO. Whilst 13 issues were identified as highly important and reaching consensus, four issues human rights issues were identified in the top 19 social responsibility priorities. These issues focussed on aspects of human rights such as disability, gender, accessibility and inclusivity in the sport setting. This indicated that although not in-keeping with our conception of social responsibility priorities, participants clearly identified this dimension as more important than, for example, the community development dimension that occupied eight of the lowest 12 priorities.

Fair Operating Practices

Fair operating practices concerns the actions ESOs can take to assure the “uncertainty of outcome” of the sporting contest by negating immoral practices in elite sport such as corruption and collusion is the third dimension of social responsibility (Carpenter, 2012). From an industry perspective, participants identified that whilst a “zero tolerance policy for corruption or cheating” (Participant 47, CEO, New Zealand NSO) is preferable, there was a need to support this action with anti-corruption “polic[i]es for the club and players. Education seminars for players and staff [and have a] public position statements [for] media” (Participant 49, CEO, New Zealand NSO).
The problem that ESOs face is that corruption is by definition and necessity – secretive. Recently, the effect of breaching fair operating practices has been felt via “spot fixing” scandals in the Indian Premier League (IPL).\footnote{Spot fixing is the situation in which elite players deliberately underperform or cause others to underperform in pre-determined times that have been bet upon by third parties} Mr. Sreesanth, a fast bowler for one of the franchise teams, was banned for life after he was caught deliberately bowling poorly in an over after giving a predetermined signal to bookmakers watching on television (Mudgal, 2014). Only five weeks prior to the spot-fixing event, Sreesanth underwent the International Cricket Council’s (ICC) anti-corruption education program with the rest of his teammates. Subsequently, the billion-dollar IPL is continuing to suffer from allegations of corruption that is hurting their broader legitimacy and brand reputation. The Sreesanth case demonstrates that although ESOs’ fundamental responsibility may be to educate and inform their stakeholders on fair operating practices such as anti-corruption policies, the maintenance of bilateral relationships with both governing bodies and law enforcement is critical to implementation.

Labour Practices

The fourth dimension of organisational responsibility for an ESO is labour practices. The labour practices dimension consisted of two main areas, occupational health and safety and personal development. Occupational health and safety concerns “the promotion and maintenance of the highest degree of physical, mental and social wellbeing of workers and prevention of harm to health caused by working conditions” (International Organization for Standardization, 2010, p. 38). Occupational health and safety is indicative of the changing landscape and subsequent need for organisations to actively devote resources to fundamental social responsibilities. For several decades prior to the introduction of stringent concussion legislation in the NFL in 2009, player concussion was thought of as “part of the game”. Over the past decade information began to emerge that there was a relationship between repeated head collisions and concussion related head injuries (Hanna & Kain, 2010). Participants identified occupational health and safety is a fundamental legal responsibility suggesting ESOs should aim to, “undertake an analysis of compliance with occupational health and safety standards. Update policies and procedures to ensure they comply with current standards” (Participant 21, Sport Management Associate Professor, Canada). The implications of failing to adequately address occupational health and safety has resulted in a $765 million class action lawsuit that has been initiated between 4500
current and ex-players and the NFL (Belson, 2014). The plaintiffs argue that the NFL did not have adequate injury prevention strategies and failed in their duty of care to provide a safe working environment. Occupational health and safety responsibilities are consequently viewed as highly important to the social responsibility of any ESO.

Personal development and training were identified as a second area of importance within the labour practices dimension. Specifically, the areas of (post) career management, education and introducing basic social responsibility training to players and staff were deemed to be a fundamental aspect of an ESO’s labour practices. To deliver personal development to staff one participant identified the need to “set goals when people are employed and when they join the club [and] keep abreast of educational/training/coaching developments/opportunities across the board” (Participant 34, National Director, South African NSO). Personal development and training seem also to possess distinctive aspects in the elite sport setting due to the young age at which many players commit to an elite sport talent pathway and the opportunity cost of doing so. Furthermore, the media focus on many elite sport leagues around the world necessitates a higher level of personal development and training the elite sport context that is not necessarily required in corporate settings. Representative of the changing nature of elite sport to develop more socially aware sports people, the English Rugby Players Association (RPA) has taken player development further by introducing compulsory training for its players in the areas of alcohol awareness, anti-doping and illicit drug policy, betting integrity and mental health (RPA, n.d.). These considerations and changes demonstrate the need for personal development and training of players and staff within ESOs as a fundamental social responsibility.

**Community Development**

The fifth social responsibility dimension concerns the relative priority of community development in comparison to other social responsibilities that are considered to be implicit to organisational operations. The only issue that was identified as highly important by participants were actions to maximise the use of the organisation’s sport facility infrastructure as a specific form of community relations. Largely facility maximisation is driven by increasing social expectation of the community use of expensive facilities that comes with the level of public funding being required to construct or renovate facilities. One participant neatly described this social expectation as follows: “elite facilities often sit unused and, given the general shortage of facilities, it is inappropriate to leave facilities unused when/where there are others of all ages who would love to try participating in elite facilities” (Participant 8, Sport
Sociology Professor, Canada). Broadly, sport facilities play a key role in the strategic implementation of CSR (Anagnostopoulos, 2013). Such facilities can be used for a variety of socially worthy causes such as improving access to sport for disabled people (Downs & Paramio-Salcines, 2013); community regeneration (Smith, Langhammer, & Carson, 2013) and as venues for community programs such as “football in the community” in the EPL (Hindley & Williamson, 2013; Parnell, Stratton, Drust, & Richardson, 2013). Socially responsible activities are therefore not necessarily central to this fundamental responsibility. Rather the intent to strategically utilise the organisation’s infrastructure assets to benefit the wider community may facilitate several areas of an ESO’s responsibility activities.

In contrast the remaining eight issues within this dimension of organisational responsibility occupied the lowest 12 responsibility priorities for this organisation. These included local investment, equitable access, social capital, maximising participation, health promotion, volunteering, community education and contributing to social benefit organisations. This finding stands in contrast to beliefs that suggest corporate social responsibility begins after economic and legal responsibilities have been met (e.g. McWilliams & Siegel, 2000). Building on this premise also identifies that such actions are volitional or discretionary (Carroll, 1979) to the organisations operations, rather than central to the responsible operations of an ESO. Two important questions are raised from this perspective. The first builds on Bowen’s (1953, p. 5) fundamental questions regarding social responsibility of businessman regarding “precisely what are the social responsibilities which businessmen [or in this context an ESO] expected to assume”. We believe that relative to financial and human rights issues community development objectives occupy a lower perceived priority and may be a step toward rationalising the expectations of social responsibility in ESOs. Second, we propose an alternate view of social responsibility in line with Campbell’s (2007) minimal social responsibility thresholds that gives priority to ensuring no harm is caused in the first place, and, if harm is caused, resources are devoted to rectifying any damage prior to pursuing overt actions to do good such as community involvement activities. Our preliminary findings tentatively indicate that the answer to this question and the current focus of social responsibility management (particularly in sport) may not align.

**Governance and Environmental Dimensions**

The final two dimensions link in with the above discussion regarding the extent to which an organisation is responsible to society. Governance issues regarding the
setting, stating and management of social goals by the organisation, and the broad environmental responsibility of the organisation were not identified as the highest social responsibility priorities of the organisation. Nor were they identified as low as community development issues were. Determining the environmental responsibility of an archetypal organisation was therefore difficult due to the generalised features required to fulfil an archetypal description of an organisation. Even at the exploratory level however, it is interesting to note the apparent discrepancy between the relative priority of environmental responsibilities and the increasing focus on environmental responsibility in the sport management discourse (Kihl et al., 2014). Likewise, given ESO’s media exposure, it is surprising that governance actions to state, set and manage social goals and policies would not be a higher organisational priority. The findings indicate the need for future research to investigate the relative importance of these issues in a specific context. For example, does an ESO publishing a social responsibility report make any difference to the organisation by any objective measure? Alternatively for investigating any relationship between an organisation’s environmental initiatives and (for example) purchase intent, designing a data collection instrument with no reference to environmental responsibility to determine objective (unprompted) measures of environmental awareness and subsequent influence would greatly assist the development of relative measures of socially beneficial organisational actions.

Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations to this research that need to be considered. Building on prior research, organisational archetypes were used as a design tool to provide a common theoretical context for the diverse global expert panel that extended beyond previous social responsibility in professional sport that used executive managers operating within elite sport teams (Sheth & Babiak, 2010). That is, the expert panel was composed of members from academic journal editorial boards and national sport organisations. No participants were targeted from ESOs. Experts with a considerable and applicable general knowledge in the field were selected to provide a conceptual overview of multiple contexts. Future research may include participants’ roles and responsibilities as specific to one context. Second, the use of an archetype meant that whilst the organisation represents the most common features of an ESO in the real world most organisations would fall somewhere outside of this archetypal organisation (Gerth & Mills, 1977). Therefore whilst the authors believe this is a sound generic approach to conceptual development that is applicable to elite sports organisations, it is not statistically generalisable to the ESO population.
The relationship between sport and broad social responsibility is an emergent area of academia and thus presents multiple avenues for future research. Whilst current sport management research on CSR has confined itself to the corporate paradigm and thus the focus on elite team sports and manufacturing sections of the sport industry, more emphasis could be placed on scholarly research into the social responsibility of non-corporate sport organisations. Furthermore, CSR scholarship in sport management is often discussed in unbounded terminology. The recent emergence of strategic social responsibility, coupled with more critical approaches to social responsibility (Levermore, 2011, 2013) offers great scope for sport management research to pragmatically investigate the social responsibility of sport organisations that face distinctive resource constraints (e.g. non-profit, volunteer based) and opportunities (e.g. exposure, youth appeal) (Porter & Kramer, 2002, 2006, 2011; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007).

5. Conclusion

Seven dimensions of social responsibility were identified as part of the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal ESO. Economic, human rights, fair operating practices and labour practices were identified as highly important dimensions of social responsibility. Alternatively, community development, governance and environmental dimensions were identified as being of lower importance. Overall, this suggests that the perceived organisational responsibility of an archetypal ESO is dependent upon a narrow set of core organisational actions, rather than wide-ranging compliance with multiple social expectations. Future research may benefit from a more critical approach to investigate the underlying issues of responsibility in the elite sport context. A more critical approach could focus on the underrepresentation of responsibilities such as anti-corruption, governance and occupational health and safety (i.e. those actions that when breached may cause harm), compared to overt actions such as community development, environmental impacts and philanthropy (i.e. those actions that when fulfilled may cause a benefit that is rarely attributed a long term objective measure), in the social responsibility discourse. In summary, there seems to be a conceptual divide between actions to evade irresponsibility, and pursue of overtly responsible organisational behaviour in the elite sport CSR discourse. This paper identifies that both sets of responsibility actions need to be considered as part of one holistic and multidimensional concept of organisational responsibility.
CHAPTER EIGHT – INTEGRATED DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research was to explore how organisational responsibility was perceived between and within three archetypal sport organisations. The researcher investigated perceptions of social responsibility in different sport archetypes. Established sociological concepts and neo-institutional theory were used to develop three archetypal organisations as conceptual tools: a community sport organisation (CSO), a national sport organisation (NSO) and an elite sport organisation (ESO). Experts perceived operational and nonessential responsibilities to be similar between archetypes. Nonetheless, differences were observed between archetypes. The areas of difference comprised inclusive participation, competition integrity and training, ethical leadership, winning and social capital. A separate categorisation was developed to explain differences in the perceived importance of responsibility issues relative to other responsibility issues within a single archetype. The seven dimensions of responsibility issues within an archetype included: human rights, governance, economic, labour practices, fair operating practices, community development, and environment. The results indicated each archetype shared operational responsibilities regarding financial and legal responsibilities, but differed in areas of inclusive participation (CSO, NSO); anti-corruption and staff training (ESO, NSO); winning (ESO); social capital and community cohesion (CSO); and, ethical leadership (NSO). The differential valuing of responsibility issues enabled configurations of organisational responsibility to be developed for each archetypal organisation. This chapter integrates the findings of this thesis and outlines the thesis contributions, implications, limitations and conclusions.

The literature review demonstrated the historical corporate influence of investigating organisational responsibility within profit-orientated (corporate) organisational forms. This development created a paradigm that focussed on business-society relationships, rather than a more encompassing organisation-society worldview. The sport sector was presented as a suitable lens to investigate organisation-society relationships due to the broad continuum of organisations contained within the sector. Neo-institutional theory was used as a theoretical lens to discriminate between organisational fields within the sector. Archetypes were developed as conceptual tools to represent organisational fields within the sport sector. The Delphi method was used to form consensus on the most important social responsibility issues in archetypal sport organisations. Subsequently, perceived variations in the importance of responsibility issues within and between archetypes were investigated.
Building upon work that has spanned the boundaries of organisational responsibility studies in sport management (Godfrey, 2009), management (Godfrey et al., 2010; Matten & Moon, 2008) and trends in global social responsibility reporting (Global Reporting Initiative, 2011), the conceptual framework was developed based on three propositions. The first was that between sectors, or industries, responsibility practice is likely to differ. The second proposition was that sectors encompass an internal heterogeneity of organisational forms that can be grouped into organisational fields. Each organisational field shares commonalities with the sector (e.g. they are all “sport” organisations), but demonstrates differences compared to other organisational fields (e.g. local club verse sporting goods manufacturer). The third proposition was that even within an organisational field, a single organisation’s responsibility is contingent on infinite factors that produce countless variations of organisational responsibility configurations (e.g. time, culture). Collectively, these three propositions point to the view that a single concept of organisational responsibility is ineffectual for understanding the variety of ways organisations can configure their responsibility to society. Rather, the researcher proposes the logical extension of current approaches taken by industry measures and guidance that are increasingly accounting for contextual nuances by developing context specific guidance (e.g. see the GRI sector supplements or the appendices of the ISO 26000). The plurality of organisational responsibility was highlighted in the conceptual framework (Figure 9).

