

**An Exploratory Study of the  
Nature of Social Capital  
in  
Local Area Leisure Clubs**

**Thomas Edward Forsell  
2013**

**An Exploratory Study of the  
Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs**

by

**Thomas Edward Forsell**

**College of Sport and Exercise Science**

**Lecturer A/8**

**College of Education**

**Victoria University**

**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**September 2013**

# Abstract

## **The nature of social capital in local area leisure clubs**

The nature of social capital in local leisure clubs today has become an area of interest. Although research has mainly made inferences on the possible outcomes of social capital there is currently little agreement on its factors or its measurement. Therefore there has been an urgent need to examine the possible social capital factors present in leisure clubs and develop a tool to measure these. This research addresses these two aims through an analysis of social capital in local leisure clubs and the development of a scale to measure social capital. A mixed method was adopted with the initial qualitative phase informing the main (quantitative) phase of the research by identifying social capital concepts and contributing to scale development. Focus groups, interviews and a panel of experts were used with aspects of grounded theory to develop and refine items. The quantitative phase employed factor analysis for scale item reduction and multivariate analysis to test the scale. The 'Club Social Capital Scale' (CSCS) was distributed to Victorian leisure clubs generating 1079 returned questionnaires. The final version of the CSCS included the factors trusting/reciprocity, friendly/ acceptance, norms and governance. The scale was noted as a good tool for measuring social capital, with high reliability (Cronbach) and all scale items measuring social capital and its components, highlighting strong validity and reliability. Analysis of variance showed variation in levels in social capital with the demographic characteristics age, gender, education and income. Results showed reduced social capital levels with age, while men reported higher overall social capital, trust, and governance than women. Higher levels of education and income reflected lower social capital levels. Finally, recreation clubs scored higher governance than sport clubs. This research developed theory on the factors associated with social capital in leisure clubs and developed a short and easy to complete CSCS which would be a useful tool for further research.

### **Tom Forsell**

Lecturer in Recreation Management

PhD Student

Victoria University

Melbourne

# Declaration

## Doctor of Philosophy Declaration

“I, Thomas Edward Forsell, declare that the PhD thesis entitled **The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs** 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

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to take the time to express my sincere appreciation for providing me with help and assistance in the development and completion of this dissertation.

I would like to thank my current supervisors who have provided me with good direction and the focus to complete this dissertation. I especially want to thank Dr John Tower for picking up this role when I came to Victoria University three years ago and provided me with good direction to keep the research project moving ahead. I also want to thank Dr Remco Polman who came in later to this research but provided me with good quality feedback and incites to the final analysis and writing up of the thesis. Both my advisors have been very approachable and encouraging especially in the final writing of the thesis. I would also like to thank Dr Anne Binkley who was one of my initial advisors and provided me with encouragement and direction in the early stage development and conduct of the thesis. I would also like to give special thanks to Adjunct Assoc. Prof Coleman who has been a great support to me right from the initial conceptual stage of this thesis. Denis was the person who encouraged me to enrol in my PhD and throughout the entire journey has provided me with very good support and assistance often in his own time. I can truthfully say that without the encouragement of Denis I would not have attempted this undertaking nor without his contribution would not have negotiated my way through the conduct of the research.

I would like to say thanks to the Sport and Exercise Science staff at Victoria University especially Greg Dingle with whom I had numerous discussions on the concept and completion of a PhD. I would also like to thank Tony Williams who supported my undertaking of this PhD while I was working at Department of Sport and Recreation, and also former work colleague Monica Fawcett who provided me with insight into the project. I also thank Dr Melinda Craike who provided me with some valuable feedback in the writing and my good friend Rhonda Dredge who also provided good feedback in this endeavour.

I also like to thank the people who participated in the pilot study, the interviews, focus groups, and the panel of experts in the initial phase of this research. I also thank the state leisure associations, their clubs, and members who completed the questionnaires in the main phase of the research. These people too numerous to mention, were crucial to the conduct of and completion of this thesis. I would also like to thank Heather Horrocks and Jennifer Cameron for assistance in putting the thesis together in its proper format.

I also especially would like to thank my wife Vanessa and daughter Gabriella who have understood and supported me through the process of completing this thesis.

Lastly, I would like to dedicate this to my late parents Frank and Eva Forsell who encouraged me in the early days of studying and completion of my undergraduate degree in the States. I wish they were still here to appreciate this time as they were always very supportive of my years of study and would be proud of this achievement.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

The aim of this research was to examine the nature of social capital in local area community-based sport and recreation leisure clubs. It explored the relationships between people in these networks using social capital components (factors), for example trust and norms, and provides an overall social capital and factor scores in chapter 6. The research focused on the individual members' thoughts, feelings, and viewpoint of their social network in their club. In this way it explored the attitude of the members and adopted a psychosocial model. The study rationale was based on the assumption that networks and their social capital is measurable through the components inherent in social capital (Field, 2008). Studying these components supported employing qualitative and quantitative strategies and the use of a psychometric scale to measure club members' attitudes. A mixed method was adopted to alleviate bias and to help develop and inform the other method (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative strategies provided insight into individuals' social context within their social networks and their perception of the club context. In addition, descriptive factors such as age and income were examined in relationship to social capital development regarding their possible moderating influence.

This study of social capital in local area clubs is important in exploring the perceived link between leisure and social capital. It increases the body of knowledge currently in existence on social capital by exploring the importance of its components, and their role in social capital development in a leisure setting. The importance of leisure clubs and high levels of social capital has been inferred and emerging evidence supports the impact of sport and recreation on building better communities through increased social capital (Harvey et al., 2007; Hoye & Nicholson, 2008; Sport England, 2004). While this view is supported (Auld, 2008; Middleton et al., 2005), the relationship between leisure clubs and social capital has not really been empirically tested and the need for research in this area has been highlighted (Hemingway, 1999; Putnam, 1995). To date

little research has addressed this possible connection (Nicholson & Hoye, 2008). This research provided information highlighting leisure's unique role and social capital components existing in leisure clubs. Team sports and leisure clubs are recognised as providing suitable locations for social capital to be created (Nicholson & Hoye, 2008; Putnam, 2000). Therefore, the study of social capital in local leisure clubs is important and explores the link between areas with large numbers of leisure clubs and high social capital as evidenced by Putnam (1993a) in Italy.

This introductory chapter's purpose is to introduce this research on social capital and its nature in leisure clubs into the larger setting of social capital research while providing a justification for the study. In section 1.2 concepts and context of the research will be outlined including definitions of terms important to the study. The next section provides a historical discussion of social capital, its components, and explains the lack of clear definitions, and the need for a scale to measure social capital in leisure. Following on the discussion will link social capital and the inferred benefits it provides to individuals and communities through discussion of research exploring the link between social capital and leisure. The chapter will include a general discussion of the need for research linking leisure and social capital as raised in previous research. It concludes with a description and overview of the study parameters, study aims, significance and its contribution to the profession.

## **1.2 Concepts and the Context of the Research**

To understand social capital and its nature in leisure clubs it is first necessary to understand that social capital and leisure are independent of one another. In addition, it is crucial to provide an understanding of the reported links between these two concepts and an indication of the direction of this study.

### **1.2.1 Social Capital**

Social capital has been one of the most popular ideas to have emerged recently from the field of sociology and is being seen as an important asset to society. At the same time as its rise in popularity it has also been linked to a number of 'positive' societal outcomes. The basic theory of social capital revolves around its name. In this context

‘social’ relates to the importance of positive human interactions or relationships, and ‘capital’ refers to influence and information which has value not monetarily defined (Pope, 2003). The existence and importance of economic (financial) and human capital (skills and knowledge) has long been noted and now social capital has emerged to highlight social relationships as important assets to communities and individuals. Popularised by Pierre Bourdieu (1986) and John Coleman (1988), social capital refers to the connections or social ties between people, their social networks and norms, including reciprocity and trust, and the shared confidence that people have in each other (Putnam, 2000). The varying stores of social capital that are sustained in larger societies, communities, or in smaller groups can be described and assessed.

Certain social capital perspectives have similarities such as networks and goods therein. However, there are differences with some researchers, for example Bourdieu (1986), seeing the goods as being acquisitive. This view has its primary focus on securing benefits which people gain and may result in people developing the group for these ends (Portes, 1998). Social capital can show competition between members with some individuals benefitting more, and the goods not equally available to everyone such as workers or marginalised groups (Bourdieu, 1986). Social capital therefore can be seen as supporting the status quo in society, focused primarily on the benefit (Bourdieu, 1986).

Researchers believe social capital is based on people making friendships in social networks through actions and interactions with each other. The process allows for the development of friendships where favours and support, or collective goods, are produced. Networks allow access to the goods or resources that are developed to members (Coleman, 1988). Social capital supports equitable access to people in networks and the social process as being important. The process and action allows individuals to get to know each other, develop social ties and trust, thereby achieving results (Objectives) by working together (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995). The view is more egalitarian than Bourdieu’s, as social capital can allow people to escape a disadvantaged lifestyle (Coleman, 1988). It emphasises strong ‘ties’ between individuals in networks and the use of sanctions if trust is not present. This research is

thematically linked to this model of social capital where the interaction and social process is important in social networks.

The view of positive social networks and interaction supported by Coleman, (1988) was further developed by Putnam (1995). It supports interaction and cooperative social processes to resolve problems by people in networks. This viewpoint stresses people doing things together and achieving results whether it is organising a sport event or a family day.

Social capital is therefore based on good, trusting relationships between members in networks with the employment of sanctions when trust is broken (Putnam, 1995). Much social capital theory refers to Alexis DeToqueville's (1994) writing on democracy and governance and was especially important in Putnam's study of social networks and governance in Italy (1993b). Formal networks of clubs and associations have democratic structures and are seen as crucial to democracy (Brew, 1943; Knowles, 1950). In addition, the literature refers to harnessing the power of associations for good work in the community with references to sport and its ability to deepen civic consciousness (Brew, 1943). Putnam compared the north and south of Italy noting the existence of strong social networks, governance, community trust and social capital in the former but not the latter (Putnam, 1993b). A large number of leisure and art groups existed in the north which were associated with trust, reciprocity, and free association (Coleman, 1988; Pope, 2003). His research raised the prospect of civic norms, order, and group cohesion being present where volunteer clubs (associations) existed (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Pope, 2003; Putnam, 1993a, 1995). This thesis is concerned with exploring this concept and connections between social capital in local leisure groups, (see Objectives under 1.4 below). The prevalence of enduring leisure organisations as strong sources of community social capital as noted by Putnam, (1995) and Brew (1943) is significant to this research and will be explored further.

With the current interest in social capital in the world it is important to place it in its proper context today and to provide a brief historical background to the concept.

### 1.2.2 Social Capital Historical Background

Social capital and its concepts are not new but have been around for some time particularly in the field of sociology. Social capital is based on the 'Golden Rule' referring to a good society based on social order (Etzioni, 1993). Thus it unites people together in a neighbourhood where they share tools with giving and borrowing balanced by sanctions. This reflects Durkheim's social integration theory as highlighted by Portes, (1998), where people work together which is reflected in much of the social capital literature (Putnam, 2000).

Social capital also has dark aspects which can be linked back to theories of class awareness and power based on hierarchies (Bourdieu, 1986; Marx, 1849). However, it is through Hanifan (1916), and the concern of a reduction in community and social capital in West Virginia that it is mostly reflected today. He made references to goodwill, fellowship, sympathy, and social discourse which have become important references for social capital theorists today. Hanifan's writing raised the issue of the need for community centres such as schools bringing people in rural social networks together through community days.

Later, social capital theory reflected social relationships in city networks through government and infrastructure thereby providing a different model from Hanifan's rural model of families and schools (Jacobs, 1961). While different, both agreed on the need for networks providing the opportunity for deep social involvement to occur.

Writers such as Loury (1992) referred to social capital in the 1970s; however it was not until the 1980s that it was resurrected and began its rise in popularity (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988). The importance of social relationships and the amount and quality of these relationships was stressed by Bourdieu (Winter, 2001). This theory allowed for class distinctions in social capital access, harking back to Marx. Social capital, while essentially good, was not always accessible to all according to Bourdieu (1986). The next theorist, Coleman (1988), saw social capital as involving action and providing a function stressing the social structure in social capital (Winter, 2001). Various interpretations of the concept exist, but there is agreement on networks and the

generation of social capital. In this PhD social capital and its components will be a significant focus of the research.

The research of Robert Putnam (1995, 2000) brought social capital to the mainstream through the success of his research articles and the book 'Bowling Alone'. This raised the profile of social capital as a significant area of research, policy discussion, and programs at the local, national, and international levels. Social capital became known and used by state and national governments (Performance and Innovation Unit, 2002). The belief that it can improve social connections, improve neighbourhoods, and encourage civic engagement, encouraged the government sector to embrace it (Adams & Wiseman, 2002). The concept of social capital, its worth, and how it is stored and rolled over is of special interest to this sector.

### **1.2.3 Social Capital and its Value**

Social researchers and sociologists have explored 'capital' and other matters of value such as human capital and now social capital is seen as something of value (Lin, 1999). Social capital can be described as a process where something is created of value, for example from relationships, and the product can be used immediately or invested and stored for later use (Putnam, 2001; Woolcock, 2001). The product is created through interactions between people and it includes knowledge, social connections, contacts, or a chance to learn a new skill (Smith, 2001). Some of the concepts of social capital are based on Marx's view on creative leftover value, which becomes the property of a company owner. The owner pays workers who produce the product and the owner keeps the surplus. In social capital there is no owner but the leftover surplus is the property of the network and just as in banking, surplus is stored with expectations of accessing the value when it is required (Smith, 2000). In social capital this is generated, developed or created through social interaction. It includes an investment in social relations with expectations returned when required, stored, or used sometime in the future (Coleman, 1988; Lin, 1999; Putnam, 2000). Thus social capital can be stored and used immediately or when needed.

Another aspect of social capital is its importance and irreplaceability, so if lost the value is lost. However, most agree that it can be developed and accumulated again

under the right conditions (Jacobs, 1961; Putnam, 1993a; Woolcock, 2000). These are areas of interest in this research. Leisure clubs with stored goods within club social networks are important to this study, therefore social capital and its components in the clubs will be explored further in this research.

#### **1.2.4 Social Capital in the Civil Sector**

Social capital can be traced back to DeToqueville and his writings on America. While much of the research to date has focused on politics and government (Putnam, 1995), research suggests that forms of social capital can lead to greater community safety, quality of life, and increased access to employment and training (Fukuyama, 1999; World Bank, 1999). Connections between community networks and strong economic performance have been explored by Putnam (1993b), the financial impact of social capital on third world countries has been examined by the World Bank (2002), and social capital's role in creating better communities has also been explored (Fukuyama, 1999; Woolcock & Narayan, 2000).

Today, the World Bank uses social capital as a tool in assessing local area investments in India, Africa and other areas (Grootaert, Van Bastelaer, & World Bank, 2002). They argue that social cohesion is related to social capital, and is thus critical for societies to prosper and develop economically (World Bank, 1999). The World Bank is involved in projects using social capital indicators and supports research of this nature around the world. Therefore, capacity building and social cohesion, based on good social relationships, is a reflection of social capital and provides a link between these concepts (Putnam, 2000). The relationship between social capital and personal and collective well-being as reported in research, has encouraged greater government interest in social capital concepts (Hess & Adams, 2007). Examples include Social Capital and the Cultural Sector, and Investing in Social Capital and Victorian Challenges and Opportunities (Adams & Wiseman, 2002; Daly, 2005). Recently, the Australian Bureau of Statistics began including social capital and sport in their surveys (Sport and Social Capital, 2006). State governments in Canada and in Australia pursue community building agendas focused strongly on social capital, and social capital now has strong support in most state government sectors in Australia (Department of Victorian Communities, 2002). However, much of the research has been outcome-driven, linking

it with safer cities, with governments seeking an agreed, simple, clear definition and measurement of social capital. Unfortunately, none currently exist so there is a need for further research in this area (Durlauf, 1999; Stone, 2002). There is also a need for a clear measure and a definition to be developed which accurately describes and measures social capital itself (Abbott, 2009; Stone, 2002). These issues will be discussed further in the literature review.

### **1.2.5 The Problem of Defining Social Capital**

Currently no agreed definition for social capital exists. Most definitions focus on social relations between people that can produce something of benefit for those involved. Social capital is often seen in this manner, and approached as ‘goods’ produced, such as a community day organised by residents or trust among people in a network. Definitions used to describe it are dependent on the discipline studying it, for example sociology or economics, and the orientation, method, and detail of the particular research (Claridge, 2004).

Social capital can be described, for example, simply as a group of people who share values and norms that allow them to cooperate and achieve things together (Fukuyama, 1999). The Fukuyama definition refers to shared values, choice and living by unstated rules to achieve an outcome (Putnam, 2000). The second part of the definition refers to action or working together, where trust is developed. The importance of values shared by people in a group is crucial to social capital. If a group is made of many well-intentioned but isolated individuals it would not be rich in social capital because the lack of interaction between the individuals cannot foster the development of social capital (Putnam, 2000). Thus social capital definitions highlight the basic values, thoughts and the environment needed for social capital to occur. This concept of group cooperation is important as social capital only exists between people who have a relationship and connection to each other. Therefore, social capital is important in formal and informal social networks and is believed to bring significant benefits to communities (Adams, & Wiseman, 2002). For this reason it is of interest to governments around the world today for its ability to improve local communities and build community networks.

### 1.2.6 Social Capital Concepts and How They Developed

Social capital concepts were developed using theories from a number of fields of research. Giving relationships a value came from the field of economics and made them a type of capital (Coleman, 1988). This refers to the work of Voram Ben-Porath and his theory of F-connection (Coleman, 1988) where family, friends and business firms are important and practical examples of social support or capital, providing benefits for individuals and members of a social network through strong, close relationships. The relationships provide access to goods and also reduce supervision costs because of trust (Putnam, 1995). Social capital theory refers to the resources linked in relationships between people allowing them access to goods of quality (Bourdieu, 1986). These goods can be functional, such as someone getting a job or providing emotional support during difficult times (Boneham & Sexsmith, 2006; Locher et al., 2005). Group members are equal partners and can access credits and resources when needed (Bourdieu, 1986). However, the negative side of social capital indicates that some individuals benefit more than others (Bourdieu, 1986; Blackshaw & Long, 2005). While social capital can have a negative or dark side, this research explores its positive side, its components, and the relationships of people in leisure clubs. It will not explore the actual use and access of goods in these social networks.

Social capital has also been defined by its function (Coleman, 1988) and what it produces. It therefore includes a social structure and the actions by those in the structure (Coleman 1990). For a structure to achieve good results it needs trust and obligations in the group, information flow, norms of behaviour, and a system of sanctions to be used against people who are not contributing. In this PhD, trust, information, norms and other components especially applicable to leisure clubs will be examined through development of a scale to measure club social capital. Trust is important and leisure clubs based on trust, and other components such as norms, provide a good structure which supports actions, allowing things to be done (Putnam, 1995).

Networks with good structures allow members to make close friendships with each other which appear to be an important part of social capital. Networks include and allow for the components of norms of behaviour, reciprocity, governance and trust to

be developed (Putnam, 2000). Components, especially norms and governance, are shared social capital and relate closely to civic virtue. Civic virtue refers to residents involved in community affairs such as volunteering and voting (Putnam, 1993b, 1995). Much of the concept as previously mentioned is based on Alexis de Tocqueville's writings on America and people coming together forming civic groups to address problems (Edwards, 2009). De Tocqueville noted that people would unite together to resolve issues in the community reflecting a strong civic culture. Societies with social relations based on trust and give and take are powerful cultures with civic virtue (Putnam, 1993a). Community trust, and give and take, refers to treating people as you would like to be treated (Etzioni, 1993). In networks where this occurs people support each other and work together building social capital. This research is especially interested in these concepts and will specifically focus on components of trust, reciprocity, friendship, support, and governance in leisure clubs.

### **1.2.7 Social Capital, Trust and Expectations**

In social capital, trust and the expectations of people in a network are important factors in its development. When people in networks support and respect each other this establishes values, and they then perform favours and return favours after the precedent is established. This is the Rule of Reciprocation, and states that we should try and repay favours we receive (Cialdini, 1993).

In a club or a small network credits are transmitted and built up between various participants, allowing for favours and credits or obligations. The interactions between individuals are based on providing support (favours) with the expectation that the favour may be returned (Coleman, 1988; Winter, 2000). The social relationships with favours and credits provide a link or glue between people which holds them, binding them together (World Bank, 1999).

### **1.2.8 Social Capital Theory and How it Works**

Much research reflects the parallels that exist between social capital, social networks, trust, and reciprocity. It is approached as a good or benefit, for an individual (Winter, 2000). One school of thought proposes that privileged individuals maintain their hierarchy in networks by close connections with people of the same position (Bourdieu,

1986). These individuals use those connections to access ‘goods’ available to maintain ‘prestige and class’. This view argues that social capital maintains the status quo, and those in power access benefits to maintain power (Bourdieu, 1986). Social capital therefore is not necessarily always good. This view does not highlight the innate goodness of social capital where the networks are more egalitarian, with the goods available to all, whether privileged or disadvantaged (Coleman, 1988). This positive side of social capital ensures provision of goods and power equally to all - or anyone - in a network (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995). This egalitarian belief in people working together for the common benefit counters the opposite viewpoint where only certain individuals access power. Both viewpoints exist in the research and are shared by numerous researchers today (see Table 1).

### 1.2.9 Social Capital Theory

Table 1.1 shows social capital from three perspectives based on some original concepts (Winter, 2000).

**Table 1.1 Social Capital Theory \***

<b>Focus</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Function</b>	<b>Analysis</b>
Economic/power competition <u>Bourdieu</u>	Resources and access to group goods	To make economic gains/ maintain power	Competition between classes
Social network and goods <u>Coleman</u>	Goods in a social structure available to members	To obtain a range of resources and have interactions	People in the family, community, and networks
Democratic cooperation <u>Putnam</u>	Trust, norms, and networks supporting cooperation & benefit	To ensure democracy and solve problems	Regions in large areas e.g. region, or national setting

\* Adapted (Winter, 2000)

The table compares social capital definitions, purpose, and how it is applied in a social setting. The definitions reflect that Bourdieu, Coleman and Putnam have common ground in their belief of resources, groups (networks), which include trust and norms or ways of behaving. Differences are noted when the focus of social capital and the social setting used are explored.

The first column highlights the power of social capital, access for goods, individual benefits, and its application. It refers to the resources, access, and competition between social classes to maintain social status (Bourdieu, 1986; Winter, 2000). It illustrates the potential of maintaining social position. An example may be a coach of a sport team sending his own son to an elite sport clinic over a more worthy team member, thus using his power of connections.

The second column refers to networks and goods that are available to members, interactions between members, based on trust. It refers to members accessing goods within a structure (Coleman, 1988; Winter, 2000), for example car-pooling to transport children to swimming classes in a neighbourhood, with anyone who participates benefitting by sharing the driving load.

The third column notes the inclusion of trust and norms (standard of behaviour), actions and ability to cooperate democratically. It highlights trust and cooperation and solving problems in a democratic structure made up of equals (Putnam, 1995). These aspects support democracy through resources and interactions in a network (Winter, 2000). This thesis is interested in the components of trust, norms, reciprocity, acceptance and governance in leisure clubs and draws on the work of all three early theorists in the social capital literature.

The fourth column highlights each theorists' focus: Bourdieu's emphasis on class competition; Coleman's focus on the positive benefits for family, community and networks; and Putnam's view of social capital's impact on whole regions.

### **1.2.10 Networks and Relationships**

Research suggests the importance of information in networks and the existence of norms of behaviour and sanctions (Schuller & Field, 1998). These areas of commonality refer to networks where people trust and assist each other, share information and decision-making. The networks have unwritten rules of behaviour (norms) with sanctions used against those who do not follow these norms. This leads members to work together for the benefit of all in the group (Coleman, 1988). When comparing social capital theories there is commonality in belief in networks, and that

network members often have an altruistic philosophy of people working for the network (Coleman, 1988). However, some researchers see it is much more focused on the individual benefitting for their own gain, suggesting class competition (Bourdieu, Table 1). Therefore relationships and information are important aspects of networks. Networks can be formal organised groups such as a model airplane or fishing club, or they can be informal groups that get together for an activity. It is in these relationships between volunteer club members that trust, friendships and giving support to one another is developed. The members volunteer with each other, and in this role create and experience social capital (Field, 2008).

Networks and the relationships among members is an important aspect of the research. The literature notes that it is in the network relationships that trust, reciprocity and social capital is created (Field, 2003). Current research supports the view that 'relationships matter', stressing the importance of social networks as a valuable asset to an individual or a group (Field, 2003). Interaction enables individuals to commit to each other, build communities, and to develop a social fabric, thereby increasing social capital. This social fabric includes a sense of fellowship, trust and people working together (Hanifan, 1916). Trust requires transparency and interaction through face-to-face encounters (Beem, 1999) and social capital is built through interaction between people (Coleman, 1988). Today the role of friendship networks and relationships is increasingly important for many people and sometimes replaces structures such as the church or clubs (Field, 2008). Therefore, networks large and small benefit individuals and are important in today's society (Raffo & Reeves, 2000).

The relationships between members of leisure clubs will be explored in the qualitative section of the research to better understand how they see and understand social capital. This research will discuss formal and informal networks further in the literature review. However, the research focus is on organised leisure clubs.

### **1.3. Leisure and Background to Sport and Recreation**

Leisure is referred to as non-obligated free time, in which one makes a voluntary choice to do an activity (Kraus, 1998). Leisure is important and occupies almost one third of our time, providing significant opportunities for volunteering (Chubb & Chubb, 1981;

Veal, Darcy & Lynch, 2013). Many leisure clubs provide volunteering opportunity where members co-operate, working together to provide a good for the group. While doing so they make friends (Smith, 1994). In this way leisure associations provide opportunities to learn skills together while practising democracy, through voting and conducting meetings (Knowles, 1950; Elson, 1995).

Some refer to leisure as a social experience which can be developed through interactions in social occasions (Iso-Ahola, 1999; Samdahl, 1988). Leisure also includes free choice where the person chooses to be involved in an activity (Iso-Ahola, 1999; Mannell & Kleiber, 1997; Veal, Darcy, & Lynch, 2013).

Scholars of leisure have long argued that leisure has a greater impact on quality of life within a community than many other areas of human behaviour or experience (Kelly, 1996). It allows people to feel free to be themselves and to try out new things (Kelly, 1987, 1996). People learn and develop skills such as learning a musical instrument or becoming a skilled sportsman through success and seeing how others see them. It allows a person to develop an identity, for example 'being a good musician' or 'being an athlete'. This is part of personal growth identity theory where a person can acquire skills and abilities in leisure and develop a better understanding of who they are (Kleiber, Walker, & Mannell, 2011). Leisure therefore provides significant opportunities for experimenting while enhancing self-esteem (Dattilo, Dattilo, Samdahl & Kleiber, 1994; Kleiber, Walker, & Mannell, 2011).

Historically, regular leisure programs, which began in the early 1900s, were devised to provide opportunities for people to meet and participate in enjoyable activities in an agreeable social setting, thereby developing positive attitudes and reducing antisocial behaviour (Knapp, 1973). The need for relaxation and developing social programs was a reaction to industrialisation and the growth of urban areas (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). Many programs were delivered through established local clubs. For example, in Melbourne the Albert Park Bowling Club, established in the 1800s, has provided participants with an opportunity to pursue lawn bowls with like-minded people for over a hundred years. While the people in the club change over time the club continues providing opportunities for social interaction. People bowl to relax, focus on the

activity, and develop skills as well as friendships, (Veal, Darcy, & Lynch, 2013). While some of these outcomes may take place at work, leisure offers them in a setting of choice.

This research is interested in the social relationships of people in local leisure clubs and how the members see social capital in their club. To provide an understanding of this research, leisure and its components must be explored and defined further.

### **1.3.1 Leisure and its Subsets of Sport and Recreation**

Leisure is comprised of a number of components, two of which are sport and recreation (Veal, Darcy, & Lynch, 2013). These have some commonality, including free time and choice (Coakley, 1998; Mobley & Toalson, 1992; Rossman, & Schlatter, 2008; Veal, Darcy, & Lynch, 2013). Recreation refers to a variety of leisure pastimes and activities that restore a person after work and are engaged in for personal or social benefit (Kraus, 1998; Rossman, & Schlatter, 2008). Examples include learning to play golf or joining a dance class to meet people. Both examples illustrate the concept of learning a new skill with the added benefit of meeting people.

Sport as a component of leisure includes institutionalised performance, competition, physical exertion, and agreed rules (Coakley, 1998; Rossman & Schlatter, 2008). Individuals engage in sport through a swimming competition or by joining a volleyball team, and it usually occurs between two or more people (Veal, Darcy, & Lynch, 2013).

In both sport and recreation the activity is important; however the social aspect in both is also important, offering the opportunity for individuals to make strong friendships. In sport and in recreation clubs, friendships are formed within strong social networks and these networks are significant to this research. Sport is a crucial part of Australian society and in many ways fulfils Henry Lawson's view of it being sacred to Australian life (Veal, Darcy & Lynch, 2013). Clubs play together requiring an order and structure provided by regional and state associations. The club system caters for these needs, for example the Brunswick Tennis Club or the Dandenong Bushwalking Club provide participation opportunities for local residents (VicSport, 2006). Although clubs traditionally draw members from a local area, with mobility today members may travel

some distance to access a particular club. This research is interested in where people live and is a descriptive characteristic used in the study sample. If people choose to travel further to join a particular club the distance of travel may indicate strong social connections between members. While this is not a primary aim of this research it is noted as a possible direction for further research.

### **1.3.2 Leisure, Sport and Recreation Organisations**

Leisure incorporates both sport and recreation as components of itself. State level peak bodies are referred to as associations (for example, Lacrosse Victoria), which is the term used by the leisure industry. Local area groups are referred to as clubs, which comprise the study sample. The study sample included both sport and recreation local leisure clubs affiliated to their state-wide associations. Each leisure club provides networks within itself, order and governance. This allows members to forge relationships, complete tasks, and rely on each other while social capital growth takes place (Smith, 2000).

### **1.3.3 Leisure and its Significance**

Leisure is one of the main areas of involvement for volunteers (Chubb & Chubb, 1981; ABS, 2006). The development of social capital theory provides one way of understanding the social contribution of leisure activities to community well-being. The special nature of leisure organisations is believed to make them important contributors to the development and storage of a community's social capital (Putnam, 2000; Ormulf, 2006). However, the capacity of various leisure organisations to deliver social capital to their communities is likely to depend on the extent to which the leisure organisations have their own social capital. The extensive social capital of some leisure organisations is likely to spill over into the general community whereas socially impoverished organisations are not likely to contribute to community well-being.

A number of macro studies have focussed on the nature and impact of social capital in countries or regions, often focussed on outcomes such as safer cities or voting, but there is limited research exploring social capital within small local organisations and communities. The need for research in local areas has been highlighted (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 2000). Although social capital has become a useful way of

summarising the benefits of the social aspects of organisations and clubs, little formalised research has been conducted into the nature of social capital in formal leisure organisations (Harvey, Levesque, & Donnelly, 2007). There is an expanding body of literature on social capital and its relevance which has not been matched by the analysis of leisure and social capital, therefore more empirical research is needed to support these claims (Nicholson & Hoye, 2008; Smith, & Palacios, 2010). In summary, there are numerous anecdotal references to the development and maintenance of social capital through leisure from politicians, sport administrators and journalists, however in order to address these anomalies this research will begin its line of enquiry by addressing the following issues:

1. The nature of social capital at the local leisure club level.
2. Components of social capital evident in local leisure clubs.
3. The measurement of social capital in small leisure organisations.
4. The effect of gender, income, education, sports vs recreation, and age on social capital in clubs.
5. Analyse possible differences in individual or club social capital.

#### **1.4 Aims of the Research**

Although previous research suggests that the existence of established leisure clubs coincides with areas of significant stores of social capital, it does not demonstrate the source of the contribution (Putnam, 1995). Leisure clubs are acknowledged as a large sector for volunteering and represent voluntary organisations that may be crucial to social capital (Seippel, 2006). In addition, it has been inferred that leisure clubs may be influential in building social capital (Okayasu, Kawahar, & Nogawa, 2010). However, little empirical research to date has been conducted to confirm this.