As a consequence, a discussion of “corporate social” responsibility appears to be a myopic view toward organisation-society relationships in a society where multiple forms of organising exist. This was particularly apparent in the sport sector. Sport corporate social responsibility is a relatively new field of study in comparison to CSR in corporations. Over the past decade, notwithstanding the rapid expansion of literature investigating CSR in sport, the primary focus of this body of literature has been on highly mediated and commercialised sport organisations. The limited extension of the organisational responsibility discourse, from corporate to other forms of organisation, was the focus of this research. This is particularly pertinent for the sport sector given the dominant form of organising in the industry is non-profit in nature. On this basis, the study of organisational responsibility in sport management may be able to directly influence the broader management research agenda regarding organisational responsibility.
8.1 Contributions to Knowledge and Research Objectives

Perceived Organisational Responsibilities between Sport Organisations

This thesis contributed to existing knowledge by empirically investigating the similarities and differences in perceived social responsibility between organisational archetypes (RQ1). The first contribution that this research made to management literature was the identification that social issues were highly important in elite, national and community sport organisational archetypes. Each of the three organisational archetypes was found to have a high level of perceived responsibility to society. Although this is a seemingly obvious finding there is no research at present that has explicitly identified that community and national sport organisations possess an identifiable and quantifiable responsibility to society. Furthermore, non-profit organisations care for some of the most vulnerable groups in society, whilst governing bodies are both funded by taxpayer money and create legislation that underpins behaviour that is deemed socially acceptable for large parts of society that participate in sport. Yet, to this point there has been little research investigating the holistic responsibility of such organisations in the same way that corporations are scrutinised. The simple, yet profound finding that each of the three archetypes was perceived to have a relatively high level of responsibility to society is important to highlight here. In short, community and national sport organisations have identifiable organisational responsibilities too.

The second contribution this research makes to existing knowledge relates to how sport organisations’ are similar and different. These findings advance sport management knowledge by identifying the areas of organisational responsibility practice that are relatively constant between archetypes and those that are potentially distinctive to a particular type of organisation, or organisations. The first step toward this was to identify how similar the structure of sport responsibility categories was to existing corporate social responsibility frameworks. To do so Carroll’s (1979, 1991) seminal definition of CSR was used as a point of reference. Carroll’s (1979) definition contains four areas of responsibility; economic, legal, ethical and discretionary. Although these categories are not mutually exclusive, they give an abstract overview of the "shape" of the social responsibility configuration of an organisation. Collectively there were no major differences in the hierarchy of social responsibility categories between the three archetypes. Economic interests were perceived to be most important; discretionary interests least important; and, legal and ethical issues inseparable at the categorical level (Table 8). Difference was apparent in the strength
of importance of each category. Legal responsibilities were emphasised more in the NSO compared to the ESO, and in the ESO compared to the CSO respectively. This suggests that more attention was likely to be put on legal responsibilities in an NSO and ESO, compared to an CSO. The NSO was found to have a higher ethical responsibility than the ESO and CSO. The NSO was also found to have a higher discretionary responsibility than the ESO. This suggests that the NSO was more likely to partake in overt actions to ensure ethical goals such as accessibility and inclusivity within the sport. Each of these findings was seemingly congruent with the organisations’ position within society. For example, the NSO writes and implements legislation and therefore is likely to have a larger emphasis on legal responsibilities than a local organisation. Additionally, an NSO is more likely to be the moral centre for a sport via the creation, distribution and implementation of socially progressive policies. Therefore whilst the progression of economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities was similar between archetypes, the level of emphasis of each category varied in some instances.

The third contribution this research makes is the identification of similarities between archetypes that may be less contingent on changes in the environment. Two areas of similarity between archetypes were identified: operational and non-essential responsibilities. Operational responsibilities can be thought of as the basic functions of organisational action and include financial management, protecting individuals within the organisation from harm and proactively preventing forms of inequity and discrimination. Operational responsibilities are important because they were identified as highly important regardless of changes in organisational context. That is, they may be considered fundamental to organisational responsibility and less contingent on changes in the institutional environment. Few, if any, of these actions would be considered overt social responsibilities of an organisation. In contrast, not fulfilling these actions would be perceived as a breach in the minimal behavioural standards of any organisation. Thus, they are considered fundamental to the organisational responsibility of any sport organisation.

Contrasting operational responsibilities were responsibilities that experts perceived to be of lower importance, or non-essential to each organisation. In other words, nonessential responsibilities were not identified as highly important in any context, and may be considered discretionary actions for sport organisations to pursue. Overt issues such as health promotion, environmental responsibility, community education, local investment and philanthropy were generally considered to be of lower importance to each organisational archetype. The lower perceived importance of these
issues could be products of the existing relationship that non-profit sport organisations have with society. Non-profit seeking sport organisations may implicitly be seen as benevolent social actors whose sole objective is to pursue social good rather than profit. Consequently, the central ethical imperative to overtly demonstrate responsibility may be lower than that of a corporation, as the organisation’s stated aims are often already aligned with social goals. Paradoxically, this may mean that the primary responsibility goal for a non-profit organisation becomes financial performance. Given that the organisation cannot distribute economic resources gained via its activities, the heightened financial performance would make more resources available to the organisation to pursue its social purpose. This contradicts 40 years of the business case paradigm rationale for expenditure on social responsibility actions in the corporate context (Margolis & Walsh, 2003). In contrast, if an organisation’s primary purpose is to produce a socially beneficial product or service, then the influence of financial performance on social performance may be a better frame of reference for social responsibility practice in non-profit organisations. For example, diversifying revenue streams in NSO’s increases the financial resources available to the organisation (Wicker & Breuer 2014), allowing an NSO to more effectively deliver its core participation and elite sport products and services. Thus by focussing on core operational responsibilities, to the exclusion of selected nonessential (albeit socially desirable) responsibility actions may produce a more socially beneficial sport organisation, relative to an organisation that tries to pursue a broader range of responsibilities.

The fourth contribution is the identification of differences between each of the three archetypes (Table 9). Inclusive participation in the form of maximising player and volunteer participation; creating an accessible and inclusive sport setting (e.g. gender, ability); and, the governance frameworks, policies and procedures to ensure the implementation of these goals were common to both the community and national sport archetypes, but not the elite sport archetype. Issues of anti-corruption, fair competition and personal development and training of staff and players were important to the elite and national sport organisational archetypes, but not the community sport archetype. Each archetype also possessed one area of responsibility that was perceived to be important in the given institutional context, but not the other two archetypal contexts. Prioritising on field success was perceived to be important in the elite sport context, but not at the community level or in a national sport organisation. Improving social capital and community cohesion was perceived to be important in the community sport context, but not in the elite or national sport organisation context. Ethical leadership in
the form of developing resources and public awareness of social issues was perceived to be important in the national sport organisation context, but not in the elite or community sport contexts. Therefore, although several similarities existed between archetypes, the holistic configuration of an organisation’s responsibility configuration varied depending on the specific contextual factors within the organisations institutional environment.

Perceived Organisational Responsibilities within Sport Organisations

The second section refers to the perceived social responsibility within different organisational archetypes (research questions two, three and four). The fifth contribution is developing context specific configurations of responsibility in three of the most prevalent organisational types in the sport industry. The national sport organisation had the highest number of social responsibility issues; 23 out of 33 issues were perceived to be highly important. Human rights, governance, labour practices and economic considerations were the highest priorities. Fair operating practices were also important, along with equitable access to facilities within the community development dimension. In contrast, the majority of the community development issues and environmental considerations were perceived to be lower organisational priorities. The NSO archetype also demonstrated a high level of coercive influence within an institutional environment. The organisation is responsible for producing and implementing procedures for a large part of society. Governance was central to the organisation's responsibility in two ways. First, at the organisational level self-governance and the production of a safe and inclusive work environment was congruent with CSR research. Second, the NSO was responsible as an institutional actor to coercively influence and implement procedures regarding equality, health and safety and fair operating practices within the broader sport system.

The elite sport organisation had the least number of social responsibility issues that were perceived to be highly important to the organisation, with only 13 out of 33 issues considered highly important to the organisation. The elite sport organisation was positioned as a commercialised privately owned club. Economic factors such as fiscal responsibility to owners, financial viability and on field performance were the highest social responsibility priorities for the organisation. The majority of the remaining social responsibilities were concerned with labour practices, either within a broad human rights framework of equal opportunity, or more generally in providing a safe workplace and preventing injury. The latter could be more of a concern given the effect player injury could have on the organisation. Fair operating practices, particularly with regard
to anti-corruption practices were considered highly important in this context. In contrast to the predominate literature on social responsibility, large areas of overt and explicit socially responsible actions were not considered highly important to an elite sport organisation relative to core operating responsibilities. These included community development, governance and environmental responsibility. These findings suggest that the social responsibility of elite sport organisations may be limited to a narrower set of actions than perceived in the broader sport corporate social responsibility literature.

The community sport organisation had a higher number of social responsibility issues than an elite sport organisation, but lower than a national sport organisation, with 17 out of 33 issues being considered highly important to the organisation. The CSO generated revenues nearly 30 times smaller than the ESO, indicating the organisational context, rather than the revenue available to the organisation, may influence the perceived responsibility of an organisation. The major dimensions of social responsibility were human rights and labour practices that were particularly concerned with providing accessible and inclusive sports participation at the community level. Governance and financial responsibility were considered important to the ongoing social responsibility of the organisation. Fair-operating practices and environmental responsibility were of lower importance to the social responsibility of the CSO. Inclusive sports participation was complemented by the perception that social capital and community cohesion were important to the community development dimension of social responsibility. Other social responsibility issues within the community development dimension such as health promotion, community education, local investment and donations were of lower perceived importance in the CSO context.

The sixth and final contribution from this project is the conceptualisation of organisational responsibility as a rationally bounded concept. That is, organisations cannot logically be all things to all people. The issues that reached consensus and high importance varied between contexts. On aggregate, no social issues were perceived low or very low importance to the organisation. The remainder were perceived to be of at least moderately important to an organisation. This raises an important question for future research. At what point does an organisation go from being socially irresponsible to socially responsible? Or simply, when is an organisation socially responsible enough? This is particularly pertinent in an environment where the behaviour of sport organisations to legitimise themselves is becoming increasingly complex in response to multiple and often-competing stakeholder demands. The major controversies that bring
the legitimacy of these organisations into question are often a failure to fulfil central obligations such as financial accountability, corruption, health and safety and discrimination. Informative in this area is Campbell’s (2007) conception that organisations should meet minimum behavioural standards of avoiding harm to stakeholders and rectifying any harm caused once the organisation becomes aware of it. This position runs counter to the economic view of responsibility as a discretionary organisational activity that begins beyond financial and legal interests (McWilliams & Siegel, 2000). Given the nature of the ethical issues in sport organisations regarding corruption, governance, safety and equality; it would seemingly be of benefit for all sport organisations to ensure that these fundamental responsibilities are attended to prior to devoting resources to potentially more overt and socially desirable actions that have come to dominate the social responsibility discourse.

8.2 Implications and Future Research Directions

The central contribution of this thesis is a shift in the social responsibility paradigm from a single organisational form to the meta-category of rationalised organisations (Bromley & Meyer, 2013). Stated simply, the view that all organisations have a responsibility to society extends from Neves and Bento’s (2005) term of “organisational social responsibility”. Organisational responsibility is contingent on numerous contextual actors such as industrial sector (Godfrey et al., 2010); national culture (Habisch et al., 2005; Maignan & Ralston, 2002; Matten & Moon, 2008), time (Rivoli & Waddock, 2011) and organisational type (Global Reporting Initiative, 2012a).

The expansion of social responsibility into the non-profit and government sectors is a major contribution to the responsibility discourse considering the direct influence these organisations have on society. The findings of this thesis frame organisational responsibility as a contextually contingent phenomenon and extend on the GRI’s logic of dividing a central social responsibility construct into several “sector supplements” that are specific to certain types of organisations. The deconstruction of social responsibility by the GRI offers confidence that the exploration and expansion of the responsibility concept has application beyond the corporate boundaries that “responsibility” often is limited to.

Furthermore, this expansion is not a conceptual leap beyond the realm of social issues that are currently investigated in sport management and sociology studies. Social issues such as governance, labour practices, human rights, the environment, community involvement, fair operating practices and economic issues are already
extensively investigated in academia, from a variety of perspectives and in a variety of organisational forms. The lack of collective, interdisciplinary research of these issues under the banner of social responsibility forms the gap in sport management research (Doherty, 2012). This thesis adopts the social responsibility concept to aggregate these issues into a conceptual “configuration” and looks at how the perceived importance of issues differs between organisations.

By breaking the “corporate monopoly” on the organisational responsibility discourse, future research may begin to work toward a more constructive and encompassing dialogue that investigates the “rational” and “relative” responsibility of non-corporate organisations’ that influence and affect the lives of individuals in society in a variety of ways. For example how would a community objectively know if a local sport club was a responsible and socially progressive organisation? How could the same organisation benchmark its practices relative to other community sport organisations? Corporations are criticised for irresponsible actions and breaches that harm society and yet the same issues, albeit in a different context, are not extensively investigated outside of the corporate context in the same integrated way. To clarify, it is not suggested that organisations go and complete a resource intensive certification process such as the Global Reporting Initiative certification. Such organisations’ clearly do not have the resources to do so and such an approach is irrational. Instead, future research could look to adapt measures developed in the corporate context and apply them relative to the specific context the organisation operates within. Goodsports in Australia and ClubMark in the England are indicative of this change in practice, yet little research has looked into this in sport management. The frameworks developed within the CSR discourse may be informative in this area for national, state and local sport organisations looking for ways to improve their social performance.

At the national level, NSOs’ are another location for future research, particularly in the age of big society (and smaller government). A logical extension of this research is to further query whether a national sport organisation is accountable to, and meeting the expectations of the society that funds it? How could this be known? How well does one NSO perform, relative to another NSO? If the stated goal of sport funding is for population health benefits then is the inability for NSOs’ to demonstrably contribute to such benefits tantamount to irresponsibility? If the primary purpose of an NSO is to maximise participation are participation numbers clearly accessible and collected using a standard methodology? Does the NSO rely on socially detrimental sponsorships such as gambling, alcohol or tobacco? Does an NSO do anything to offset these sponsorships? Does an NSO have socially progressive inclusion and occupational
health and safety policies? In short, can the same questions we apply to corporations that are often similar in scope to many large NSO’s, be asked of NSO’s.

For elite sport organisations and equally highly commercialised sport organisations, several of the same criticisms of CSR are appropriate. Do elite sport organisations have a demonstrable long-term positive impact via their social responsibility programs? Or is the criticism levelled at many corporations that CSR is proverbial public relations window dressing, applicable to some elite sport organisations? Is the organisation meeting its minimal and often implicit responsibilities to keep its employees safe, provide sound governance practices and avoid corruption? Can high profile elite sport teams leverage their mass communication power to positively influence society?

The underlying theme of the future research from this project is that the expansion of responsibility discourse into non-corporate contexts is a relatively new thought. Corporate social responsibility theory has developed for over 60 years, in contrast research into non-corporate organisations is only beginning to emerge. By virtue of the variety of organisational forms that are contained within the sport industry, sport management researchers and practitioners have the opportunity to influence the broader organisational responsibility discourse by investigating the responsibilities of organisations that operate within diverse institutional environments.

8.3 Limitations

The limitations of this research have been outlined in chapters one and three of this thesis. First, the project did not use real world organisations. Instead archetypes were developed in the tradition of Max Weber's antipositivist approach to research. Archetypes were developed from empirical data collected from similar real world organisations to produce an archetypal (average) organisation. Therefore, whilst the approach is conceptually generalisable due to the use of archetypes, in the real world most organisations would fall somewhere outside of this organisational type. Much in the same way that an average simultaneously represents a given population (e.g. average height of a group) whilst not representing each individual within the population (e.g. the tallest person in the group).

Practical considerations were made regarding the nature and scope of items included as responsibility items. The paradigm of social responsibility has been introduced as a “tortured concept”, largely due to numerous and often conflicting definitions (Godfrey & Hatch, 2007). This observation was both useful in advancing and
developing a model that identifies the contingent nature of organisational responsibility and its dependence on the institutional environment it is embedded within. However, the infinite variability of what could be perceived to be a social issue for an organisation meant considerable limits were placed on the scope of information included in the archetypes and social issue items provided to participants. Therefore whilst over 300 responsibility issues were identified, the list distributed to participants totalled 25 with a further eight self-identified items as considered important by participants.

Finally, given the multi-organisational scope of this project there was a requirement of experts with broad knowledge and analytical abilities in each of the organisational archetypes provided. The research group felt that given the global nature of the study an appropriate sample of CSO’s and ESO’s could not be practically constructed due to the variance between these organisational contexts. For this reason the researcher chose to exclude community and elite managers from the expert group. A secondary rationale for doing so was based on the perception that a random sample of community and elite experts would possess incomplete knowledge of all three contexts. By comparison, the sport management academics and NSO managers were more likely to have had some experience working on the issues that they were being asked to comment on. For example although an NSO manager’s occupation is within the NSO context it is likely that they professionally deal with ESO’s on a regular basis and themselves participate in sport clubs at the community level, or at least have had levels of interaction in the past which enables them to comment on archetypal contexts. The same assumption cannot be made for community or elite sport organisation managers. It is less likely that elite sport organisation managers possess knowledge of national sport organisations, just as a community sport organisation volunteer cannot be expected to conceptualise the responsibilities of an elite sport organisation. Future research could include the validation of the findings from this project by continuing collaboration with practitioners in various sport organisations.

8.4 Conclusions

The terms “corporate” and “social” are out-dated qualifiers to holistically represent the continuum of organisational responsibility in society. The sport sector has been used as a lens to demonstrate the limitations of conceptualising organisational responsibility in the context of CSR due to the heterogeneity of organisational forms within the sector. The terms “corporate” and “social” qualify both the type of organisation (the corporation) and nature of responsibility (social actions) that should
be investigated. Outside of this narrow context these qualifiers become quite limited particularly given the imperfect ability to define what “social” responsibility is. Instead, this research has advanced Neves and Bento’s (2005) initial concept of organisational social responsibility that has become implicit in measures and guidance of responsibility in documents such as the Global Reporting Initiative and International organisation for Standardisation’s guidance on the responsibility of organisations.

The major conceptual advance this approach offers is the ability to begin to conceptualise the responsibility of non-corporate organisations that intuitively provide a benefit to society. This research investigated three organisational contexts. The elite sport organisation, that values winning equally if not more than returns to shareholders. The non-profit community sport organisation, which despite a limited resource base, was perceived to possess a more comprehensive responsibility than an elite sport organisation. Finally, the responsibility of national sport organisations was brought into focus. Taxpayers fund national sport organisations; they wield considerable political and societal power and have considerable public resources at their disposal. Notwithstanding this, there is no research that targeted this type of organisation’s responsibility to society. This is puzzling given the scrutiny that corporate or elite sport organisations receive regarding their organisational behaviour. NSOs write the regulation that keep children safe, set the occupational health and safety standards of elite sport and enforce the rules of the sports they govern, and yet sport management research has rarely tackled the issue of social responsibility of such organisations.

Organisations have responsibilities and corporations are simply a form of organisation. If the organisational responsibility discourse is to further advance, then there is a need to broaden the scope of organisational forms that society expects responsible behaviour from. Further recognition that responsibility is contingent upon, and therefore variable, due to changing institutional environments is a step in this direction. Sport management has a considerable role to play in the expansion of the organisational responsibility discourse given the heterogeneity of organisational forms available for investigation in the field of study. By doing so sport management academics and practitioners can move beyond the idea of CSR as public relations or window dressing and get to the crux of the issue. Responsibility is simply an inclusive conception of multidimensional organisational performance. Managers within organisations and academics studying organisations should therefore work toward identifying their relative responsibility priorities within the organisational context in which they work. By doing so, scarce resources can be allocated to the successful fulfilment of these issues prior to responding to potentially more socially desirable
outcomes for external stakeholders. Such an approach would ensure that gross irresponsibility, or “do no harm”, is the primary concern of an organisation prior to the pursuit of actions that may have little tangible impact on society but improve the organisation's brand image. Exploring the variety of organisational forms within the sport industry can help us understand how responsibility is configured distinctly for organisations' in different institutional contexts.
REFERENCES


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APPENDICES

10.1 Appendix 1 – Country Context

Country Context

‘Neutralia’

Neutralia is the country context in which each short case study will be placed. Neutralia is provided to outline the basic external features (economic, political and sports system) that are relevant to - but not specified within - the case studies.

Country Indicators & Demographics:
- Neutralia is a post-industrial Western economy on par in developmental terms with countries in North America, the European Union, South Korea, Japan, Australia and New Zealand.
- Neutralia has 50 million citizens and an aging population. The mean age is 38 and life expectancy is 80 years.
- Neutralia is economically stable with a low single digit GDP growth (1.4%), inflation (3.5%) and unemployment rates (7.2%).
- Neutralia has near universal literacy and numeracy education.
- Telecommunication technology is ubiquitous in regards to mobile, Internet and television access.
- Neutralia is a secular democracy with several leading parties, everyone has the right to vote and elections are held every 3-5 years.

Neutralia Sports System:
- Neutralia has a federated 'club-based' sports system.
- Under this system each sport is governed by a national-state-local governance hierarchy.
- The Neutralian government does provide some funding for sport although this is heavily weighted to elite performance.
- The remainder of government funding supports the grassroots club based sports delivery system which is heavily supplemented by club and affiliation fees in order to remain viable.
Overview:

The archetype case study of GoSport Neutralia (GSN) is designed to represent an 'ideal' sport’s governing body. GSN governs the competing demands of an elite team sport competition and the responsibility of maintaining the health of the sports at the grass roots participation level.

Organisational History:

GoSport Neutralia (GSN) is the governing body for a popular team sport in Neutralia. The sport has been played in Neutralia for more than 70 years and is the fourth most popular sport in that country with a reasonably strong participation rate. Around 4% of the 50 million citizens of Neutralia play it – or around 2 million people. GSN governs the sport under a federated-state model, where states govern their regions and GSN governs the states. GSN is a member of the sports international body responsible for governing the sport internationally. Historically the amateur sport was a free time activity for the middle class, and became increasingly popular toward the end of the 1970s. During the 1980s the sport changed from amateur to semi-professional and started to become a fully professionalised and commercialised league sport in the late 1990s. The results of the commercialisation meant that the governing body's role needed to expand to balance the need of a mass participation sport and commercial governance practices that came with increased participation and revenues into the sport.

Organisational Structure and Values:

GSN is a company that is not able to distribute profits or assets to its members (non-profit organisation). It is unable to sell ownership shares or be owned. Its primary reason for existence is to govern and advance the sport within Neutralia. Structurally, GSN is a member-based organisation that is governed by an independent board of
directors. The independent board of directors is selected by 12 members that represent the 12 state governing bodies in Neutralia. Each board member is selected for a three year term. The chief role of the independent board is to oversee the strategic direction and appoint/manage the executive management team (CEO, COO, CFO etc.). The executive management team manages GSN’s 120 employees who run the sport throughout the country. There are four departments in GSN’s structure that oversee the sports development and long term viability: game development, commercial, media and operations.

**Market Position:**

In 2012 GoSport Neutralia generated just over $200 million in revenue from a mixture of broadcast rights, ticket sales, sponsorship and government funding. However, in line with its non-profit mission, GSN reinvested $193 million into the game in operating costs such as high performance, sport development, community sport infrastructure and administration. The remaining $7 million was a surplus reserved for ongoing operations in the following years. The team sport that GSN governs faces strong competition from other sports. Despite a strong domestic league GSN has seen a small decrease in participation rates over the last 10 years compared to other sports that use similar facilities. In light of this competition GSN has renewed its focus on growing participation with a particular focus on the 5-14 year old age demographic.

**Expert Consultancy Role:**

You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect GoSport Neutralia to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify what (if any) social responsibilities are important for GoSport Neutralia to consider based on the information provided.
Overview:

This archetype case study of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. is designed to represent a first division sports club with a long history. Given its size and commercial obligations Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. has many similar features to a medium to large business.

History:

Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. (SSC) was established in 1902, as a recreational pastime for workers from the Scott and Dale Manufacturing Company Pty Ltd. Scottsdale is Neutralia’s 5th largest city with around 1.5 million people. As an inaugural member of the premier competition ('League 1') in late 1953, SSC had early success winning the League 1 championship three times (1954, 1962, 1965) and the International Cup twice in succession (1963, 1966) in its formative years. Many argue that this era - affectionately known as the ‘Golden Era' to the clubs large and loyal fan base ‘The Scotts' - paved the way for the clubs long-term success as it attracted a huge domestic fan base. Despite underperforming during the 1970s and early 1980s the club regained its preeminent position in League 1 by the early 1990s. Between 1988 and 2012 the club has only finished outside the top five in League 1 on six occasions and has taken its League 1 championship wins to a respectable eight titles. Furthermore the club broke its International Cup drought in 1999 and has reached the quarterfinals in its past two appearances.

Organisational Structure:

Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. has been privately owned since it was created. Originally owned and managed by Scott and Dale Manufacturing Company Pty Ltd, the club was disbanded in 1940 due to the outbreak of World War II. Following WWII, the club was re-founded by former club captain Carl McKay who held majority ownership with his children until the time of his passing in 1970. After a series of private owners and mismanagement John Smith purchased SSC at a time of on-field and off-field peril. Slowly he rebuilt the club, implemented a strong management team and oversaw the
renovation of the club’s home stadium - Scottsdale Yard - into a new 30,000 seat facility in 1998. The management team reports directly to Mr Smith and he has a large say in the contracting of players. There are 53 employees in the organisation that are split into four departments, finance, marketing, operations and on field. Paid staff run the majority of the day-to-day operations although some positions are filled by long-term volunteers and/or the clubs cheer squad.