This study will contribute to the body of knowledge of social capital research by:

- Exploring the factors inherent in social capital in leisure organisations, thus presenting a novel facet of this research. These factors and others have been accepted in other research as key elements in the development and measurement of social capital but have yet to be measured and validated in leisure clubs (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Fukuyama, 1999; Putnam, 1995).

- Developing a scale to measure social capital within leisure organisations.
- Measuring and analysing social capital between sport and recreation clubs.
- Providing an analysis of the influence of age, gender, income, and education on social capital levels.
- Thereby providing an understanding of leisure club social capital.

Thus the study will provide a basis for evaluating social capital in local leisure clubs. It will also provide a set of indicators and a research framework for future studies.

The study objectives are:

1. To identify significant components and indicators of social capital in leisure clubs.
2. The development and validation of a scale to measure social capital within leisure organizations.
3. To undertake an analysis of the effect of age, gender, income, education and sport versus recreation on social capital levels in the club members in the sample.

This research will achieve these objectives by adopting an exploratory approach to the study of psycho-social determinants of social capital by using the scale to examine and measure people's attitudes and beliefs of their network social capital and provide an understanding of leisure club social capital in Victoria.

## **1.5 Summary and Overview**

This overview provides indication of an important linkage between these two concepts: leisure and social capital. The lack of research exploring this link is raised as a rationale for this thesis. This research incorporated both a qualitative and a quantitative phase using a mixed method model approach.

Chapter 2 reviews previous research and provides a deeper understanding of social capital, its nature, components, and types. It also addresses the rationale of the field of leisure as an area of study in social capital and the lack of research in this area to date.

Chapter 3 outlines the study methodology and provides a justification for the mixed method approach employed in this research.

Chapter 4 describes the methods employed and the conduct and findings in the qualitative (Elicitation study) section of this research.

Chapter 5 (Main study) provides a link between the qualitative results and the development of the scale measure of social capital. This chapter details the delivery, methods, analysis, and findings of the quantitative section of the research in which the scale model was tested.

Chapter 6 provides the analysis of the model scale measure of the sample studied and a picture of social capital and its components in the sample in the research through demographic factors including gender and age.

Finally, Chapter 7 discusses the results, conclusions and findings drawn from this research and how it contributes to the current body of knowledge regarding social capital and leisure.

## **Chapter 2: The Nature of Social Capital, its Components, Measurement, and Relationship to Leisure**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Social capital has been examined from the fields of geography, social science, health, sociology, and leisure. Its popularity rose with the research in Italy by Leonardi, Nanetti and Putnam (1993a), and later Putnam's study of social capital in the American context in 'Bowling Alone' (Sabatini, 2005).

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the theoretical foundation of social capital, and discuss the many definitions and types of social capital. The chapter discusses the foundations of social capital and identifies the gaps in current research. It also explores the difficulty of its measurement and highlights the need for this current research and the measurement of social capital in leisure. The chapter also highlights a range of issues concerning social capital, its context, and an understanding of the current scope of social capital research in Australia. The chapter closes with arguments regarding the need for this empirical research in leisure and social capital, the need to explore the contribution and role of leisure networks and clubs to social capital development, and the aims and direction of this research.

### **2.2 Nature of Social Capital**

The current discussion(s) and research into social capital can be traced back to the work of Bourdieu, Coleman, and Putnam (Carroll & Stanfield, 2003). However, the concepts are based on early writings of Alexis De Tocqueville, and Tonnies (Smith & Palacios, 2010), Hanifan (1916) and Jacobs (1961). The early references of social capital by Hanifan (1916) referred to goodwill, fellowship, and social relationships in rural areas. He felt that communities were breaking apart and there was a need to bring them together through fellowship, and he saw the school as the community centre where this could take

place. In a number of ways there is a parallel view that people and communities are drifting apart today as indicated by Putnam's research (1995, 2000).

After these early views of social capital Bourdieu is credited with bringing the name and concepts of social capital into current day research (Claridge, 2004). These writings from a sociological perspective renewed interest in the concept.

Social capital is a theory that looks at the behaviour of people together in a group. In a sense social capital describes the relationships between people in a group, and aspects such as trust between members. To explore social capital one must explore the relationships between groups of people whether it is a parent and teachers group from Dubuque, Iowa or a choral group in Florence, Italy. People in groups relate to each other in a supportive network that is often made up of a number of over-lapping networks. Social capital research is interested in the values of the people and their relationships to each other in the social network. It explores the quality of their relationship(s) and how they relate together in the group, and their attitudes to each other. Quality and depth of the relationship is based on trust, reciprocity, and ways of behaving or norms in the group (Putnam, 2000). Therefore, social capital includes the development of aspects of the relationships (such as trust and support), and what the members provide for each other (favours) (Bourdieu 1986; Coleman 1990; Putnam, 1995). These favours or credits can be stored and used at some other time when they are needed. They are initiated in social networks and are an outcome of people and their relationships in the networks (Coleman, 1990).

### **2.2.1 Social Networks and Relationships**

Social networks are an important component of our society and social capital theory acknowledges their contribution to social capital's existence (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Portes, 1993; Putnam, 1993b; Woolcock, 2000). Social capital cannot be developed by one person, but is created through interactions or relationships of people in a social group or friendship network (Fukuyama, 1995). The social networks act as conduits that provide the setting and pipeline for a build up of credit through the interactions between people in a social group (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1990).

Individuals in networks have relationships and are familiar to each other and to people in the group (Bourdieu, 1986).

Social capital represents this accumulation of the relationships of people in a social network group who develop friendships through contact and interactions. These individuals are part of a group or community of like-minded people who believe that their 'community' is a positive benefit (Bauman, 2001; Putnam, 2000). Their interactions provide the members with an opportunity to get to know each other, work together and develop a deeper relationship based on trust, support, and reciprocity (Putnam, 2000). Social relations between people in networks are based on the communication between people as mere acquaintances or as friends. In the social networks people are linked together by some contact or activity they share. This shared interest unites them as a community of people whether their interest is in fishing or reading books (Putnam, 2000). Therefore, a significant aspect of social capital is that the relationships between people matter and without these valuable assets social capital would not exist (Field, 2003). The social connections between people in a network whether in small formal clubs or informal friendship groups, allows friendships to be developed and commitment made to members of the group (social network). Social capital and the relationships and interactions between people in social networks share similar traits with the field of communitarianism.

### **2.2.2 Social Capital and Communitarianism.**

When exploring 'community relations' strong parallels are noted between social capital and communitarianism. Both theories believe in the goodness and potential of the 'community' in providing a setting where we can depend on each other. This is a 'community' made of people who understand and accept each other, with a sense of goodwill, all based on a strong sense of trust (Bauman, 2001).

Communitarian theory argues that social interactions, networks, characteristics, and qualities of the interactions are part of the makeup of a community of people (Lee & Newby, 1983). This is very similar to social capital theory and highlights similar viewpoints between the two theories (Blackshaw, & Long, 2005). Networks of engagement allowing people to work together for a common good are crucial to both theories (Coleman 1990; Putnam 1993b). However, communitarians sanction and show concern for relationships where people work together for the common, 'community

good'. Social capital highlights the interactions or 'good acts' which improve a network while also seeing that the interactions provide 'credits' that individuals can access (Coleman, 1990; Putnam, 1995). The difference between social capital and communitarianism lies in structure and philosophy regarding individual and the local 'community' (Etzioni 1987; Taylor, 1982). Social capital allows members to accumulate favours or credits. This is a significant aspect of Bourdieu's Social Capital Theory (1986). However, the two theories also share common features.

Communitarians believe that man develops his potential by interactions in the community, and that the community is a good place (Bauman, 2001). They believe community groups are good, made up of homogenous people with similar backgrounds. They do not refer to the negative aspects of social interactions. They view local groups as models similar to Putnam's social capital found in local networks (Woolcock, & Narayan, 2000). Social capital also supports community network interactions with people working together for the common good. Qualities including tolerance and acceptance, mutuality and consistent, appropriate behaviour are common to both theories (Coleman, 1990; Putnam 1993b, 2000; Walzer, 1997).

Social engagement and sharing fosters a sense of community where people work for the common good, making the community a good place (Frazer, 1999). Therefore, a community of sharing people, with social interaction and support is central to both theories, (Arai, & Pedlar, 2003; Brueggeman, 2002). Both theories also support the development of friendships, trust and reciprocity among the members. However, social capitalists see stored goods (such as team equipment, information in a club and contacts outside) as belonging to the club but available for individuals to use. For example, a member might borrow equipment, use club contacts or information to get a job. Thus social capital provides things of value for individuals in a group to use (Bourdieu, 1986). Communitarians see goods as network property and do not discuss self-interest or use of favours as social capitalists do, as it may negatively affect trust and the community. Social capitalists allow goods to be used by members but sanctions and norms (unwritten rules of behaviour) are also used to ensure members do not abuse goods out of self-interest.

Both theories refer to close bonds among members as well as looser, bridging ties (Arai, & Pedlar, 2003). Bonds are noted in close social ties between family members, while bridging ties are looser as exemplified by friends, or work colleagues (Woolcock, & Narayan, 2000). Communitarians have close bonding connections bringing people together who are not related through family or friendships but not to the exclusion of others (Arai, & Pedlar, 2003; Frye, 1995). The concepts of bridging and bonding in social capital will be discussed further in section 2.3.

Communities are open and inclusive with balanced trust, and bonding and bridging ties (Arai & Pedlar, 2003). Social capital also incorporates concepts such as thick and thin networks and trust, as shown in Figure 2.1. Similarities and differences are noted between these two theories (see Figure 2.1). Commonality between the two theories is based on networks, relationships, and interactions between people in the networks. Communitarians work together for the community, while social capitalists work for the good of the network; they also make a commitment to other members and to themselves. While members develop friendship and trust they do favours which create obligations and benefits. Social capital represents relationships between members in a group and access to accrued benefits including goods, support, and information marking a major difference between the two theories (Putnam, 1995). Both theories believe in the potential good of people in a network or a 'community' to achieve something and the social capital literature includes types, components and other outcomes (Caveye, 2004; Claridge, 2004; Putnam, 2000; Tonts, 2005).

**Figure 2.1 Social Capital and Communitarianism**

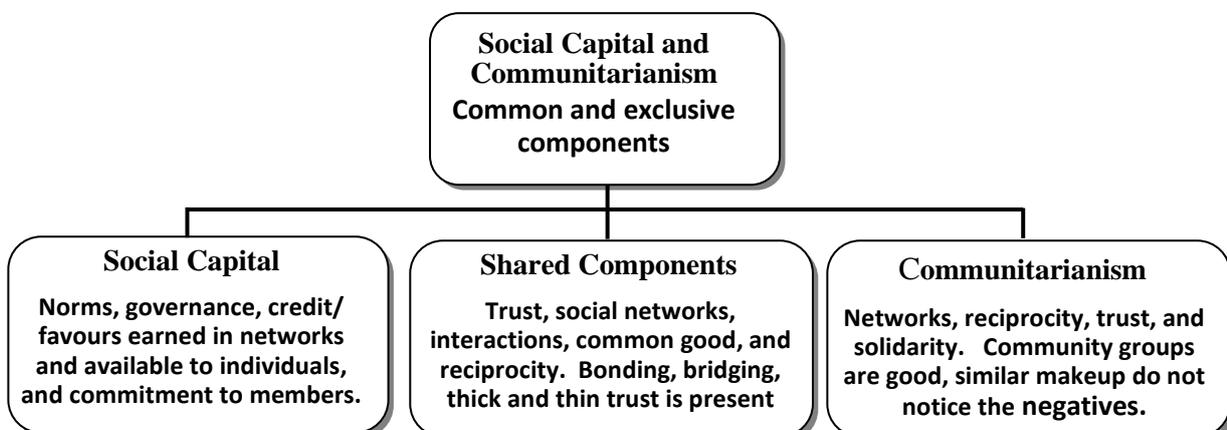


Figure 2.1 highlights common characteristics of the two fields of thought which include trust, communication, relationships and support by people in networks, and the role of networks.

Social capital has been explored significantly in the literature and discussed in detail in its structure resulting in a range of viewpoints (Claridge, 2004). It has been examined in terms of its components and types and there is some agreement. However, some areas still lack consensus (Claridge, 2004; Putnam, 2000; Tonts, 2005).

The next section describes networks and their interactions as important aspects of social capital.

### **2.2.3 Social Friendship Networks and Interactions**

Social networks are important and an asset for the people in them, providing access to information and support when needed (Coleman, 1990). Their existence and interactions allow people to meet, developing friendships, cooperation, and dependence on each other (Cavaye, 2004; Fukuyama, 1995). The relationships provide resources and benefits to individuals including ideas, information and support (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Field, 2008). In some manner the relationships run counter to modern society where rules tell us what to do in many situations. Rules dictate which side of the road we drive on, when we can eat, drink and vote with a system that maintains order (Field, 2008). However, when people need advice they often go around the procedure or system, and simply ask someone they know (Field, 2008). This is an important aspect of a friendship network. These networks with trust allow relationships to be developed, allowing an efficient action between people to occur for getting things done (Putnam, 1993a). This illustrates the practical benefits of networks, interactions, and relationships, which result in achieving something. When a person is thinking of moving house, or getting their car fixed they ask someone they know and trust for advice. Important decisions can be stressful, perhaps involving risks, so calling on someone they know and trust lowers stress (Field, 2003). The person is provided with advice or help, and this gives them a sense of support, belonging and security (Field, 2003).

Networks rely on face-to-face interaction and support between the participants and are the vehicle for conversations to occur between people, allowing them to do things together to resolve problems (Beem, 1999; Putnam, 1995). Friendships and trust in social relationships have value, are significant, and allow members to communicate, providing support, information, and advice. Social capital in networks refers to action based on trust, so relationship(s) developed are important (Putnam, 1995). Interactions based on participation and cooperation can develop social capital (Schulenkorf, 2013). This research will explore the networks and relationships in local area leisure clubs and is based on social capital theory.

The next section examines further network relationships and types of networks.

#### **2.2.4 Network Relationships.**

People involved together in a group are networking whether it is a bridge club or a lacrosse team: they are communicating, participating, and working on their friendship (Etzioni, 1997). In Australia approximately 28% of the population are involved in sport and recreation activities, often in a club setting (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). The club provides a common model for volunteering in a network. The group activity, while important, is also a vehicle for bringing people with similar interests together who may develop a relationship and closer social ties. Relationships may vary in the group with some being very close while others more distant. Club relationships such as between the club president and the volunteers in the club may be more formal than the informal relationship(s) between players. The secretary has an official club-sanctioned role, and depending on the club, may represent a hierarchy and have a more formal relationship with volunteers. However, networks whether formal or informal are comprised of people who are members, have relationships, are connected to and interact with each other (Rosso & McGrath, 2012; Warde, Tampubolon & Savage, 2005).

Networks and relationships provide the setting for social capital development and these interactions and connections have been analysed in small groups. The small groups of formal and informal networks contain the relationships that the people develop over time. Social capital represents an accumulation of these relationships and is found embedded in them (Onyx & Bullen, 2000).

One way to understand the interactions and relationships between people in networks such as gardening clubs, or mothers in child care groups, is to analyse the networks. The close, dense relationships provide friendship and support to people in the group and the opportunity to do things together. Analysing the relationships further and the trust, friendship, and support they develop is important and they are seen as integral components of social capital (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). These components will be discussed further in section 2.5. Networks are found both as formal and informal types and some research has explored their differences (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; World Bank, 2000). This thesis examines networks in formal sport and recreation clubs. However, formal networks may contain informal networks. Both network types are present in leisure clubs and these will now be discussed.

### **2.2.5 Formal and Informal Networks**

Networks do not develop spontaneously, whether formal or informal, but need a stimulus or reason for their construction. They also require investment from those involved for their continued existence (Bourdieu, 1986). This is sometimes based on members choosing to further their own interest in an activity and wishing to pursue it further whether it be playing soccer or volunteering for the school parents' association (Field, 2003). On the other hand, some members choose to contribute at a higher level out of a sense of altruism, ie for the benefit of others.

Social capital was redefined by Putnam when he re-examined his earlier concepts and emphasised the importance of social networks in building social capital. When Putnam referred to art, choral groups and soccer clubs in Italy he was referring to both formal and informal networks and clubs (Putnam, 1995a). He noted their importance in allowing for the development of components such as trust and reciprocity to take place. Coleman viewed social network members doing things for each other (1988), Woolcock (2000) stressed, information, trust, and reciprocity in social networks. He also referred to the value of social networks, bonding and bridging people together which was also supported by Dekker and Uslaner, (2001). This directly links social capital with networks both formal and informal, providing the crucial environment and reason for social capital to

occur (Hemingway, 2006). Networks are in the community and the existing community with its networks allows for social capital to occur (Onyx & Bullen, 2001).

Examples of formal networks and informal networks include members of a soccer club or rotary volunteers, while informal groups might be a weekly card playing group. Both types include individuals who have a relationship with each other. The relationships and trust allows them to depend on and support each other. Successful formal or informal networks have obligations and expectations based on what members expect of each other and when these are met trust is increased. Members share information, and have norms (rules of behaviour) with sanctions which they use to penalise people who do not support the norms (Johnston & Percy-Smith, 2003). In both formal and informal networks interactions occur, and members work for the good of the whole (Coleman, 1990). This allows the network to continue.

Individuals in networks invest their time and effort into making their soccer club or card playing groups a success. They do this both for their own benefit and for the group without expecting any dividend now but maybe in the future (Coalter, 2007). This is how social capital is built in the networks.

A network may be initiated for one purpose such as to start a soccer club, but while playing soccer the people develop social connections with each other they can use for many other purposes (Coleman, 1990). This allows them access to the 'collective goods' which might include assistance or advice in obtaining a job, or on perceived benefits such as support, friendship, or social connections. Research in social capital highlights formal and informal social networks, as valuable assets with possible rewards to be used by those members of the network (Bourdieu 1986; Coleman 1990; Field, 2003, 2008; Putnam, 1995).

Informal networks do not have a structure or official roles for those involved but occur mainly for the activity and the opportunity that it provides to members, while formal networks have elected officials, rules of operation and a constitution (see table 2.1). An example could be members of a baseball club including players, parents, and administrators. While different in their structure both types of networks include

participants benefiting from being in a group, making friends, and being part of a community of people (Hoye & Nicholson, 2008). An informal example might be parents who choose to meet regularly for coffee after taking their kids to a crèche (Field, 2008). The activity provides a reason for social involvement and allows relationships to develop.

In formal clubs not all networks develop social capital, as some may be organised around the activity with little social involvement which is the catalyst needed for social capital development. Club membership alone does not support social capital, active engagement between members is needed (Putnam, 2000). Clubs also have networks within them or networks within networks (Putnam, 1995). Members must have order and planned affiliations among themselves for the networks to thrive (Doherty & Misener, 2008).

**Table 2.1 Formal and Informal Network Traits \***

<b>Informal Networks</b>	<b>Network similarities</b>	<b>Formal Networks</b>
Very little structure	Trust and friendships present	Have officials and hierarchy
Shorter lifespan	Interactions occur	Have a structure in place
Centred around one activity	People make friends	Long term networks
Often diverse membership	Both generate social capital Members are part of a group or community	Opportunities for personal development, e.g. local card group
Greater number	People benefit in both types	Varying membership size
No executive	Social involvement needed for social capital to occur.	Often linked to other groups
Neighbourhood-dependent	Order within	Stable membership
No official roles	Norms of behaviour	Examples are members of a fishing club, or soccer team
No hierarchy	Organised around an activity	Meetings and membership

\*Adapted from Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1990; Degraaf & Jordan, 2004; Field, 2008; Putnam, 1995.

In analysing networks, (see Table 2.1) formal networks have officials, meetings, and membership. For example, an angling club which has club membership, possibly fees, holds regular executive meetings and runs a program which allows members get to know each other through each aspect, ie the program, social events and meetings. Informal social networks might be formed by people meeting every Saturday for coffee or to play music together (Florida, 2002; Western, 2010). In both instances members are developing social capital through friendships and relationships, getting to know each

other, working together, developing trust, and providing support and assistance when required.

Social capital in networks refers to a range of relationships reflecting community diversity and the different strength of the ties among the relationships (Florida, 2002). Research suggests that people with large numbers of informal relationships benefit significantly by this range of connections and often do well in life (Florida, 2002). For instance, these relationships may give them access to information for help in getting a job. Diverse contacts increase social connections, and provide a better understanding and tolerance of people who are different. The literature suggests that networks based on informal social interaction may generate more trust than formal networks and may be more diverse in the membership (Li, Savage & Pickles, 2004).

Informal networks are more common than formal ones. Formal groups however, can provide for long term stable membership and possibly more enduring access to social capital. These networks provide opportunities for personal development, relating to different people, obtaining skills and access to goods. For instance, a secretary of a sporting club may learn to take notes and chair meetings, while working with a variety of people in the club.

Informal, diverse networks are less stable, but easier to set up and access. They allow involvement at whatever level people choose. In the case of people who regularly shop at a market and then go out for coffee, they are fulfilling a duty of shopping, in a relaxed, fun setting while developing friendships. Social capital exists in the networks and is found in the relationship(s) between people, so good relationships are important in establishing social capital (Coleman, 1988).

In both type of networks interactions include being there for others as noted in the literature (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003; Lin, 1999). Research highlights social capital creation based on trust and relationships as significant assets of networks (Hall, 1999; Putnam, 1995). Therefore, an angling club with elected executives, and regular meetings would have a network of volunteers, administrators, and people who fish. Each network group works together, seeing each other, developing close ties and social capital. Each group

includes other informal groups within it incorporating members from other networks. Clubs benefit from all networks within it as well as the members' connections with networks outside in the community (Doherty & Misener, 2008). In a club, volunteers may be close to the executive, constituting other cross networks and these informal subgroups can generate social capital.

Research has explored formal groups such as gardening clubs, sport clubs, and leisure networks and has noted their ability to generate ties fostering social capital (DeGraf & Jordan, 2003; Doherty & Misener, 2008; Seippel, 2008). However, more research is needed to explore formal and informal groups and the connections between members, and the generation and use of club benefits (Putnam, 2000, Hemingway, 2006).

The study sample for this research constituted members of formal sport and recreation clubs due to their accessibility, ongoing nature, governance, and opportunity to store social capital. Their long term existence may provide a greater opportunity for the individual to make deep relationships and develop social capital. In the next section this will be discussed through cooperation and recognition in networks.

### **2.2.6 Recognition, Information and Cooperation**

Relationships based on trust in formal and informal networks allow for successful cooperation between members and for them to reach goals (Putnam, 2000). The action of doing something together might be a neighbourhood establishing a car pool for taking children to dance lessons. Each member benefits from this practical utilitarian arrangement by driving less and having more time to do other things. If everyone cooperates, recognises others, and does their part, it works smoothly (Doherty & Misener, 2008). This informal arrangement would develop social capital. According to Putnam, social capital involves members' cooperation, recognition, and acceptance of others in the group (Putnam, 2000). The relationship(s) between members shows an action of labour and exchange between active members (Bourdieu, 1986). They respond to the situation and employ a joint cooperative solution and contribute while getting to know each other (Putnam, 1995).

Social capital brings people together who share a direction, and cooperate together. Individuals change from being self- focused into altruistic people sharing interests and providing benefits to the group (Newton, 1997). The literature refers to club members helping each other feeling good and being pleasant (Doherty & Misener, 2008).

Cooperation, and recognition based on sharing work and its benefits reflects back to the 'community' that communitarians believe in. In networks we note the importance of communication and access to information between the network members. Trust in social networks is based on good, clear, communication among members and lack of communication leaves members feeling a sense of distrust of people in power (Coleman, 1990). Feelings of distrust may develop when confident people begin to make decisions for the group as a whole without adequate communication. If information is accessible to everyone in a network, people feel equal and accepted. Access to information supports acceptance. Trusting relationships therefore depend on communication and information flowing equally to everyone. However, the individuals' interactions, relationships, social ties, and access to information may provide some with a significant advantage (Lin, 1999). Information obtained through social ties can be important in providing opportunities. For example, information flow through networks, based on trust, shows a reduced transaction time resulting in a more efficient system. This was described by Coleman (1990) as the transactions in the New York diamond trade. People in this network cooperated and trusted each other to ship diamonds without the need for a system of checks and balances, as they had trust.

Information flow in networks with good communication provides members with a sense of belonging. Therefore, information and communication are of value in networks and they can be used and stored (Putnam, 1995). The next section will discuss briefly how these and other goods from social capital are stored and accessed for use.

### **2.2.7 Storage and Use of Social Capital**

Social capital has value, and can be accessed by individuals whether it is knowledge or information. As stated, it is a community resource owned by everyone in the social network or the community of people. It is pooled, not owned by any one person but can be used by all when sanctioned by the group (Etzioni, 1993; Hemingway, 2006). The

‘commons’ in an English village illustrates this principle with everyone having access to using the space, but no one able to build a house on it and live there as it is owned and shared as a community resource.

Social capital generated through interaction in social networks, can be stored or invested for future use (Lin, 1999). It is not tangible, cannot be seen nor is it finite but can be increased with the right relationships (Table 2.2). It includes shared skills, or knowledge members have in a network such as developing a coaching system, or social contacts which help in finding jobs. These skills seen as something a person has are human capital, however, when shared in a network they become social capital. Examples include experience and organisational skills (eg how to run a meeting) which may belong to an individual but are passed on to new members or shared for future use.

**Table 2.2 Characteristics of Social Capital Storage and Use.\***

<b>Social Capital Characteristics</b>	<b>Examples of stored capital</b>	<b>Use of social capital</b>
Shared resource for all	Skills or knowledge, such as how to run a competition	Potentially accessible by all
Can be accessed by all	Social connections for a job	Can be stored for time
Created by interactions	Trust, and friendships	Some people access it more
Not tangible/stored	References for someone	Some people access goods better than others
Maintained by contact	Goodwill and support	Groups must monitor use
Is lost when a network ends	Close friendships	
Cannot be transferred	Cooperation	
Stays in the network	Access to a club cottage	

\*Adapted from Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1990; Degraaf & Jordan, 2004; Field, 2008; Putnam, 1995.

Conversely, other things of value might be the trust, support and close friendships members build up over time working together (See Table 2). These values allow for the network to run smoothly and efficiently for greater achievement (Putnam, 1995). Volunteers in networks give time with each other which implies acceptance and recognition (Putnam, 2000; Bourdieu, 1986). Close relationships based on cooperation

and active engagement noted by Bourdieu (1986), suggest that volunteers and networks create and experience social capital (Doherty & Misener, 2008).

Social capital occurs during a 'working bee' where members fulfil their network obligations. The social capital created through interactions enhances their ability to work together, and provides stored goods such as social trust which may be stored and accumulated for future use. However, as Putnam suggests (2000), the active network connections must be kept open and maintained by social contact. Network goods can be stored for future use when members go away and used when they return. It is analogous to money in the bank stored and then used for some future need. Stored social capital also includes recognition of membership in a network as important in regard to accessing goods over time. Club members accessing a holiday cottage available for network members illustrates where recognition is important in identifying their membership status in the network (Lin, 1999; Putnam, 2000).

Stored social capital as a resource cannot be moved from one group to another nor transported when the group finishes but remains in the group (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003). When a network dissolves the social capital is lost and when a person leaves they cannot take the social capital with them (Hemingway, 2006).

Social capital can be demonstrated when the manager of a company intervenes to support an acquaintance to get a job interview which shows a stored social capital connection. This is referred to in Lin's theory (1999) on accessing goods in a network. The same concept was reiterated by Putnam (2000), as someone putting in a good word, or using their influence in the power of social connections for someone. Thus, the concept of 'who you know' does exist.

In accessing social capital some people are better at using the social networks and accessing the goods than others (Bourdieu, 1986). The issue for the network is to balance the collective good of the network against the interest of the individual members who must continually make decisions to override the interest of the single person, sometimes themselves, who may want to use some of the collective goods contrary to the group needs (Coleman, 1990). When a network is working well a member may forgo

using some of the collective goods for themselves for the sake of the network. If individuals all want to claim some of the collective goods at the same time the network may suffer and social capital could be reduced. People in networks understand this and often will decline using these goods if it is detrimental to the network. In this way they show altruism and wait to use their social capital at another time (DeGraf & Jordan, 2003). In accessing social capital unwritten rules, including sanctions, are used to ensure people contribute and not just take from the network for their own benefit (Lin, 1999).

Networks and their potential importance was explored by Nan Lin (2001) who noted how certain positions in networks allowed for greater power and use of social capital credit. Being president of a baseball club requires the person being invited to state functions and having significant input into the club program. In terms of power and status the role has a stronger influence than others in the club and would be available for the person in that position to use. Available power is a person's available credit: perhaps a coach using their connections to attend a special coach training session, seeing it as their reward for service to the club.

Individuals accessing credit in social capital was first highlighted by Bourdieu (1986), who felt people with status may feel the right to use network social capital for themselves. This was seen as a potential negative feature of social capital (Bourdieu, 1986). However, Coleman (1990), and Putnam (1995) referred to monitoring the use of social capital through norms and sanctions with people cooperating together working for future benefit. Therefore, good relationships enable the group to support on-going networks (Glover & Hemingway, 2005). Relationships based on trust are shown by the United States Senate where the trusted giving members in the network are able to get things done by asking for favours for past support they have given (Uslander, 1999). The use of social capital benefits must be monitored through obligations, and if needed sanctions need to be employed to protect the networks. These will be discussed further in section 2.3. Networks are able to allow some members access to some of the 'credits' such as support with their children, or rides to work, as long as new 'credits' are being added and social capital is maintained.

Researchers differ regarding individual members accessing benefits for their interests versus the good of the group (Warde, Tampubolon & Savage, 2005). In the literature, social capital development in sport has been highlighted and the need for vision, shared values and dedication to the club among members has been noted (Doherty & Misener, 2008; Seippel, 2006; Sharpe, 2006). Additionally, research in sport and recreation shows the need for respect, trust, and openness to be important in building good club networks and generating social capital (Doherty & Misener, 2008).

### **2.2.8 Summary of Social Networks**

Social networks are the location for social capital development between people in any group (Lin, 1999). Members of a community share similar interests and involvement (Bauman, 2001). They develop social capital not in isolation but through interactions with others and this is dependent on their relationships (Fukuyama, 2000). Thus, like-minded community members join the network because of an interest (Bauman 2001; Putnam, 2000). Social capital is in their deepened relationships based on interactions. Their relationships develop as their friendships evolve and deepen, and they build trust.

Social capital, like communitarianism, emphasises social networks and trust; however, it focuses on and acknowledges the individual. It also allows access to build up benefits by individuals, and explores governance and norms at a deeper level. It includes both formal and informal types of networks which are based on face-to-face relationships.

Relationships based on trust, support, and reciprocity bring the members closer together and build social capital. Social capital is not stagnant but requires, and is based on, action and good relationships (Putnam, 2000).

Social capital requires good relationships dependent on communication, recognition, and access to information to develop (Doherty & Misener, 2008). The ideas, information and support given to members are some of its benefits. This research is concerned with the interactions between members of formal leisure clubs and development of friendships which provide for greater trust, support, and reciprocity. The review of literature will now explore social capital further and examine the types, components, and benefits that this theory includes.

## 2.3 Types of Social Capital

While social capital lacks a commonly-accepted definition and an agreed form of measurement, agreed aspects of the theory can be found in the research (Claridge, 2004; Putnam, 2000). Researchers have examined networks and describe various types of social capital based on the strength and type of ties between people: (a) bonding; (b) bridging; (c) linking, and (d) thick versus thin.

### 2.3.1 Bonding Social Capital

Bonding refers to social capital that is based on strong, dense ties between people who are in similar situations such as family members, neighbours, or people in a local ethnic-based sport club (Woolcock, 2000). Groups of this nature include individuals with similar backgrounds (homogenous), sharing a range of common features such as female soccer clubs or an Arabic social club (Brooks, 2009; DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003; Szreter & Woolcock, 2004). This type of social capital may be exclusive and include only people who are from a similar background. The mafia illustrates this type of social capital with the group having strong connections among its members but little interest or relationship with those outside the group (Coleman, 1990). The Cairo Market has also been highlighted as illustrating strong bonding where one merchant will often go away and another will watch over their stall. Market members are from similar backgrounds and return favours to each other when they are needed. Free exchange of support allows for the Market and Mafia to work efficiently, however membership is very close with people from the same ethnic background (Arabic or Italian) and also strong family ties (Coleman, 1990). Dense ties among members and fear of being ostracised provide strong norms of behaviour, bonding the members together.

Bonding social capital often promotes the material and social interests of members. Inward looking groups such as fraternities and golf clubs are other examples of bonded social networks. These groups can be exclusive, homogeneous in makeup, and closed networks to outsiders (Putnam, 1995).

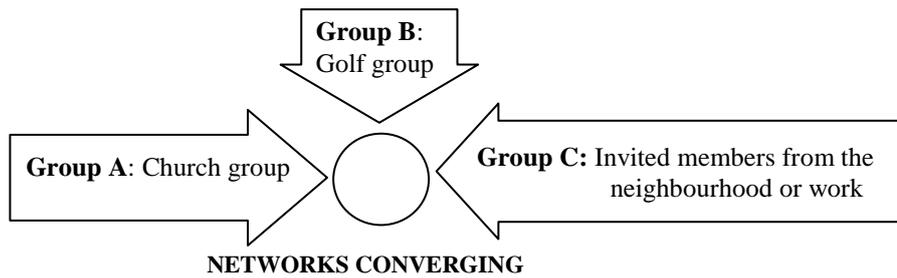
Bonding social capital is important in underpinning close ties between people in a group, allowing for the development of trust, reciprocity and solidarity for those within the

group. Walseth (2008), analysed young women in sport clubs developing strong bonding social capital. The club members developed close, strong ties with others in the club by playing sport with school friends of a similar background. Sport reinforced the bonds that they had already established, allowing strong links to develop a close, almost family-like relationship with individuals supporting each other (Walseth, 2008). This type of social capital is related to thick social capital which will be discussed in the following pages, and can also be inward-focused (DeGraaf, & Jordan, 2003). For example, people visiting their sick relatives reflects bonding social capital. In this thesis aspects of bonding social capital referred to as friendship and social support arose as a result of comments provided by participants in focus groups, but these are neither a focus nor aim of this research.

### **2.3.2 Bridging and Linking Social Capital**

Bridging social capital as opposed to bonding social capital occurs between people who are different (heterogeneous) to each other (Putnam, 2000). Cultivating unity within a group improves its bonding social capital (Claridge, cited in Njuki, Mapila, Zingore, & Delve, 2008). Members bonded in a group are sometimes able to bridge across their differences to develop friendships and social capital. Alternatively, people also bridge outside of their particular group developing a relationship and social capital with others outside or in other networks. Bridging and linking social capital exist where there are more distant ties between people including looser friendships (Woolcock, 2000). It often involves people from networks that overlap each other giving members access to the resources of another group because members are in both networks (Stone et al, 2003; Woolcock, 2000). Bridging social capital can link people together from a different race, income, or community backgrounds (Sanders & Lowney, 2006).

Bridging puts individuals together through new friendships and can include an informal group of golfers (Figure 2.2 Group B) who play regularly (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003). The golf group may be an offshoot of a church social group (Figure 2.2 Group A).

**Figure 2.2 Bridging Social Capital (adapted from Woolcock and Stone)**

A group of this nature might include new members to the group, visitors, or people not in the club who want to play golf, but know someone in the group. Some of the individuals may be in both the church group and in the golf social group (Group A and B). These members have strong network connections through the two networks overlapping each other (Stone et al, 2003; Woolcock, 2000). Others may be only in the golf group but are asked by a neighbour or workmate to join them in another activity (Group C). In the new group they develop ties and friendships with new people who may be different to themselves but share resources and provide support. Support could be information where to buy a house or a car, or to provide contacts for applying for a job. The person given the advice is supported and brought closer into the group and can access other ties from the networks that the members have (Fields, 2008; Narayan, 1999; Putnam, 1995; Woolcock, 2000). Social capital can be a powerful tool as it provides access to new information and contacts from a wider field to an individual (Lin, 2001). Members of the golf network may have other social groups they are a part of based on strong, tight, bonds, however in this group they are developing bridging social capital with people who may be different from themselves (Stone et al, 2003).

Researchers have studied how bridging social capital in northern Italy resulted in less organised, informal sport and art groups (Putnam, 1995). These groups brought people together from different social or religious backgrounds, connecting them and allowing them to develop bridging social capital through interactions in the activity of choice. The groups exposed people to new ideas and different ways of doing things through their new friendships. It moulded heterogeneous people together into a network developing friendships outside of their immediate social group (Brooks, 2009; Woolcock, 2000; Walseth, 2008).

Bridging social capital is shared in groups that are less exclusive and more inclusive than groups that develop strong bonding social capital. People who have a range of social network interactions may result in them being more outward looking, and relating well to people from diverse social backgrounds (Florida, 2002; Putnam 2000). Governments relate to and support this type of social capital because of its ability to instill acceptance and tolerance in people and bridge across a wide spectrum of people (Winter, 2000).

The literature refers to another form of social capital called linking social capital (Stone et al, 2003; Woolcock, 2001). Linking social capital is similar to bridging as it refers to looser ties than bonding social capital and often refers to a person using their relationships with someone from another network to access resources. It refers to norms of respect and trust between people who may reach across formal or institutionalised power and authority. A person contacting their local health planner through a friendly contact can illustrate linking social capital (Szreter & Woolcock, 2004). The acquaintance provides them an entrée to this person and the power of the position. Linking social capital refers to accessing another network in a hierarchy and to seek power (Harper, 2002). Asking for a letter of reference from a friend who is Chief Executive Officer in a major organisation is an example of this form of social capital. Using ties across different networks to access someone's power and authority is a resource (Sherry, 2010; Stone et al, 2003; Woolcock, 2001). Linking social capital is concerned with relationships between people in networks who are not on an equal footing (Harper, 2002).

Although bridging and bonding social capital are different they are not mutually exclusive and sometimes incorporated together (Walseth, 2008). Groups often incorporate bonding for some aspects of group behaviour developing trust and social friendships, and bridge onto others for access to power (Putnam, 2000; Walseth, 2008).

The literature suggests that bonding social capital is good for getting by in life generally but bridging is crucial for people who want to do well in life by supporting ambition (Putnam, 2000). This view is supported by governments, and noted in research where Florida (2002), suggests that people with many loose social connections do better in work and life in general. Bridging allows people to draw on social capital across many networks for their own or for their group's benefit.

The literature suggests that bridging social capital develops readily in sport and recreation clubs and should be investigated further (Putnam, 1995; Walseth, 2008). Bridging also assists in social cohesion overlapping networks together and introducing people from different backgrounds to each other. Governments have been attracted to social capital with these outcomes from the Australian Productivity Commission (2003), and the Norwegian Government's (White paper, Norway as cited, Zakus, Skinner & Edwards, 2005).

Sport's ability to bring different people together has been highlighted for migrant and local young women in Norwegian sport (Walseth, 2008). The young women initially became friendly. After playing and traveling together they became friends, accepting each other and their differences. Members were able to get to know and understand each other, respect cultural differences, habits, and practices which leads to greater acceptance and tolerance (Walseth, 2008).

Many organisations include both bonding and bridging social capital. The Knights of Columbus members bond together through their religion but bridge across different social classes (Saguaro Seminar, 2009). The question of sport and recreation clubs providing opportunities for these types of social capital to exist in a club is of interest. However, this research explores local leisure clubs and their ability to provide strong support through social capital and greater acceptance of others' differences but will not make distinctions between bonding or bridging social capital.

### **2.3.3 Thick versus Thin Social Capital (Strong and Weak Ties)**

Thick and thin social capital refers to the strength of the relationship(s) of the people. Thick social capital has a number of different connections so it is multi-layered. It refers to capital that is developed by people with a number of social connections who might work together, play on the same softball team, and have their children attend the same school (Putnam, 2000; World Bank, 1999). Strong ties of this nature include regular, frequent, close social interactions, building strong friendships (DeGraaf, & Jordan, 2003). Weak and thin social capital refers to people who are acquaintances and may have mutual friends (Putnam, 2000; DeGraaf, & Jordan, 2003). In social capital theory the role of ties has been explored significantly through the work of Granovetter (1973),

where he examined the strength of ties that bind people together in networks. This was important in establishing the different models of social capital based on strength of the ties between people. This area has been investigated further by the work of Florida (2002) and while it is not a direct focus of this thesis could be incorporated in future research in Leisure clubs.

Both types refer to the frequency and depth of social contact between people in a network. It is different from bridging and bonding social capital which reflect the type of relationships and people in the network, such as friends or family (Szreter & Woolcock, 2004). However, thin social capital is equated with bridging social capital while thick social capital relates closely to bonding social capital (Claridge, 2004). In this study the sample will include members of organised sport and recreation clubs. Many of the members will be friends or acquaintances who may only know each other through their club connections indicating bridging or thin social capital (Claridge, 2004). However, others may know each other through club and other networks possibly through school, work, their neighbourhood, or through the family. This group would have thick, multilayered social capital (Claridge, 2004). It is important to have a good understanding of the various types and degree of social capital in order to better understand, and interpret, any differences. However in this study while some club members may have dense, bonding social capital and others thin or bridging social capital the focus of the research will not be on differentiating between these social capital types but will measure components such as friendship and support

#### **2.3.4 Summary - Social Capital Types**

In summary social capital is based on the relationships between the people in the network and includes bonding social capital with thick close forms of friendships. In this research it is envisaged that the members of leisure clubs in the sample would include members who are homogenous such as members of the same family. However, others may have multiple connections and play sport together but also be neighbours who are in other clubs together representing thick social capital. Others may have more relationships and thinner ties to the club with more outside relationships showing bridging social capital. This group may be only interested in the club's activities offered such as playing tennis

and maintain a large number of relationships outside of the club. This exploratory research examines the nature of social capital in local clubs through social capital and its components and is important in providing an understanding of social capital types.

The reason members join networks varies however, developing friendships, social ties and someone they can trust for support may be crucial in members remaining. These are some of the benefits of social capital which will be discussed in this next section.

## **2.4 Outcomes of Social Capital**

Research has highlighted the benefits of social capital (Putnam, 2001; & Stone et al, 2003; Woolcock, 2001) and others have explored it in leisure (Misener & Doherty, 2009). Social capital has been studied and seen primarily as a positive force in society however, there are also negative aspects of the theory. These outcomes in relation to social capital will be discussed.

### **2.4.1 Positive Outcomes**

From the earliest writings social capital has been referred to as incorporating positive aspects important in life such as goodwill, fellowship, friendliness and understanding between people (Hanifan, 1916). These attributes reflect the positive nature of the concept and have been recognised by the World Bank and in much of the literature. They note its ability to bring people together, harnessing energy and abilities into a collective action to resolve problems and issues affecting people (Portes & Landholt, 1996; World Bank, 1999). This might be parents working on a school fete and meeting each other. They develop a good friendship as they see each other for school events and begin socialising outside of the school. At the fete they feel goodwill working with people like themselves and achieving an outcome for the school together. The fete is the vehicle offering the opportunity for people to meet, and develop friendships. Social capital is the building and consolidating of friendships and networks as people do things together. Therefore, people meeting and developing friendships and trust are some of its outcomes (Putnam, 2000).

Research has highlighted the positive benefits to individuals and local areas (regions). Communities with high levels of social capital have less crime, better health, higher

education levels, and increased economic growth (Halpern, 2009; Putnam, 1995; Winter & Outhwaite, 2001). Areas with high levels of social capital are noted as being cleaner and the people healthier, more open and friendly (Putnam, 2000).

Social capital provides benefits including established trust and a shared understanding of people working together for the same outcomes which reduces transaction costs, high turnover and the need for supervision (Cohen & Prusak, 2001; Daly, 2005; World Bank, 1999). Therefore, less scrutiny and checks are required for transactions and protection from graft or dishonest activities. Much of the benefits of social capital appear to reflect trusting, mutual relationships between people (Cohen & Prusak, 2001). This reflects Putnam's work in northern Italy where large numbers of formal and informal art, sport, and choral groups with flat structures reflecting an open society were found. This region also had high levels of trust and better functioning government. In comparison, southern Italy had few clubs, hierarchical structures, and low trust. These communities were not integrated and had low trust and low social capital, but high levels of trust in their immediate families. Communities of this nature have more problems and are not as well governed as those with high trust and high social capital (Portes & Landholt, 1996).

The World Bank (1999) and governments (Blair Government, and Australian state governments) have endorsed these findings. They pursued community building strategies based on fostering social capital and believe in its ability to bring communities together through social cohesion (Adams, 2009; Adams & Wiseman, 2002; Putnam, 1995, 2000; Sharma, 2008). Social capital can provide for a more trusting community making it more productive, efficient, and supportive (Halpern, 2009; Putnam, 2000). Governments have begun to support the growth of elements common to social capital such as trust, commitment, and solidarity (Frazer, 2000). This is often an attempt to respond to the insecurity of the world of deregulation, competition and uncertainty with governments trying to counter act this through local communities nurturing social capital (Bauman, 2001). The goal is to make local communities friendly, safe, and where people know each other. Greater interaction between people links them together allowing them to develop friendships, and accumulating social capital in their local community (Beem, 1999). A street party, or local sport club bringing people together supported by council could

achieve this. However, initiatives should be managed and run by local participants for individuals to establish networks, and have a sense of ownership as evidenced by Putnam (2000). In Degraaf and Jordan's (2003) study of youth soccer leagues, local networks were seen to increase quality of life and personal happiness through integrated actions and friendship development. They also found that sport and the social connections developed and enhanced social capital through a higher sense of community and sense of self (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003). In other research Burnett (2006), noted community outcomes through sport clubs as including greater mutual trust, and reciprocity, sense of belonging, respect, and status in the community for volunteer coaches.

Social capital benefits illustrate the complex nature of the theory and its potential for generating positive outcomes. These are highlighted in table 2.3 and include supporting greater trust, acceptance, reciprocity, support and friendships, as well as lower crime rates and better health. Social capital also supports higher education levels and productivity, lower transaction costs, and cleaner neighbourhoods. Sport and leisure also provides these benefits as they include clubs and interactions contributing to tolerance and understanding. This has been highlighted by the United Nations Report 'Sport for Development and Peace' (United Nations, 2006). Despite these and other anecdotal references to sport and social capital development there is still little empirical evidence supporting the claims and this should be investigated further (Schulenkorf, 2013). The role of sport and recreation clubs will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.7. While social capital has been recognised as being a positive force it also has negative aspects which will now be discussed.

#### **2.4.2 Negative Outcomes of Social Capital**

While social capital is given credit for creating better local environments, and clubs, there are also negative aspects highlighted by Bourdieu (1986), Putnam (2000) and others.

Social capital can be used by individuals to further their own needs to the detriment of others or used by those of superior socio-economic or political status to maintain the status quo (Bourdieu 1986) (see Table 2.3). People who use network social capital often recognise and are aware that others are left out (Defilippis, 2001). Use of social capital sometimes leads to inequality in networks highlighted in a garden project by Glover

(2004). Some members of this study group used benefits available to the group, including information and support, to gain more benefits for themselves therefore maintaining their position (Glover, 2004).

Urban gangs and other groups with high bonding are also an example of negative outcomes (Putnam 2000). Strong internal bonds often result in high trust between members in the group but are distrustful of outsiders. Groups with strong conformity can be united by unhealthy causes such as crime syndicates. These groups have a lower sense of autonomy: members may not be allowed to leave the group (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003).

Sport generates substantial social capital within teams and by the fans, bringing them closer together with strong bonds. Bonding social capital exists between members, however if there is little bridging across differences this can lead to a polarised group. Groups may use bonding to exclude all others reflecting a homogenous group which may be hostile to anyone outside of the group and can develop into an exclusive club (Atherly, 2006; Putnam, 2000; Tonts, 2005). Sororities and fraternities are examples of forms of clubs that possess high internal social capital due to the exclusion of others. They show how networks (clubs) embrace some groups, exclude others, and maintain an exclusive membership. The use of bonding social capital to exclude someone from a group due to their race, gender, or sexual orientation has been highlighted in the literature by (Blackshaw & Long, 2005; Portes & Landolt, 1996). Strong bonds of social capital within a group if unchecked can lead to social exclusion, with club members being bonded closely to each other but hostile to those around them (Tonts, 2005). Sports such as golf and tennis incorporating privilege and elitism and can sometimes have closed door policies for dealing with non- members (Jarvie, 2003).

Australian sport has the potential to bring people together to participate with like-minded people, but is sometimes divided along class, status, ethnic or cultural lines, which can result in a negative experience (Dempsey, 1990; Field, 2003; Whitaker & Banwell, 2002). Sport therefore, can bring out ethnic rivalry, competition between communities, and be divided along gender or cultural lines. This dark side of social capital is raised in the literature by Putnam (2000), Tonts (2005), and Kitchin and Howe (2013).

Life in idyllic, small, close knit communities, with everyone knowing each other, illustrates a further aspect of negative social capital. In these communities some members may not wish to share their social capital with someone not like them, which can be difficult for people who are different. Thus, the value of community freedom is described as a choice limited by, and based on, what others before have chosen, not based on real free choice (Bauman, 1997). People can be themselves but often only within certain boundaries. The literature does not always reflect a true community resulting from interactions but sometimes sees a community developing constraints and intolerance instead of real freedom (Bauman, 1997).

In gardening projects Glover et al, (2005) showed that social capital generated may become exclusively used by some members but not by all. He suggested that leisure study scholars should critically examine social capital, especially where inequality is concerned. In addition, Blackshaw and Long (2005), raised the potential of leisure groups to impose conformity and social division resulting in lower tolerance. While these negative examples do exist there is general agreement that social capital is good for individuals, small groups and communities and it improves trust and reciprocity. So when people come together regularly who have no initial sense of connection they begin to form relationships based on social capital (Newton, 1997).

**Table 2.3 Positive and Negative Social Capital Outcomes\***

<b>Positive Social Capital Supports:</b>	<b>Negative Social Capital can:</b>
Greater trust, friendship	Support hierarchies in groups
Lower crime rates	Allow unequal access to benefits
Better health	Lead to low acceptance
Higher education levels	Lead to closed groups e.g. Mafia
Greater productivity	Lead to exclusion by race, or gender
Cleaner neighbourhoods	Bring out class or ethnic rivalry
Lower transaction costs, and less supervision	Support low autonomy
Acceptance and support	Support low Trust
Greater reciprocity	Support intolerance
Builds social networks	Have few external links

\*Adapted from Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1990; Degraaf & Jordan, 2004; Field, 2008; Putnam, 1995.

### **2.4.3 Summary of Outcomes of Social Capital**

In summary, social capital can have positive and negative outcomes and these must be recognised in order to fully understand social capital. Social capital's potential for positive outcomes is significant, but aspects of it such as bonding, has the potential to foster prejudices and exclusivity in networks (Coffe & Geys, 2007; Tonts, 2005). Negative features - in addition to lack of acceptance of difference, low trust and closed networks not open to anyone - were noted in Australian sport clubs (Tonts, 2005). Access to social capital benefits in networks is not always equitable, and as highlighted, can be seen to serve to maintain hierarchies with some network members knowing how to access social capital more than others (Bourdieu, 1986).

In the next section the components or elements which make up social capital will be discussed and their importance in the theoretical development of social capital. The components are also important in this thesis as they were used in the development of the scale items which were used in the main quantitative phase of the research.

### **2.5 Components of Social Capital**

Writers on social capital have different viewpoints but they also share commonalities in that they believe social networks allow for the development of trust, interaction, and the coming together of people. Social capital is embedded in the connections between individuals in the social networks and norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them (Putnam, 2000). Some of the elements or component parts of social capital include trust, reciprocity, tolerance or acceptance, shared norms of behaviour, governance, friendship or social networks, and the commons (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Etzioni, 1993; Ostrum 1990). The components vary such as trust or acceptance which are attitudinal and based on a person's beliefs. Others such as reciprocity relate to behaviour and imply action (Putnam, 2000).

After initially noting components in the literature it was decided that trust, reciprocity, acceptance, shared norms, friendship groups and governance would be most appropriate for this research (Onyx & Bullen, 2001, Putnam, 2000). The sample was comprised of formal community based leisure clubs with elected officials so governance was an issue

and would be included as a component (Putnam 2000). These components of social capital are sometimes used in its measurement (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Sabatini, 2009). Social capital components are crucial as without their existence social capital is not present (Putnam, 1995, 2000). The components will be discussed individually and are shown in Table 2.4.

### **2.5.1 Trust**

In terms of importance many researchers feel social capital relies heavily on the presence of trust in a network, therefore, trust is very important, possibly the most important component of social capital (Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1995).

Trust is a significant key component of social capital found in networks and highlighted in the original research of Coleman, Putnam, and Uslander (Field, 2008). People develop a sense of trust over time in the networks while at the same time developing a close relationship. They might paint an ill neighbour's house, or cut the neighbour's grass, thus showing favours occurring in a neighbourhood network. Closer ties, friendships, trust and support occur as the relationships deepen, through favours rendered. This current research project is interested in the trust, support, and favours people give to each other within the network of formal local leisure clubs.

Trust is a value that is crucial in relationships and is the basis of social capital (Fukuyama, 1995; Newton, 1997). It allows people to treat others with respect and as equals. It is a resource with a latent value allowing people to look outside of themselves, ignoring previous experiences or prejudices while working together (Putnam, 1993; Uslander, 1999). In this way it can act as a lubricant reducing potential friction, making groups operate more efficiently and effectively (Fukuyama 1995; Putnam 2000). Trust is a core component of social capital in most research and may underpin the further development of other components including reciprocity and norms of behaviour (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 1995; Uslander, 2001). Trust is necessary, and without it social capital is not likely to develop, however, it is not sufficient on its own. When people behave honestly and reliably they begin to trust one another which begins the process of social capital. It allows for things to be done without

repayment. Simply stated, I can help you now and trust that you will help me if I need help, thereby repaying (reciprocate) the favour (Putnam, 1995). People freely give and support each other when trust and honesty are present. It may be the foundation block and is crucial in social capital development in social networks. Without trust in a relationship between people, reciprocity or helping would not occur. This makes it a significant part of social capital (Putnam, 1995b).

Its opposite, distrust between people provokes further distrust. Where this occurs in networks or between individuals it is likely to bring about untrustworthy behaviour. This is counter to developing social capital. Networks having a lack of trust (distrust), find it difficult to get things done. Negotiation costs are higher, people are suspicious, guarded, and things operate slowly (Cox & Caldwell, 2000). This inhibits the action needed in social capital where achieving and resolving issues is prominent (Putnam, 1995).

Trust therefore is important in creating communities where people know, care, and help each other (Uslander, 1999). It allows people to take chances because they can depend on those around them (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). It is complex and varies between individuals and groups and can also vary between individuals in a group.

In a social group trust between people is based on personality and the bond between them. Trust does not automatically result but is dependent on close friendships. Therefore, some people in any network will become closer friends and build more and stronger social capital than others. Some view trust and social capital in the literature as cause and effect, so if a network has trust, then social capital will develop (Uslander, 1999). However, trust depends on the friendship(s) between members and a belief that the group is dependable and good (Coleman, 1990).

The different forms of trust are: social trust, generalised and particularised trust. With social trust present people rely on each other, develop ties, which enables them to cooperate and help each other (Uslander, 1999). People with social trust are 'trusting people' and believe that most people are trustworthy. Having a trusting attitude makes much of life easier (Cox, & Caldwell, 2000).

Generalized trust means trusting people you do not know (Uslander, 1999), described as thin trust or the trusting of strangers (Knack, 2002; Sanders & Lowney, 2006). It encourages people to take part in the community because they feel a part of it and trust and invest in it (Banfield, 1958; Uslander, 1999). Generalised trust supports social capital development allowing people to think outside of their immediate group and work together with new people. The social group does not have to be family or close friends or relations. In a community of this nature, things run much smoother, and more efficiently because people do not have to be watched (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 2000). Generalised trust is similar to social trust except it refers to trust within loose social networks while social trust refers to trust of people in a general sense or trusting people on the street. Generalised trust is significant in developing social capital, and similar to bridging social capital, believing people to be dependable, honest and working together (Fukuyama, 1995).

Particularised trust refers to trust of people like yourself, your family, and friends (Cox, 2005; Sanders & Lowney, 2006). People who are in your particular group you trust, but you are less likely to trust someone you do not already know (Dekker & Uslander, 2001; Uslander, 1999). Particular trust exists in familiar networks or with those you know. This type of trust does not support social capital development in the general community only in the person's close network with people they already know. Fraternities are an example of this type of trust where there is trust within and amongst the group.

Trust in a community can produce a more prosperous community and support for each other, and higher voting and volunteering (Putnam, 1993b; Uslander, 1999). Conversely, areas with low trust have lower volunteering, voting, and support rates, and higher mortality rates (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003).

The relationship between trusting people with generalised trust is crucial in establishing friendships, support, and reciprocity - important components of social capital. However, trust takes time to develop, and may require reciprocity to provide a bridge over people's individual interests (Torche & Valenzuela, 2011). The confidence and trust people have in each other creates the environment for other components of social capital such as reciprocity to occur (Table 2.4). In this research trust will be analysed as a component of

social capital. Reciprocity is closely related to trust and plays a significant 'role' in shaping and strengthening trust between individuals.

### **2.5.2 Reciprocity**

Reciprocity as a component of social capital is linked to trust and defined by people helping and supporting each other (Table 2.4). It refers to doing a favour for someone without expecting an immediate return of the favour (Sanders & Lowney, 2006). It refers to the action of giving something in return, where two people provide favours to each other equally (Oxford, 2006). It can strengthen and develop trust in the process of social capital creation (Torche & Valenzuela, 2011).

Reciprocity is found in all species, relating to dependence and interdependence, and is crucial for survival and growth (Uslander, 2001). It comes from trust between like-minded organisms (particularised trust), trusting those you know (Yamigichi & Yamigichi, 1994). Particularised trust in groups like gangs provides support for reciprocity to occur within the group but not outside. This does not lend itself to social capital development outside the group, but the reciprocity present within groups of this nature can be summarised as 'here we help each other' (Uslander, 2001).

Generalised trust leads to reciprocity outside the immediate group and into the general community (Uslander, 2001). In a neighbourhood with generalised trust individuals do favours for each other, and trust that others will do so (Sander & Lowney, 2006). Onyx & Bullen (2000) and Ziersch (2005) asked respondents if they agree that by helping someone 'you are helping yourself in the long run'. The participants agreed, highlighting their belief in generalised trust and reciprocity.

Reciprocity, like trust, is embedded in the social relations of people and is altruistic: someone provides help to another now without expecting the favour returned now but maybe in the future (Taylor, 1982). The act of helping is seen as a credit which can be used when needed and refers to the concept of help or support when required (Putnam, 1995). Members in networks trust others, providing something in an altruistic manner to improve someone's welfare, knowing it may be rewarded (Winter, 2000). Reciprocity directly relates to or is the action outcome of trust (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Reciprocity

links people in a group and is often particular to that group (Torche & Valenzuela, 2011). Close networks with particularised trust develop reciprocity between members that know each other well and may take it for granted (Yamagichi & Yamagichi, 1994). This type of network might be neighbours or family members.

Networks with loose ties, made of diverse people develop reciprocity if members generally trust each other (Uslander, 2001). Therefore, reciprocity between strangers requires generalised trust between individuals to exist (Torche & Valenzuela, 2011).

In a network with a strong sense of reciprocity members assist each other as they care about each other (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). This was noted in their research in regional towns in New South Wales with people sharing food and services when required (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Trust and reciprocity are closely linked also with norms of behaviour, another component of social capital.

### **2.5.3 Norms of Behaviour**

Norms of behaviour refers to informal controls of social behaviour in a social network. These are usually unwritten rules and sanctions, which provide guidance to what is expected and not accepted in terms of behaviour in the group (Coleman 1990; Putnam 1995). The rules are set by the network members, and refer to values, cooperation, support, and understanding between members (Cote & Healy, 2001). This ensures that no individual acts solely out of self-interest (Coleman 1990; Putnam 1995). Norms are a set of standards based on group values, that are used to measure behaviour and examples are, tolerance of people from different races in club, and welcoming new neighbours with a gift (Harper, 2002).

It is suggested that norms are linked closely to Alexis De Tocqueville's, *Habits of the Heart* (1830) based on the Golden Rule, where you think not just of yourself but of others. De Tocqueville admired America's freedom which allowed people to work together without controls. He described how people carried their mores and values within themselves in their hearts showing concern for each other. In this way people developed or created a moral, life of meaning achieving this through habits of the heart. Thus 18<sup>th</sup> century American values shows commonality with norms of behaviour

inherent in organised clubs. Club members work together under unwritten codes, together for the benefit of the club (Putnam, 2000).

Norms use sanctions to report or communicate how trustworthy a person is (Winter, 2000). Sanctions ensure that people support and help each other without fear of being taken advantage of. If someone's behaviour is not acceptable they will be sanctioned. Sanctions are processes which provide members appropriate rules of operations for those not behaving in the group (Performance and Innovation Unit, 2002). An example could be a baseball club which expects members not playing to help bring in equipment after a game. In communities with close social networks, sanctions are a powerful tool. An untrustworthy member pays a high cost to their reputation for transgressions against the stated norms (Sanders & Lowney, 2006). In angling clubs members who do not help with boats and bringing in equipment are socially ignored at meetings and not invited to go fishing. Groups including the Klux Klan have norms as well, with members expected to be racist and obey in a certain manner.

Norms are important to the survival of the network by supporting 'good' behaviour for the group against the self-interest of members (Performance and Innovation Unit, 2002). Norms are varied and not all are seen as being social capital, but refer to working within group values. Those that support people cooperating, working together truthfully and meeting their duty, produce social capital (Fukuyama, 1995).

Social groups that have trust, norms to guide behaviour, and people helping and supporting each other are able to generate social capital (Putnam, 1995). These groups are often composed of a diverse membership, with bridging social capital and are more tolerant and accepting of difference (Putnam, 2000; Winter, & Outhwaite, 2001).

#### **2.5.4 Tolerance and Acceptance**

Tolerance or acceptance of others refers to being open to others, showing an interest, curiosity, and respect for them (Walzer, 1997). People of this nature see other people as worthy and wish to listen to them and celebrate diversity. Tolerance has been recognised by Winter and Outhwaite, (2001), as a component of social capital and been used as a factor to measure social capital (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Cox & Caldwell, 2000).

This aspect of social capital is concerned with making someone feel welcome in the community, treating them as equals, respecting and accepting their differences.

Communities with high social capital have high levels of tolerance of others especially those with trust and bridging social capital (Cox & Caldwell, 2000). People who welcome newcomers are likely to be more tolerant (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003). People of this nature are more accepting of people from different cultures and look forward to meeting individuals from different backgrounds.

Some small communities with thick, multi layered social networks have people working together, playing on the same softball team, and attending the same churches and schools. They know each other well and develop strong, thick social connections bringing them together. They may be a close knit community within but not very welcoming to strangers (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003). A lack of acceptance to outsiders often reflects thick bonding social capital within a network (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). This suggests a negative relationship between high levels of inward social capital and tolerance. However, groups vary with acceptance and tolerance existing in some and not in others (Onyx & Bullen, 1999).

Tolerance and acceptance are generally associated with people who welcome others different from themselves. They have generalised trust and weaker, looser ties among the members of their group (DeGraaf & Jordan, 2003). Groups with thin social capital have looser bonds, are more outward looking, and accept people who are different (Winter, 2000).

Much social capital research stresses the importance of norms and acceptance of others to maintain trust in social groups. It is analogous and related to governance and civil society, or order and participation in the local community. These components of social capital have been highlighted as important for the transparency and flow of information to individuals which supports the development and maintenance of trust (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; De Tocqueville, 1949; Putnam, 2000).