Market Position:

Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. is in a strong market position in the premier domestic competition of the sport. Having had regular success, a strong latent supporter base, coupled with international media coverage SSC is one of the most supported clubs within the league. SSC’s financial market position is heavily reliant on sponsorship, media revenue and private investment. However, this is not an unusual position within this league. In 2012, the club generated around $59 million in revenues from ticket sales, TV rights, sponsorship and merchandise etc. Conversely the club spent its $25 million salary cap (player contracts) and a further $37 million on operational costs. Leaving a deficit of $3 million. Mr Smith invested $4 million throughout the season in a push to secure another International Cup title. If SSC successfully win the title it is likely that Mr Smith, through his controlling interest in SSC could generate a profit of around $2-3 million.

Expert Consultancy Role:

You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify which (if any) social responsibilities are important to consider by Scottsdale Sports Club Inc. based on the information provided.
10.4 Appendix 4 – Local Sports Club – Oldtown Sports Club

Local Sports Club

'Oldtown Sports Club'

Overview:

This archetype case study of Oldtown Sports Club is designed to represent a local sports club that is an important social institution within the local community.

History:

Oldtown Sports Club is a regular local community sport club in the suburbs of a large Neutralian city. The club facilitates participation in one outdoor team sport that is popular in the region. Oldtown Sports Club has 5 senior teams (3 men’s, 2 women’s) and 8 junior teams and is considered a pillar in the local community. Its top male and female players have previously played national level competitions and one even represented the sport at the highest level of competition within the sport. The club was founded in the 1960s and has averaged around 130 senior and 250-300 junior registered players over the past decade. The nature of the involvement means that Oldtown Sports Club has strong linkages with community infrastructure such as local schools, businesses and government. The club has three playing surfaces and medium sized club rooms with a large viewing room, bar/canteen and four change rooms for teams playing at the venue.

Organisational Structure:

The Oldtown Sports Club is a non-profit association. It is not a company. Registered members annually hold a general meeting to vote in a 12 person board. The board consists of a four person executive (president, vice president, secretary and treasurer) and eight elected board members who are responsible for operational activities such as fund raising, sponsorship, selection, marketing, junior club etc. Board members are not paid and oversee three paid positions within the club: senior club coordinator/coach, junior club coordinator/coach and a marketing/operations manager responsible for the canteen, events and fund raising. The remaining positions are filled by long-time volunteers of the club who have full time workloads outside of their position at the club. No players are paid to play.
Market Position:

The Oldtown Sports Club considers its market to be participants and the potential participants of the sport within its region. Within this market the Oldtown Sports Club is one of several well-established clubs that has teams in multiple gender and age groups. Financially, Oldtown Sports Club is self-sufficient. Annually they produce revenues of around $500,000 which covers costs such as facility hire, coaching, equipment, uniforms and canteen provisions. They have a comparatively healthy bank surplus of $55,000 which they keep in case of emergency and to use to purchase new resources at the start of the season before player registration and pre-season training begins.

Expert Consultancy Role:

You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect Oldtown Sports Club to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify what (if any) social responsibilities are applicable to the Oldtown Sports Club based on the information provided.
### 10.5 Appendix 5 – Core Social Responsibility Categories of GRI 3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Responsibility Category</th>
<th>Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
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<td><strong>Environmental</strong></td>
<td><strong>MATERIALS</strong></td>
<td>Materials used by weight or volume</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of materials used that are recycled input materials</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Direct Energy consumption by primary energy source</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Indirect energy consumption by primary source</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Energy saved due to conservation and efficiency improvements</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Initiatives to provide energy-efficient or renewable energy based products and services, and reductions in energy requirements as a result of these initiatives</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Initiatives to reduce indirect energy consumption and reductions achieved</td>
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<td><strong>WATER</strong></td>
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<td>Water source significantly affected by withdrawal of water</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage and total volume of water recycled and reused</td>
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<td><strong>BIODIVERSITY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Location and size of land owned, leased, managed in, or adjacent to, protected areas and areas of high biodiversity value outside protected areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Description of significant impacts of activities, products, and services on biodiversity in protected areas and areas of high biodiversity value outside protected areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>habitats protected or restored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strategies, current actions, and future plans for managing impacts on biodiversity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of IUCN Red List species and national conservation list species with habitats in areas affected by operations, by level of extinction risk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMISSIONS, EFFLUENTS, AND WASTE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total direct and indirect greenhouse gas emissions by weight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other relevant indirect greenhouse gas emissions by weight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Initiatives to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and reductions achieved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Emissions of ozone-depleting substances by weight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human Rights</strong></td>
<td><strong>INVESTMENT AND PROCUREMENT PRACTICES</strong></td>
<td><strong>NON-DISCRIMINATION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO, SO, and other significant air emissions by type and weight.</td>
<td>Percentage of significant suppliers, contractors and other business partners that have undergone human rights screening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total water discharge by quality and destination.</td>
<td>Total hours of employee training on policies and procedures concerning aspects of human rights that are relevant to operations, including the percentage of employees trained.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total weight of waste by type and disposal method.</td>
<td>Total number of incidents of discrimination and corrective actions taken.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total number and volume of significant spills.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weight of transported, imported, exported, or treated waste deemed hazardous under the terms of the Basel Convention Annex I, II, III, and VIII, and percentage of transported waste shipped internationally.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Identity, size, protected status, and biodiversity value of water bodies and related habitats significantly affected by the reporting organisation’s discharges of water and runoff.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRODUCTS AND SERVICES</strong></td>
<td>Initiatives to mitigate environmental impacts of products and services, and extent of impact mitigation.</td>
<td>Percentage of products sold and their packaging materials that are reclaimed by category.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monetary value of significant fines and total number of non-monetary sanctions for noncompliance with environmental laws and regulations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TRANSPORT</strong></td>
<td>Significant environmental impacts of transporting products and other goods and materials used for the organisation’s operations, and transporting members of the workforce.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OVERALL</strong></td>
<td>Total environmental protection expenditures and investments by type.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMPLIANCE</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labour Practices and Decent Work</strong></td>
<td><strong>ASSOCIATION AND COLLECTIVE BARGAINING</strong></td>
<td>and collective bargaining may be violated or at significant risk, and actions taken to support these rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHILD LABOR</td>
<td>Operations and significant suppliers identified as having significant risk for incidents of child labour, and measures taken to contribute to the effective abolition of child labour.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORCED AND COMPULSORY LABOR</td>
<td>Operations and significant suppliers identified as having significant risk for incidents of forced or compulsory labour, and measures to contribute to the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECURITY PRACTICES</td>
<td>Percentage of security personnel trained in the organisation’s policies or procedures concerning aspects of human rights that are relevant to operations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDIGENOUS RIGHTS</td>
<td>Total number of incidents of violations involving rights of indigenous people and actions taken.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSESSMENT</td>
<td>Percentage and total number of operations that have been subject to human rights reviews and/or impact assessments.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>REMEDIATION</td>
<td>Number of grievances related to human rights filed, addressed and resolved through formal grievance mechanisms.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>EMPLOYMENT</strong></td>
<td>Total workforce by employment type, employment contract, and region, broken down by gender</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total number and rate of new employee hires and employee turnover by age group, gender, and region.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Benefits provided to full-time employees that are not provided to temporary or part-time employees, by significant locations of operation.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Return to work and retention rates after parental leave, by gender.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LABOR/ MANAGEMENT RELATIONS</td>
<td>Percentage of employees covered by collective bargaining agreements.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Minimum notice period(s) regarding operational changes, including whether it is specified in collective agreements.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH AND SAFETY</strong></td>
<td>Percentage of total workforce represented in formal joint management–worker health and safety committees that help monitor and advise on occupational health and safety programs.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rates of injury, occupational diseases, lost days, and absenteeism, and number of work related fatalities by region and by gender.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Education, training, counselling, prevention, and risk-control programs in place to assist workforce members, their families, or community members regarding serious diseases.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Health and safety topics covered in formal agreements with trade unions.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TRAINING AND EDUCATION</strong></td>
<td>Average hours of training per year per employee by gender, and by employee category.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Programs for skills management and lifelong learning that support the continued employability of employees and assist them in managing career endings.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of employees receiving regular performance and career development reviews, by gender.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DIVERSITY AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITY</strong></td>
<td>Composition of governance bodies and breakdown of employees per employee category according to gender, age group, minority group membership, and other indicators of diversity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EQUAL REMUNERATION FOR WOMEN AND MEN</strong></td>
<td>Ratio of basic salary and remuneration of women to men by employee category, by significant locations of operation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Society</strong></td>
<td>Percentage of operations with implemented local community engagement, impact assessments, and development programs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operations with significant potential or actual negative impacts on local communities.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prevention and mitigation measures implemented in operations with significant potential or actual negative impacts on local communities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CORRUPTION</strong></td>
<td>Percentage and total number of business units analysed for risks related to corruption.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of employees trained in organisation’s anti-corruption policies and procedures.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Product Responsibility</strong></td>
<td><strong>Actions taken in response to incidents of corruption.</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PUBLIC POLICY</strong></th>
<th>Public policy positions and participation in public policy development and lobbying.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total value of financial and in-kind contributions to political parties, politicians, and related institutions by country.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ANTI-COMPETITIVE BEHAVIOR</strong></th>
<th>Total number of legal actions for anticompetitive behaviour, anti-trust, and monopoly practices and their outcomes.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>COMPLIANCE</strong></th>
<th>Monetary value of significant fines and total number of non-monetary sanctions for noncompliance with laws and regulations.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>CUSTOMER HEALTH AND SAFETY</strong></th>
<th>Life cycle stages in which health and safety impacts of products and services are assessed for improvement, and percentage of significant products and services categories subject to such procedures.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total number of incidents of non-compliance with regulations and voluntary codes concerning health and safety impacts of products and services during their life cycle, by type of outcomes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PRODUCT AND SERVICE LABELING</strong></th>
<th>Type of product and service information required by procedures, and percentage of significant products and services subject to such information requirements.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total number of incidents of non-compliance with regulations and voluntary codes concerning product and service information and labelling, by type of outcomes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS</strong></th>
<th>Programs for adherence to laws, standards, and voluntary codes related to marketing communications, including advertising, promotion, and sponsorship.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total number of incidents of non-compliance with regulations and voluntary codes concerning marketing communications, including advertising, promotion, and sponsorship by type of outcomes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| <strong>CUSTOMER PRIVACY</strong> | Total number of substantiated complaints regarding breaches of customer privacy and losses of customer data. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>COMPLIANCE</th>
<th>Monetary value of significant fines for noncompliance with laws and regulations concerning the provision and use of products and services.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE</td>
<td>Direct economic value generated and distributed, including revenues, operating costs, employee compensation, donations and other community investments, retained earnings, and payments to capital providers and governments. Financial implications and other risks and opportunities for the organisation’s activities due to climate change. Coverage of the organisation’s defined benefit plan obligations. Significant financial assistance received from government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MARKET PRESENCE</td>
<td>Range of ratios of standard entry level wage by gender compared to local minimum wage at significant locations of operation. Policy, practices, and proportion of spending on locally-based suppliers at significant locations of operation. Procedures for local hiring and proportion of senior management hired from the local community at locations of significant operation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>INDIRECT ECONOMIC IMPACTS</td>
<td>Development and impact of infrastructure investments and services provided primarily for public benefit through commercial, in kind, or pro bono engagement. Understanding and describing significant indirect economic impacts, including the extent of impacts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## 10.6 Appendix 6 – Overview of the Core Subjects of the ISO 26000

### Core subjects and issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core subject: Organisational governance 6.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core subject: Human rights 6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 1: Due diligence 6.3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 2: Human rights risk situations 6.3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 3: Avoidance of complicity 6.3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 4: Resolving grievances 6.3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 5: Discrimination and vulnerable groups 6.3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 6: Civil and political rights 6.3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 7: Economic, social and cultural rights 6.3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 8: Fundamental principles and rights at work 6.3.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core subject: Labour practices 6.4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issue 1: Employment and employment relationships 6.4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 2: Conditions of work and social protection 6.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 3: Social dialogue 6.4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 4: Health and safety at work 6.4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 5: Human development and training in the workplace 6.4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core subject: The environment 6.5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issue 1: Prevention of pollution 6.5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 2: Sustainable resource use 6.5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 3: Climate change mitigation and adaptation 6.5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 4: Protection of the environment, biodiversity and restoration of natural habitats 6.5.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core subject: Fair operating practices 6.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issue 1: Anti-corruption 6.6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 2: Responsible political involvement 6.6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 3: Fair competition 6.6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 4: Promoting social responsibility in the value chain 6.6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 5: Respect for property rights 6.6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Core subject: Consumer issues 6.7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issue 1: Fair marketing, factual and unbiased information and fair contractual practices 6.7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 2 : Protecting consumers' health and safety 6.7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 3 : Sustainable consumption 6.7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 4 : Consumer service, support, and complaint and dispute resolution 6.7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 5 : Consumer data protection and privacy 6.7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 6 : Access to essential services 6.7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 7 : Education and awareness 6.7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Core subject : Community involvement and development 6.8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue 1 : Community involvement 6.8.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Issue 2 : Education and culture 6.8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 3 : Employment creation and skills development 6.8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 4 : Technology development and access 6.8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 5 : Wealth and income creation 6.8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 6 : Health 6.8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issue 7 : Social investment 6.8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.7 Appendix 7 – Pilot Study (Round One Example)

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the Social Sport Project. The aim of the project is to identify the relative importance of social responsibility issues in sports organisations and clarify which issues are - and are not - considered important in different sports organisations.