### **2.5.5 Governance and Civil Society**

Governance and civil society refers to specific actions of social capital including volunteering, voting, and transparent operations which are incorporated in governance and civic responsibility. Examples of these include volunteers in a club helping set up a

room for a meeting, people voting for an elected position or a committee discussing issues before making a decision for the club. Governance is reflected in the literature, Putnam (1993b, 1995), Banfield (1958), and its importance to social capital has been traced back to De Tocqueville's *Democracy in America* (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Tonnie as cited in Newton, 2001; Winter, 2000). These studies reflect De Tocqueville's *Habits of the Heart* where he was impressed by Americans joining associations and working together with little supervision (Welch, 2001). Values and goodwill guided them in working for the common good by volunteering, however, many of the groups were organised and had a system of governance (Welch, 2001).

Governance itself refers to the act of operations (governing) and how it is carried out while civil society refers more to the citizens, their environment, and interactions (Oxford, 2006). Governance and civil society reflect local area participatory democracy, giving members the opportunity to learn about governance, to vote, participate and influence local affairs (Harper, 2002). When people volunteer they benefit and the community benefits and it builds confidence in the institutions (Hooghe, & Marks, 2003; Rosenblum, 1998).

Good governance built on trust, reinforces trust, which supports a civil society (Putnam, 1995). In networks with good governance and systems of operations, members feel trust within the group, are informed of issues through good information channels, and have a say in decisions (Foley & Edwards, 1999; Putnam, 1995; Winter & Outhwaite, 2001). Members feel they know what is happening and are a part of the network. When good information and governance based on trust exists, social capital is generated and people work together towards a common goal. Good governance can also be an outcome of social capital and used to measure people's volunteering, involvement in local affairs and confidence in the institutions (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Harper, 2002). Areas with high levels of social capital, a strong morality and sense of generalised trust are safer places to be and easier to govern (Putnam, 2000). Democracy depends on social capital, where everyone trusts that others will do the proper thing to maintain a constructive system where everyone has input and a share in decision making (Jarvie, 2003).

Good governance in community clubs includes operations based on constitutions and rules, governed by an elected executive. The members serve the club, make it stronger,

and improve the local community, fostering a polite, fair and equal society (Foley & Edwards, 1999).

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century a school of thought decided that power should reside in the society separate from government (Keene, 1988). This was the beginning of the civil society which Hegel referred to as groups and individuals in the community providing leadership and parallel support to the state (Jarvie & Maguire, 1994). Social capital is a cornerstone of social inclusion and civil society with participants learning new civic skills while enlarging and varying their social network (Coalter, 2007; Lichterman, 2006). People can become more trusting, and politically involved with better governance (Banfield, 1958; Halpern, 2005; Portes & Landolt, 1996; Putnam, 1993b). Research in Italy highlighted this noting government reform, and democratic institutions were strong in areas of high association (club) life represented by recreation and arts groups (Putnam, 1993a). These communities understood each other, worked out differences and integrated together, therefore being more accepting and tolerant of individual differences (Putnam, 1993a; Uslander, 2000). Voluntary associations provide opportunities to join and partake in local community life (civil society) and soccer clubs and singing groups made a strong contribution to good government and social capital (Putnam, 1993a). Social capital is noted as a key in strengthening civil society and redeveloping strong ties between communities. The research connects social capital and community with local action and responsibility in local areas. This perspective has been accepted throughout the world and the contribution of local clubs towards good governance and civil society has been inferred.

### **2.5.6 Friendship Groups (Networks)**

The literature refers to social capital being developed through interactions of people in networks and or in friendship groups (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995). Networks allow people to meet and develop friendships through the activity they are pursuing. Through the development of friendships people are able to develop trust and acceptance, increasing the network's stock of social capital (Lin, 2000). Networks are therefore a vehicle for social capital development through the friendships that are created (Torche & Valenzuela, 2011). Networks with a number of ties and strengths between

members are noticed by others. Such networks have close contacts where expectations are upheld by the use of sanctions and rewards (Coleman & Hoffman, 1987).

### **2.5.7 Social Capital Components - Conclusion**

Defining the components of social capital is important in developing a good understanding of the theory. From its varied nature and perceived functions highlighted in the literature it is imperative that the components are fully understood. Social capital has been defined in many ways, however mainly through its outcomes and components (Field, 2008; Putnam, 2000; Winter, 2000). It has been defined by its components through Putnam's view of the networks, norms, and trust, and the World Bank's view of the importance of the institutions, relationships and norms (Putnam, 1995; World Bank, 2000). Social capital and the components refer to an action such as trust and reciprocity, where someone takes a risk and gives something or performs an act of kindness for someone based on trust. This allows a person to help someone but not expect anything in return or if you help someone, maybe someone will help you when you need help. Through this action social capital is developed, and friendships are both strengthened and deepened. Components are briefly explained in Table 2.4 with examples of indicators and outcomes.

An understanding of social capital components is crucial to this research as the components were used to develop a scale and measure of social capital amongst leisure club members. The components were individually measured to provide a picture of how they varied, both by individual scores and then by individual club scores.

As this exploratory research developed a scale to measure social capital in leisure it is important to provide an understanding of the measurement of social capital to date and issues inherent in this task. Measurement of social capital is still in its early stages as there is not an agreed scale which has been developed. This further reflects the complex nature of the subject and lack of agreed, precise, definitions and measurement.

**Table 2.4 Components of Social Capital**

Definition	Component	Indicators	Outcomes
To take risks with people who are honest.	<b>Trust</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Most people can be trusted.</li> <li>• Can you leave your children with friends?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Safer communities.</li> <li>• Cleaner towns.</li> </ul>
To help someone and not expect a reward now.	<b>Reciprocity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• If you help someone, someone will help you</li> <li>• People here help each other</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supporting, helpful network.</li> </ul>
Unwritten rules of behaviour.	<b>Norms</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Here we help each other.</li> <li>• Our club welcomes new members.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Less need for rules.</li> <li>• Low crime rate.</li> </ul>
Show interest, and respect, so others are equal	<b>Tolerance/Acceptance</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We accept everyone as equals.</li> <li>• Everyone here is listened to.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Accepting, inclusive groups.</li> <li>• All equal.</li> </ul>
Rules and procedures Formal, elected members.	<b>Governance</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Everyone can make changes.</li> <li>• We discuss issues before voting.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transparent decisions.</li> <li>• Clear shared information.</li> </ul>
Caring people linked together.	<b>Friendship/networks</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• People visit ill friends</li> <li>• People have close friends</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• People feel valued</li> <li>• Strong social network</li> </ul>

## 2.6 Measurement of Social Capital

Social capital research has developed rapidly over the past ten years. However, the measurement of social capital remains in its early stages (Putnam, 2001). This assessment is attributed to a number of factors which make it difficult to obtain a good, clear understanding of the theory. Some of these factors include the nature of social capital and the fact that it has been studied across a range of disciplines including social science, economics and in the field of leisure studies (Claridge, 2004; Smith, 2009). The multidisciplinary nature means that definitions applied to social capital are influenced by the discipline conducting the research. For example, the field of economics sees the potential of social capital to affect economic output by requiring fewer checks for economic transactions to take place. They therefore define it according to an economic outcome. The involvement of many disciplines results in a number of definitions and the issue of a lack of an agreed, cross discipline definition of social capital (Claridge, 2004). Lack of consensus on its conceptualisation has caused confusion in the research adding to the numerous issues affecting its measurement (Rubasingha et al, 2006). See Table 2.5 items 1 and 2.

**Table 2.5 Social Capital Measurement Issues\***

	<b>Social Capital Measurement Issues</b>
1	Lack of a clear definition makes it difficult to measure
2	Its multidimensional nature results in various scales used as measures
3	The various types of social capital (ie bonding, bridging) make for confusion regarding measurement
4	The various components trust, and norms results in many indicators
5	Its interrelated components make it difficult to separate.
6	The components, are often called other names (ie elements) adding to confusion
7	Local measures versus regional measures create different issues
8	The measures are not transferrable so different scales are needed
9	Community versus individual measures require different measures
10	It is often measured by outcomes, such as safer streets not social capital itself
11	The use of single indicator is not rigorous enough
12	There are multiple indicators but no standard one and various measures
13	The role and importance of social networks is still not agreed upon

\*Adapted from Putnam, 2000; Onyx and Bullen 2001; Caveye, 2004; Franke, 2005

Social capital incorporates a range of issues affecting its measurement including; the various forms of social capital as discussed previously, such as bonded, bridging and linking social capital. Additional types such as thick and thin while closely related are used in a slightly different manner which affects the understanding and measurement of social capital (Putnam, 2001). See Table 2.5, item 3.

A number of issues with components exist. Some research list various numbers of components Putnam (2000) refers to six, Onyx and Bullen (2001) eight, and Sabatini (2009) subscribing to five dimensions and over two hundred indicators. The range and hierarchy of components also creates additional issues. Researchers such as Putnam (2000), refer to trust, norms, and networks, while Onyx and Bullen (2001) refer to trust, tolerance and social involvement as building blocks of social capital. Others measure engagement in the local area and social involvement (Guillen, Coromina, & Saris, 2011).

In much of the literature however, trust, networks, norms, and reciprocity are common (Halpern, 2005). In addition, the interrelated nature of social capital components causes complexities and problems with measurement: for example, measurement of 'trust' is closely correlated with measurement 'reciprocity' (Caveye, 2004). See Table 2.5, items 4 and 5.

Components are also referred to by different names with Onyx and Bullen (2000) calling them 'elements', Putnam (2000) 'factors', and 'characteristics' by Caveye (2004). This has caused additional issues in measurement due to this lack of clarity and agreement on components. In this study they are referred to as components of social capital. See Table 2.5, item 6.

Comparing research examining social capital in local communities and comparing this with regional or national research creates additional issues in measurement (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 1995). Local areas versus regional area social capital measurement results are sometimes less clear, due to different circumstances therefore querying the results (Franke, 2005; World Bank, 2000). See Table 2.5, item 7.

Measures and scales are often imported from other countries and do not always adapt to different locations or cultures (Harper 2002). For example, Putnam's measures may be able to be applied in the United States or Canada but not in northern Europe due to cultural or economic differences. In addition, use of measures from other areas may negate the local nature of social capital and a possible cultural set of characteristics (Field, 2008). See Table 2.5, item 8.

Social capital belonging to an individual or belonging to the community raises additional issues in measurement (Bourdieu, 1986; Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Measurement of this nature would require two sets of calculations and analysis. See Table 2.5, item 9.

These issues above are concerned both with social capital as a concept as well as issues relating to its measurement. Therefore, more work is needed to explore social capital differences between the types, components, its local and regional nature and transfer of indicators for its measurement (Putnam, 2001; Stone & Hughes, 2002).

Measurement of social capital was queried by Paxton (1999), and the use of questionable indicators (sometimes outcomes) to measure social capital (Claridge, 2004). With its unclear definition and understanding she questioned the use of outcomes as appropriate to measure social capital. This refers to the inability to differentiate what social capital is or what it is made up of, where it is initiated or originates from, and the results or consequences it can produce (Claridge, 2004; Paxton, 1999). Some research confuses social capital and its components with its outcomes therefore allowing indicators such as ‘safe neighbourhoods’, or ‘teenage pregnancy’ to lead measurement, not social capital itself (Sabatini, 2009). This is outcome focused and does not measure the source(s) of social capital and should be resisted (Adam & Roncevic, 2003, Sabatini, 2009). See Table 2.5, item 10.

Social capital’s complex nature does not allow it to be measured by a single measure or indicator (Stone, 2002; Harper, 2002) but requires a range of indicators to measure it (Claridge, 2004; Putnam, 2001). Which indicator(s) are appropriate to use to measure social capital is another issue which needs to be addressed (Collier, 2002). See Table 2.5, item 11.

These conceptual issues have resulted in the current situation where there is confusion in assessing its potential and various characteristics (Durlauf 1999; Falk & Harrison, 1998). There are however selected models of measurement which do fulfil the research aims of particular research in specific project settings (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Grootaert, Van Bastelaer, & World Bank, 2002; Putnam, 2001; Sabatini, 2009). However, there is still no one clear accepted standard of measure across the field which may be due to the issues already discussed (Daniel, 2009). See Table 2.5, item 12.

In addition, there is an issue with the role and importance of social networks in the theory of social capital. See Table 2.5, item 13 and discussion below.

Thus the current gap between a clear understanding of social capital from its theoretical perspective and its measurement has affected empirical research adding to the lack of clarity between meaning and measurement (Stone, 2001). This confusion between understanding its form or what is social capital, its source or what produces it, and the

consequence or outcomes are current issues (Adam & Roncevic, 2003; Onyx & Bullen, 2001; Sobels et al, 2001). This can be illustrated by trust which is referred to as a component of social capital in the literature. However, Fuyukara (1995), sees it as being social capital, Putnam (1993a) sees it as being a source of social capital, Coleman (1988) believes it is a form of social capital, and Lin (2001) sees trust as being an asset. Therefore, trust is considered to have a range of functions including social capital, source, as well as being important to its existence (Field, 2008). In this research trust will be seen as a component of social capital.

### **2.6.1 Measurement Models**

Significant interest in social capital is shown today from diverse sectors, reflecting the need for measurement and any possible change over time as crucial for the field. As highlighted the literature suggests that finding a true measure may not be possible or warranted due to the multidimensional nature and unclear multiple meanings of social capital (Field, 2008; Knack & Keefer, 1997). Measurement often employs quantitative measures as a proxy such as the number of people voting, or measuring social connections to indicate social capital's existence (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 2001). The literature also refers to a number of researchers using qualitative measures (Portes, 1998).

Three social scientists defined social capital today as we know it. The work of Bourdieu (1986) is based primarily on theoretical perspectives with little observed analysis (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). Coleman (1988), measured social capital within families using the presence of the adults and the attention a child receives as his indicators of social capital existence. He compared children of single parent and dual parent families, and the number of children in a family to quantify social capital levels which he equated as attention received (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). The third, Putnam, (2001), initially used an instrument which used membership data of voluntary organisations from surveys such as World Values Survey (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). He analysed past membership of people in local clubs especially service clubs, and volunteer organisations and noted significant declines over time in club membership, volunteering, and community trust (Putnam, 1995, 2000). Putnam measured network volunteering and voting and reported that community life was on the decline (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). This measurement

model did not allow for increased, new social capital over time and was criticised because of its use of secondary data. This data used club membership from the World Values Survey which was not specifically designed to measure social capital. This resulted in the measurement, and conclusions being vigorously debated (Abbott, 2009).

The work of Coleman and Putnam forms much of the basis of the current original research in social capital theory and measurement (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). Putnam's work focussed on behaviour through attitudinal and viewpoint changes measured through surveys (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). He used trust, norms, values, and volunteering as components composed of 14 measures for his indicators (Martinez, & Kumar, 2009). This extended the work of Fukuyama (1995) who used one indicator, trust, to measure social capital. Use of a single indicator to measure social capital has been unable to address its complex nature or allow others factors to emerge and may lead to spurious findings (Paxton, 1999). Other research used trust and civic norms from the World Values survey with several indicators as measures (Adam & Roncevic, 2003). Paxton used two components, friendships or links between people measured by contact with each other and trust in people and in organisations. This was modified by Onyx and Bullen (2000) and Skocpol (2003). Onyx and Bullen initially used a scale composed of 68 questions (social capital indicators) listed under eight social capital components in their research. Conversely, Skocpol (2003) measured informal advocacy groups and disputed Putnam's view regarding lower volunteering levels and stated that changes may result from people's other volunteer affiliations. He felt they were moving away from local organised networks such as Rotary, to looser national groups such as the American Association of Retired People (AARP). However, Skocpol (2003), also looked at income and noted there were fewer support and advocacy options for Americans on lower incomes which resulted in reduced participation in the community and lower social capital for this group.

The empirical research and testing of indicators does not always indicate a strong connection between measures and social capital theory. A range of models reflects the abstract nature of social capital and the sometimes inconsistency between various efforts to quantify the theory (Liu & Besser, 2003; Paxton, 1999; Stone, 2001).

### 2.6.2 Measurement Issues

The lack of definition and measurement makes social capital very different from economic or physical capital. Physical capital is evident in buildings, infrastructure and can be quantified by the miles of roads, or the number of buildings, providing a concise tangible and easy to understand measure. Economic capital is measured by Gross National Product (GDP) which is a precise figure, with clear and agreed components (Pande, 2009). Measurement of economic activity includes sales output, wealth (individual income or property), and number of jobs or businesses (Weisbrod & Weisbrod, 1997). Like social capital, economic capital can be linked to an outcome or benefit. These include house prices or low unemployment reflecting a good economy. However, because economic capital is measured in finite terms, such as GDP or the number of cars sold, it is different to social capital and more easily understood (Weisbrod & Weisbrod, 1997). Social capital and its outcomes are often intangible such as trust, or the norms of a group, and therefore difficult to quantify.

Researchers have used social capital factors such as trust or reciprocity to show a relationship between these and education levels or feeling of safety in an area (Putnam, 2000). Figures are often compared with measured levels of social capital and behaviour of residents in an area such as the number of those not paying taxes (Putnam, 2001). This extrapolation of outcome based measurement attempts to connect social capital and the outcome of better quality in communities (Szreter, 1998). Measurement of this nature is often driven by government policies reflecting outcomes based on the notion that social capital can improve the quality of life, support economic growth, tolerance, and can lead to an improved perception of community safety levels (ABS, Australia 2006; Adams & Wiseman, 2002; British Roundtable Discussion, 2002). Measurement therefore is based on a need to assess outcomes and confirm if theory underlying policy is right and this gives policy analysts and government workers direction in planning (Adams & Wiseman, 2002; Caveye, 2004; Putnam, 2001). This can result in analysis more focused on measuring outcomes rather than social capital itself raising questions of the robustness of indicators used (Caveye, 2004). Mixing functional outcomes such as safety, with causal or literal concepts such as trust which are inferred and not tested, leaves an inconsistency of measurement across studies (Liu & Besser, 2003). Therefore, the research and

measurement is still in its early stages and this view has been static for some time (Stone, 2001; Caveye, 2004; Sabatini, 2009).

It is often argued that high trust reflects positive demographic factors such as low crime rates as an outcome of social capital. This may be true but can be complicated if a measure of social capital (trust) is used as an indicator of social capital itself and linked to an outcome such as a low crime rate. Researchers must understand what they are seeking and scrutinize the method(s) they employ to ensure they are actually measuring social capital through trust and the outcome is a result of social capital and or trust and not due to other factors (Claridge, 2004; Inkelse, 2000; White; 2002).

Therefore, social capital's multiple dimensions creates significant issues requiring sets of indicators in order to be effective (Cox & Caldwell, 2000, Putnam, 2001; Stone, 2001; Sabatini, 2009). Measurement should reflect the debate about social capital itself and whether it is possible to measure it at an individual, network group, or at the community level (Baum & Ziersch, 2003). Thus, social capital should be measured for itself through aspects such as high trust, or measuring the level of the component before explaining its effect or potential outcome it may have (Durlauf, 1999; Falk & Harrison, 1998).

### **2.6.3 Measurement Through Networks, Components, and Indicators**

Burt (2002), measured social capital and networks and found that network social capital revolves around structural holes. He found that a person, such as an office bearer, can benefit from being near a structural hole in a network. For instance, a club secretary may meet with other clubs and develop friendships which can provide valuable support and information when needed, as opposed to ordinary members of the secretary's club who do not have this same access. People near a hole enjoy benefits and have a wider network to access. Large, dense networks with hierarchies have fewer structural holes, which results in reduced social capital levels (Adam & Roncevic, 2003).

While networks are accepted as components of social capital (Putnam, 2000), there is not agreement on their importance and role and they are sometimes seen as only the mechanisms or setting where social capital begins (OECD, 2001b). The British Household Survey Panel focussed on social capital in networks using questions based on

social capital themes (Blaxter, Poland & Curran, 2001). These results were questioned as networks are accepted as conduits for social capital development by some, but focussing on networks elevates their importance and prominence in the empirical literature (Abbott, 2009). Bourdieu, Coleman and Putnam never agreed on the role and significance of social networks (Abbott, 2009). Bourdieu noted their importance in providing social connections which benefit the individual. Coleman saw their importance for containing and upholding rules of behaviour, and Putnam initially saw them as a vehicle for participation with trust and reciprocity (Abbott, 2009). However Putnam (2000), revisited his earlier analysis accepting social networks as being social capital, and a conduit for components such as trust to occur. Social capital depends on relationships which support social networks and networks provide the environment for social capital to develop (OECD, 2001b). Researchers agree now that social networks play a significant role as a force and catalyst in the development of social capital and they should be given greater importance in the literature (Abbott, 2009; Putnam, 2000; Snijders, 1999).

Social capital deals with value judgements rather than concrete concepts and this is why studies using only one component such as trust, are too simplistic to effectively measure social capital (Paxton, 1999; Stone, 2001). Components such as trust are headings which have a number of questions clustered underneath (Onyx & Bullen, 1999). An example includes, 'Do you feel most people can be trusted?', or 'Is there someone in the club that you could leave your children with when you go away suddenly?' are associated with the component trust. Items used to measure social capital components are not separate identities but are related to each other (Caveye, 2004). This is known as the general social capital factor and refers to the common theme running through people's responses (Onyx & Bullen, 1999). When you measure the latent component trust and its indicators, you also are measuring the components friendship, reciprocity, and therefore their indicators which demonstrates the close relationship between indicators and components (Caveye, 2004). Components and indicators such as trust, reciprocity and norms of behaviour are not separate entities but are linked together and also linked with friendship and support. Therefore, all are interrelated (Caveye, 2004). Social capital incorporates multiple sources of information from different disciplines and leads to further questions concerning techniques used to develop standard measurement tools. Research needs to

incorporate multiple indicator scales to adequately measure social capital (Stone, 2001). In this research a scale was devised comprising six factors which became five components of social capital. These address the issue of the inter-related nature of social capital components.

## 2.6.4 Approaches Used in Measuring Social Capital

**Table 2.6 Social Capital Measurement Methods Employed \***

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed methods
Narayan & Pritchett, 1997	Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993	Onyx & Bullen, 2000
Grootaert, Narayan, Nyan-Jones and Woolcock, 2001	Arai & Pedlar, 2003	Stone & Hughes, 2002
Stone 2001	(Mattsson, Stenbacka & Stenbacka, 2003b).	Moore et al, 2005
Grootaert and Van Bastelaer, World Bank 2002	Caveye, 2004	Tonts, 2005
Okayasu; Kawahara and Nogawa, 2010	Rohe, 2004	Van Der Gaag & Snijders 2005
Sabatini, 2009	Misener & Doherty, 2012	Brown 2008

\*Adapted Franke, 2005; Onyx and Bullen, 2001

Measurement of social capital has employed a range of methods which include both quantitative methods using a scale (questionnaire) and qualitative methods (interviews and focus groups). Some studies employed a mixed method model (see Table 2.6).

### 2.6.4a Quantitative Methods

The literature refers to a number of studies employing quantitative methods with a scale (questionnaire) to measure social capital as listed in Table 2.6. Narayan and Pritchett (1997), measured social capital in rural Tanzania, and used data from the Tanzania Social Capital and Poverty Survey (SCPS). Others including Stone (2001), Grootaert, Van Bastelaer & World Bank (2002), and Sabatini (2009) also employed quantitative methods using indicators and large samples. The use of quantitative measures in empirical research is an important method in theory testing and is especially suited to social capital (Onyx & Bullen, 2001). Recent quantitative research on sport clubs in Japan and their social capital development used three components with indicator statements measuring each component (Okayasu, Kawahara & Nogawa, 2010). Quantitative measurement of social capital is often based on the use of existing scales (questions) with good

psychometrics to measure mental abilities, attitudes and viewpoints. The literature also refers to much of the research being based on using secondary data measured through key indicators such as trust and not measuring social capital directly, but making inferences from its perceived outcomes (Grootaert et al. 2002; Narayan & Cassidy, 2001). Scales exist to measure social capital but often measure it from the discipline that they are from such as from a sociological or economic perspective. Although a large number of diverse measures for social capital exist, there is no agreed scale across the field (Danial, 2009). However, surveys designed for empirical measurement of social capital have been developed and used, including by Onyx and Bullen (2001), Okayasu, Kawahara and Nogawa (2010). Others (not listed in Table 2.6), such as Krishna and Shrader (1999), have used quantitative measurements of social capital. While quantitative methods can provide significant data, the issue of current indicators has not developed sufficiently for the task, as has been reported in Japan (Numerato, 2008; Inaba & Yamaguchi, 2009). Therefore, quantitative measures may be limited in studying a complex theory like social capital and should be augmented with aspects of qualitative methods (Caveye, 2004).

#### **2.6.4b Qualitative Methods**

The literature also notes research employing qualitative methods to better understand social capital concepts (Portes & Sensenbrenner, 1993). Statistical analysis of data is not able to provide an understanding of the depth and richness of community life in general let alone the workings of people in groups accessing benefits in these networks (Arai & Pedlar, 2003). Qualitative methods can provide a suitable understanding of social capital and are recommended by Caveye, (2004), and Rohe, (2004). Therefore, interviews and focus groups have been used to obtain qualitative feedback regarding social capital (Onyx & Bullen, 1997, 2000; Caveye, 2004; Tonts, 2005). In Sweden, qualitative research on gender and social capital employed these methods to explore the relationship of work and voluntary roles in social capital creation (Mattsson, Stenbacka & Stenbacka, 2003b). Misener and Doherty (2012) conducted observations and interviews with local clubs for their exploratory research on social capital. Qualitative data is also important and useful in developing theory and survey items for logically based empirical research (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Creswell, 1994; Rohe, 2004; Veal et al, 2013).

#### **2.6.4c Mixed Methods**

The nature of social capital has encouraged some research to employ mixed methods incorporating both qualitative and quantitative methods see Table 2.6 (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Hughes & Black, 2000; ABS 2004; Stone & Hughes, 2002). In the Netherlands, development of the Resource Generator to measure social capital was conducted by Van Der Gaag and Snijders, (2005). They used a mixed research method employing both interviews and delivery of questionnaires to a large sample to generate a significant amount of data for the quantitative phase of their research. Further studies of social capital among seniors have also used mixed method of qualitative-quantitative-qualitative (Moore et Al, 2005). In Australia, Tonts (2005), used a mixed method approach to study country sport clubs in Western Australia and it provided significant detail and understanding of the theory. Others, such as Brown (2008) used a mixed method approach. Mixed method allows for a combined approach to strengthen each method overcoming any weakness and therefore building on the strengths of each one (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Creswell, 2005). The support and strengthening that each method provides to the other increases validity and reliability (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). In this PhD a mixed method was employed to provide a greater understanding of social capital and to assist with the development of the scale. The application of this method is explained in 3.4.

#### **2.6.5 Indicator Analysis Issues**

Governments want community outcomes such as safety or volunteering to provide answers to issues (Harper, 2002) however, the use of a small number of indicators fails to assess a complex theory like social capital and focussing on outcomes does not analyse the process or the cause (Fields, 2008; Harper, 2002).

Stone and Hughes (2002) attempted to address some of these issues by recognising social capital's multidisciplinary nature, the shortcomings of a single indicator, and developed a working definition of its components such as networks, trust and reciprocity. They explored the quality of networks and suggested a series of items combining factors, such as trust, reciprocity, and the level of network connections should be employed in social capital measurement (Stone & Hughes, 2002).

### 2.6.6 Scale Development Models

The literature notes research measuring social capital through the development of scales reflecting its conceptual nature (Grootaert, Van Bastelaer, & World Bank, 2002; Krishna & Sharder 1999; Narayan & Pritchett 1999; Onyx & Bullen 2000; Van Der Gaag, & Snijders, 2005; Western, 2000). When these researchers began their analysis they needed to develop their own scale of measurement due to a dearth of existing surveys measuring social capital (World Bank Group, 2002). Therefore, much of the social capital measurement research explores existing data sets which include social capital components in order to find indicators (Sabatini, 2009; Taylor et al; 2006). These initiatives reflect particular perspectives of social capital and incorporate scale items reflecting a particular concept. Factor analysis or multiple factor analysis (MFA) with reliability tests are used to search for indicators which combine or load into a 'unified' whole (Abdi, Williams, & Valentin, 2013; Sabatini, 2009). Use of factor analysis allows for a reduction of variables making for a simpler scale to measure social capital (Paldam & Svedsen, 2002). Table 2.7 lists some of the components and indicators used by Onyx and Bullen (2000).

**Table 2.7 Social Capital Factors and Scale Items\***

<b>Social Capital-Trust and safety</b>
1. Do you feel safe walking down the street at night?
2. Do you feel that most people can be trusted?
3. If someone's car breaks down outside your house do you invite them in to use your phone?
4. Does your local community feel like home?
<b>Tolerance of Diversity</b>
1. Do you think that multiculturalism makes life in your area better?
2. Do you enjoy living among people of different lifestyles?

\*Adapted from Onyx and Bullen, (2000)

In Australia, the work of Onyx and Bullen (2000), reflects an attempt to define social capital and develop a scale to measure its components. Their use of mixed methods with interviews provided an understanding of social capital in a local setting and possible items for a scale. Through factor analysis a scale was developed which focused strongly on local participation in the community, proactive behaviour in the social group, and feelings of trust and safety (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). They employed inter item reliability

and correlation tests using Cronbach's Alpha, and their robust scale has provided a framework and direction for a number of other research initiatives (Stone, 2001; Franke, 2005; Abbott, 2009).

In 2010, Okayasu, Kawahara, and Nogawa conducted research in Japan on community sport clubs and social capital. They developed a scale from the literature to measure social capital differences employing t-tests to note any differences, and used One-way ANOVA to measure the effect of location of clubs and social capital. In their analysis they conducted measurements for validity and reliability using Cronbach's alpha which resulted in a significant study of social capital and sport clubs. These two studies provide a clear direction for any new research undertaken which would analyse social capital in various local areas or in specific sectors such as sport and leisure. However, measuring individual, group, or local area social capital will need further refinement of techniques and the different types of social capital, such as thick, or thin, increase the complexity raising the need for further scale development.

### **2.6.7 Conclusion of Measurement**

The lack of consistency and unified approach for measuring social capital differentiates it from economic and human capital which has been successfully measured (Danial, 2009). This also causes empirical confusion regarding what it means, what it provides in terms of outcomes, and its importance and soundness in being applied in a number of areas. The importance and understanding, of social capital is much less advanced than for other types of capital. Social capital is based on people, their relationships and their values, so it needs to be measured through the components that contribute to it. The use of a varied tool that measures what people's attitudes and expectations are, what they say they do, their values and what they interpret is needed to understand and measure the complexity of social capital (Claridge, 2004; Van der Gaag, & Snijders, 2004; Winter, 2000). A meta-analysis of research notes the growing gap between what we understand as being social capital and how it is measured (Danial, 2009; Franke, 2005). This results in an issue in some empirical work on the value of measuring social capital according to its theory and make up rather than on its outcomes (Danial, 2009). Measurement of social capital is at a crucial stage, where new theory and concepts have been developed which

have not been tested (Franke, 2005). There needs to be greater focus on empirical research based on analysis of social capital linking it to the theory and separate it from its outcomes (Franke, 2005; Grootaert et al. 2004; Stone, 2001). The work of Putnam (2000) and Sabatini (2009), raised the profile of social capital and its indicators however, there now exists a great need for consensus through empirical research (Abbott, 2009; Taylor, Williams, Dal Grande & Herriot, 2006).

The next section will discuss the field of leisure and social capital which has had until recently little research and is the main sector of this research.

## **2.7 Social Capital and Leisure**

An early reference to the possible connection between leisure and social capital occurred in Robert Putnam's ground-breaking study of Italy in 1993. He noted that government reform succeeded better in areas where high numbers of associations existed such as choral groups and soccer clubs. He reported the connection between large numbers of these clubs and a higher sense of trust and civic responsibility (Putnam, 1993a).

Putnam's work was an important impetus for this thesis. Clubs of this nature identified for this research include sport and recreation (leisure) clubs, where people freely decide to join, contribute, and use club facilities (Heineman, 1999). Putnam raised a possible link and connection between social capital and leisure clubs which should be examined further.