This project is conducted by Jonathan Robertson as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Professor Hans Westerbeek and Dr. Rochelle Erme from the Institute of Sport, Exercise and Active Living, Victoria University.

Project Overview - Sport and Culture Group - Pilot Study

We seek to identify the range of social obligations that an organisation has to society. As Berkeley Professor Dow Votaw (1972) described "the term social responsibility is a brilliant one it means something, but not always the same thing, to everybody". The Social Sport Project seeks to clarify which social responsibility issues are - and are not - considered important in different sports organisations (a local sports club, an elite sports club and a sports governing body).

As a global sport management expert you are asked to:

1) Identify the relative importance of social responsibility issues in each sport organisation scenario (Round 1.2.3)

2) Identify the most important organisational activities to effectively fulfill the most important social responsibilities (Round 2.3)

We have invited world leading sport management academics, business leaders and administrators to participate in three successive survey rounds (Delphi method). The Delphi method is a group decision making approach that aims to guide participants toward consensus through successive survey rounds. Participants will be emailed a link to an on-line survey on the Monday the 20th of May. Participants will have one week to respond to each survey. After a week of analysis by the researchers, moderated feedback will be provided prior to the commencement of the next survey round.

Subsequent surveys will ask participants to review their answers in light of group responses and moderated feedback. The final two survey rounds aim to achieve consensus on what strategic activities sport organisations can undertake to effectively achieve the most important and relevant social responsibilities.

Two weeks after the third and final survey the aggregated results will be put into a report and sent to all participants who completed the third round. The report is anticipated to include a list of 1) the most relevant social responsibility issues for each sport organisation and 2) the most relevant strategic activities that the sport organisation can undertake to effectively achieve
those social responsibilities.

Upon completion of the pilot study (SCG) and the global survey a comparative analysis will be presented in an SCG or ISEAL workshop in September/October.

The time commitment will be 10-20 minutes per fortnight for six weeks. The survey is smart phone compatible and automatically saves your progress to your device.

**Project Scenarios:**

In order to ensure that the global expert panel start on the same page a neutral country scenario ‘Neutralia’ will be presented to all participants. Participants are asked to use this as the basis for their decision making rather than their own national sports system. This ‘Neutralia’ country scenario outlines external factors such as the national indicators (development, economy, demography) and issues relevant to the nations sport delivery system (political landscape, governance).

Within the context of Neutralia, three distinct sport organisations will be presented:

- **GoSport Neutralia** (a national sports governing body)
- **Oldtown Sports Club** (a local sports club)
- **Scottsdale Sports Club** (an elite sports club)

It is up to the participant to determine what (if any) social responsibilities these organisations have to the ‘Neutralia’ society based on the information given.

**What will I gain from participating?**

As a participant the opportunity is to shape the sport and social responsibility discourse. Furthermore, given the knowledge base of global sport management experts, it is likely that participants will have the opportunity to expand their knowledge in regard to social responsibility issues in sport organisations. Participants will also be the first to receive the aggregated results following the final round.

**How will the information I provide be used?**

Participant responses will be aggregated and de-identified each round. All data will be stored as per university guidelines and no participant information will be publicly identified at any stage of the research. Specifically, the Delphi process also assures intra-group anonymity. Therefore your participation will also be anonymous within the group.

The aggregated data will be moderated by the researchers and resent to all participants following rounds one and two. Following round three all participants will be sent a report of the preliminary and final findings and notified of any future use of the data.

**What are the potential risks of participating in this project?**

In addition to the above data storage protection and anonymous participation, the survey contains no questions of a sensitive nature. Given the experienced participant group and research supervision there are no anticipated risks to the participant from this project.

**Who is conducting the study?**

Chief Investigator: Professor Hans Westerbeek, h.westerbeek@vu.edu.au, W: +61 (3) 9919 9473

PhD Candidate: Jonathan Robertson, jonathan.robertson@live.vu.edu.au, W: +61 (3) 9919 4157, M: +61 (3) 417 142 172

Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, Victoria, 8001, Australia

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the Chief Investigator listed above.

If you have any queries or complaints regarding this research, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 or phone +61 (3) 9919 4781 or researchethics@vu.edu.au
Consent Form

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH - CERTIFICATION BY PARTICIPANT

By completing the below details, I certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the Social Sport Project. I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the Delphi method have been fully explained to me and that I freely consent to my participation.

I have read and understood this consent form and the 'Information for Participants' form and desire of my own free will to participate in this study. I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdrawing from the study at any time and that the withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher. Hans Westerbeek, hans.westerbeek@vu.edu.au, +61 (3) 9919 5473, or, Jonathan Robertson, jonathan.robertson@live.vu.edu.au, +61 (3) 9919 4157.

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<td>First Name</td>
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<td>Surname</td>
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Context Overview

Country Context
Neutralia

Neutralia is the country context in which each short case study will be placed. Neutralia is provided to outline the basic external features (economic, political and sports system) that are relevant to - but not specified within - the case studies.

Country Indicators:
- Neutralia is a post-industrial Western economy on par in developmental terms with countries in North America, the European Union, South Korea, Japan, Australia and New Zealand.
- Neutralia has 50 million citizens and an aging population. The mean age is 30 and life expectancy is 80 years.
- Neutralia is economically stable with a low single digit GDP growth (1.4%), inflation (3.5%) and unemployment rates (7.2%).
- Neutralia has near universal literacy and numeracy education.
- Telecommunication technology is ubiquitous in regards to mobile, internet and television access.
- Neutralia is a democracy with several leading parties, everyone has the right to vote and elections are held every 3-5 years.

Neutralia Sports System:
- Neutralia has a federated 'club-based' sports system.
- Under this system each sport is governed by a national-state-local governance hierarchy.
- The Neutralian government does provide some funding for sport although this is heavily weighted to elite performance.
- The remainder of government funding supports the grassroots club based sports delivery system which is heavily supplemented by club and affiliation fees in order to remain viable.

Local Sports Club

`Oldtown Sports Club`

History:
Oldtown Sports Club is a regular local community sport club in the suburbs of a large Neutralian city. The club facilitates participation in one outdoor team sport that is popular in the region. Oldtown Sports Club has 5 senior teams (3 men's, 2 women's) and 8 junior teams and is considered a pillar in the local community. Its top male and female players have previously played national level competitions and one even represented the sport at the highest level of competition within the sport. The club was founded in the 1960's and has averaged around 130 senior and 250-300 junior registered players over the past decade. The nature of the involvement means that Oldtown Sports Club has strong linkages with community infrastructure such as local schools, businesses and government. The club has three playing surfaces and a medium sized club rooms with a large viewing room, bar and a upstairs meeting room for teams playing at the venue.

Organisational Structure:
The Oldtown Sports Club is a non-profit association. It is not a company. Registered members annually hold a general meeting to vote in a 12 person board. The board consists of a president, vice president, secretary and treasurer who is elected by the members and are responsible for general administrative activities. The club has three playing surfaces and a medium sized club rooms with a large viewing room, bar and a meeting room for teams playing at the venue. Registered members annually hold a general meeting to vote in a 12 person board. The board consists of a president, vice president, secretary and treasurer. Eight elected board members who are responsible for administrative activities such as fund raising and operations manager responsible for the canteen, events and fund raising. The remaining positions are filled by long-time volunteers of the club who have full time jobs outside of their position at the club. No players are paid to play.

Market Position:
The Oldtown Sports Club considers its market to be participants and the potential participants of the sport within its region. Within this market the Oldtown Sports Club is one of several well-established clubs that has teams in multiple gender and age groups. Financially, Oldtown Sports Club is self-sufficient. Annually they produce revenues of around $500,000 which covers costs such as
as facility hire, coaching, equipment, uniforms and canteen provisions. They have a comparatively healthy bank surplus of $55,000 which they keep in case of emergency and to use to purchase new resources at the start of the season before player registration and pre-season training begins.

**Expert Consultancy Roles:**
You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect Oldtown Sports Club to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify what (if any) social responsibilities are applicable to the Oldtown Sports Club based on the information provided.

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**Strategic Social Responsibility Management Template**

- **Oldtown Sports Club** -

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<td>Focus on long-term strategic planning ability</td>
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<td>Contribute to philanthropic investment</td>
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<td>Identifying social responsibility organization at capacity</td>
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<td>Setting social equity policies and procedures</td>
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<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to owners/members</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximize social advocacy/marketing opportunities</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure proper financial governance and management structures</td>
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| Guarantee data protection and privacy |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ensuring fair working conditions |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Maximize community involvement/regeneration |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Maximize health promotion opportunities |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Maximize local investment, suppliers and employment |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Creating management and governance structures underpinning social responsibilities |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Setting social responsibility goals and performance indicators |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Conducing human rights risk assessments |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Overly express the freedom to associate and collectively bargain |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Provide for youth education opportunities |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Other A (Please Specify) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Other B (Please Specify) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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Elite Sports Club - Scottsdale Sports Club Inc

Elite Sports Club

"Scottsdale Sports Club Inc"

History:

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Scottsdale Sports Club Inc (SSC) was established in 1902, as a recreational pastime for workers from the Scott and Dale Manufacturing Company Pty Ltd. Scottsdale is New Zealand's fifth largest city with around 1.5 million people. As an inaugural member of the premier competition (League 1) in late 1953, SSC had early success winning the League 1 championship three times (1954, 1962, 1965) and the International Cup twice in succession (1963, 1966) in its formative years. Many argue that this era affectionately known as the Golden Era to the club's large and loyal fan base "the Scoots" paved the way for the club's long-term success as it attracted a huge domestic fan base. Despite underperforming during the 1970's and early 1980's the club regained its preeminent position in League 1 by the early 1990's. Between 1988 and 2012 the club has only finished outside the top five in League 1 on six occasions and has taken its League 1 championship wins to a respectable eight titles. Furthermore, the club broke its International Cup drought in 1999 and had ended the year with back-to-back appearances.

Organizational Structure:
Scottsdale Sports Club Inc has been privately owned since it was created. Originally owned and managed by Scott and Dale Manufacturing Company Pty Ltd, the club disbanded in 1940 due to the outbreak of World War II. Following WWII, the club was re-founded by former club captain Carl McKay who held majority ownership with his children until the time of his passing in the 1980s. After a series of private owners and remanagement, John Smith purchased SSC at a time of on-field and off-field peril. Slowly he rebuilt the club, implemented a strong management team and oversaw the renovation of the club's home stadium - Scottsdale Yard - into a new 45,000-seat stadium in 1998. The management team reports directly to Mr. Smith and he has a large say in the contracting of players. There are 53 employees in the organisation that are split into four departments, finance, marketing, operations and on-field. Paid staff run the majority of the day-to-day operations although some positions are filled by long-term volunteers and/or the clubs cheer squad.

Market Position:
Scottsdale Sports Club Inc is in a strong market position in the premier domestic competition of the sport. Having had regular success, a strong latent supporter base, coupled with international media coverage, SSC is one of the most supported clubs within the league. SSC's financial market position is heavily reliant on sponsorship, media revenue and private investment. However, this is not an unusual position within this league. In 2012, the club generated around $50 million in revenues from ticket sales, TV rights, sponsorship and merchandise, etc. Conversely, the club spent $25 million on player wages and $37 million on operational costs. Leaving a deficit of $3 million. Mr. Smith invested $4 million throughout the season in a push to secure another International Cup title. If SSC successfully wins the title it is likely that Mr. Smith, through his controlling interest in SSC could generate a profit of around $2.3 million.

Expert Consultancy Role:
You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect Scottsdale Sports Club Inc to influence society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify which (if any) social responsibilities are important to consider by Scottsdale Sports Club Inc based on the information provided.

Strategic Social Responsibility Management Template

- Scottsdale Sports Club Inc -

Please identify the relative importance of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc intentionally addressing the below social responsibility issue:

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<td>Maximize health promotion opportunities</td>
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<td>Provide for youth education opportunities</td>
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<td>Contribute to peace and conflict resolution</td>
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<tr>
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## Strategic Social Responsibility Management Template

**GoSport Neutralia**

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<td>Focus on long-term strategic planning ability</td>
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</table>
Organisational History:
GoSport Neutralia (GSN) is the governing body for a popular team sport in Neutralia. The sport has been played in Neutralia for more than 70 years and is the fourth most popular sport in the country with a reasonably strong participation rate. Around 4% of the 50 million citizens of Neutralia play it – or around 2 million people. GSN governs the sport under a federated-state model, where states govern their regions and GSN governs the states. GSN is a member of the sports international body responsible for governing the sport internationally. Historically the amateur sport was a free time activity for the middle class, and became increasingly popular toward the end of the 1970s. During the 1980s the sport changed from amateur to semi-professional and started to become a fully professionalised and commercialised league sport in the late 1990s. The results of the commercialisation meant that the governing body’s role needed to expand to balance the need of a mass participation sport and commercial governance practices that came with increased participation and revenues into the sport.

Organisational Structure and Values:
GSN is a company that is not able to distribute profits or assets to its members (non-profit). It is unable to sell ownership shares or be owned. Its primary reason for existence is to govern and advance the sport within Neutralia. Structurally, GSN is a member-based organisation that is governed by an independent board of directors. The independent board of directors is selected by 12 members that represent the 12 state governing bodies in Neutralia. Each board member is selected for a three-year term. The chief role of the independent board is to oversee the strategic direction and appoint/manage the executive management team (CEO, COO, CFO etc.). The executive management team manages GSN’s 120 employees who run the sport throughout the country. There are four departments in GSN’s structure that oversee the sports development and long-term viability: game development, commercial, media and operations.