Beginning with Hemingway's (1999) examination of social capital as a primary linkage between leisure and democratic citizenship, leisure researchers have increasingly focused on the connection between social capital and leisure (Arai, 2000; Arai & Pedlar, 2003; Blackshaw & Long, 2005; Coalter, 2007; Glover, 2004; Hemingway, 2006; Jarvie, 2003; Rojek, 2000). Social capital has in fact been invoked as a central organising concept in recent calls for new directions within leisure research (Hemingway, 2006).

Despite this increased attention, social capital remains surprisingly under-examined in leisure studies given the attention its connections with leisure have garnered in other fields (Putnam, 2000; Lindstrom, Moghaddassi & Merlo, 2004; Rohe, 2004; Warde & Tampubolon, 2002). The numerous references connecting leisure and social capital

therefore were instrumental in initiating the impetus for this research project (Hemingway, 1999; Putnam, 2000; Zakus et, al.2009). This section will describe the role of leisure in recent research in social capital and discuss some of these issues.

### **2.7.1 Leisure, Networks, and Components**

Social Capital involves connections between individuals that allow participants to act together to pursue something they choose (Putnam, 1995). Conversely, the principle of free choice to partake in a leisure activity is significant to leisure theory providing the opportunity for participants to engage. Leisure and freedom of choice are important with intrinsic motivation as cornerstones of leisure theory (Nuelinger, 1974).

People join a lacrosse team to play and learn more about the game of choice, lacrosse and it provides the individual the opportunity to learn the game but also to meet a number of people as players, coaches, and administrators working together (Putnam, 1995). This is one of the important aspects of leisure as it attracts people and brings them together to do something together. It gives the person a network. Leisure clubs are organised formal activity networks which provide a range of choice and types of participation options for people doing (achieving) something together (Putnam, 2000). These include the harmonies of a choral society singing together creating something of value or a soccer club celebrating a successful tournament (Putnam, 2000). Clubs provide a significant number of options for participation and volunteering in the community increasing social interaction and improving one's quality of life (General Social Survey, ABS, 2005). The involvements can increase an individual's network of contacts through team sport and recreation allowing them to develop friendships and bonding them together as part of a team. In this context the friendship-networks allow participants to work together for the common good of the team, sharing, depending on one another while developing relationships (Putnam, 1995;).

Much of the discussion of sport and recreation looks closely at the activities and success or failure of individuals and teams and has not noted the social aspect of leisure and what it provides. This is now slowly being addressed through research (Hemingway, 1999).

In Japan the National Survey on Lifestyle Preference (2007), reported that a significant number of respondents had no close relationships with neighbours. There was discussion of the possible role that sport clubs might play to bring people together and the government believed that sport can provide this deeper connection and exchange between people (Okayasu, Kawahara, & Nogawa, 2010). This supports earlier statements in this thesis, that leisure clubs being formal social networks provide the activity of choice, connections between individuals, and access to support, information, and other goods such as assistance in buying a car (Hoye, & Nicholson, 2008; Field, 2008).

For social capital to develop requires human and financial capital expended in a leisure club through volunteers and infrastructure (Sharpe, 2006). Further research found bonding, support and sense of belonging enhanced by people involved in leisure activities (Nilsson et al, 2006). Activities bond people together which can support bridging social capital between other activity groups with loose overlapping networks and provide trust and reciprocity not just within the initial group but between other activity groups (Harris, 1998; Putnam, 1995).

Social capital is present in the leisure club networks and can play an important role in people's leisure choices as it brings people together providing support and friendships (Maynard & Kleiber, 2005). Leisure has the capacity to support and nurture new friendships between people who might not normally meet with the social connections allowing for social capital to occur through the development of close bonds (Gittell & Vidal, 1998; Son, Yarnal; & Kerstetter, 2010). Creation and maintenance of social ties through involvement contributes to trust, commitment, and a sense of connection (Glover & Hemingway, 2005; Misener, & Doherty 2009; Seippel, 2006; Wood, & Driscoll, 1999). Clubs provide a setting where people participate which can influence individual values, attitudes, and behaviours (Cheek & Burch, 1976; Sharpe, 2006). Research on leisure clubs has noted the development of shared values among club members with significant dedication to the club and the community it represents (Doherty & Carron, 2003). Furthermore Uslander (1999), stated that sport builds social capital by building self-confidence and a respect for rules. Club members express strong altruistic reasons for serving their club by helping young people and providing others services (Doherty,

2003; Misener, & Doherty, 2009). Respect, trust, and openness were especially cited in research as important in building networks and relationships in leisure clubs (Cousens et al., 2006). As discussed previously (2.2.4.) club members support each other by providing advice and support to another member when it is needed (Field, 2008). This is an aspect of leisure club involvement not always reported, support to individuals' for good works (favours) given in an altruistic manner supporting reciprocity.

Research therefore, links leisure with building new friendships and social connections and as reported putting it in the social policy agenda as an 'asset' to address social issues (Coalter, 2007; Vermeulen & Verweel, 2009). Thus leisure and its role in social capital development can strengthen community infrastructure and has been raised earlier regarding the Victorian Government (Adams & Wiseman, 2002; Cuskelly, 2007; Misener, & Doherty, 2009; Maxwell & Taylor, 2010; Seippel, 2006; Tonts, 2005; Zakus, et al., 2009). However, while evidence suggests that social capital can address community issues this should be backed by research that shows evidence of these benefits (Coalter, 2007; Holmes & Slater, 2008; Hoye & Nicholson, 2008). In addition, while leisure increases a sense of community and social capital through numerous social networks, further research is needed to understand how this process works (Coalter, 2007; Walseth, 2008; Zakus, et al., 2009). While leisure provides both large and small groups for networks and social capital to develop, significant research has not yet targeted the process or the factors resulting in increased social capital and its benefits (Coalter, 2007; Walseth, 2008; Zakus, et al., 2009).

Leisure clubs and their role in social capital can vary as clubs with strong bonding social capital do not necessarily add to social inclusion but may develop into segregated groups suspicious of outsiders (Coalter, 2007; Forrest & Kearns, 1999; Tonts, 2005). In analysing relationships between trust and involvement in clubs in Sweden and Germany Stolle (1998), noted bonded groups were low in general trust with more diverse groups with weaker ties having a more outward vision. This viewpoint is supported by Auld (2008), questioning the ability of leisure clubs to develop bonding and bridging social capital and the ability to be inclusive. Some clubs therefore, may illustrate strong bonding within while others have looser ties with bridging social capital and some have

both (Walseth, 2008). However, as stated, this research will not measure the difference between bonding and bridging social capital but analyses clubs through components such as acceptance which is a component of social capital and often linked to weaker ties (Harvey, Levesque & Donnelly, 2007; Lawson, 2005; Putnam, 2000; Nichols, Tacon & Muir, 2012)

Other research has noted members of leisure clubs being more engaged in civic matters such as voting and signing petitions in their local communities (Delaney & Kearney, 2005). While sport clubs contribute to general trust they do so at a lower rate than other organisations but they also result in people being connected and active (Seippel 2006). In relation to local clubs Zakus et al. (2009) noted their perceived role in possible delivery of social capital. Whereas Perks (2007), noted the role clubs provide in allowing young people to become involved and integrating them in to the community through playing sport and volunteering which continues through life. Leisure clubs provide a vehicle for volunteering, reciprocity and governance and are important in the community. They also provide acceptance of others in the group another important component. Formal clubs in the study provide a permanent setting for involvement to occur through a number of generations and are crucial to the research and measurement of social capital.

In Australia leisure activity provided through the club system may be important in supporting and establishing greater community building and social connectedness.

### **2.7.2 The Australian Context**

Australians value their leisure and in 2012 over 65% of Australians participated in sport and active recreation. Approximately 27% based their participation in organised clubs (ABS, 2006). The Australian context of organised leisure and social capital must be understood in the club system (Australian Sports Commission, 2013). Sport and recreation clubs in Australia operate on a community development model where volunteer members run and organise much of the club operation themselves. Each club is an incorporated group and in most situations a part of a state association (Australian Sports Commission, 2013; Sport & Recreation Industry Directory, 2001/2002). In clubs the activity draws people together and while it is uncertain if the clubs can generate social capital, Perks (2007) notes that leisure has the ability to foster its development.

Voluntary associations (clubs) are often referred to as a source of social capital creation (Fields, 2003). In addition, in Canada Doherty and Misener (2008), suggest social capital as a benefit of social networks through the club system. While leisure clubs are made up of individuals who eventually leave and are replaced by new members, the clubs continue as they have an ongoing life with new people joining replacing those who leave. Thus, local leisure clubs are capable of accumulating social capital over long periods and maintaining it as noted in Australian research (Zakus et al., 2009). Long term involvement of volunteers in leisure clubs has been reported as supporting social capital (Harvey et al, 2007). It appears until recently that researchers have overlooked not just leisure and social capital but leisure clubs and their ability to generate social capital. Research by Driscoll and Woods (1999), provided an early insight into leisure club social capital in western Victoria. However, the release of the book *Sport and Social Capital* by Nicholson and Hoye (2008), supports and explores this connection of leisure and social capital creation and has increased the attention of research in these areas.

Sport is an iconic part of Australian life and researchers have already pointed to sport and recreation clubs as being good club models, and contributing to an egalitarian community (Cashman, 2002; Elkington, 1982; Hoye & Nicholson, 2011). However, many clubs are made up of people very similar (homophilic) in their background, lifestyles, and shared values and may not be accepting of people who are different (Atherly, 2006; Nichols, Tacon, & Muir, 2012; Tonts, 2005). Clubs of this nature accept people much like themselves but are not accepting of people who are different. Networks and friendships do not develop that encourage members to change their attitudes and views and accept people over time who are different. Members must move outside their normal circles by bridging out, to accept a new group of people. Social capital appears to create opportunities for this to occur and this has been articulated in the literature (Coalter, 2007), with research of this nature recently increasing with (Nicholson, Brown & Hoye, 2013) in Australia. It has been suggested that due to the importance given to sport in Australia it is paramount that sport and social capital be investigated further (Zakus et al, 2009). Therefore, the selection of a sample group for this research comprised of members of both local sport and recreation clubs will address some of these gaps that exist in the current literature.

Research addressing the gap in social capital research and leisure especially through local leisure clubs would make a valuable contribution to the current body of research. This research project provides a scale measure of social capital in clubs and also a picture of social capital differences along descriptive characteristics including gender, age, income and education thereby assisting with a greater understanding of social capital existence in leisure.

## **2.8 Research Direction**

This section outlines the direction for analysis in this PhD. It includes factors and characteristics which were investigated in regard to social capital including demographic characteristics and the context of the discipline of leisure which incorporates sport and recreation. While leisure organisations are seen as a source of social capital the amount generated may vary depending on a number of factors such as gender, size of organisation, social resources, and philosophical focus (Auld, 2007; Coalter, 2007; Pearsson, 2008).

### **2.8.1 Demographic Characteristic Analysis**

Due to the small but growing research in social capital and leisure, it was important to explore descriptive characteristics in this empirical research to explain possible social capital differences and provide further information to the literature. Previous research by Onyx and Bullen (2000) did not find demographic factors affecting social capital while Okayasu et al., (2010) did find appreciable differences in gender and social capital and its factors. In regard to social capital variation the areas of gender, income, education, and age were used in this research as they represent classic areas of difference used in social research. This research looked at social capital from different perspectives to note any variation. Due to the lack of research regarding club participants in leisure and social capital the research needed to explore these variables and their possible effect on both overall social capital and difference within social capital factors.

Regarding income a statistically significant negative relationship was noted between income and social capital levels and this research will add to the body of research.

### 2.8.1a Gender

Leisure clubs provide significant opportunities for volunteerism and are one of the main areas of male involvement in volunteer settings (ABS, 2006). Male friendships generally revolve around particular involvements or activity friends where activities are undertaken in a club setting. Examples include playing on a soccer team or a joining a group of poker playing friends (Block, 1980). Women have more friends, are close and show emotional attachments, while men help and assist each other (Bell, 1981). Leisure clubs provide opportunities for support and development of trust while members undertake an activity, and the activities predominate over interpersonal relationships (Traustadottir, 2004).

Social capital and the networks it supports and develops may suit males in clubs who are involved in other linked pursuits, such as through their businesses or their jobs (Mattsson, Stenbacka, & Stenbacka, 2003a). In this research an important part of the analysis was the comparison of possible gender differences regarding leisure club social capital.

Recreation clubs, for example cross country skiing clubs, focus on the intrinsic experience and freedom of the activity itself (Czikszentmihalyi, 1991; Kelly, 1987). In recreation, people focus on the activity for its own sake as it provides relaxation and fun, is enjoyable with fewer rules, and is very different from sport competition (Kleiber, Larson, & Czikszentmihalyi, 1986; Rossman, & Schlatter, 2008). This research will explore and note any possible differences in social capital between sport and recreation clubs.

Social capital research itself has been criticised by Lowndes (2000), as too male focused and that more research should examine female social capital. Therefore, research indicates that men accept challenge, are competitive, and sit on boards at work and in their leisure (Mattsson, Stenbacka, & Stenbacka, 2003a). Women generally are more nurturing and socially oriented, and may be affected by social stereotypes effecting social capital (Havighurst, 1957; Kamberidou & Patsadaras, 2007). Volunteer roles in clubs are sometimes still traditionally female-dominated, with women likely to serve and prepare food in clubs. Conversely, men are twice as likely to coach a sport club as a woman (ABS, 2006; Tonts, 2005). However, female nature in leisure may make them more instrumental than men in developing social capital in clubs and this was investigated. Therefore, these

characteristics were important in providing a picture of leisure club social capital research (Okayasu, Kawahara & Nogawa, 2010; Seippel, 2006; Tonts, 2005).

### **2.8.1b Age**

Regarding age, Hartley (1989), highlighted the importance of close relationships, trust, and involvement in leisure and the community as being important for young adults.

Research suggests that older people reduce their involvement in leisure as they age and their social interactions also are reduced (Iso-Ahola, 1980b; McDonald & Mair, 2010).

The current limited research on age and social capital indicates somewhat mixed results and demonstrates the need for further research. This is supported by Schaefer-McDaniel (2004) who points out that more research should be conducted regarding social capital and young adults. The characteristic of age was analysed to note differences between members of clubs related to age.

### **2.8.1c Income**

At present there is limited research reflecting income and social capital levels. Much of the current research analysed income and social capital in third world regions with research in developed countries being overlooked (Grootaert, et al, 2002). However, Bjornskov's (2002) research links social capital and income production in Denmark. The research suggests individuals believe in institutions and desire supportive friendships with members of their groups for support and assistance in life. Research has shown that people on middle incomes and above prefer more and different choices in leisure, while those on lower incomes prefer familiar choices (Snibbe & Markus, 2005; Stephens, Markus & Townsend, 2007). As such income was explored in the analysis of the sample in this research to provide further perspective in this area.

### **2.8.1d Education**

The effect of education on social capital levels has not been significantly measured.

Research on social capital and education in the United States indicates higher levels of schooling reflecting lower social capital levels and volunteering (Putnam, 2000). This may indicate a negative relationship between social capital and education. In the literature higher education often reflects weaker ties, larger networks and limited club

involvement compared to people with lower education and fewer networks (Florida, 2002). Higher education may reflect less of a need for deeper involvement in a club as these participants have a range of 'looser social connections' (Florida, 2002). Education as a characteristic was therefore analysed in the main study phase of this research.

### **2.8.1e Other Factors**

In addition to these demographic factors other possible factors effecting social capital levels were examined. These include clubs with club rooms, those with junior teams, clubs with social committees and those clubs which have close relationships to their local council. This analysis provides additional information of interest for clubs, government, and the literature and was initiated from qualitative research (Driscoll & Woods, 1999; User Friendly Sport Clubs, 2002).

### **2.8.2 Research Objectives and Directions**

This section will provide detail of the main aspects of the research. Due to the complexity and undefined nature of social capital a mixed method approach was employed to increase reliability and rigour. Use of qualitative feedback was used particularly to address the nature and components of social capital and assist in separating its interdependent indicators. Therefore this research employed triangulation with qualitative input through a verbal method, linked with a quantitative section using a scale to increase reliability and validity.

This research addresses some of the gaps that currently exist in the understanding of social capital, its measurement, and its components through leisure clubs and the mixed methods delivery provided an additional, valuable asset, to current research in the field.

A review of methods employed in the social capital literature to date supports the need for a study with a wide focus employing mixed methods and providing further understanding of social capital from a local perspective (Caveye, 2004). It also highlights the fact that no one measurement has been accepted by the field and that a wider ranging model guided by the various theories allows for flexibility and for any new concepts to appear. Use of mixed methods supports this focus as it allows for the discovery of new concepts.

In the review of methods it is noted that sampling of the understanding of social capital from a local community perspective based on its structure and makeup can address some of the gaps in the current state of the field of research (Field, 2008). A study that looks at social capital both from a competitive side of sport as well as from the intrinsic value focus of recreational participants, therefore addresses a wider range of leisure perspectives from the general population.

Noting the exploratory nature of the research, a series of wider ranging issues (as stated in the research aims in chapter 1) are needed to guide the direction of the study. The research analysed social capital from the sample both from participants as individuals and also as members of a club network. The development of the scale measurement contributes to the field by offering a better understanding of how a scale is devised and how social capital is measured.

### **2.8.3 Objectives**

The study objectives are:

1. To identify significant components and indicators of social capital in leisure clubs.
2. The development and validation of a scale to measure social capital within leisure organizations.
3. To undertake an analysis of the effect of age, gender, income, education and sport versus recreation on social capital levels in the club members in the sample.

In achieving these objectives the following issues will be explored:

- The nature of social capital in local leisure clubs.
- The components of social capital in local leisure clubs.
- An approach to measure social capital in local leisure organisations.
- The sources of variation in social capital at this local leisure club level between sport and recreation clubs.
- The impact of gender, income, education and age on social capital levels in clubs.

Thus, this study concentrates on describing the components of social capital in clubs and developing a scale measure and is a prerequisite for any future study of the spill over of social capital from clubs into the general community.

The research will include:

- an exploration of the factors inherent in social capital including trust, reciprocity, norms of behaviour, friendship, tolerance, and acceptance in leisure organisations, which represents a novel facet of this research as these factors have been accepted in other research as key elements in the development and measurement of social capital (Onyx & Bullen 2000; Fukuyama, 1999; Putnam, 1995) but have yet to be measured and validated in leisure clubs.
- providing an empirical analysis of organisational social capital.
- developing a scale to measure social capital within leisure organisations.
- providing an analysis of the influence of age, gender, income, and education on social capital levels.

## **2.9 Summary**

Different models of research have been applied to social capital research without an important agreed model developed. Therefore, it is important for empirical research of this nature to be conducted without too prescriptive directions which might restrict the discovery and development of any new findings. The use of the initial qualitative phase allowed for this exploratory phase of the study to emerge and this was used to guide the second phase of research.

The detail of the research methods is described in the following chapter which will highlight the use and application of the mixed methods approach, beginning with the qualitative phase which after refinement will conclude with the quantitative second phase, featuring the final development and use of the Club Social Capital Scale.

**Footnote**

Much of the content of this review was written at the end of this thesis. The initial section of it was done in conjunction with the development and conduct of the two phases of the research. However due to the exploratory nature of this empirical research it was decided that it was better not to be too prescriptive and focussed on specific styles, theories and directions of the current research but instead allow for a flexible delivery of the mixed methods model.

When this research was undertaken little research existed in social capital and sport in Australia. While Onyx and Bullen's (2001) work, served as a model their study was different, based in small rural communities measuring factors of social capital not relevant in this PhD, such as work friends. A scale to measure leisure club social capital did not exist, therefore it was necessary to begin a line of enquiry which was exploratory in order to understand the leisure club sector and be able to develop components and items that were suitable and understood in the club sector. The qualitative phase therefore provided an understanding of how Victorian clubs members' understood social capital. This phase informed the main quantitative phase and fulfilled the nature of being an exploratory study ( Neumann, 2011). Social capital was noted as important to club members and it was necessary to understand and analyse members' comments.

## Chapter 3: Study Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

Social capital as introduced in Chapter 1 is a diverse concept which is still relatively undefined in terms of characteristics and its measurement (Cavaye, 2004; Putnam, 2003). In order to investigate this concept a suitable study design with an appropriate plan and specific methods to be employed needed to be devised. As in most research a number of techniques and methods could be used, these include quantitative methods such as Narayan and Pritchett (1997), Stone (2002), and Sabatini (2006), to research social capital. These researchers used quantitative methods to work with large data samples and indicators in at least part of their research. Others have employed qualitative methods to develop a grounded understanding of the concept of social capital (Burnett, 2006; Portes & Sensenbrenner 1993; Schulenkorf, 2013).

Due to the unique nature of social capital, and on further examination of the literature on its measurement, neither specific method by itself seemed appropriate. A clear rationale existed for a mixed method approach which included developing a scale to measure social capital through its components in leisure clubs. Mixed methods employ triangulation and have previously been suggested in research on social capital (Cavaye, 2004) and used by Brown (2007), Onyx and Bullen (2001), Moore et al., (2005), and Tonts (2005) in their research on communities, leisure, and social capital.

The focus of this chapter outlines the justification for employing a mixed method approach. There will be a brief discussion of social science research models including qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches, and their significance in social science research. Lastly, the mixed method approach will be discussed and justified as being especially pertinent to this current research project's objectives. The chapter will also provide a detailed map and description of the tools and steps employed for data collection and analysis in this research.

The philosophy of social research is relatively new and refers to the study of social life with people being located in natural science models (Miller & Brewer, 2003). It uses

these parameters to test ideas and theories and produce knowledge (Miller & Brewer, 2003). Research begins with presumptions (knowledge claims) about how and what will be learned in the process. These can also be called paradigms and provide meaning or models for us in an abstract manner to a complex world (Babbie, 2007; Guba & Lincoln 2005; Mertens, 2003). Paradigms provide a belief system, or way of thinking about a problem and a world view to guide research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sarantakos, 2005). A methodology is employed which includes a theoretical understanding of the method and a specific model to be employed in the research along a knowledge claim or paradigm (Babbie, 2007; Flyvberg, 2011). Methodologies can be quantitative or qualitative approaches which can guide research and include procedures or tools to operate. The *methods* used are the instruments or tools employed to gather evidence in the research and include how data will be collected and analysed (Babbie, 2007).

While this chapter is designed to focus on the methodology there will be further discussion concerning methods and paradigms as they are directly linked in the research.

### **3.2 Qualitative Research Analysis**

Qualitative research explains phenomena and data through the use of descriptions by using words to both examine and interpret observations to find meaning, form and order in relationships. It is a constructed reality based on relationships, interpretation and cultural meaning. People experience reality in their own life as their reality, based on how they interpret life (Sarantakos, 2005).

Qualitative research grew out of a divide that developed between researchers questioning the ability of quantitative methods to answer research questions. This led to the paradigm wars between quantitative methods and its limitations and those seeking deeper, richer data (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Qualitative methods developed in the mid twentieth century and rose in popularity especially in the social sciences in the 1960s and '70s (Guba, 1990). The Chicago School of sociology popularised it and it was adopted by the field of anthropology (Barley, 1989; Denzin,

& Lincoln, 1994). Qualitative research began as a reaction to the post positivist traditions of quantitative research because it provides a deeper understanding of complex phenomena such as culture and group life (Shah & Corley, 2006). The qualitative method grew swiftly in reaction to the hard fact and the use of exact figures from the quantitative sector which dominated research and is referred to as the humanist model of research (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

Qualitative research focuses on the standard of how good something is, stressing quality not quantity, or how much or how many. It provides a psychosocial meaning, such as why a person votes a certain way versus how many people vote that way. This is seen as one of its negatives in some sectors, with governments, and parts of the community preferring hard data with facts and figures over rich statements (Miller, & Brewer, 2003).

Qualitative research became multi-faceted as it rose in popularity, and now has wide diversity. It sits between the more traditional method of quantitative research and the newer mixed method model, and has sound characteristics (Creswell, 2003). Some of its characteristics are: it is interpretive, allowing the researcher to develop a description or picture of the natural setting; however, it also includes theories such as constructivism, critical theory and feminism. In this regard it incorporates a wide field with many facets including case studies and observations to study behaviour.

Qualitative approaches can include ethnographies (fieldwork) where the researcher studies an intact group of people in a natural setting, referring back to the early qualitative research of anthropologists such as Margaret Mead in Samoa (Denizen, & Lincoln, 1994). Qualitative research can bring out an individual's view on subjects and provide the researcher with a better understanding of the phenomena. Qualitative approaches all share common features, based on a researcher developing an understanding of a phenomenon through the participants (Shah, & Corley, 2006). It allows the researcher to be a part of the process by experiencing it and developing a better understanding of phenomena (Shah, & Corley, 2006). Therefore, the researcher conducts the research with the participants and is a part of it while witnessing the

reaction and feedback of the group. It allows for the research and understanding of individuals' attitudes and behaviour over time and is important in providing this understanding (Neuman, 2012). Qualitative research lets a researcher dig deep into the reasons why people do things, explaining their choice (Miles & Hubermann, 1994). Therefore, by amassing data, experiencing it while being immersed in its collection, a picture emerges of people's views and behaviours which may not be possible through other methods (Shah, & Corley, 2006). Qualitative research provides this based on the experiences of members in a study sample in their own words, using real world examples (Daly, 2005).

### **3.2.1 Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis**

A number of approaches are used in obtaining data in qualitative research. These include studying individuals through direct narratives, letting what is being said direct the process (Thomas & Nelson, 2001). Qualitative methods include tools such as field observations and case studies which explore processes or events, allowing access to the attributes of a culture. These methods allow access to, and understanding of a culture, its setting and the experiences of its members. Researchers can understand the meaning of the experience to those involved, linking the setting with the experience (Creswell, 2003; Thomas & Nelson, 2001). It gives an understanding and meaning with no preconceived viewpoint and is inductive, with theory generated from the data.

One theory, grounded theory, employs this process strictly, with theory and meaning developed by data from the ground up (Neuman, 2012). Researchers can use interviews and conversations to record key issues (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory uses a number of steps (process), to examine data while looking for similar cases, noting conditions that are common or causes making them similar. Similar cases but with slightly different outcomes are sometimes compared to see where their differences lie. Differences and similarities in the data are noted, the data coded, and put into categories. A theory is then developed on data 'grounded' or based on data that has been through a number of iterations (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Thus the researcher, through regular judgments, coding and comparing the data, develops a theory based (grounded) on analysis and its revealed meaning (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The qualitative research approach suggests that while things are related, reality is constructed and interpreted by the individual. For example, if two people are watching a close game of football, the person who is not aligned to either side sees it as a good close game of football, while the other person whose team is losing sees the game as a loss for their team (Sarantakos, 2005). Two individuals see the same game and its components but interpret it differently. This dichotomy allows researchers to explore and develop meaning through data collected and examined from people through qualitative methods.

Qualitative data is collected using a number of tools. Interviews are the most common tool used and can be one-on one, or done in a group setting. They can include structured interviews with scripted questions or be conducted in a more open setting using open-ended questions. They can also be conducted either face to face or on the telephone (Neuman, 1997).

Focus groups, another tool of data collection, are interviews with a small number of people in one session (Thomas & Nelson, 2001). Focus groups can obtain a wide range of data from the group in a short time and from a variety of discussion points. They also can include comments that will trigger discussion into a new, related concept providing valuable discussion of the issues.

Observation is another tool where the researcher observes the behaviour or event while taking notes or audio taping proceedings. Today the use of a digital video camera is popular because it can record and keep the information for later analysis. However, the negative side of this model is obtrusiveness. The researcher is not part of the group and may inhibit members, not allowing them to relax and be themselves. All these tools have advantages: observations allow first experiences to be noticed, while interviews allow control over the setting. However, there are limitations: the researcher may not be a good observer, while in focus groups or interviews some people are more articulate and able to explain their ideas and views better than others (Creswell, 2003).

Some qualitative research employs a panel of experts, as associated with the Delphi method and elicitation studies. When empirical data is incomplete or unclear,

researchers may employ a panel to assist in decision-making. This tool has been used for some time and can deliver greater certainty. It is relatively simple to conduct (Arkles, Mumpower, & Stewart, 1997). It consists of collecting advice and opinions of experts (panel) to resolve issues through comments on items or questions, with the researcher facilitating the process (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Linstone & Turoff, 1975; Masser & Foley, 1987; Skulmoski, Hartman, & Krahn, 2007). The panel can develop, rank, or reduce items, and make general comments on a survey instrument, thus adding to construct validity (Linstone & Turoff, 1975; Okoli & Pawlowski, 2004). However, it is not a main research tool, rather it supports other qualitative procedures and should not be used alone (Linstone & Turoff, 1975).

### **3.2.2 Use of Qualitative Methods in Sport and Leisure - Social Capital Research**

Historically, much of the research in leisure developed from a psychosocial view employing a positivist, quantitative focus. These included surveys and diaries to measure leisure, the experience, effects and participation (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997). However, researchers such as Fine (1994), and Henderson (1991), employed qualitative-interpretive methods at the time. Researchers in leisure have moved away from the classic positivist, quantitative models based on logic and numbers (Dupuis, (1999). This may be a result of writings by Hemingway (1999), and Kelly (1996), suggesting the need for greater depth of discussion and critical analysis in leisure research. It also coincided with a rising popularity of qualitative research methods which were seen to provide detail that was otherwise missing. Since the early 1980s, researchers have used qualitative approaches to study leisure and extract the meaning and experiences it provides (Bullock, 1983; Glancey, 1986, 1993; Harper, 1981; Howe, 1985, 1988, 1991; Hultsman & Anderson, 1991; Lee, 1990; Scott & Godbey, 1990). These studies cover a range of areas concentrating on the psychosocial makeup of leisure. Qualitative research provides insight and understanding of leisure from the individual's viewpoint and feelings while raising questions and issues (Dupuis, 1999). This can be particularly important in analysing leisure as participation is based on the person's free choice, often reflecting an intrinsic need and taking place in a social environment (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997).

Karla Henderson (1991), supported greater use of qualitative methods in leisure research by publishing a guide for qualitative research in leisure. Pedlar (1995), also suggested greater participant input in leisure research through the use of action research, where the respondents are brought in to the investigation to develop and implement changes (Denscombe, 2003; Sarantakos, 2005). In the 1990s, leisure research employing qualitative methods increased by 26% as reported by the Journal of Leisure Research (Weissinger, Henderson, & Bowling, 1997). This trend is continuing and includes research such as sport and social capital (Driscoll & Wood, 1999), and sport consumer behaviour (Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003). Tont's (2005), employed a mixed method in his work on sport and social capital, but highlighted the important detail on values provided by the use of qualitative methods. Others (Onyx & Bullen, 2001), suggest that qualitative methods provide a better understanding of a theory to the researcher which allows for better item construction.

In this study qualitative research tools, such as aspects of grounded theory, not grounded theory per se were used with interviews, focus groups, analysis, and coding. In addition the employment of a panel of experts, often associated with Delphi model and Elicitation studies, was employed to provide significant input for scale item reduction and factor clarification (Arkles, Mumpower, & Stewart, 1997; Lindstone & Turoff, 1975).

### **3.3 Quantitative Research**

The two main research models of qualitative and quantitative research are separated by numerical and non-numerical data which means that one (quantitative) uses numbers to measure while qualitative refers to statements (Babbie, 2007). For example, stating a person's weight as a quantitative figure such as he weighs 120 kilos versus qualitatively saying he looks over-weight. The first instance uses a specific measure transforming words into numbers, with the latter expressing a viewpoint (Babbie, 2007; May, 1997).

Quantitative social research is positivistic in nature and based on the belief that society can be studied scientifically in an ordered manner (Babbie, 2007). It tests and verifies theories based on available data then theory is 'deduced' or removed from the data and

the researcher seeks a truth or an explanation. Quantitative methods build a traditional, structured model which explores relationships and the effects between variables then links them back to general theory (Miller & Brewer, 2003). It attempts to explain the relationship between variables with standards or measures. In this method the researcher remains neutral and objective towards a sample.

Quantitative methods are based on the scientific method, conducted in an ordered manner using numbers, giving a sense of precision and exactness. This makes them highly regarded and accepted in research, especially in the social sciences (Berg, 2007). It uses statistical analysis to answer research questions or to test hypotheses based on attitudes or behaviours and is able to test theory through experiments using research tools and statistics (Creswell, 2003). In testing theory the researcher measures phenomena or concepts converting them into numbers or indicators. In the analysis the researcher tests for reliability (how dependable the test is for repeatability), and validity, (is the test actually measuring what it purports to do?) (Thomas & Nelson, 2001).

When employing quantitative methods the collection of data is done in a number of ways: some researchers conduct experiments in laboratories; others use pre-existing data sets such as the participation rates of women in sport, or social capital in safe communities; some use surveys; and others use content analysis or analyse books or articles (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

Data is collected then prepared for analysis by checking for clarity and accuracy, with unclear information edited and missing information accepted or rejected (Denscombe, 1998). Data is coded and converted from text to an agreed numbering system, then entered and grouped in categories for statistical analysis (Neuman, 2012; Saratankos, 2005).

Statistical analysis provides frequency tables (how often something occurs), the mid points or measures of central tendency including mean or average, median (midpoint) and the mode or most common value (Denscombe, 1998). This analysis also gives the range or spread of the data responses, standard deviation or spread related to the mean,

associations or links between the data sets, and levels referring to differences between data (Denscombe, 1998; Neuman, 2012).

### **3.3.1 Statistical Analysis**

Multivariate analysis allows for analysis of the relationships among a number of variables. It includes a number of statistical techniques that are used in the social sciences to measure attitudes, behaviours and relationships between items. One of these techniques is factor analysis.

Factor analysis is a mathematical technique which allows for a reduction in a data set by analysing relationships between variables and grouping them under headings, or factors (Thomas & Nelson, 2001). It assigns a weight to each item in a scale and through repeated analysis reducing items belonging to that factor. The theory is based on manipulation, using statistics and relationships between indicators to show a factor that is related to all indicators.

Exploratory factor analysis is descriptive and shows the number of factors required to represent data, and which variables influence each other. It uses tables (factor matrix) to illustrate the relationship between variables and factors and provides a score (factor score) for each figure in the sample (Miller & Brewer, 2003). Therefore, conducting an exploratory factor analysis can reduce data (data reduction), and allow the researcher to analyse any new emerging factors. It can also be used to check validity for items in a scale, confirming if the items measured make up a valid scale and are working together. Factor analysis therefore, is useful in understanding data and interpreting the relationships contained within clusters of variables. It is applied in social research, especially in relationship to the measurement of behaviour and attitudes through scales (Onyx & Bullen, 2000).

Correlation is another statistical technique which is used to denote or explain the relationship between variables. It may involve two or more variables and can be described as the degree of the relationship that exists between a person's performance on a half marathon and cardiovascular health. Factor analysis can use correlation with a

number of variables to highlight the relationships between the various variables referred to as factors (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 2011). Correlations are positive where a small score in one variable results in a small score with another or when one increases with the other at the same rate in the same direction. Negative correlations are when a small increase in one variable results in a large increase in another. The correlation coefficient is a numerical value showing the relationship between the variables and can be positive or negative and ranges from .00 to 1.00. A perfect correlation is 1.00 and no relationship has a score of .00 (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 2011).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA), refers to tests that allow for testing of the null hypothesis between group means by noting the difference between groups. One way, or simple ANOVA, predicts the strength of the relationship between two or more variables by evaluating the null hypothesis. It calculates the score of the group's level of the independent variable (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 2011).

MANOVA is an extension of analysis of variance (ANOVA) where the researcher can examine more than one dependent variable. It is a generalised form of univariate ANOVA used when there are two or more dependent variables (Stevens, 2002).

MANOVA helps to answer:

1. do changes in the independent variable(s) have significant effects on the dependent variables?
2. what are the interactions among the dependent variables? and
3. what are the interactions among the independent variables?

### **3.3.2 Use of Quantitative Methods in Leisure and Social Capital Research**

In reviewing the literature it was noted that the use of quantitative methods in research was prevalent in both leisure research and research on social capital. Much of this was in the field of social psychology where a quantitative focus was important to highlight large numbers of responses which indicated significance in testing theory (Iso-Ahola, 1980b; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wann & Hamlet, 1995). Use of figures is

exemplified by the Australian Bureau of Statistics annual survey on participation rates in sport and physical activity (ABS, 2006). The figures express actual participant numbers and percentages and are easy to understand. Quantitative researchers use the logic of science, measuring behaviour and showing how often something is done (Horna, 1994; Nau, 1995). This allows for flexibility in data analysis and can include checking validity and reliability. It can produce objective data such as analysis of sports fans' attitudes (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Madrigal 1995; Murrell & Deitz, 1992). This research compared fan attendance, satisfaction, and evaluation of team performance (Madrigal, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994). It developed and employed the Sport Spectator Identification Scale which measured significance in validity and reliability (Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Development and measurement of variables is a significant feature of quantitative research and enables it to test social behaviour through scale measurement (Neuman, 2012). It has been used in research in social capital by Brown (2007), Onyx and Bullen (2001), Narayan and Deepa (2001), Okayasu, Kawahara, and Nogawa (2010), Stone and Hughes (2002), and Sabatini (2006). These researchers used scale items to measure levels of social capital with the employment of quantitative methods (e.g. multivariate analysis). Quantitative methods using a valid and reliable scale measuring a person's attitude and beliefs in a theory such as social capital reduces the margin of error through analysis of their responses. Studies in social capital have used variations in this manner, however there is currently no agreed scale of measurement across the field (Claridge, 2004). Social capital and leisure studies have been conducted, but the literature supports the need for further research (Brown, 2007; Hoyer & Nicholson, 2008; Tonts, 2005; Zakus, et.al, 2009).

This discussion of quantitative methods highlights the importance of this dominant method in theory testing and development which is the main phase used in this research. The next section will discuss mixed methods and their use in social capital and in leisure research.

### **3.4 Mixed Methods Research**

A mixed method is a research model that employs the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to data collection and analysis. It is based on pragmatic assumptions and can collect qualitative and quantitative data in a concurrent or in a sequential manner (Creswell, 2003). Having a pragmatic approach in a mixed method model allows for greater freedom and flexibility in not being tied to one system or philosophy of research. A mixed method allows different approaches to data collection, analysis, and the integration of data at different points in the research (Creswell, 2003).

#### **3.4.1 History of Mixed Method Research**

Mixed methods research in its recent history began with researchers who believed in the usefulness of qualitative and quantitative methods in answering questions. However, the concept of singular or multiple truths and solutions goes back to the philosophers' discussions in ancient Greece. Mixed methods accept the validity of using different viewpoints while at the same time trying to find a middle ground solution (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007).

In terms of its development mixed methods research was noted in the work of cultural anthropologists and fieldwork in sociology including Gans, (1963), and Lynd and Lynd (1929/1959, cited Johnson et.al., 2007). At this time during this traditional period there was little disagreement with researchers using multiple methods, however these attitudes changed in the 1960's with researchers being involved with either a qualitative or quantitative method (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). The research of Campbell and Fisk (1959), originated the concept of multiple or mixed methods research in the social sciences. They sanctioned the use of multi methods through the introduction of triangulation (Taskakorri & Teddie, 2003). Triangulation refers to the use of more than one method to validate findings (Creswell, 2003). For example, using qualitative methods with quantitative to measure one approach against the other. The term triangulation referred to confirming a proposal by two or more measurement process and was first used in surveying (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest, 1966).

The 20<sup>th</sup> century began with a focus on a modified mixed methods model with little controversy over it using different methodologies. At the same time mixed methods began to appear more frequently and attempted to integrate qualitative and quantitative methods.

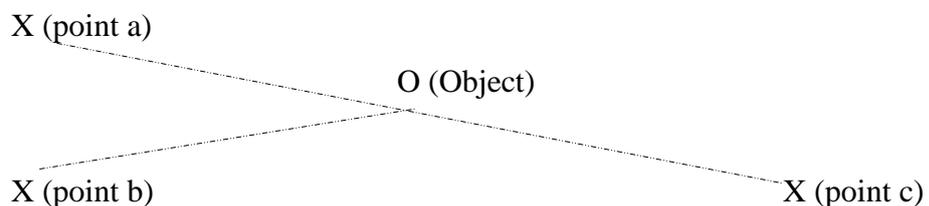
In the following years, from 1980 onward, numerous researchers used combinations of qualitative, quantitative approaches, analysis, and design called mixed model studies (Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003). This use of combined methods highlighted how quantitative and qualitative methods can support each other rather than compete (Jick, 1983). Researchers such as Schwandt (2000), questioned the need for the paradigm division in research methods to exist. At this time Guba and Lincoln (2005), suggested that within paradigms, mixed methods strategies can be a sensible research model to employ. Today mixed methods research is common, with some researchers predicting its even greater importance and use in future research (Tashakkori & Teddie 2003).

### 3.4.2 Positive and Negative Attributes of Mixed Methods Research

The use of mixed methods in research is important as it brings together two methods and employs the concept of triangulation. Triangulation refers to getting a reading of a position by using two or more coordinates (Denscombe, 2003).

In Figure 3.1, points a, b, and c provide a position to locate the true position of O, the object. In research it refers to mixing research methods to define and analyse a problem.

**Figure 3.1 Triangulation**



Triangulation used by Denizen (1978), refers to employing different data collection methods such as focus groups and questionnaires to understand a concept (Nueman, 1994). It uses one method to validate findings such as using qualitative with quantitative methods to measure against (Creswell, 2003). The methods converge or

meet together from two different methodical perspectives (Denizen, 1978).

Convergence increases validity resulting not from just one method but two which support each other (Bouchard, 1976).

Use of more than one method for data collection and analysis allows researchers to combine methods and focus on their strength and significance (Nau, 1995). Rich qualitative research supports and provides greater depth and detail to quantitative research (Jayaratne, 1993). Therefore, use of two research methods provides for greater confirmation of data, increases its richness, and allows for new thinking regarding emerging issues (Cresswell, 2003). It can provide legitimacy to data, confidence and deeper understanding in the research, and the ability to deal with unforeseen issues.

When employing triangulation, different methodological approaches can be combined with mixed strategies regarding measurement, design or analysis of the research (Patton, 1990).

The mixed methods approach also has negative aspects which include the difficulty of converting quantitative measures or figures into qualitative statements which have meaning (Patton, 1990). It also requires a range of skills and knowledge of qualitative tools including focus groups and interviews among others and the need for an understanding of quantitative tools such as scales, and survey design. The researcher must also learn how to combine different methods to benefit from the two (Thomas, Nelson, & Silverman, 2011). Mixed method research will take more time to complete a project because of the need of two data collection processes and analysis of each set of data (Tashakkori & Teddie 2003).

### **3.4.3 Issues Regarding Mixed Method Research**

Mixed methods research is gaining popularity however it is in its earlier stage of development and has a number of issues associated with it which were raised by Tashakkori and Teddie (2003), including the following;

A lack of clear definitions and terminology, and for acceptance by the research community mixed methods will need to have a glossary of terms with clear definitions to alleviate misunderstandings in methods or in data presentation (Datta, 1994).

Terms such as multi method, mixed method, and mixed model research design are confusing. Tashakkori and Teddie (2003) proposed to define the different aspects of mixed methods. They propose multi method research for two types of data collection from the same method such as focus groups and case studies used in a qualitative study. Mixed method design can employ qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis at the same time or in a sequence, while mixed model research can combine methods, collection and analysis together.

Sometimes the reasons for employing a mixed method model are unclear. Studies use mixed methods without explaining the reason. Others do not explain the contribution of each method used or acknowledge employment of mixed methods (Patton, 1988).

Use of a mixed method can provide answers that other methods cannot, allowing for theory confirmation through quantitative methods and theory generation through exploratory research using qualitative methods. Therefore, it can explore, generate, and confirm theory in one study (Taskakkori, & Teddie, 2003). It also provides stronger data, builds on the strengths of each method, with each method enhancing the other (Brannen, 2005). Lastly, it provides a better understanding of issues, the research question, and can develop new theoretical perspectives (Brannen, 2005; Erzberger & Prein, 1997).

The use of paradigms in mixed methods is problematic with some believing that methods and paradigms are not an issue and mixed methods research should focus on getting things done (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Others believe methods are different and unable to be used together (Smith & Heshusius, 1986). Viewpoints ranged from a need for separation, some who supported one paradigm, and the practical application or equal importance given to each paradigm (Taskakkori & Teddie, 2003). These viewpoints reflect that mixed methods were still new and growing in use and bridging the paradigm divide (Schwandt, 2000). Today this debate has been resolved and mixed

method research is becoming more common due to its practical ability to deliver good results (Taskakkori & Teddie, 2003). In this research, the practical nature of a mixed method, where qualitative measurement preceded and influenced the quantitative phase, was the most effective.

When employing mixed methods sometimes the design is not clear about why the method has been chosen. This creates uncertainty and researchers must consider the order of how each method is used, such as qualitative first followed by quantitative methods later (Brannen, 2004; Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). Researchers need to understand theory and the logic driving the study, is the study deductive and testing a theory or inductive and discovering something new (Brannen, 2004). Therefore, use of mixed methods needs to be well thought out regarding concepts and what you hope to achieve.

The order and priority of methods is important and is explained by Creswell (2003). Researchers should consider if they deliver qualitative and quantitative methods at the same time, or in a sequence (Greene et al., 1989). Creswell (2003), suggests that sequential delivery allows for each method to add to the other for example, qualitative providing input into scale development. Mixed methods requires a high set of research skills as the potential to make mistakes is very high due to the complexity of data collection and analysis (Spratt, Walker, & Robinson, 2004). However, using mixed methods allows for conclusions obtained in one study to apply to other research, offering the best explanation for a theory to be applied to other settings (Tassakorri & Teddie, 2003).

Mixed methods may require greater time, can add additional costs due to additional time for analysis, and the interpreting of data however, it allows for the best method to be used at the most appropriate time in a project (Jones, 1997, Tassakori & Teddie, 2003).

#### **3.4.4 Use of Mixed Methods in Sport, Recreation and Social Capital Research**

After the rise in qualitative methods in the 1960s, mixed methods research employing triangulation, began gaining popularity (Bazeley, 2002; Denizen, 1978). Its increasing use was noted in the social sciences, education, psychology and in health (Hammond, 2005; Tassakori & Teddlie, 2003). In leisure its use was relatively new, however there was a growing interest in research projects employing this method. Historically, much of the research in leisure had been of a psychosocial nature and often employed a quantitative focus (Iso-Ahola, 1980b; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wann & Hamlet, 1995). Therefore, qualitative research had also been less common (Dunning, Murphy & Williams, 1988) albeit growing in popularity (Dupuis, 1999).

There is an increased interest in mixed methods among leisure researchers which may be a reflection of the greater use historically of quantitative methods and the need now for choosing a suitable research design for research outcomes (Patton, 2002). In leisure research employing two methods in sequence with quantitative followed by qualitative, could provide greater detail to the results through the inclusion of qualitative findings (Creswell, 2003). Studies conducting qualitative and quantitative sections separately at the same time but bringing them together for analysis and findings allows for triangulation (Creswell, 2003). Therefore richer data can result when both models are employed. Using a sequential manner qualitative followed by quantitative methods can clarify data, concepts, and provide the basis for items in scale development through analysis of qualitative statements (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). In this research a sequential model was adopted of qualitative followed by quantitative with qualitative providing input into a scale based on the model used by Onyx and Bullen (2000). In this research three tools of qualitative method were employed to provide data for items and components in scale development and later item reduction before the quantitative phase was conducted. There are an increasing number of leisure research projects employing mixed methods which include, using quantitative data to inform and develop a questionnaire, against responses from focus groups (Daly, 2005).

In his study of sports fans Jones (1997), used a historical comparative analysis to highlight the advantages of each of the traditional methods of research for example

qualitative and quantitative. He raised the benefits of each with the qualitative method providing a 'good' picture of the subject, points of view and unexpected aspects that may arise. He supported the need for quantitative methods for descriptive components, behaviour occurrences encountered, and any significant data entries regarding statistical figures advocating for the mixed method design with one giving rigor to the other (Jones, 1997).

As discussed, both qualitative and quantitative methods have been used in social capital research. There is a growing number of leisure and social capital studies using mixed methods, such as Brown (2008); Tonts (2005), and Numerato (2008). In the Netherlands development of the Resource Generator to measure social capital (Van Der Gaag & Snijders, 2005) used a mixed research method employing both interviews and delivery of questionnaires to a large sample. Further studies of social capital among seniors have also used mixed method (Moore & al, 2005). In Australia the research of Onyx and Bullen (1997, 2000) employed a mixed method model using interviews, focus groups and a scale measure to provide significantly detailed rich data

Using a mixed method design in exploratory research in a relatively complex field such as social capital, allows the researcher greater clarity, detail, and understanding of the subject.

Quantitative and qualitative methods will now be discussed and their differences, followed by analysis of each and justification for employing mixed methods in this research.

### **3.5 Qualitative vs Quantitative Methods**

In science rational intellectual thought dominates over our emotions and sentimentality. Emotions are often seen as the opposite of reason and rational behaviour, to be avoided, as they hinder meaning and action based on our intellect (Lutz, 1986). However, while rational thought prevails, feelings, emotions, and viewpoints still exist but are often left out of research (Oakley, 1981). The two approaches differ, one based on statistically-based thought and the other on feelings, viewpoints, and opinions - with both important

in all research. Thus two different orientations are embedded in different research methodologies and each relates to assumptions about the social world being explored with the difference in how they collect and analyse data. Comparing qualitative and quantitative research further, a number of these differences are noted and highlighted in Figure 3.1.

**Table 3.1 Aspects of Quantitative and Qualitative Research \***

Component	Qualitative	Quantitative
1.Hypothesis	Inductive-interpret what is found	Deductive-rules/knowledge from the research
2.Sample	Purpose/small eg focus group	Random, large eg surveys
3. Setting	Natural/real world	Laboratory
4. Data gathering	Researcher	Objective/instrument
5. Design	Flexible/changeable	Determined design
6. Analysis	Descriptive/interpret results	Statistics used
7. Questions	Open ended/descriptive	Closed/scales
8.Reality	Explore from within	Explore from outside
9.Value	Value laden-sample contact	Value free-little contact
10. Methods.	Personal and open-ended	Mathematical and statistical
11 Analysis-	Before or during data collection	Done after data collection

\*Adapted from Patton (1987).

Quantitative research is positivistic and deductive where reality is a sum of related parts (variables), which are removed through research (Bazeley, 2004). It explores cause and effect relationships of statements, measures phenomena, puts it into numbers and conducts statistical analysis and provides us with for example the number of people who vote green. Conversely, qualitative research is interpretive with the result coming from the data and changes observed from the data and written into explanations such as explaining why people voted green (Giddens, 1976). Regarding data, even using identical sources, the system of collection and analysis may differ (Denscombe, 2003).

Other differences between the methods are: the quantitative researcher is removed, value neutral and not a part of reality as they explore it from the outside. Qualitative researchers are close to the sample, see things through the participants, exploring from

the inside, therefore qualitative design research is still fluid, can change and is flexible. Quantitative design is usually set and does not change. Sample size in qualitative research is small but rich with the researcher gathering data, while quantitative research uses large, random samples of participants, with data gathered by an instrument usually a questionnaire or survey. The quantitative researcher's analysis takes place after data collection is complete, while qualitative researchers may do it before and during a study (Flick et al., 1991; Lamnek, 1993; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

While a number of differences in concepts and methods exist, the two deal with the collection and exploration of data in a logical manner to discover answers to questions. They are based on a structure, conducted by a system of procedures, for both data collection and analysis. While these may differ they are both searching for valid, reliable answers to the research question (Creswell, 2003; 2006; Neuman, 1994, 2012).

Quantitative research condenses or reduces data into units, while qualitative enhances data by adding valuable additions to existing data (Neuman, 1994, 2012). Both methods incorporate literature reviews, measure and analyse data, and report results and findings (Neuman, 2012).

Both approaches operate in the same field, conducting research to add to our knowledge base but seen as separate and incompatible by some sectors of the research community (Thomas & Nelson, 2001). This is changing with a number of researchers moving to qualitative research as reported by Shah and Corley (2006), in leisure and social capital (Burnett, 2006; Rock, Valle, & Grabman, 2013; Schulenkorf, 2013; Wagnsson, Ausutsson, & Patriksson, 2013).

When comparing qualitative and quantitative methods, they are not separate or exclusive of one another. Many researchers use aspects of both as highlighted by Tonts, (2005), and Son, Yarnal, and Kerstetter (2010), who used quantitative methods (surveys) with open ended questions and interviews. Additionally, distinctions are too rigid: some quantitative tools can benefit from the use of questionnaires or open-ended questions which are qualitative tools (Denscombe, 2003). Therefore, many researchers use aspects of both, however in most research one approach dominates the other. The

relationship between approaches is not exclusive and at times approaches blend together (Denscombe, 2003).

The role of the researcher is to know the potential strength and weakness of each approach and not be confined to working in one approach over another, but use whatever addresses the research question best. Researchers should explore the benefits of a quantitative (linear path) approach with a number of fixed steps or alternatively, if the qualitative nonlinear path would better suit. Knowing the models and the research question allows for decision to be made to follow one or the other or a mixed model incorporating both. The main issues to consider are the research problem, practical issues such as time and understanding, and being open to new ideas while questioning evidence, and maintaining accuracy (Neuman, 2012).

Some individuals still champion one approach over the other however this is changing. This was supported by King, Keohane, and Verba (1994), who stated that good research often combines features of each method to best answer the question.

### **3.6 Methods Used in This Research**

The literature regarding quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research details their use in the social sciences, leisure and social capital (see 3.4 above). Numerato (2008), suggests that quantitative methods alone are inadequate in their ability to study and understand theories such as social capital and leisure and supports the need for qualitative methods to provide a deeper understanding of social capital (Glover, 2004; Verweel, 2005). Additionally, social capital is seen as consisting of different factors which may differ between factors but it also is the sum of these factors which may demonstrate differences which highlights its complex nature. Social capital is made of factors and the sum of its parts which may show statistical differences. A number of researchers therefore support mixed methods in social capital research including Atherly (2006), Das (2004), Rohm, Milne, & McDonald (2006), Tonts (2005), and Ward and Tampubulon (2002).

Combining methods through triangulation brings out the strength of each providing greater analysis and richer data (Tashakkori, & Teddlie, 2003, 2009). Studies using multiple methods are less prone to error attributed to the one method approach, and provide better data by allowing the data to check itself ensuring data validity (Patton, 2002). As stated above, the combination of the two methods in a sequential manner with qualitative followed by a quantitative stage, allows for a merging of data, with the first phase providing input and support to the other (Creswell, 2003). In this manner the qualitative phase informs the research providing rich data to support the quantitative phase of the research (Bazeley, 2002; Creswell, 2003).

This research model used a mixed methods approach, employing triangulation, and conducted in sequence a qualitative (elicitation initial study) followed by the quantitative (main study). In its implementation, qualitative data was collected first to explore the topic further providing input into the main study which is an exploratory development and employment of a scale measure for social capital in leisure (Creswell, 2003). In terms of priority the quantitative approach was the dominant phase of the research. However, it had an alternative format in delivery with an exploratory qualitative study first followed by the dominant quantitative section (Creswell, 2003). Use of the sequential model in this research allowed the researcher time to develop a better understanding of social capital from a participant's point of view, providing rich qualitative data for initial scale development. Therefore, this research employed a mixed method model to be able to better articulate the concept(s), factors, data, and understanding of social capital.

The initial research phase employed a qualitative approach, and adopted an exploratory manner for the study of the nature of social capital. It used aspects of elicitation studies where the researcher seeks the opinions of the community in devising the concepts (Azen, & Fishbein, 1980). This phase was developed to support the main study. It provided grounding and initial components and items which contributed to the initial scale development. The elicitation study employed focus groups and interviews for data collection and analysis. Aspects of grounded theory were used for the conduct and analysis of this phase of data collection and analysis with the 'refined data' providing

input into the initial scale measure. Following this a number of processes were used in the refinement of components and reduction of scale items. A panel of experts using a modified Delphi method provided feedback and further refinement of components and items.

**Table 3.2 Process Used in This Research – Phase 1 Elicitation**

<b>Phase 1</b>	<b>Elicitation study-Qualitative approach</b>
Data Forms	Process and tools used in the research
Literature	Literature search of social capital, leisure, and leisure and social capital was conducted
Community views	Focus groups (2) conducted
Club views	Interviews (4) in depth interviews conducted
Raw data	Identified applicable data in qualitative Elicitation section (tapes and notes)
Develop data categories	Listed and categorized all statements onto individual index cards
Partially processed data	Sorted statements(data) into categories-Manual coding
Categories/codes	Developed main item categories, e.g. trust, helping, support
Themes or components	Major and minor themes emerged from the data. Applied modified grounded theory concepts to refine statements into survey items
Themes and items	Themes were collapsed to common categories, items reduced through iterations
Themes and item reduction	Panel of experts (Elicitation) provided feedback and assisted on further item and theme reduction
Large draft scale	Further iteration of items and themes resulted in draft scale

### **3.6.1 Phase 1 - Elicitation Study**

The initial stage or elicitation study employed a number of qualitative methods or tools, listed in Table 3.2. The focus of this section was to provide additional data to the literature and assist in the development of the scale. Two focus groups were conducted with members of sport and recreation clubs who would not be part of the main study sample. The focus groups were conducted two weeks apart which allowed for analysis of the first and provided time for minor change(s) to be made before conducting the second. After the focus groups were completed a number of in-depth interviews were conducted with other members of clubs.

Focus groups were conducted because they allowed for an organised discussion with a number of people to obtain a large number of viewpoints in a short time (Holloosko (2006). The interviews provided the researcher access to 'rich' data (Moore, et, al., 2005). Data was collected and sorted using manual coding with the researcher being immersed in the data using concepts based on grounded theory. This process lent itself to comparing data and emerging categories collected (social capital factors), and those noted in the literature (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). During analysis a number of themes emerged, individual statements (items) were noted and categorized under the emerging themes. The themes and items were refined further and reduced through a number of iterations.

After of the focus group and interview analysis a panel of experts was employed to further refine the data. This is common in expert elicitation studies and is also an aspect of the Delphi method. The panel combined opinions to measure uncertainty, providing objective explanations and feedback on items and topics (Arkles, Mumpower, & Stewart, 1997; Creswell, 2003). The panel consisted of researchers, academics, government workers and consultants who were noted in their field and in social capital. Their role was to provide advice on items and themes emerging from the data, reduce items and themes, and provide general feedback on the initial scale. This was achieved through two panel groups completing a number of exercises regarding items, their clarity, focus, and relationship to a theme and the scale and is detailed in Chapter 4. After analysis of this information, the researcher conducted further iterations resulting in the initial scale of items measuring social capital. This initial draft scale was developed in the qualitative phase to be used as the first step in the main study (quantitative phase) as the pilot study.

This initial study therefore included the use of multiple stages of data collection and refinement and explored interrelationships of the categories of information (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). It provided valuable insight to the researcher on social capital from club members, produced items for the scale and gave additional information in addition to the literature. In this way it began the process of triangulation which was continued in

the quantitative phase of the research. Details regarding the elicitation method of analysis are provided in Chapter 4.

### 3.6.2 Quantitative Phase of the Research

The second phase (main study) adopted a quantitative approach based on positivism resulting in the final development and employment of the scale measure. This included further refinement and then distribution of the scale through a pilot study, and after analysis the distribution of this final scale to the study sample. Factor analysis was used for item reduction and scale model development. This quantitative approach was suited for the further reduction and testing of the scale measure which explored components and items of social capital of an attitudinal nature resulting from the elicitation study and the literature. After consideration of factor numbers, their relationship(s), and attitudinal nature of the scale, factor analysis was chosen as the most suitable tool to use for statistical analysis in the quantitative main study. The various steps in this quantitative phase of the research are highlighted in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3 Process Used in This Research - Phase 2 Quantitative**

<b>Data Set</b>	<b>Process undertaken</b>
Draft scale	Pilot test of the scale to 100 members of sport and recreation clubs who were not part of the main study sample.
Returned data	Factor analysis conducted, and items tested (Validity and reliability) resulting in the main study scale.
Main study scale	Scale provided to the main study sample, and collected.
Returned data	Analysis of final scale data.
Main study data	Factor analysis conducted on 1080 returned surveys.
Main study data set	Factor analysis measuring factors of social capital e.g. trust reciprocity, governance and others.
Main study data set	Analysis employing MANOVA of individual and club differences was conducted using social capital and factors regarding income, gender, education, age and recreation versus sport regarding social capital differences.
Main study data set	Analysis of social capital levels in clubs.
Main study data	Factor analysis reduced scale items (validity and reliability).

### **3.6.3 Scale Development**

The draft scale resulting from the final iterations in the initial phase of the study was prepared for distribution. This draft scale incorporated a scale of 76 questions employing a five point Likert scale, measuring social capital through items linked under social capital factors. The scale was piloted to 100 members of both sport and recreation clubs and when returned they were analysed using factor analysis. The pilot study after analysis provided a reduced scale of 42 attitudinal questions for the main study and after analysis a seven point Likert scale was adopted to provide greater variation in attitudinal responses. The new scale measured attitude regarding club social capital, with an additional 10 item scale to measure behaviour actions in the club.

After data collection the main study analysis consisted of a reduction of items for the final Club Social Capital Scale resulting in a reduced scale of 20 questions to be used in further research. In addition analysis of responses was conducted using MANOVA measuring social capital differences between various descriptive characteristics including gender, income, age, education, and sport versus recreation for the individuals and clubs. This analysis resulted in a picture of social capital and its components in individuals and clubs in Victorian leisure clubs, and a Club Social Capital Scale. Details regarding the survey method and analysis are provided in chapter 5.

### **3.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter provides an explanation and general overview of the three research models: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. It also provides detail of their use in leisure and in social capital research, thereby providing a rationale for the employment of a mixed method in this research. Review of the literature supported and led to the adoption of a mixed method design composed of two separate but linked phases.

The first phase was an elicitation study employing qualitative tools in data collection including focus groups and interviews. In analysis, grounded theory and aspects of the Delphi model (expert elicitation) were used to provide understanding, development of themes, and items for the scale measure. This provided for the development and

refinement of the scale which was tested in the second, 'quantitative' phase of the research. The use of multiple methods allowed the research to draw on aspects of qualitative and quantitative tools, with the literature, enhancing each through triangulation and providing greater research strength, reliability and validity.

Chapter 4 provides a description of the elicitation-qualitative phase of the research, methods and its integration into the main quantitative phase of the research. Chapter 5 is the quantitative main phase and describes the final scale development, resulting in the reduced final Club Social Capital Scale. Chapter 6 includes analysis of the sample and results regarding individual and club variation in social capital. Chapter 7, the final chapter of this research highlights the overall study, findings and results, and its significance to the field of leisure and social capital.

Ethics approval for this research was obtained from the Victoria University Ethics Committee before any contact took place with respondents in both the qualitative and the quantitative study.

## **Chapter 4: Elicitation Study - Social Capital of Sport and Recreation Clubs (SC-SRCS)**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter explains the first stage of the research which was an elicitation study employing qualitative methods. The aims of the elicitation study, tools employed, and the specific research focus will be explained. In addition the qualitative processes employed will be detailed including the sample selection, questions used, and analysis of data. The chapter explains the procedures followed to initiate the development of the scale for measuring social capital in leisure and sport clubs as outlined in Chapter 3. This scale was used to inform the quantitative study which is discussed in Chapter 5.

While exploring the literature and examining surveys measuring social capital it was evident there was a need to obtain further data to assist in developing an instrument to assess social capital in leisure and sport clubs (Daniel, 2009; Onyx & Bullen, 2001; Stone, 2001; World Bank, 2002). Previous scales had measured social capital in communities in third world countries or in local communities in Australia (Onyx & Bullen, 2001; World Bank, 2002). There has been some investigation of sport and social capital in the recent past however little of this work is focused on the development of a scale to measure leisure clubs and social capital (Atherly, 2006; Okayasu, et al. 2010; Tonts, 2005; Zakus et al, 2009). There was a need to collect further primary data on social capital and develop a scale that would directly measure social capital (Daniel, 2009; Franke, 2005; Stone, 2001). It was then decided that an exploratory phase of this research would be conducted.