Market Position:
In 2012 GoSport Neutralia generated just over $200 million in revenue from a mixture of broadcast rights, ticket sales, sponsorship and government funding. However, in line with its non-profit mission, GSN reinvested $103 million into the game in operating costs such as high performance, sport development, community sport infrastructure and administration. The remaining $7 million was a surplus reserved for ongoing operations in the following years. The team sport that GSN governs faces strong competition from other sports. Despite a strong domestic league GSN has seen a small decrease in participation rates over the last 10 years compared to other sports that use similar facilities. In light of this competition GSN has renewed its focus on growing participation with a particular focus on the 5-14 year old age demographic.

Expert Consultancy Role:
You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect GoSport Neutralia to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify what (if any) social
Strategic Social Responsibility Management Template

**GoSport Neutralia**

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<td>Contribute to peace and conflict resolution</td>
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Click Count: 1 clicks

**Feedback Form**

Thank you for completing this pilot survey. Could you please provide some brief feedback into your user experience.

How was your overall user-friendliness of the survey? How do you think user experience could be improved?

[Blank space for feedback]

Could we improve the case studies in any way?
Would you add/remove/change any of the social responsibility items on the list for each case study?

Any other comment?
## 10.8 Appendix 8 – LinkedIn Accounts of Major Sport Teams Around the World

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<th>National Hockey Club</th>
<th>Australian Football League</th>
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<td>Employees Stated on LinkedIn Account</td>
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<td>Hurricanes</td>
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</table>
10.9 Appendix 9 – Screenshot of www.socialsportproject.com
INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the Social Sport Project. The aim of the project is to identify the relative importance of social responsibility issues in sports organisations and clarify which issues are - and are not - considered important in different sports organisations.

This project is conducted by Jonathan Robertson as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Professor Hans Westerbeek and Dr. Rochelle Eime from the Institute of Sport, Exercise and Active Living, Victoria University.

Project Overview

We seek to identify the range of social obligations that an organisation has to society. As Berkeley Professor Dow Votaw (1972) described 'the term social responsibility is a brilliant one it means something, but not always the same thing, to everybody'. The Social Sport Project seeks to clarify which social responsibility issues are - and are not - considered important in different sports organisations (a local sports club, an elite sports club and a sports governing body).

As a global sport management expert you are asked to:

1) Identify the relative importance of social responsibility issues in each sport organisation scenario (Round 1,2,3)

2) Identify the most important organisational activities to effectively fulfil the most important social responsibilities (Round 2,3)

We have invited world leading sport management academics, business leaders and administrators to participate in three successive survey rounds (Delphi method). The Delphi method is a group decision making approach that aims to guide participants toward consensus through successive survey rounds. Participants will be emailed a link to an on-line survey and have two weeks to respond to each survey. After a week
of analysis by the researchers, moderated feedback will be provided prior to the commencement of the next survey round.

Subsequent surveys will ask participants to review their answers in light of group responses and moderated feedback. The final two survey rounds aim to achieve consensus on what strategic activities sport organisations can undertake to effectively achieve the most important and relevant social responsibilities.

Two weeks after the third and final survey the aggregated results will be put into a report and sent to all participants who completed the third round. The report is anticipated to include a list of 1) the most relevant social responsibility issues for each sport organisation and 2) the most relevant strategic activities that the sport organisation can undertake to effectively achieve those social responsibilities.

The time commitment will be 15-25 minutes per month. The survey is smart phone compatible and automatically saves your progress to your device.

**Project Scenarios:**

In order to assure that the global expert panel start on the same page a neutral country scenario 'Neutralia' will be presented to all participants. Participants are asked to use this as the basis for their decision making rather than their own national sports system. This 'Neutralian' country scenario outlines external factors such as the national indicators (development, economy, demography) and issues relevant to the nations sport delivery system (political landscape, governance).

Within the context of Neutralia, three distinct sport organisations will be presented:

1. **GoSport Neutralia** (a national sports governing body)
2. **Oldtown Sports Club** (a local sports club)
3. **Scottsdale Sports Club** (an elite sports club)

It is up to the participant to determine what (if any) social responsibilities these organisations have to the 'Neutralian' society based on the information given.

**What will I gain from participating?**
As a participant the opportunity is to shape the sport and social responsibility discourse. Furthermore, given the knowledge base of global sport management experts, it is likely that participants will have the opportunity to expand their knowledge in regard to social responsibility issues in sports organisations. Participants will also be the first to receive the aggregated results following the final round.

**How will the information I provide be used?**

Participant responses will be aggregated and de-identified each round. All data will be stored as per university guidelines and no participant information will be publicly identified at any stage of the research. Specifically, the Delphi process also assures intra-group anonymity. Therefore your participation will also be anonymous within the group.

The aggregated data will be moderated by the researchers and resent to all participants following rounds one and two. Following round three all participants will be sent a report of the preliminary and final findings and notified of any future use of the data.

**What are the potential risks of participating in this project?**

In addition to the above data storage protection and anonymous participation, the survey contains no questions of a sensitive nature. Given the experienced participant group and research supervision there are no anticipated risks to the participant from this project.

**Who is conducting the study?**

Chief Investigator: Professor Hans Westerbeek, hans.westerbeek@vu.edu.au, W: +61 (3) 9919 9473

PhD Candidate: Jonathan Robertson, jonathan.robertson@live.vu.edu.au, M: +61 (0) 417 142 172

Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, Victoria, 8001, Australia

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the Chief
Investigator listed above.

If you have any queries or complaints regarding this research, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 or phone +61 (3) 9919 4781 or researchethics@vu.edu.au
CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH - CERTIFICATION BY PARTICIPANT

By completing the below details, I certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the Social Sport Project. I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the Delphi method have been fully explained to me and that I freely consent to my participation.

I have read and understood this consent form and the 'Information for Participants' form and desire of my own free will to participate in this study. I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher, Hans Westerbeek, hans.westerbeek@vu.edu.au, +61 (3) 9919 9473, or, Jonathan Robertson, jonathan.robertson@live.vu.edu.au, +61 (3) 9919 4157.

If you have any queries or complaints regarding this research, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001 or phone +61 (3) 9919 4781 or researchethics@vu.edu.au

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<td>Nationality</td>
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Welcome to the Social Sport Project

Please click on the video below for a 3 minute project overview then proceed to the question at the bottom of the page.

(Or follow this link: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QfG5yo5KsCo](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QfG5yo5KsCo))

Would you like to read the information for participants, or go straight into the survey?

☐ Yes please. I would like to read the INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS

---

File:///C:/Users/10367010/Dropbox/Survey%20PDF%20Survey%20Round%201%20PDF.htm[26/05/2015 1:32:00 PM]
Introduction - Information for Participants

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the Social Sport Project. The aim of the project is to identify the relative importance of social responsibility issues in sports organisations and clarify which issues are - and are not - considered important in different sports organisations.

This project is conducted by Jonathan Robertson as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Professor Hans Westerbeek and Dr. Rochelle Eime from the Institute of Sport, Exercise and Active Living, Victoria University.

Project Overview - Sport and Culture Group - Pilot Study

We seek to identify the range of social obligations that an organisation has to society. As Berkley Professor Dow Vetlow (1972) described "the term social responsibility is a brilliant one it means something, but not always the same thing, to everybody". The Social Sport Project seeks to clarify which social responsibility issues are - and are not - considered important in different sports organisations (a local sports club, an elite sports club and a sports governing body).

As a global sport management expert you are asked to:

1) Identify the relative importance of social responsibility issues in each sport organisation scenario (Round 1, 2, 3)

2) Identify the most important organisational activities to effectively fulfil the most important social responsibilities (Round 2, 3)

We have invited world leading sport management academics, business leaders and administrators to participate in three successive survey rounds (Delphi method). The Delphi method is a group decision making approach that uses a panel of experts to present and to guide participants toward consensus through successive survey rounds. Participants will be emailed a link to an on-line survey on Monday the 24th of June. Participants will have two weeks to respond to each survey. After a week of analysis by the researchers, moderated feedback will be provided prior to the commencement of the next survey round.

Subsequent surveys will ask participants to review their answers in light of group responses and moderated feedback. The final two surveys aim to achieve consensus on what strategic activities sport organisations can undertake to effectively achieve the most important and relevant social responsibilities.

Two weeks after the third and final survey the aggregated results will be put into a report and sent to all participants who completed the third round. The report is anticipated to include a list of 1) the most relevant social responsibility issues for each sport organisation and 2) the most relevant strategic activities that the sport organisation can undertake to effectively achieve those social responsibilities.

The time commitment will be 15-25 minutes per month. The survey is smartphone compatible and automatically saves your progress to your device.

Project Scenarios:

In order to assure that the global expert panel start on the same page a neutral country scenario "Neutrolia" will be presented to all participants. Participants are asked to use this as the basis for their decision making rather than their own national sports system. This "Neutrolia" country scenario outlines external factors such as the national indicators (development, economy, demography) and issues relevant to the nations sport delivery system (political landscape, governance).

Within the context of Neutrolia, three distinct sport organisations will be presented:

- GoSport Neutrolia (a national sports governing body)
- Oldtown Sports Club (a local sports club)
- Scottsdale Sports Club (an elite sports club)

It is up to the participant to determine what (if any) social responsibilities these organisations have to the 'neutralian society based on the information given.

What will I gain from participating?
As a participant the opportunity is to shape the sport and social responsibility discourse. Furthermore, given the knowledge base of global sport management experts, it is likely that participants will have the opportunity to expand their knowledge in regard to social responsibility issues in sports organisations. Participants will also be the first to receive the aggregated results following the final round.

How will the information I provide be used?
Participant responses will be aggregated and de-identified each round. All data will be stored as per university guidelines and no participant information will be publicly identified at any stage of the research. Specifically, the Delphi process also ensures in-group anonymity. Therefore your participation will also be anonymous within the group.

The aggregated data will be moderated by the researchers and resent to all participants following rounds one and two. Following round three all participants will be sent a report of the preliminary and final findings and notified of any future use of the data.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?
In addition to the above data storage protection and anonymous participation, the survey contains no questions of a sensitive nature. Given the experienced participant group and research supervision there are no anticipated risks to the participant from this project.

Who is conducting the study?
Chief Investigator: Professor Hans Westerbeek, hans.westerbeek@vuw.ac.nz, W. +61 (3) 9919 9473
PhD Candidate: Jonathan Robertson, jonathan.robertson@fide.vuw.ac.nz, W. +61 (3) 9919 4157, M. +61 (6) 417 142 172
Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, Victoria, 8001, Australia

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Last Click: 3.564 seconds.
Page Submit: 0 seconds.
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Consent Form

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS INVOLVED IN RESEARCH - CERTIFICATION BY PARTICIPANT

By completing the below details, I certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the Social Sport Project. I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the Delphi method have been fully explained to me and that I freely consent to my participation.

I have read and understood this consent form and the 'Information for Participants' form and desire of my own free will to participate in this study. I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.
Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher, Hans Westerbeek, hans.westerbeek@vu.edu.au, +61 (3) 9919 8479, or, Jonathan Robertson, jonathan.robertson@live.vu.edu.au, +61 (3) 9919 4107.

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Title
First Name
Surname
Organisation/Institution
Position
Nationality
Email

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Context Overview

Country Context

'Neutralia'

Neutralia is the country context in which each short case study will be placed. Neutralia is provided to outline the basic external features (economic, political and sports system) that are relevant to - but not specified within - the case studies.

Country Indicators & Demographics:
- Neutralia is a post-industrial Western economy on par in developmental terms with countries in North America, the European Union, South Korea, Japan, Australia and New Zealand.
- Neutralia has 50 million citizens and an aging population. The mean age is 38 and life expectancy is 80 years.
- Neutralia is economically stable with a low single digit GDP growth (1.4%), inflation (3.5%) and unemployment rates (7.2%).
- Neutralia has near universal literacy and numeracy education.
- Telecommunication technology is ubiquitous in regards to mobile, Internet and television access.
- Neutralia is a secular democracy with several leading parties, everyone has the right to vote and elections are held every 5-5 years.
Neutralia Sports System:
- Neutralia has a federated 'club-based' sports system.
- Under this system each sport is governed by a national-state-local governance hierarchy.
- The Neutralian government does provide some funding for sport although this is heavily weighted to elite performance.
- The remainder of government funding supports the grassroots club-based sports delivery system which is heavily supplemented by club and affiliation fees in order to remain viable.

Elite Sports Club - Scottsdale Sports Club Inc

Elite Sports Club

'Scottsdale Sports Club Inc'

Overview:
This ideal type case study of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc is designed to represent a first division sports club with a long history. Given its size and commercial obligations Scottsdale Sports Club Inc has many similar features to a medium to large business.

History:
Scottsdale Sports Club Inc (SSC) was established in 1902, as a recreational pastime for workers from the Scott and Dale Manufacturing Company Pty Ltd. Scottsdale is Neutralia's 6th largest city with around 15,000 people. As an inaugural member of the premier competition ('League 1') in late 1933, SSC had early success winning the League 1 championship three times (1954, 1962, 1965) and the International Cup twice in succession (1963, 1969) in its formative years. Many argue that this era - affectionately known as the 'Golden Era' to the clubs large and loyal fan base 'The Scots' - paved the way for the clubs long-term success as it attracted a huge domestic fan base. Despite under-performing during the 1970's and early 1980's the club regained its preeminent position in League 1 by the early 1980's. Between 1988 and 2012 the club has only finished outside the top five in League 1 on six occasions and has taken its League 1 championship title to a respectable eight titles. Furthermore the club broke its International Cup drought in 1999 and has reached the quarterfinals in its past two appearances.