This elicitation phase provides an input of new data into the currently accepted knowledge and theoretical base of social capital. It initiates the process of triangulation which is an important focus of this research as explained in Chapter 3 (Patton, 2001). In this manner comments, themes, and items generated were measured against the literature in the initial phase of this research. Items remaining after this process of analysis were incorporated into a scale comprising items from the existing literature on scale measurement theory.

The approach used in this research employed aspects of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) as explained in Chapter 3 to collect and analyse data. Glaser and Strauss used comparative analysis in their research to support or verify current theory often developed through deduction rather than giving significance to the experimental data itself (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This research employed comparative analysis between emerging data and themes with existing theory incorporating both deductive and inductive reasoning. Employing aspects of grounded theory allowed for generation and understanding of social capital, and integrated the researcher closely into the data. Since this research phase was exploratory, grounded theory was especially suited in allowing the researcher to develop and adapt theory. Grounded theory methods allow for the development of theory around data that is gathered and analysed in a systematic manner (Hughes & Jones, 2004; Meyers, 2006). While employing grounded theory some researchers believe the researcher should have no preconceived theoretical ideas before starting the research. However, while the literature was used by the researcher with the emerging data, the process was not constrained by the literature when coding, allowing for flexibility. This research was exploratory and was not fixed in one theoretical perspective in juxtaposition of another but openly explored other viewpoints.

The researcher worked closely with a team of two advisers in development, conduct, and analysis of all aspects of the elicitation study and initial scale development. Advisers were also prominent in the Main Phase of the study explained in Chapter 5 and in Chapter 6.

The elicitation study (see Chapter 3) employed focus groups and interviews, which provided items in the initial development of a scale to measure social capital and leisure in sport clubs. It also included a series of item reduction exercises which employed the advisers and a panel of experts for further scale refinement and item reduction. This provided the opportunity to change and obtain items and themes during the research process for ongoing input to analysis and evaluation. It also allowed for change to be made through the process of concepts emerging from the data, which was suitable in this exploratory phase (Urquhart, Lehman, & Myers, 2010). Qualitative methods used provided an understanding of the life of a club member and a perspective of social capital in the club from the participants (Patton, 2001). Information gathered was

analysed manually using Excel spreadsheets before being developed into items, thereby providing an additional cross reference to the literature. Data collection, note taking, coding, and sorting were all part of the first aspects of the study which reflected some grounded theory concepts (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The elicitation allowed for data analysis which was confirmatory as well as introducing new concepts. This initial process immersed the researcher in the data, providing a clear understanding from the participant's perspective of social capital, and assisted with the initial scale development.

#### **4.1 Elicitation Study**

The study of sport and recreation clubs and social capital has very little precedence in the field of leisure (Nicholson & Hoyer, 2008). Therefore, a rigorous approach was needed to incorporate qualitative feedback from people in leisure clubs regarding social capital and providing input into development of a scale (Hoepfl, 1997).

Prior to conducting the qualitative data collection the researcher developed questions and procedures for the delivery of this important phase of the research. Ethical clearance for the overall study was granted by the Faculty Ethics Clearance Committee prior to commencement.

##### **4.1.1 Elicitation Research Questions**

The general aims of the elicitation study were to provide first hand data from the individual club member's own social capital in their club. This provided an understanding of social capital in clubs. The research questions were designed to address the following aims as described in Chapter 1:

1. The nature of social capital at the local leisure club level.
2. Components of social capital evident in local leisure clubs.

A series of questions used in the elicitation study to address the research aims included:

- What is the understanding of social capital and social capital factors in the leisure groups?

- Are there any new social capital factors which may exist in sport and or in recreation social clubs not identified in the literature?
- What are the views, and personal viewpoints of local club members concerning club based participation?
- What are some of the social benefits of being a member of a local club?
- What are some of the social costs of being a member of a local leisure club?

## **4.2 Qualitative Methods**

Three methods of research were employed in the data collection. These included the use of focus groups, interviews with members of sport and recreation clubs, and then input from a separate panel of experts.

### **4.2.1 Focus Groups**

Focus groups were conducted to develop an initial understanding of the nature of social capital within sport and recreation clubs. They were conducted in an interview style format for a small group of unrelated individuals, with a researcher leading the members in a discussion on a specific topic (Schutt, 2001). They differ from group interviews through the interaction between members which is important in the data collection (Berg, 2007). Focus groups can be used as a stand-alone method of data gathering, or in projects such as this employing triangulation. They provide background, test against other qualitative methods, and develop new ideas, through the respondents' views on a subject (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Focus groups can be guided or unguided. In this research due to the nature of social capital it was appropriate to provide some guidance and structure. This allowed for the groups to achieve significant discussion in the time allocated. Focus groups are flexible, provide a significant amount of information quickly, allowing the researcher direct access to people's thoughts through responses (Edmund, 2000; Hagan, 2006; Salkind, 2003). They are a common tool in the social sciences, generate significant discussion, placing participants and researcher on an equal footing (Edmunds, 2000; Hagan, 2006; Salkind, 2003).

Research suggests that focus groups be kept to less than ten members especially when dealing with complex issues (Krueger, 1994). Due to the psychosocial nature of this

research measuring people attitudes, this was followed with eight members present at each focus group.

The focus groups provided a snapshot of the participant's viewpoint on social capital, and gave the researcher an understanding through direct quotes from those attending. While focus groups do depend on the facilitator's ability to moderate dominant individuals while covering a limited number of questions, they were especially important in this initial research process. After completion, information from the focus groups was analysed and used in the initial development of the questionnaire, which was used in the main study.

#### **4.2.2 Sample**

Two focus groups and four interviews were conducted with participants being selected to ensure adequate coverage of the major membership roles in clubs involved in the study. All participants were members of local sport and recreation clubs representing various roles and all were over 18 years of age. The researcher was interested in focus groups and interviews with a range of people, including elected officials, volunteers, administrators, and members or players. Each focus group consisted of four people attending from the recreation sector and four from the sport sector to provide a balance of responses. Selection included key individuals with extensive or long-standing experience in the club. Respondents had all been in their respective clubs for over one year with two members being in their clubs for over 20 years, thus providing a wide range of club membership experience. The focus group participants and interviewees were not part of the sample used in the main study. Anonymity of members was maintained by not using names in the discussion or in the analysis.

In both focus groups and interviews efforts were made to ensure a mix of activities represented, gender mix, age, and sport and recreation. Focus groups were conducted at two community sporting club venues in Melbourne. The time between the two focus groups allowed for the researcher to examine the questions, analyses responses, make modification, and allow for any change in the delivery of the second focus group.

### **4.2.3 Number in the Qualitative Sample**

The interviews gave a different perspective on the focus group phase by providing an opportunity for people to elaborate on their views and attitudes regarding social capital, club involvement, and why people join clubs. The four interviews were combined with the focus group members (16) representing a total of 20 club members who were consulted and had input into this important qualitative phase of the research. See Table 4.1.

### **4.2.4 Sample Selection for the Qualitative Phase**

Members in the sample were recommended for the interviews and focus groups by the particular sport or recreation association's state development officer. Contact details were provided to the researcher and members were selected after a short conversation with the researcher highlighting their interest in the research and knowledge of social capital. In the conversation members contacted were asked if they would be interested in attending one of two focus groups or to take part in a phone interview. Respondents wishing to be involved were sent an agreement form (see Appendix A.) indicating their preference for a focus group or for an interview. This signed agreement was provided to the researcher. When this information was received those partaking were sent appropriate further information regarding the focus groups or the interviews. This final information (see Appendix B) highlighted times, venue, date(s) and procedures to be followed for both focus groups and for the interviews.

**Table 4.1 Qualitative Respondents - Focus Groups and Interviewees**

No.	Club role	Club type	Sport/ Rec	Focus group/interview	Sex
1.	Administrator/player	Field hockey	S	Fig 1	m
2.	Secretary	Baseball	S	Fig 1	f
3.	Member/skier	Nordic ski	R	Fig 1	m
4.	Administrator	Nordic ski	R	Fig 1	f
5.	Member/part	Bushwalking	R	Fig 1	f
6.	Member/part	Angling	R	Fig 1	m
7.	Treasurer/part	Angling	R	Fig 1	m
8.	Player/coach	Baseball	S	Fig 1	m
9.	Member/adm	Angling	R	Fig 2	m
10.	Secretary	Aussie rules	S	Fig 2	m
11.	Member	Bushwalking	R	Fig 2	f
12.	Secretary/player	Lawn bowls	S	Fig 2	m
13.	Member	Badminton	S	Fig 2	f
14.	Administrator	Badminton	S	Fig 2	f
15.	Volunteer/adm	Fencing	S	Fig 2	f
16.	Volunteer/adm	Soccer	S	Fig 2	m
17.	Secretary/Player	Field hockey	S	Interview	m
18.	Volunteer	Baseball	S	Interview	f
19.	Coach	Softball	S	Interview	f
20.	Player	Field hockey	S	Interview	m

Table 4.1 provides descriptive background to each of the individuals involved in this qualitative section of the research, including members of the focus groups and those who were interviewed in the research.

#### 4.2.5 Interviews

After the second focus group was conducted, four in-depth interviews were scheduled with members of clubs. The interviews provided further qualitative feedback and augmented the focus group data. Telephone interviews were chosen due to the flexible nature of obtaining samples from different geographic areas, and there was evidence that people responded more candidly on the telephone than when the interviewer was present, which is noted in certain research (Thomas & Nelson, 2001). The researcher

conducted the interviews with four members of various clubs to explore information concerning club membership and social capital in greater depth. The one-to-one telephone interviews were of one-hour duration and allowed respondents the opportunity to give significant detail in their responses. The interviews provided an additional aspect of triangulation in this qualitative phase of the research. In addition, they provided another opportunity to explore the focus group responses in more detail.

#### **4.2.6 Data Collection Procedures**

The two focus groups were conducted in different geographic areas in Melbourne. One focus group included respondents from the eastern and southern regions of Melbourne and the other drew members from the north and western suburbs, representing a wide range of Melbourne leisure clubs. Prior to conducting the focus groups the researcher reviewed literature on the role of the facilitator (Berg, 2007). A procedural guide (model) was developed on how the focus groups would run prior to their delivery. This included the level and type of language to be used. After careful consideration it was decided that simple language would be appropriate and careful listening to initial responses to make sure that the groups understood the question(s) that they were being asked.

The facilitator developed a guide for the session which is included below.

##### **Procedure for focus groups (Adapted from Berg, 2007)**

1. General introductions
2. Articulate the rules of the night
3. Questions provided to the group
4. Discussion of responses to questions
5. Special areas and issues to address
6. Process for dealing with additional issues
7. Review and discussion of main points
8. Final wrap up

When members arrived at each focus group they were welcomed and provided with name tags (first name only) and club names for identification by the research assistant. They were introduced to each other and then each member introduced themselves, their

club name, their role, and length of time in the club. Members had already signed a form guaranteeing anonymity and the researcher explained that comments and responses made would be recorded anonymously with no names of respondents used. Members were also told that they did not have to respond to questions, especially any they found to be sensitive or threatening. The researcher then explained the parameters of the study, its significance and why the qualitative section of the research was so important. On prior agreement by the respondents, a tape recording of discussions and responses were made of both focus groups assuring clarity of recall. Responses were also recorded on butcher's paper by a research assistant to present the main points to the group, and also to have a record of each focus group to augment the taping of each session. The writing ensured that the group was aware of the items that were raised and it helped the group deal with anomalies, and evaluate and prioritise items.

The facilitator had each member complete a short set of questions (Appendix B) concerning social capital in clubs (Krueger, 1997). The questions were arranged around themes (components) of social capital from the literature to address issues (Onyx & Bullen, 2001; Kornhauser & Sheatsley, 1951; cited by Patton, 2001; Narayan, & Cassidy, 2001; Putnam, 2001; Sabatini, 2009).

After the respondents completed the questions the researcher began a discussion with the individuals by asking for their responses.

Prompts based on the content of 4.1.1 above were used in both the focus groups and interviews associated with defining social capital (see Appendix B) and its components including trust and reciprocity (Putnam, 2000). Prompts were designed to initiate discussion on the nature of clubs and why people joined them. Prompts included questions on aspects of general club life, which of these establish good and bad relationships between members, and social capital components. These were grouped as identified in the literature on social capital and augmented with additional questions related to components (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 2000; Sabatini, 2009; World Bank, 1999). In both focus groups and the interviews the questions were a guide to ensure that the interaction was focused but still allowed individual perspectives and experiences to emerge (Patton, 2001).

Each focus group ran for approximately ninety minutes, with the researcher concluding the discussion and reviewing the main responses recorded seeking out any additional information. During each focus group the researcher made a concerted effort to ensure all members were able to provide significant input in to the session. The butcher's paper summaries, recordings, and the notes were retained as elements of the focus group information. After analysis of the focus group information these responses concerning club elements of social capital, together with items from the literature review, contributed to the initial development of the quantitative scale.

#### **4.2.7 Interview Procedures**

The interview procedures were similar to those used in the focus groups with the use of prompts to initiate discussion. The researcher provided each interviewee with a description of the research and questions used as prompts in the focus groups which provided a framework for the interviews. Each of the interviewees completed the set of questions and emailed their responses to the researcher. The conversation began with a discussion of their responses to the questions, social capital as a theoretical perspective and their individual club experiences. The semi-structured interviews provided enough structure to cover the topic while allowing flexibility for further in-depth discussion of the questions (Berg, 2007). This allowed the interviewees to feel relaxed, able to understand the topic, but even more importantly to feel that they could understand the theoretical basis of social capital on their own terms. The telephone interviews were recorded to ensure accurate collection of the data and lasted approximately an hour. The researcher asked respondents to repeat comments for better understanding and when completing the interviews the researcher summarised the comments allowing for greater clarity and understanding. The interview responses were checked, coded (open), and analysed with the focus group data. All data from the qualitative phase was analysed and compared with information from the literature.

#### **4.2.8 Significance of the Qualitative Information**

The information collected in the qualitative phase allowed issues to be discussed, such as comparing 'tolerance of diversity' with 'acceptance' and asking for club members' viewpoints on which would seem more applicable to club social capital. Therefore, use of both interviews and focus groups added significant data and viewpoints, giving the

researcher a ‘grass roots’ picture of social capital, and providing a better understanding of the concept from the participants’ perspective. Questions used in the qualitative phase were informed by the literature and were applicable to this initial stage of the research.

#### **4.4 Issues in Conduct of the Qualitative Phase**

In the initial focus group discussions it became evident that terms such as ‘social capital’ and ‘reciprocity’ were seen as academic terms rather than those that the average person might use or understand. The facilitator was able to explain these terms in a simple manner to provide a better understanding amongst the members. After discussion, terms such as social capital were explained as ‘friendship’ and ‘connections’, and reciprocity was described as ‘people supporting each other’, or ‘the give and take’ between people in clubs. As the focus group sessions progressed people were able to begin to analyse concepts such as reciprocity and interpret it as ‘favours’ and ‘helping people’. Other components, such as trust, relationships, and obligations were discussed with the members who provided insightful statements that illustrated the theoretical concept in practice. Thus rich statements were provided by members in the focus groups regarding trust, friendships, and the sense of acceptance and informal rules that exist in their clubs. Respondents were encouraged to explain and give any further examples in their responses at the end of the sessions.

##### **4.4.1 Process Used in the Qualitative Phase of the Research**

In both the interviews and in the focus groups a ‘funnel’ approach was applied which begins with more general questions then gradually moves to a narrower specific focus (Morgan, 1997). For example, it would begin with questions such as: ‘Does your club have a strong sense of belonging?’ This would be followed by questions such as: ‘Can you give examples illustrating this?’, or ‘How do you know this is true?’ The first question asks for their belief or attitude, the second for a specific behavioural example. Members often said ‘yes, there is a sense of belonging’ based on their belief of what their club appears to be to them. The second question allowed the respondent to provide an actual action or behaviour they observed that showed this sense of belonging. This process is common in the social sciences, with attitude and behaviour studied through the theory of planned behaviour (Azen, & Fishbein, 1980; Madden,

Ellen & Ajzen, 1992). Much of this research focused on the wish or attitude to partake in something versus the actual act of doing it. This is based on the theory of planned action versus observed, recalled, and actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). This theory provided strong direction in both phases of this research.

The prompt questions in the semi structured format allowed for some flexibility, the opportunity to explore issues and responses, further proving good direction. Questions relating to trust, acceptance and reciprocity highlighted the specific importance that people in clubs gave to these themes which are incorporated in the literature (Onyx & Bullen, 2001).

This qualitative phase focused on both positive and negative aspects of social capital themes such as trust and distrust and how a club feels when trust is broken. Thus negative aspects and bad relationships in clubs were discussed and statements from the participants illustrated how important good relationships based on trust were in clubs.

In the conduct of focus groups and interviews the interviewer made respondents feel relaxed while remaining neutral and encouraging responses from the participants (Patton, 2001). In this manner the interviewer was able to address any issues of subjectivity and objectivity (May, 1997). The interviewer was familiar with the questions, used simple short statements, and allowed time for respondents to clarify their responses (Babbie, 2007; Neuman, 2012).

When completed the focus group and interview recordings and notes provided a significant amount of data, representing over 400 individual responses.

#### **4.4.2 Qualitative Data Transcription, Entry, and Coding**

Transcription and data entry were done soon after completion of the interviews and focus groups to address potential problems of recall. The researcher went through the data, checking to make sure the notes were full, readable and sensible (Paton, 2001). After the data was checked the researcher went back through the tapes and compared this against written notes. The data was analysed by identifying aspects of the data, coding it and putting it into categories (Patton, 2001). Data was coded manually with comments written on index cards, providing the researcher with a better understanding

and interpretation of the data. The use of index cards for the storage of data allowed the researcher to physically arrange statements into designated headings for further analysis before loading into the computer (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Coding often reflects the researcher's interpretation and this was done by using descriptive words such as 'support' or 'friendship' which summarised the notes (Saldana, 2003). This initial coding allowed for data to be put into categories (labels) for the beginning of a filing system. Coding allowed the researcher to compare, questioning the data and developing concepts with and about the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Data was categorised while looking for relationships and addressing assumptions that arose through the support of data (Basit, 2003). Similarities were noted, which highlighted relationships, allowing for data to be coded under common headings (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This phase of data transcription provided an objective account of responses using the participants' wording of their responses.

Strauss and Corbin's work referred specifically to grounded theory. However, research not directly employing this method can use aspects of it to categorise data along the research aims noting relationships. By employing aspects of grounded theory the researcher repeatedly revisited the data, exploring links between themes to reduce data while at the same time being open to new themes (Neuman, 2012).

Attempts were made to understand social capital from the participant's perspective while adhering to the research aims and the literature. The researcher explored the data for items, themes and categories signifying social capital in leisure clubs. Data reflected the views of people in leisure clubs and social capital. This provided a snapshot of everyday life in the clubs and is an important aspect of qualitative research. The initial analysis identified a large number of themes (categories) which were reduced through further analysis and recorded. This initial recording included statements and themes and linked them to a specific component of social capital. The data was put into *Excel* for initial refinement and analysis using open codes to discover major themes and sub-themes. *Excel* provides for flexible storage and manipulation, sorting, and for the transfer of data into other packages for analysis (Neuman, 2012). The data was recorded according to date and session. A number of additional themes were noted from the qualitative data in addition to that in the literature, which is often a

common outcome of empirical research (Jacob, 1987). This outcome was an important part of the rationale for this phase of the research, providing additional themes as highlighted in Chapter 3. Responses were categorized under the apparent theme or components that each related to, for example trust, reciprocity (Onyx & Bullen, 2000). Coded grouped responses were analysed for specific component characteristics and to indicate any additional components.

#### **4.5 Qualitative Analysis**

In this exploratory phase the researcher quantified the data by putting it into codes related to themes and counting how many times they occurred. This quantified the qualitative data so it was comparable to quantitative data (Creswell, 2003). Numbers highlighted the importance and weight of themes and important in linking statements with themes.

The summaries of the recordings and notes had been entered into *Excel* to begin sorting (Babbie, 2007). The general characteristics and the specific identifiers were sorted into groups so identifiers were associated with only one category of relationships between people. For example friendship included quotes such as, '*our club is friendly to new members*', and '*in our club there are a lot of hugs given*'.

The conclusions from the analysis provided supportive information regarding the nature of social capital in leisure organisations, with some direct statements noted for possible use as survey items. Responses which highlighted significant examples of social capital in clubs were used in the initial development of the survey instrument, based on the views of participants (Creswell, 2003). The statements were tallied and the most common used to augment the literature, and for items supporting the initial scale development.

##### **4.5.1 Focus Group and Interview Results**

Coding and analysis of responses resulted in additional social capital components to those in the literature. Responses were counted and allocated to a theme. The process was repeated and through further analysis gradually reduced the number of themes

(Berg, 2007). Themes included under open coding, ‘friendship’ and ‘support’, and are listed below.

Initial themes:

- a. bonding, loyalty, belonging, and unity.
- b. social friendship, social events, and connections
- c. trust, social trust
- d. acceptance, tolerance, and respect
- e. support, helping, give and take, share the load
- f. obligation, codes, expectations

Themes (categories) were collapsed: for example ‘social events’ and ‘social friendships’ became one, as did ‘loyalty’ and ‘bonding’, which became ‘bonding’.

‘Trust’, ‘bonding’ and ‘friendship’ received the highest number of comments.

Component refinement suggested ‘acceptance’, ‘tolerance’, ‘diversity’, and ‘equality’ being linked into one component: ‘acceptance’. This was the first iteration after the manual coding (see Appendix C).

The coding and use of terms were based on social capital components from the literature and from discovered themes. Coding and analysis were initially developed during the data collection, as suggested by Warren and Karner (2005). The use of open coding allowed for themes to be identified and issues addressed systematically (Berg, 2007). Under further analysis components such as ‘social support’, ‘friendship’ and ‘networks’ initially analysed as independent aligned under ‘friendship’ and ‘networks’.

This initial analysis resulted in eight component groups and the researcher applied further comparative analysis to reduce component numbers and explore similarities. While most comments were linked with main themes there were a number including ‘communication’ and ‘how clubs are managed and operated’, which were noted as stand-alone items. Themes including ‘trust’, ‘bonding’, ‘support’ and ‘friendship’ were noted as the most important of the responses.

### 4.5.2 Major Themes (Component Categories)

Focus groups and interviews generated the following themes below.

**Table 4.2 Factors and Quotes from the Focus Groups and Interviews**

Factor	Quote
Friendship and networks	'Our club members have warm friendships'. 'Handshakes and hugs are given when members meet'. 'Our club is made of a network of friends'.
Reciprocity, dependence and support	'In a club you need to be able to depend on others'. 'Members depend on each other for safety and equipment'. 'We can depend on others for advice and childcare'. 'In this club we help each other but no one keeps score'.
Trust	'You have to be able to trust each other'. We trust our board to do the right thing'. 'When trust is there everything is easy'. 'When trust is broken we feel uneasy and want to fix it'. 'Without trust there is no club'.
Network connections, loyalty, bonding, and social activities	'We joined the club for our sport, but stayed for our friends'. 'Club activities are good but the social networks are best'. 'Our club is a big social club'. 'If people are offered money to play for another club they decline'.
Norms of behaviour	'In our club you are expected to help out'. 'When boats come in you help bring in gear'. 'People who don't help out are not asked to fish socially'.
Tolerance and acceptance	'Our club is very accepting of people'. 'Our club has many people from different backgrounds'. 'If someone looks or is a bit different but does the right thing in the club we accept them'. 'We accept anyone if their heart is in the right place'.
Additional stand alone themes. communication, pride, camaraderie, and distrust	'In our club we discuss issues before voting'. 'Our club is a club with great pride'. 'Our members have a sense of camaraderie'. 'When there is distrust even after it is fixed we find it hard to accept the person'. 'With distrust you want to point the finger at someone'.

### 4.5.3 Friendship and Networks.

Friendships and networks were established in the clubs. Statements including '*Our club is made of caring individuals*' were used as well as terms such as '*camaraderie*' to describe relationships between club members. These highlighted some of the very strong friendships in the clubs. Networks were evident from statements by club members referring to '*the network of friends in our club*', and a majority of those in attendance had met some of their longstanding friends in their club.

#### 4.5.4 Reciprocity, Dependence, and Support

Reciprocity, dependence and support were also important and often noted. For example, individuals said that they needed help: such as fishing clubs regarding safety, and sport clubs regarding equipment. All groups needed people who were dependable and provided help when needed. Members reported they had grown to depend on each other for deeper needs including someone they could trust their children with, or for asking for support, advice or favours. This reiterates their dependence on each other, the sharing of tasks and the will to return favours provided to them. This is illustrated clearly by Fields (2008), who in regard to 'support' noted that people refer to friends for advice (such as where to purchase a car, or advice for a good doctor), thus bypassing the formal system in order to ask someone they know. The club members in this study stated this in their comments in a number of ways therefore supporting previous research.

#### 4.5.5 Trust

Trust was another important facet of the club environment and for many the most important aspect of a club. Members said they needed trust and reliability from members. When trust was present '*The club did not require too many rules*' or additional surveillance of members and refers to previous research (Putnam, 2000). Members talked about trust and its existence allowed for greater involvement in the activities and a chance to partake in social events, building closer relationships between club members. This illustrates the practical benefits of networks, interactions, and relationships, which result in getting things done (Putnam, 2000).

After further analysis it emerged that there was a close relationship between trust between members (such as trusting the other person to be on time) and trust to perform a task (such as to bring equipment) which is more a functional trust. Therefore trust was important in this qualitative phase and is equally important in the literature (Fields, 2008; Onyx & Bullen, 2001; Fukuyama, 1999; Putnam, 2000; Uslander, 2001). However, respondents also mentioned distrust and the fact that, in clubs, it was possible to meet people who could not be trusted. They referred to these as clubs of which they no longer were a member. In cases of distrust, members also said the group suffers, and social capital is reduced as it devalues the network or club. Lastly, they said trust was

like a special gift that when lost, made members feel unsettled. Trust was of significant importance both on a functional (practical level) and on a deeper personal level.

#### **4.5.6 Network Connections, Loyalty, Bonding and Social Activities**

Network connections, loyalty, bonding and social activities are listed in the social capital literature which reinforces the importance of the social side of club networks (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 1995, 2000; Sherry, 2010). They were also listed as very important in the qualitative phase of this research, in that a significant number of people responded that bonds and friendships were important in members choosing to stay in a club. Still others reported the importance of social networks at their leisure club. Members referred to the bonds and loyalty between members in their club as outweighing winning and trophies.

#### **4.5.7 Norms of Behaviour**

Norms are noted as important components of social capital in the literature (Onyx & Bullen, 1997; Putnam, 2000) and in this analysis they were initially seen to be closely related to trust or reciprocity. However, they were significant enough to be included on their own according to their importance as expressed in comments from the respondents. This was illustrated best by a fishing club member who outlined their club code (norms). Their unwritten norms dictate that club members help each other. Members are expected to help bring in boats and fishing gear into the clubrooms when boats arrive back from fishing. Members who do not assist are not invited into the inner social side of the club. Club members felt people should be observant enough to understand this unstated rule. Clubs with strong norms carry out their duties, extending the club through volunteering, give and take, and norms of behaviour. Thus the altruistic nature of club members sets a tone for others to follow by the example of members and the expectations that these will be maintained. This comment was mentioned a number of times in various ways, as *'People help each other and share the load'*, indicating strong norms.

#### **4.5.8 Tolerance and Acceptance.**

Tolerance and acceptance were noted frequently in the responses and recorded under a number of headings including 'tolerance', 'acceptance', and 'equality'. This theme has

often been highlighted in the literature as ‘tolerance of diversity’ (Onyx & Bullen, 1999; Putnam, 2000). However in this research it was initially listed under multiple headings. In discussion during the focus groups, the researcher asked what each meant to members. Members used the term ‘acceptance’ and clarified it by saying they accept people who work for the club. The members understood ‘acceptance’ and had a practical working understanding of the term and used it freely. ‘Tolerance’ however, did not indicate fully accepting someone when members stated for example *‘I can tolerate other people who are different but this doesn’t mean I accept them as an equal’*. This point was noted and the ease of understanding of ‘acceptance’ by the club members in a number of instances.

#### **4.5.9 Additional Themes.**

In addition to these main headings a number of other themes emerged, including ‘pride and loyalty’, ‘camaraderie’, ‘information’, ‘communication’, ‘fellowship’, and ‘rights’. They referred to members feeling close to each other, being proud of their club and its fair and open information sharing. Negative items, including distrust within their club, and unfriendly non-supportive members in a club were also listed. However, these comments were not as frequently stated as the previously listed themes. The negative items were retained and were analysed further in the next iteration. Statements such as ‘People in the club can be clicky’, “People are interested in their own welfare”, and ‘People who do not put into the club are left out’ were kept in the early scale, however through the various iterations were removed through statistical analysis. Other negative comments such as lack of transparency or information not circulating were also discussed.

After initial analysis responses were placed under social capital components to be used in a scale. They were explored further for duplications, clarity, and statements they addressed concerning club social capital by the researcher and advisers. A number of responses were developed into statements for possible use in the scale. Thus, the qualitative phase of the research provided a deeper understanding of social capital from a club member’s perspective and was instrumental in providing statements which were analysed into items for development of the initial scale. The next section highlights the process of initial development and reduction of scale items and themes.

#### 4.6. Development of the Survey Instrument

Triangulation was employed with the components and items from the literature, and those generated from the qualitative phase, to construct the initial scale to measure social capital in leisure clubs (Paton, 2001). In addition to those previously listed, the initial scale included the following examples of items. Themes are denoted in the brackets.

- ‘Our club rewards people who put a lot of time in to the club not those who achieve success in competition’. (Contribution)
- ‘Our club is a network of friendships” (Networks)
- ‘Our club members accept new comers, and bring them in to the club. (Friendship)
- ‘Our club expects people to help each other and be helped by others’. (Reciprocity)
- ‘Members can exercise their right and share the power in the club’. (Governance)
- ‘Trust among members in our club is higher than outside of the club’. (Trust)
- ‘It does not matter what you look like if your heart is in the right place’ (Acceptance)
- ‘Diversity of membership within our club is very high’. (Diversity)
- ‘Tolerance of people and behaviour is important in our club’. (Norms)

These and other indicators were compared with the literature to judge their applicability to a scale. The research ensured against bias and maintained proper procedures with the PhD supervisors fulfilling the role of independent reviewers through this process. The qualitative responses were integrated into a large questionnaire, which was the beginning of the Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS). The initial scale had over two hundred items.

The researcher began the process of refining items, checking wording, and dropping weak items while retaining stronger items for inclusion in the scale. This phase of item reduction included an extensive literature search on the sources and factors represented in social capital (Brown, 2008; Onyx & Bullen 2000; Field, Schuller, & Baron, 2,000; Field, 2003; Putnam 2,000; World Bank, 2002). The literature provided insights into

defining social capital and its components. These included tolerance of diversity, acceptance, friendship, support, reciprocity, governance, networks, trust, and norms. The components in the literature were analysed against themes generated in this research to determine relevance to social capital in sport and recreation clubs before being included in the survey. After this analysis six of the themes from the research were adopted into the scale as components of social capital: trust, friendship networks, norms of behaviour, reciprocity, governance, tolerance and acceptance.

#### **4.6.1 Initial Development and Process for the Survey Instrument**

The initial questionnaire of almost two hundred items was reduced through analysis by further reading, and scoring of items for clarity, focus, and duplications. The process included ranking of items and measuring the nature of the question in terms of its tone. This refers to whether the question was written from a positive or negative perspective. In initial discussions it was decided to use a mixture of positive and negative statements as items to ensure validity by requiring respondents to read and think through each statement before selecting the appropriate response (Patton, 2001). Questions were ranked according to the nature of what component of social capital they measured. Questions were analysed to discern if they addressed the aspect of social capital that they were intended to measure. They were also scored on whether they measured an attitudinal viewpoint or if they reflected a particular behaviour in the club (Ajzen, & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1985). Here, some questions were written to measure an individual's belief of the club's nature while others measured a witnessed behaviour or incident in their club. Questions were also examined closely for any similarity to other questions in the scale.