Organisational Structure:
Scottsdale Sports Club Inc has been privately owned since it was created. Originally owned and managed by Scott and Dale Manufacturing Company Pty Ltd, the club was disbanded in 1940 due to the outbreak of World War II. Following WWIII, the club was re-founded by former club captain Carl McKay who held majority ownership with his children until the time of his passing in 1970. After a series of private owners and mismanagement John Smith purchased SSC at a time of on-field and off-field peril. Slowly he rebuilt the club, implemented a strong management team and oversaw the renovation of the club's home stadium - Scottsdale Yard - into a new 30,000 seat facility in 1998. The management team reports directly to Mr Smith and he has a large say in the contracting of players. There are 53 employees in the organisation that are split into four departments, finance, marketing, operations and on field. Paid staff ran the majority of the day-to-day operations although some positions are filled by long-term volunteers and the clubs cheer squad.

Market Position:
Scottsdale Sports Club Inc is in a strong market position in the premier domestic competition of the sport. Having had regular success, a strong latent supporter base, coupled with international media coverage SSC is one of the most supported clubs within the league. SSC's financial market position is heavily reliant on sponsorship, media revenue and private investment. However, this is not an unusual position within this league. In 2012, the club generated around $55 million in revenues from ticket sales, TV rights, sponsorship and merchandise etc. Conversely the club spent its $25 million salary cap (player contracts) and a further $37 million on operational costs. Leaving a deficit of $3 million. Mr Smith invested $4 million throughout the season in a push to secure another International Cup title. If SSC successfully win the title it is likely that Mr Smith, through his controlling interest in SSC could generate a profit of around $2-3 million.

Expert Consultancy Role:
You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect Scottsdale Sports Club Inc to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify which (if any) social responsibilities are important to consider by Scottsdale Sports Club Inc based on the information provided.
### Strategic Social Responsibility Management Template

- **Scottsdale Sports Club Inc** -

Please identify the relative importance of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc intentionally addressing the below social responsibility issues?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Very Low Importance</th>
<th>Low Importance</th>
<th>Moderate Importance</th>
<th>High Importance</th>
<th>Very High Importance</th>
<th>Any Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
<td>☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td>☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
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<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
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<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
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<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the 'certainty of outcome' within a sporting context and/or the organisation's integrity</td>
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<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
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<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to stakeholders</td>
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<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
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<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
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<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
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<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
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<td>Ensure the organisation is an equal opportunity employer</td>
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<td>Actively exercise the right to associate and collectively bargain</td>
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<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
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### Local Sports Club

**Overview:**
This ideal type case study of Oldtown Sports Club is designed to represent a local sports club that is an important social institution within the local community.

**History:**
Oldtown Sports Club is a regular local community sport club in the suburbs of a large Neuartian city. The club facilitates participation in one outdoor team sport that is popular in the region. Oldtown Sports Club has 5 senior teams (3 men's, 2 women's) and 8 junior teams and is considered a pillar in the local community. Its top male and female players have previously played national level competitions and one even represented the sport at the highest level of competition within the sport. The club was founded in the 1990's and has averaged around 130 senior and 250-300 junior registered players over the past decade. The nature of the involvement means that Oldtown Sports Club has strong linkages with community infrastructure such as local schools, businesses and government. The club has three playing surfaces and medium sized club rooms with a large viewing room, bar, canteen and four change rooms for teams playing at the venue.

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### Local Sports Club

**Oldtown Sports Club**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
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<td>Prioritise on field sporting success within the organisation</td>
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<td>Minimise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
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<td>Publicly stating social goals and performance indicators</td>
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<td>Compliance with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
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<td>Ensure appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives</td>
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<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise health promotion opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
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</tbody>
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Do you think the organisation has an obligation to fulfill any additional important social responsibilities that we may have missed?
Organisational Structure:
The Oldtown Sports Club is a non-profit association. It is not a company. Registered members annually hold a general meeting to vote in a 12 person board. The board consists of a four person executive (president, vice president, secretary and treasurer) and eight elected board members who are responsible for operational activities such as fund raising, sponsorship, selection, marketing, junior club etc. Board members are not paid and oversee three paid positions within the club: senior club coordinator/coach, junior club coordinator/coach and a marketing/operations manager responsible for the canteen, events and fund raising. The remaining positions are filled by long-time volunteers of the club who have full time workloads outside of their position at the club. No players are paid to play.

Market Position:
The Oldtown Sports Club considers its market to be participants and the potential participants of the sport within its region. Within this market the Oldtown Sports Club is one of several well-established clubs that has teams in multiple gender and age groups. Financially, Oldtown Sports Club is self-sufficient. Annually they produce revenues of around $500,000 which covers costs such as facility hire, coaching, equipment, uniforms and canteen provisions. They have a comparatively healthy bank surplus of $55,000 which they keep in case of emergency and to use to purchase new resources at the start of the season before player registration and pre-season training begins.

Expert Consultancy Role:
You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect Oldtown Sports Club to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify what (if any) social responsibilities are applicable to the Oldtown Sports Club based on the information provided.

---

**Strategic Social Responsibility Management Template**

- Oldtown Sports Club -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please identify the relative importance of Oldtown Sports Club intentionally addressing the below social responsibility issues?</th>
<th>Any Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very Low Importance</strong></td>
<td><strong>Low Importance</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publicly stating social goals and performance indicators</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure the organization is an equal opportunity employer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overly express the freedom to associate and collectively bargain</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Question Area</td>
<td>Rating</td>
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<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively promote anti-corruption</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prevent the unfair financial benefit of outcome</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to shareholders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritise on field spotting success within the organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Act by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise health promotional opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
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</tbody>
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Do you think the organisation has an obligation to fulfill any additional important social responsibilities that we may have missed?
Sports Governing Body

"GoSport Neutraria"

Overview:
The ideal type case study of GoSport Neutraria (GSN) is designed to represent an “ideal” sports governing body. GSN governs the competing demands of elite team sport competition and the responsibility of maintaining the health of the sports at the grassroots participation level.

Organisational History:
GoSport Neutraria (GSN) is the governing body for a popular team sport in Neutraria. The sport has been played in Neutraria for more than 70 years and is the fourth most popular sport in that country with a reasonably strong participation rate. Among 4% of the 50 million citizens of Neutraria play it – or around 2 million people. GSN governs the sport under a federated-state model, where states govern their regions and GSN governs the states. GSN is a member of the sports international body responsible for governing the sport internationally. Historically the amateur sport was a free time activity for the middle class, and became increasingly popular toward the end of the 1970s. During the 1980s the sport changed from amateur to semi-professional and started to become a fully professionalised and commercialised league sport in the late 1990s. The results of the commercialisation meant that the governing body’s role needed to expand to balance the need of a mass participation sport and commercial governance practices that came with increased participation and revenues into the sport.

Organisational Structure and Values:
GSN is a company that is not able to distribute profits or assets to its members (non-profit organisation). It is unable to sell ownership shares or be owned. Its primary reason for existence is to govern and advance the sport within Neutraria. Structurally, GSN is a member-based organisation that is governed by an independent board of directors. The independent board of directors is selected by 12 members that represent the 12 state governing bodies in Neutraria. Each board member is selected for a three-year term. The chief role of the independent board is to oversee the strategic direction and appointed manage the executive management team (CEO, COO, CFO etc). The executive management team manages GSN’s 120 employees who run the sport throughout the country. There are four departments in GSN’s structure that oversee the sport development and long term viability; game development, commercial, media and operations.

Market Position:
In 2012 GoSport Neutraria generated just over $200 million in revenue from a mixture of broadcast rights, ticket sales, sponsorship and government funding. However, in line with its non-profit mission, GSN reinvested $193 million into the game in operating costs such as high performance, sport development, community sport infrastructure and administration. The remaining $7 million was a surplus reserved for ongoing operations in the following years. The team sport that GSN governs faces strong competition from other sports. Despite a strong domestic league GSN has seen a small decrease in participation rates over the last 10 years compared to other sports that use similar facilities. In light of this competition GSN has renewed its focus on growing participation with a particular focus on the 5-14 year old age demographic.

Expert Consultancy Role:
You have been selected as a sport management expert to investigate the extent to which we expect GoSport Neutraria to influence the society in which it operates. As part of a global sport management expert group your role is to complete the social responsibility template on behalf of the organisation. The template is designed to assist you to identify what (if any) social responsibilities are important for GoSport Neutraria to consider based on the information provided.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualtrics Survey Software</th>
<th>Please identify the relative importance of Gold Coast Neutralia's intentions towards addressing the below social responsibility issues?</th>
<th>Any Comments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very Low</td>
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<tr>
<td>Actively identifying the organisational resource capacity for socially responsible programs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensuring up-to-date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
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<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to owners/members</td>
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<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the 'integrity of outcomes' within a sporting context and/or the organisation's integrity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise health promotion opportunities for staff, volunteers and community</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contribute to increasing social capital and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise local investment, suppliers and employment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prioritise on-field sporting success within the organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure the organisation is an equal opportunity employer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organisation's sphere of influence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives</td>
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<tr>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Overly expresses the freedom to associate and collectively bargain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
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<td>Provide community education opportunities</td>
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<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
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<td>Contribute surplus resources to social benefit organisations that are not business related</td>
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<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
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<td>Abide by principles of environmental responsibility and sustainability</td>
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<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
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<tr>
<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair</td>
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</table>
Do you think the organisation has an obligation to fulfill any additional important social responsibilities that we may have missed?

Feedback Form

Any additional comments?
10.13 Appendix 13 – Round Two Survey

Landing Page and Security Logos

The Social Sport Project - Round 2

Hi First Name,

Welcome to the second round of the Social Sport Project and thank you for your continued participation in this research project. In the first round you were asked to rate social responsibility issues for an ideal elite sports club, a local sports club and sport’s governing body based on the issues relative importance to that organisation.

Despite geographic and professional diversity within our expert panel there was a high level of agreement on the relative importance of social responsibility issues across all three organisations. A level of consensus was accepted if greater than 50% of expert responses were within one rating scale point of the median value for an issue.

This round is significantly shorter than the previous round and involves two types of questions for each organisation:

1) The first question gives you the opportunity to reconsider the importance of social responsibility issues in light of group responses if both of the following conditions are met:
   a) The level of agreement for the issue within the group is below 50%
   b) Your response was greater than one rating scale point away from the median group response

2) The second question set allows you to rank additional items that were nominated as important by respondents and not included in the first round.

This round is the second of three rounds and will be open for two weeks until Monday, July 29th and 6pm (PST, GMT -7:00).

To improve survey experience and flow we will provide a summary of in-depth information (information for participants, full case studies, references etc) within the test whilst the full text will be available via hyperlinks. Participants that would like to read this information can access it by clicking on the blue and underlined hyperlinks throughout the survey.

If you would like to re-read the information for participants please click on this link.

More information - including the video overview of the research project - can be found by visiting www.socialsportproject.com

We hope you enjoy this research project and truly value your ongoing participation. If you have any questions please feel free to contact the research team.

Kind Regards,

Professor Hans Westerbeek,
Chief Investigator

Dr Rochelle Eime,
Associate Investigator

Jonathan Robertson,
PGR Candidate

College of Sport and Exercise Science & IDEAL, University of Ballarat and Victoria University
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Ph: +61 3 9919 9333
F: +61 3 9919 9765
T: 61 (0) 39919 9675
E: h.westerbeek@unimelb.edu.au

School of Health Sciences & IDEAL, University of Ballarat and Victoria University
PO Box 14428, Ballarat VIC 3353, Australia
Ph: +61 3 9919 8990
F: +61 3 9919 8987
T: +61 (0) 3 9919 9675
E: r.eime@unimelb.edu.au

As in the previous survey please navigate through this survey using the 'Next' and 'Previous' buttons below.

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Local Sports Club

Country Context

*Neutria*

- Neutria is the country context in which each short case study will be placed.
- Neutria is one of the development terms with many post-industrial western economies.
- It has 50 million citizens, an ageing population and a federated ‘club-based’ sports delivery system.
- The Neutrian government provides some funding for sport although this is heavily weighted to elite performance.

For the full country scenario as presented in Round 1 please open this file - Neutria Country Context (Full)

Local Sports Club

*Oldtown Sports Club*

Overview:
- This ideal type case study of Oldtown Sports Club is designed to represent a local sports club that is an important social institution within the local community.
- It has 5 senior teams and 8 junior teams and averaged 400-500 total participants over the last 10 years.
- The club has a 12 person board, with three paid part time staff (senior coach, junior coordinator and events/fundraising manager).
- The club has strong linkages with the community infrastructure and is financially stable.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file - Oldtown Sports Club Case Study (Full)

For each of the social responsibility issues, please indicate if you would like to change your response by selecting from the drop down box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium Group Response</th>
<th>Your Response</th>
<th>Would you like to reconsider the importance of this social responsibility issue in light of group responses?</th>
<th>Reasoning for Maintaining Current Response Outside of Group Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Round 1</td>
<td>Round 1</td>
<td>(Optional)</td>
<td>(Optional)</td>
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</table>

Add item here

- Oldtown Sports Club -

Please identify the relative importance of the below social responsibility issues that were nominated by respondents in the previous round.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Very Low Importance</th>
<th>Low Importance</th>
<th>Moderate Importance</th>
<th>High Importance</th>
<th>Very High Importance</th>
<th>Any Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through activities, access times, locations etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop equity and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
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<tr>
<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximize the use of the organization’s sports facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Implement socially responsible governance positions within the supply chain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by ensuring people in positions</td>
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Elite Sports Club - Scottsdale Sports Club Inc

Elite Sports Club

'Scottsdale Sports Club Inc'

Overview:
- The ideal type case study of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc (SSC) is designed to represent a sports club in the elite competition of the sport.
- Given its size and commercial obligations SSC has many similar features to a medium to large business.
- There are 53 employees in the organisation that are split into five departments: finance, marketing, operations and on field.
- Paid staff run the majority of the day-to-day operations although some positions are filled by long-term volunteers.
- SSC is privately owned by Mr. Smith and generated $20m in revenues from ticket sales, private investment, sponsorship and TV rights.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file: Scottsdale Sports Club Case Study (Full).

For each of the social responsibility issues, please indicate if you would like to change your response by selecting from the drop down box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Median Group Response</th>
<th>Your Response</th>
<th>Would you like to reconsider the importance of this social responsibility issue in light of group response?</th>
<th>Reasoning for Maintaining Current Response Outside of Group Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Round 1</td>
<td>From Round 1</td>
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</table>

Add Items Here

- Scottsdale Sports Club Inc -

Please identify the relative importance of the below social responsibility issues that were nominated by respondents in the previous round.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maximize the use of the organisation's sports facilities</th>
<th>Very Low Importance</th>
<th>Low Importance</th>
<th>Moderate Importance</th>
<th>High Importance</th>
<th>Very High Importance</th>
<th>Any Comments</th>
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Develop equality and diversity

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### Sports Governing Body - GoSport Neutralia

#### Overview:
- The ideal type case study of GoSport Neutralia (GSN) is designed to represent an 'ideal' sports governing body.
- GSN governs the competing demands of an elite team sport competition and the responsibility of maintaining the health of the sport at the grass roots participation level.
- Around 4% of the 50 million citizens of Neutralia play it – or around 2 million people.
- GSN governs the sport under a federated-state model, where states govern their regions and GSN governs the states.
- GSN generated just over $200 million in revenue last financial year from a mixture of broadcast rights, ticket sales, sponsorship and government funding. However, in line with its non-profit mission, GSN reinvested $190 million into the game in operating costs such as high performance, sport development, community sport infrastructure and administration.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file [GoSport Neutralia Case Study (Full)](GoSportNeutraliaCaseStudyFull.pdf).

For each of the social responsibility issues, please indicate if you would like to change your response by selecting from the drop down box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium Group Response</th>
<th>Your Response</th>
<th>Would you like to reconsider the importance of this social responsibility issue in light of group response?</th>
<th>Reasoning for Maintaining Current Response Outside of Group Agreement</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Round 1</td>
<td>From Round 1</td>
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</table>

- **GoSport Neutralia**

Please identify the relative importance of the below social responsibility issues that were nominated by respondents in the previous round.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through subsides, access times, locations etc</th>
<th>Very Low Importance</th>
<th>Low Importance</th>
<th>Moderate Importance</th>
<th>High Importance</th>
<th>Very High Importance</th>
<th>Any Comments</th>
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<td>Subsidies, access times, locations etc</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
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<td>Maximize the use of the organization's sports facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Implement socially responsible procurement practices within the supply chain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
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<td>Develop equality and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
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<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by ensuring people in positions of trust have undergone relevant background checks and possess appropriate training</td>
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**Feedback Form**

**Any additional comments?**

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Appendix 14 – Round Three Survey

Hi [Your FirstName],

Welcome to the third and final round of the Social Sport Project and thank you for your continued participation in this research project.

In previous rounds you were asked to rate social responsibility issues for ideal-type sports organisations based on each issue's relative importance. The third round aims to extend on results from previous rounds by investigating the actions each organisation can take to effectively address its highest social responsibility priorities.

In this round only issues that meet the criteria of high importance AND a high level of consensus within the group have been listed underneath each case organisation.

Using these lists as your framework, you are asked to continue in your role as an expert consultant and answer the following questions for each organisation:

1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of each organisation to behave in a 'socially responsible' way for the long term?

2) Which action(s) could each organisation undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1?

This round will be open for two weeks until Monday August 26th at 6pm (PST, GMT -7/00).

More information can be found in text by following the hyperlinks (e.g. information for participants) or by visiting www.sociosportproject.com

We hope you have enjoyed your involvement in the Social Sport Project and truly appreciate the time and effort you have put into each round. If you have any further questions please feel free to contact the research team below.

Kind Regards,

Professor Hans Westerbeek,
Chief Investigator
College of Sport and Exercise Science & ISSAL
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As in the previous survey please navigate through this survey using the 'Next' and 'Previous' buttons below.

[Survey page for data collection]
**Country Context**

**'Neutralia'**

- Neutralia is the country in which each short case study will be set.
- Neutralia is on par in development terms with many post industrial western economies.
- It has 50 million citizens, an ageing population and a federated 'club-based' sports delivery system.
- The Neutralian government does provide some funding for sport although this is heavily weighted to elite performance.

For the full country scenario as presented in Round 1 please open this file - *Neutralia Country Context (Full)*

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**Local Sports Club**

**'Oldtown Sports Club'**

Overview:
- This ideal type case study of Oldtown Sports Club is designed to represent a local sports club that is an important social institution within the local community.
- It has 5 senior teams and 8 junior teams and averaged 400-500 total participants over the last 10 years.
- The club has a 12 person board, with three paid part time staff (Senior Coach, Junior Coordinator and Events/Fundraising Manager)
- The club has strong linkages with the community infrastructure and is financially stable.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file - *Oldtown Sports Club Case Study (Full)*

Below you find a list of these social responsibility issues that the expert panel considered highly important in the previous rounds.*

Using the below list of most important social responsibility issues as agreed by respondents, you are asked to continue in your role as an expert consultant and answer the following questions for Oldtown Sports Club:

1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of Oldtown Sports Club to behave in a 'socially responsible' way for the long term? (Enter 1 for highest priority to 5 for fifth highest priority in the Column 1 later)

2) Which action(s) could Oldtown Sports Club undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1? * Please note that whilst social responsibility issues were included in the final round on the basis of importance and group consensus they are presented in a RANDOMISED order, that is in the order the issues appear is not representative of the level of perceived importance by the group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of Oldtown Sports Club to behave in a 'socially responsible' way for the long term?</th>
<th>2) Which action(s) could Oldtown Sports Club undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Please only select five issues where 1 = the highest priority to 5 = 5th highest priority)</td>
<td>(Please enter numerical values e.g. 1,2,3,4,5 below)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximise volunteer participation

Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation's social objectives

Maximise participation in the sport

Contribute to increasing social capital

*Example: If you thought 'Reduce carbon emissions' was the highest priority for this organisation you would put the number 1 in the previous column. In this column you would identify how the organisation can actually achieve this priority by doing things such as 1) minimise energy use, 2) offset carbon emissions by planting trees and 3) promote public transport methods within the organisation.*

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*File: C:\Users\[User]\Dropbox\Survey%20Pdfs\Survey%20Read-PDF\20030331-06-10-55.doc*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Survey Software</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and community cohesion through community involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure the organisation is an equal opportunity employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximize the use of the organisation's sports facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by ensuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks and possess appropriate training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to members/owners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set social equality policies and procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure financial viability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Block 4**

**Elite Sports Club**

"Scottsdale Sports Club Inc"

**Overview:**
- The ideal type case study of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc (SSC) is designed to represent a sports club at the elite level of the sport.
- SSC has a total of 5.3 employees in the organisation that are split into four departments, finance, marketing, operations and on field.
- Paid staff run the majority of the day-to-day operations although some positions are filled by long-term volunteers.
- SSC is privately owned by Mr. Smith and generated $63m in revenues from ticket sales, private investment, sponsorship and TV rights.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file: [Scottsdale Sports Club Case Study (Full)](file://C:/Users/5236771/Downloads/Survey%20PDFs/Survey%20Round%201%20PDF%20Files/Scottsdale%20Sports%20Club%20Case%20Study%20Round%201.pdf)
Elite Sports Club

'Scottsdale Sports Club Inc'

Overview:
- The ideal case study of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc (SSC) is designed to represent a sports club at the elite level of the sport.
- Given its size and commercial obligations, SSC has many similar features to a medium to large business.
- There are 53 employees in the organisation that are split into four departments: finance, marketing, operations, and on field.
- Paid staff run the majority of the day-to-day operations although some positions are filled by long-term volunteers.
- SSC is privately owned by Mr Smith and generated $63m in revenues from ticket sales, private investment, sponsorship, and TV rights.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file Scottsdale Sports Club Case Study (Full)
Below you find a list of those social responsibility issues that the expert panel considered highly important in the previous rounds.

Using the below list of the most important social responsibility issues as agreed by respondents, you are asked to continue in your role as an expert consultant and answer the following questions for Scottsdale Sports Club Inc:

1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of Scottsdale Sports Club Inc to behave in a socially responsible way for the long term? (5 = the highest priority to 1 = the lowest priority to the Column 1 below)

2) Which action(s) could Scottsdale Sports Club Inc undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1?

* Please note that all social responsibility issues were included in the final round on the basis of importance and group consensus they are presented in a RANDOMISED order, that is the order the issues appear is not representative of the level of perceived importance by the group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Responsibility Priorities</th>
<th>Action(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the integrity of sport within a sporting context and/or the organisation's integrity</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to stakeholders</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials</td>
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<tr>
<td>Priceline on field sporting success within the organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximise the use of the organisation's sports facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity abate by anti-competitive behaviour regulation to ensure fair competition within the organisation's market(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safeguard individuals from potential harm by ensuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: If you thought ‘Reduce carbon emissions’ was the highest priority for this organisation you would put the number 1 in the previous column. In this column, you would identify how the organisation can actually achieve this priority by listing things such as 1) minimise energy use, 2) offset carbon emissions by planting trees and 3) promote group transport methods within the organisation.
Sports Governing Body

"GoSport Neutraka"

Overview:
- The ideal type case study of GoSport Neutrality (GSN) is designed to represent an 'ideal' sports governing body.
- GSN governs the competing demands of an elite team sport competition and the responsibility of maintaining the health of the sport at the grass roots participation level.
- Around 4% of the 50 million citizens of Neutrality play it – around 2 million people.
- GSN governs the sport under a federated-state model, where states govern their regions and GSN governs the states.
- GSN generated just over $200 million in revenue last financial year from a mixture of broadcast rights, ticket sales, sponsorship and government funding. However, in line with its not-for-profit mission, GSN reinvested $193 million into the game in operating costs such as high performance, sport development, community sport infrastructure and administration.

For the full case study as presented in Round 1 please open this file [GoSport Neutrality Case Study (Full)](#)

Below you find a list of these social responsibility issues that the expert panel considered highly important in the previous rounds.*

Using the below list of the most important social responsibility issues as agreed by respondents, you are asked to continue in your role as an expert consultant and answer the following questions for GoSport Neutrality:

1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of GoSport Neutrality to behave in a 'socially responsible' way for the long term? (enter 1 for highest priority to 5 for fifth highest priority in the Column 1 below)

2) Which action(s) could GoSport Neutrality undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1?

* Please note that until social responsibility issues were included in the final round on the basis of importance and group consensus they are presented in a RANDOMISED order, that is the order the issues appear is not representative of the level of perceived importance by the group.

| 1) In your opinion what are the five highest social responsibility priorities that best demonstrate the intention of GoSport Neutrality to behave in a 'socially responsible' way for the long term? |
| 2) Which action(s) could GoSport Neutrality undertake in order to effectively address the five highest social responsibility priorities you identified in Question 1? |
| (Please only select five issues where 1 = the highest priority to 5 = 5th highest priority) |
| (Please enter numerical values e.g. 1,2,3,4,5 below) |

- Create an accessible and inclusive sport setting
- Publicly state social goals and performance indicators
- Ensure disability inclusion and equity standards
- Safeguard individuals from potential harm by ensuring people in positions of trust have gone through relevant background checks and possess appropriate training
- Ensure up to date occupational health and safety standards and procedures
- Maximise the use of the organisation’s sports facilities
- Ensure the appropriate organisational governance frameworks are in place to effectively identify and manage the organisation’s social objectives
- Develop and implement injury prevention strategies for players and officials
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coalition Survey Software</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actively promote anti-corruption practices that support the “variety of outcomes” within a sporting context and/or the organization’s integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure fiscal responsibility to members</td>
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<tr>
<td>Develop equality and diversity resources to implement within the sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise participation in the sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide personal development and training opportunities for staff and members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actively abide by anti-competitive behaviour regulations to ensure fair competition within the organization’s market</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raise awareness of social issues within the organization’s sphere of influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure the organization is an equal opportunity employer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting social equality policies and procedures</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provide equitable access to disadvantaged groups through subsidies, access times, locations etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure gender inclusion and equity standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee data protection and privacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Complying with relevant equity and anti-discrimination legislation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximise volunteer participation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Feedback Form

Any additional comments?

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