Those seen to be similar to others were marked, examined further, and removed or merged into other questions. Continued scrutiny allowed for removal of weak items resulting in a scale of 161 items (see Appendix D).

#### **4.6.2 Panel of Experts**

After careful consideration the researcher decided further refinement and reduction of items could be completed by the use of an objective panel. This is a common research tool which employs a panel of experts to conduct an elicitation to advise on putting

parts of a whole together (Arkles, Mumpower, & Stewart, 1997). The panel provides viewpoints on a topic to increase validity of the end result, especially where data is lacking (Limestone & Turnoff, 1975). This process was especially suited to social capital as its measurement and definition are still uncertain (Stone et al, 2003). In this particular research, the panel's advice was only sought in one instance. This differs from the Delphi technique which uses repeated iterations of the panel's opinions (Skulmoski, Hartman & Krahn, 2007). This research was exploratory so employing the panel for this iteration was seen as sufficient for providing independent input in further item reduction. While the panel was used only once, two groups were used with each group undertaking a different set of exercises for item clarification and reduction. Members were assigned to one of two groups, to complete one of two exercises developed by the researcher. Each person was provided with background to this research and social capital, the questionnaire, and directions to assist in carrying out the exercise for further testing of items (See Appendices E.1 and E.2).

The panel, comprised of ten people, included academics, consultants in the sport sector, local government planners, government research staff, and members of the research unit at the Department for Victorian Communities. All members selected had a good understanding of social capital.

Group A were instructed to classify scale items as being written either positively (+) or negatively (--) in terms of social capital (Appendix E.1). They were also asked to classify items as being written from an attitudinal or behavioural position or if the comment measured an attitude of what the club was like, or an observed behaviour in the club. They were also asked to comment on any items that were similar to, or could be duplicates of, others and lastly for any further feedback on the scale and clarity of items.

Group B were asked to comment on the strength of each item in measuring social capital from a scale of 1 to 3, with one being the low indicator (Appendix E.2). The members were asked to categorise each statement as belonging to, or measuring, one of six components: reciprocity, trust, friendship networks, governance, tolerance of diversity, and norms of behaviour. The group was also asked to nominate a category for items which did not match with the categories provided. Lastly, they also made comments on the components considered for use in the survey, and on sentence clarity,

wording and style. After analysis of responses the data was loaded into an *Excel* spreadsheet and items were tallied and analysed.

### **4.6.3 Analysis**

The completed information from both groups (A and B) was tallied in terms of responses, sorted according to highest-ranking scores, followed by comments on the categories of the components of social capital and other suggested changes concerning accuracy and style. Scores were compared for each item on how they measured social capital and for clarity. They were also analysed on social capital components that each item was listed under, if the item measured an attitude or behaviour, or were they written from a positive or negative perspective.

After the completion of the scoring, some items were redeveloped and rewritten to achieve greater clarity. Questions which rated high in social capital by the panel, and those deemed as clearly belonging to a specific component of social capital were moved into a new survey instrument. The six components of social capital were retained and a number of questions were transferred into their respective category that they were listed as belonging to. In the focus groups members had stressed that acceptance of members was clearer, stronger, and easier to understand in its meaning than tolerance of diversity, and this was supported by the panel. Therefore, 'tolerance' was replaced by 'acceptance' as one of the components of social capital in the draft scale.

Attempts were made to balance questions with a number representing a negative aspect of the club and some with a positive aspect. Similarly, questions which measured both attitude and the behaviour of people in the club were retained in the new questionnaire. However, weak items with low scores were removed from the scale, which resulted in a reduced scale of 132 items (see Appendix F).

At this point there were still more items than was appropriate and these were examined for wording and similarity to other questions. Items were scrutinised on how they addressed social capital factors through the employment of a Likert scale. This resulted in reduction of item numbers, with a number of questions also redeveloped from a semantic perspective. Further analysis resulted in removal of a number of items,

reducing the number of items to 76, with 12 items listed under each factor for the pilot questionnaire.

The component headings such as ‘trust’, and ‘reciprocity’ were removed and items were randomly ordered so they were not clustered together under the same components. Survey instructions were drafted for respondents to ensure clear understanding of the directions and what was expected of them. The use of a type of Likert response was explored, using five possible response categories. A brief explanation for respondents regarding their background was included in the survey. It was imperative to obtain some basic descriptive information about each of the respondents involved in the pilot study (Dillman, 2000). These changes were incorporated in the survey to ensure clarity, and ease of completion in a short time. The redrafted Pilot Test scale incorporated six components of social capital representing 76 items measuring social capital (Appendix G).

The survey was piloted with 100 respondents. These respondents were not a part of the main study (quantitative) section, but their responses were analysed using factor analysis to test reliability and validity. This process was used to factor out items which were not strong indicators of social capital, were not relating to other scale items or contributing to strength of the scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

#### **4.7 Summary**

This chapter described the initial qualitative phase of the research, addressing the aims raised in Chapter 3. It described the process for data collection and analysis. The developmental work described in this Elicitation chapter resulted in a detailed viewpoint drawn from the research regarding social capital, a refined list of themes, and items for the initial construction of the Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) measure. Some themes and items were direct responses from participants and the chapter also articulates the process of refinement of items and the use of the objective panel of experts. The exploratory nature of this initial phase of the research provided grounded input into construction of a scale measure of 76 questions which employed a five- point Likert scale. In the next chapter the process of the pilot testing of the scale measure will be outlined followed by its analysis, and refinement, into the scale measure used in the main phase of this research.

## **Chapter 5: Development of a Scale to Measure the Social Capital of Leisure Clubs**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the pilot test of the initial scale developed in the elicitation study, its refinement, and development of the Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) scale (Appendix H.). It then describes the distribution and analysis of this scale to the main study in this research. The (CSCS) scale consisted of 42 items aligned under six factors of social capital which include: trust, friendship, acceptance, reciprocity, norms, and governance.

This first quantitative phase of the study tested the 76-item social capital scale through a pilot study. The outcome of the pilot study was development of the CSCS scale distributed through leisure clubs in Victoria measuring their social capital. Item construction and response concepts were used with a Likert Scale in delivery of the 42-item Club Social Capital Scale (Dillman, 2000; Nueman, 2012).

This chapter describes the distribution and analysis of the CSCS to a sample of Victorian sport and recreation leisure club members which represents the main phase of this research. It culminates in the development of the final reduced scale of twenty items that can be used to measure social capital in leisure clubs in future research. As highlighted it also includes the construction, distribution, and analysis of the Social Capital Club Behavioural Scale which was developed to be tested and correlated against the CSCS for use in future research.

### **5.2 Pilot Study**

The purpose of this section of the thesis is to provide a descriptive analysis of the pilot study that was completed prior to the main study phase. It also outlines improvements to the scale in regard to wording, items, and ease of response. In terms of analysis, detailed findings will not be presented. However, the process used and the final outcomes will be reported concerning development of the main study scale however because factors were correlated Oblimon rotation was employed

The survey was piloted with 100 respondents employing a five-point Likert scale. The scale included 76 items aligned under six components of social capital including trust, friendship, acceptance, reciprocity, norms, and governance. These respondents were not part of the main study (quantitative) section, but their responses were analysed using factor analysis to test reliability and validity. This process was used to factor out items which were not strong indicators of social capital, were not relating to other scale items nor contributing to strength of the scale (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2001). The questionnaire of 76 items was too large for the main sample, and further item reduction was required which resulted in a smaller scale with high validity. Therefore, the pilot study and analysis was another process for removal of weak items and further scale refinement.

### **5.2.1 Pre-test**

Prior to the pilot test, the draft scale was provided to two members of sporting clubs who were not part of the pilot test nor included in the main study. The rationale for conducting the pre-test was to obtain feedback on actual question clarity, ambiguity, and understanding of instructions (Babbie, 2007). The researcher sat with each respondent while the respondent read each scale item and explained what they perceived it was asking them, prior to making their response. The pre-test provided feedback on clarity, and time needed for responses. Feedback suggested that two items (items 5 and 65) be altered slightly to provide greater clarity.

### **5.2.2 Pilot Test Sample**

The questionnaire was trialled with a convenience sample of 100 members of diverse sport and recreation clubs (Dillman, 1978). The sample consisted of 38 female and 62 male participants, from 18 through 70 years of age, with a mean age of 46. An attempt to provide a balance between members of sport and members of recreation clubs was made. The pilot study included representatives from cricket, cycling, lawn bowls, softball, dog obedience, rowing, angling, trugo, lacrosse, tennis, basketball, shooting, triathlon, netball, hockey, soccer, calisthenics, and football clubs.

### **5.2.3 Questionnaire.**

A five- point Likert response category, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = agree to 5 = strongly agree, was employed (Babbie,

2007). Likert response was chosen due to the clarity of responses for the participants, ease of analysis and data entry, and time required to answer questions (Dillman, 2000). Basic descriptive background information about each of the respondents was also obtained, including age, gender, whether a sport or recreation club, time in the club, and club role. Item responses were analysed to identify items that were not strong indicators of social capital factors, to observe the pattern of responses, and for item clarity (Dillman, 2000).

Prior to the pilot test, scale items were reordered so they were not clustered together under the same factor headings but were spread out across the scale. Brief instructions were provided regarding directions on completing the survey, and the importance of responding to each item (see Appendix G). Members were also reminded that questions related to social aspects of most clubs and that the research was interested in the degree or extent that this may or may not exist in their particular club.

#### **5.2.4 Procedures**

The researcher distributed copies of the questionnaire to club members who then provided it to those members of their club who were part of the convenience sample for completion of the survey. The club member also coordinated the collection of completed questionnaires, while a small number were mailed back to the researcher.

#### **5.2.5 Analysis**

In total, 100 completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher for analysis. Factor analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15. The process using Exploratory Factor Analysis was prescriptive and methodical allowing for development and testing of scale through a number of iterations reducing items and providing a factor mapping exercise after each showing a methodical map of item reduction. Oblimon rotation was used with principal components as they allowed for identification of main components and allowed for correlation (relationships) between factors to be identified to a minimum degree. Factor analysis resulted in a large number of related items aligned into a smaller number of factors, thereby resulting in greater clarity and parsimony (Harman 1976; Kass, & Tinsley, 1979). Items were observed for validity, strength of the item in the scale, and for reliability in the scale

(Neuman, 1997). This analysis helped reduce items for the final scale. Factor analysis enabled measurement of validity and factor strength through use of item total correlation and item reliability tests using Cronbach's alpha (Thomas, Nelson, & Silverman, 2011).

The procedure allowed for removal of weak items from the scale, maintaining internal reliability and item and total scale strength. This method is especially suited to items in scales with various point values, such as attitudinal scales employing Likert scales (Thomas, Nelson, & Silverman, 2011).

In terms of scale development and sample analysis, careful regard was given to normality and extremes in co-variance. Checks were made for normality of distribution. Thus the process and procedures were logical and robust, with careful checks conducted at all steps of the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

### **5.2.6 Results**

The data were normally distributed. During analysis an item-mapping exercise of the discovered factors against the intended factors was conducted. Items that did not load strongly on any of the single factors were dropped (items whose weight on a particular factor was low  $< .05$  and items that loaded on two factors with difference less than  $.1$  (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In total 34 weak items that statistically did not contribute to scale reliability and or validity were removed. The process reduced the survey instrument from 76 to 42 items, representing the six components (factors) of social capital (trust, friendship, acceptance, reciprocity, norms, and governance). In the final refining of items, attention was given to wording, the factor of social capital they addressed, and an attempt to maintain a similar number of items (7) for each factor. Employing exploratory factor analysis in the pilot study, it was important not to report everything as it is a developmental process and not a tool. Mild skewness (slight bias) of responses towards the centre on the 5 point Likert scale suggested the need for more variation resulting in the employment of a 7 point Likert scale providing greater variation and precision. This refinement resulted in the establishment of the 42 item Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) (see Appendix H.).

### **5.3 Main Study (quantitative phase)**

This section of the thesis provides a description of the sample in this main phase of the research, distribution of the survey, analysis, and refinement of the Club Social Capital Scale and the Social Capital Club Behavioural Scale which will be explained below.

#### **5.3.1 Questionnaire - Social Capital Attitudinal and Social Capital Behavioural Scale(s)**

The Club Social Capital Scale included the Club Social Capital Scale (Section B) of the questionnaire which used a Likert scale with seven response options ranging from ‘very strongly disagree (0)’ to ‘very strongly agree (6)’.

The questionnaire also included a series of ten questions (Section C), measuring club behaviour, designed as a validating measure of the 42 item CSCS. Section C provided examples of instances in which the club members were involved in specific club activities, such as attending working bees, to assess club involvement against the attitudinal responses to items in the scale on social capital in Section B. In this way, as previously highlighted, the research employed triangulation to use specific events (actions) to measure against attitudinal responses in Section B. Responses to the items in the Club Behaviour Scale ranged from ‘never’ (1) to ‘frequently’ (4) and were an adapted Likert recall response set (Dillman, 2000).

The behavioural scale was analysed to test for scale item construction and validity and correlated with the CSCS for use in future research.

#### **5.3.2 Main Study Sample**

The sample consisted of a range of local leisure sport and recreation clubs in Victoria. In most instances clubs which were part of the survey group were one of five or more clubs recommended by the Sport Development Officer representing their sport or their recreation activity in Victoria.

### 5.3.3 Sample Selection

Respondents to the questionnaire were drawn from local leisure clubs that had returned signed consent forms and agreed to be part of this research. All respondents were over 18 years of age and current members of a club. The selection included both competitive sport and participatory recreation clubs. Clubs within the peak associations were selected through stratified sampling to ensure a diverse representation. Clubs chosen included both single and mixed gender clubs.

Clubs were identified through referral from their state associations: for example, the Victorian Baseball Association or the peak representative body for fishing, the Victorian Recreational Fishing Association (VRFish). In discussions with state sport association development managers, the researcher asked each to provide a range of clubs which may be interested in participating in the research. The state association development managers provided a contact list of possible clubs which might be interested in participating in the research.

One hundred and fifty questionnaires were allocated to each state association for distribution to five of their local clubs. The associations were instructed to distribute 30 questionnaires through the club secretary to club members over 18 years of age requesting the following ratios: administrators and office bearers were given approximately 10% or three questionnaires, players/members were given 30% or nine questionnaires, volunteers were given 30% or nine questionnaires, and social or associate members were also given approximately 30% or nine questionnaires. This varied slightly between clubs due to size, attendance, and numbers of interested members. However, instruction procedures attempted to attract a range of responses from people in different roles in the club to obtain as representative a sample as possible.

### 5.3.4 Main Study Sample Response Rate

The Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) survey was completed by 1109 individual members of 54 leisure clubs across Victoria (see Table 5.1). This resulted in 738 males and 341 females completing the survey. Thirty individuals did not provide sufficient detail to all of the background items and therefore were unable to be included in the analysis. The sample included 54 of the 87 clubs who were initially contacted about the study, representing a response rate of 62%.

#### 5.4 Questionnaire - the Club Social Capital Scale Survey (CSCS)

This section provides further detail of the CSCS in terms of response rate, description, gender and age in Table 5.1. It also provides a description and rationale for the construction and analysis of the Social Capital Behavioural Scale.

**Table 5.1 Main Study-Questionnaire Return Rate, Respondents, Gender and Age**

<b>CLUBS</b>	<b>Clubs contacted</b>	<b>Not returned</b>	<b>Return rate</b>
	87	33	62%
<b>PERSONS</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
	1079	738	341
	100%	67%	33%
<b>AGE</b>	<b>Years</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
	18-20	9%	11%
	21-30	19%	22%
	31-40	11%	14%
	41-50	20%	18%
	51-60	19%	15%
	> 60 years	22%	20%

Table 5.1 shows the age and gender characteristics of the sample. The male and female participation rate (67% vs. 33%) was noted and will be discussed further in 5.6 below.

##### 5.4.1 Questionnaire - Social Capital Attitudinal and Social Capital Behavioural Scale(s)

The Club Social Capital Scale questionnaire (CSCS) included the Club Social Capital Scale (Section B) of the questionnaire which used a Likert scale with seven response options ranging from ‘very strongly disagree’(0) to ‘very strongly agree’ (6).

The questionnaire also included a series of ten questions (Section C), measuring club behaviour, designed as a validating measure of the 42 item CSCS. Section C provided examples of instances in which the club members were involved in specific club activities, such as attending working bees, to assess club involvement against the attitudinal responses to items in the scale on social capital in Section B. In this way, as previously highlighted, the research employed triangulation to use specific events (actions) to measure against attitudinal responses in Section B. Responses to the items in the Club Behaviour Scale ranged from ‘never’ (1) to ‘frequently’ (4) and employed a Likert recall response set (Dillman, 2000). The behavioural scale was analysed to test for scale item construction and validity and correlated with the CSCS for use in future research.

## 5.5 Procedures

The researcher contacted the club secretaries recommended by each state association for involvement in the research. A club involvement form (Appendix I) was sent to the secretary to respond to and return to the researcher. This included a consent form for the research, a copy of the survey, information about the study and their club's involvement, directions for administering the questionnaires, and what the club would receive for their involvement. A club questionnaire (Appendix I) requesting background information and profile was also provided to the club secretary. When these were completed and returned to the researcher, the club then received 30 surveys, and 30 individual consent forms and information sheets. Club secretaries were instructed to give out individual consent forms (Appendix J) to the members and when the signed consent form was returned, the club member then received a questionnaire to complete. Thus each club member completed a questionnaire which was registered with a consent form, but club members' names were not used. Reply-paid, self-return envelopes were also provided in certain cases for respondents' use but in most instances club secretaries were provided with a large envelope to collate completed surveys and consent forms and return to the researcher. Some state associations coordinated the delivery and collation of consent forms and surveys to their local clubs after initial discussions with the researcher. In a few instances clubs invited the researcher to attend meetings and give out and collect the completed questionnaires.

### 5.5.1 Data Entry

After the researcher received all the completed questionnaires these were individually checked for completed questions and consent forms from each club and individual. Following this they were manually entered in *Excel* and exported to SPSS for analysis.

### 5.5.2 Data Cleaning and Analysis

This section describes the processes used in data preparation and analysis which included a process of data cleaning to ensure the accuracy of data entry and validity of responses. Data was examined using SPSS Frequencies checking. Extreme values in responses were noted and checked for accuracy: for example, cases which were outside the response rating on the survey instrument (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001). Distribution of indices was used and checks were made for normality (skewness) as this was noted in the

5 point Likert questionnaire used in the pilot study. However, after examination and checking for skewness no significantly abnormal data were found.

In initial analysis of this main study data set, the researcher noted the descriptive characteristics of the individuals in the sample and checked the percentage responses in the Club Social Capital Trial Scale (Section B), and the Behaviour in the Club Scale (Section C). The distribution of responses was also examined for any systematic missing values using maximum likelihood estimation as recommended by Enders and Bandalos (2001). Responses were also then analysed for random missing values (Neuman, 2012). The main procedures used included missing values where the researcher examined each section of the scale for incidence of individual items missing values, and also examination of each respondent's returned survey for overall missing items. The strategy employed, for rule of thumb, a conservative cut-off where, if cases had fewer than 80% of items responded to in the questionnaire, it was not included in the analysis. This strategy allowed for deletion of cases with less than 80% of the Club Social Capital Trial Scale (Section B) and/or Behavioural Scale (Section C) items completed. The strategy also included deleting sections of the database with excessive missing values, calculated as 5% for items missing for that section (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

In the Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) no single item was identified as having excessive missing values so all 42 items were retained in the analysis. However, as a result of the analysis of missing values of cases, fourteen were deleted from the sample data set because they had completed fewer than the agreed 80% of items in the main scale Social Capital Trial Scale (Section B). These questionnaires were consequently removed from the sample.

### **5.5.3 Club Behaviour Scale**

In the Club Behavioural Scale (Section C), item 75 'attending working bees in the club' and item 77, 'expressing an alternative point of view in the club' had missing values of 3.7%. This was noted; however it was below the agreed figure of 5% for deletion of items due to missing values. The items were not deleted from the data set but were included in the analysis of this section of the questionnaire. Each of these items represented different but significant aspects of active participation in the club. Item 75 'attending working bees' represented a practical but active involvement in the life of the particular club and the item needed to be retained. Item 77 'expressing an alternative point of view' represented a

significant aspect of club involvement by indicating a strong feeling on the part of the individual that they can be themselves and raise their views. Expressing an alternative point of view in a club reflects a strong club in that it allows for diverse opinions, is representative, and can allow change. It also indicates a club accepting differences and showing a strong sense of bonding and acceptance of difference.

Cases (completed questionnaires) were also examined using the same responses rate for missing values. Individuals responding to less than 80% of items in Section C were removed. This included twenty cases and the researcher noted the number of each of these questionnaires. These cases were removed from the analysis of the main study sample and were included in the examination of the missing values process.

#### **5.5.4 Replacement of Missing Values**

In the social capital items (Section B), missing values were replaced using SPSS missing values procedure. Estimated Missing (EM) was used which calculates the missing value by analysing all items in the scale, making calculations on the relationships between the items based on existing data in the scale. It fills in missing values with estimated values using regression (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This process was then repeated using Estimated Missing (EM) in the Behaviour Scale items Section C of the questionnaire.

#### **5.5.5 Factor Analysis**

Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis exercises were conducted to reduce the number of items in each scale while maintaining interdependence.

Factor Analysis allowed for latent factors identified in the Club Social Capital Scale and the Behavioural Scale. It is a robust procedure and allows for scale item assess in relation to the planned components of scales (Croucher, & Oliver, 1979). The same criteria was used, as in the pilot study, to identify items belonging to a particular factor having the highest weightings greater than .5 and with a difference in weighting greater than .1 between competing factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Factor analysis was used as an exploratory technique to assist in summarising the structure of the variables. The actual value of items was used in order to find discrete factors (Coakes, & Ong, 2011). The researcher conducted a comparative analysis of the

factors using test methods (analysis) of item strength and factors that each primarily represent. Initial factor analyses were conducted to arrange factors in alignment and test that factors were correlated (Coakes, & Ong, 2011). A series of factor analyses (iterations) were conducted employing Principal Components extraction which provided individual scores allowing for more items and a more parsimonious solution for item removal (Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This contrasts with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) a technique which tests hypothesis. Use of CFA at this point in this research may have been too premature and could have resulted in missing some of the salient aspects evolving, however, CFA may be employed in future research. Oblimin rotation method was used and it indicated the scales correlated as components of the same scale. The criteria used for factor justification was an Eigen value greater than one (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The objective was also to retain a number of items that clearly assessed the planned components of the scales. Thirteen iterations were conducted and cut-off items that did not load strongly on any of the single factors were deleted, items whose weight on a particular factor was low  $< .5$  and items which loaded on two factors with difference less than  $.1$  (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This rigorous process identified items that failed to load on factors or which loaded weakly on factors and they were dropped resulting in items in the new Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS). For each test an item mapping exercise of the discovered factors against the intended factors was conducted. Factors were named according to the dominant items in the factor such as Friendly-Acceptance or Trusting-Reciprocity.

### **5.5.6 Reliability Analysis**

Reliability Analysis was employed to assess the quality of the scale as a whole and to identify items which did not contribute to the scale reliability (reliability if item deleted). Correlations were used for a description of the strength of items in the scales. Cronbach Alpha was used as the measure of reliability. Reliability analysis was conducted and each time after analysis the scale and subscales were reduced. The reliability analysis identified which items could be removed from the scale. The researcher used reliability if the item was deleted and if by deleting the item overall reliability was reduced. As well, corrected item-total correlations were conducted demonstrating the factor strength of the association of items with the scale as a whole (Coakes & Ong, 2011). Reliability analysis was applied to the six social capital sub-scales and then the scale as a whole.

## 5.6 Descriptive Characteristics of Sample

The descriptors used in the main study of the sample are noted in Table 5.2. The descriptive information for the respondents in this phase of the research was in Section A of the questionnaire and provided a picture of the sample.

**Table 5.2 Descriptive Characteristics**

<b>Club and Club Members' Descriptors</b>		<b>Split by Gender and Percentage</b>		
<b>Gender</b>		<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>All</b>
		738	341	1079
<b>Age</b>				
	20 years of age or under	11%	9%	
	21-30 years of age	22%	19%	
	31-40 years of age	14%	11%	
	41-50 years of age	18%	20%	
	51-60 years of age	19%	15%	
	>60	22%	20%	
<b>Income per year*</b>				
	\$0- 30,000			14%
	\$31-60,000			27%
	\$61-80,000			15%
	\$81,000 or above			33%
<b>Education*</b>				
	High school or leaving			35%
	Bus/Trade certificate			25%
	Bach Degree			22%
	Post graduate			15%
<b>Clubs in sample</b>				54
	Recreation clubs	48%		
	Sport clubs	52%		
		<b>Men's clubs</b>	<b>Women's clubs</b>	<b>Mixed clubs</b>
		46%	22%	32%
<b>Annual income</b>				
	Nine clubs family income	\$31,000		
	Fifteen clubs	\$61,000-\$81,000		
	One club average income	\$100,000		
	<b>Mean family income</b>	<b>\$60,000</b>		

\* Not all provided this information

The characteristics of the individuals in the clubs (Table 5.2) are described briefly. In regard to gender, 738 males (67%) and 341(32%) females (ratio of almost 2 to 1) completed the survey (Table 5.2). The higher rate of male participation reflects the broader Australian sporting sector: population-based studies show that males have higher

participation in organised sport than females (34.3% vs. 28.5%); higher presence in coaching, 68% compared with 32% for females (Centre for Exercise and Sport Science, 2013; ABS, 2006); and greater presence in sport governance, males 62% versus females 38% (World Values Surveys, 2001). In addition, the types of leisure clubs included in this research, such as football, soccer, baseball and fishing, are likely to show higher male participation. Football for example females make up approximately 5% of total participation, and female participation in fishing is 32% of total participation (ABS, 2006; Football Victoria, 2007; Victorian Recreational Fishing, 2007). This reflects the higher male response rate, as it is reflective of normal distribution of the sport and recreation clubs included in the sample.

The Victorian average household income was \$66, 872 (ABS, 2007-08), which indicates that the participants in the survey were generally in the middle range of income. The education levels of the sample are reflective of a representative sample.

## **5.7 Results**

### **5.7.1 Results of Factor Analysis**

Through analysis the CSCS was reduced from 42 to 20 items representing five empirical factors of social capital (Table 5.3.). Final development of the social capital scale was completed through the elimination of 22 items, with the final scale including four scale items representing each of the social capital factors: friendly-acceptance, norms of behaviour, trusting-reciprocity (helping others), and governance (see 5.7.2.). The items loaded measured social capital, therefore item total correlation is high, expressing a strong relationship between items and reliability.

In the final analysis a scale of 20 items (Table 5.3) provided the strongest configuration while including important social capital factors of norms, governance, with friendly-acceptance and trusting/reciprocity (helping others). This configuration (Table 5.7) had strong reliability (Cronbach's alpha .92).

The Club Social Capital Scale was also correlated with the Social Capital Behavioural Scale (Section C) and was found to be strongly related to behavioural measures of Social Capital, indicating a degree of validity. (See Table 5.10 and section 5.7.10).

### 5.7.2 Factor Structure of the Club Social Capital Scale

In all analysis the factor(s) governance and norms were retained as single strong stand alone factors with friendship and acceptance, trust and reciprocity (helping others) being retained as joined factors. The acceptance factor explained 6.52% of the variance, norms explained 4.64%, trust-reciprocity (helping others) explained 4.29 % and governance explained 5.14%. The overall scale explained 20.32% of the variance within the responses. Table 5.3 presents the items that loaded on the four factors and the item weights ranged between .67 and .88. Table 5.3 shows the overall scale variance with the percentage of variance explained and the 20 items linked to their representative factor. Items are listed from highest to lowest by weighting according to their scores for item structure

**Table 5.3 Overall Scale Variance**

	<b>F1</b>	<b>F2</b>	<b>F3</b>	<b>F4</b>
<b>Friendly-Acceptance</b>				
13*.In our club, it is easy to make friends	.797			
18. The club brings people together bonding them.	.778			
16. No matter who or where you come from, the club accepts you.	.777			
5. Members make friends with people from different backgrounds.	.724			
19. Diversity in our club makes it better.	.721			
15. People join the club for the activity, but friendships keep them there	.705			
2. New members are welcomed in this club	.694			
27. Differences between income and education do not reduce club unity.	.673			
<b>Norms of Behaviour</b>				
22. In our club there are expectations of behaviour		.829		
20. Club members behaving inappropriately are reprimanded.		.814		
11. Our club expects a high standard of behaviour		.754		
30. People behaving inappropriately are noticed.		.718		
<b>Trusting-Reciprocity</b>				
41. Club members who help other members know the favour will be returned.			.772	
34. If club members need to go away suddenly they trust friends in the club to care for their children.			.751	
36. People helped in the club have usually helped other members			.748	
24. Club members lend members money trusting them to pay it back.			.721	
<b>Governance</b>				
40. The club allows members to have input into decisions.				.875
17. Members who disagree with club direction can voice their opinion.				.786
9. For decisions club members discuss issues and decide together				.780
32. Club leaders consult members about what they want in the club.				.777

\* Item numbered in accordance with questionnaire.

### 5.7.3 Correlations among Simple Factor Scores

Simple factor scores were calculated as the average of the four item scores for the components of the social capital scale. All of the relationships between simple component scores were positive and significant (Cohen, 1988). The interrelationships between the components (Table 5.4) ranged from .448 through .752. The components ‘friendship’ and ‘acceptance’ were closely related (.752) and the two components (\*Trust/reciprocity-helping others) emerged as one factor (see Table 5.4).

**Table 5.4 Correlation Matrix-Inter Correlations among Scale Components**

Component	Friendship	Acceptance	Norms	*Trusting-reciprocity
Acceptance	.752**		.518**	.529**
Norms	.519**	.518**		.448**
Helping others	.564**	.531**	.448**	
Governance	.594**	.598**	.497**	.531**

\* p<.05 \*\*p<.01

### 5.7.4 Correlation among Factor Scores

As expected, the factor scores for the four factors were correlated, (see Table 5.5). The relationships ranged from .351 to .519 with an average of .424 reflecting moderate to strong relationships (Cohen, 1988). This was due to the single concept of social capital that they were measuring and that they were derived using oblique rotation (Oblimon) which allows the factors to be related (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

**Table 5.5 Component Correlation Matrix - Inter Correlations among Factors Scores**

Component	F1-Friendly Acceptance	F2-Norms	F3-Trusting-Reciprocity
F2-Norms	.467		
F3-Trusting-reciprocity	.427	.351	
F4-Governance	.519	.406	.378

### 5.7.5 Separate Identity of ‘Friendship’ and ‘Acceptance’ Items.

The items ‘acceptance’ and ‘friendship’ loaded onto one empirical factor (factor 1), however further inspection of the items showed two clear sets in terms of their meaning. One group of items pertained to friendship and the second group pertained to acceptance. The ‘friendship’ items included item numbers 2, 13, 15, and 18. The ‘acceptance’ items included item numbers 5, 16, 19 and 27. Acceptance of people who differ from the norm is based on friendship. Thus acceptance relates to a higher form of friendship which requires more of the individual. It is a way of measuring a deeper social relationship

between individuals. During further analysis, both sets of items were treated separately (Table 5.6 item total correlation).

### 5.7.6 Internal Consistency of the Club Social Capital Scale

Overall reliability was high and no item detracted from the overall scale reliability as noted in Table 5.6 (Devillis, 2003). The reliability of the final Club Social Capital Scale was (Cronbach's Alpha) .92. Reliability if a particular item was deleted varied between .914 and .920 for the various configurations of items. One item (item 34) did not contribute to the total scale reliability. The items correlated moderately to strongly with the corrected scale totals with correlations between .440 and .713 and an average item-total correlation of .583. Thus analysis indicated high scale uniformity and consistency.

**Table 5.6 Item - Total Correlations and Reliability Assessment of the Club Social Capital Scale**

<b>Items in scale-Cronbach's Alpha .920</b>	<b>Item Total Correlation</b>	<b>Reliability if deleted</b>
<b>Friendship (Factor 1) –Cronbach's Alpha = .806</b>		
2. New members are welcomed in this club.	.524	.918
13. In our club, it is easy to make friends.	.667	.915
15. People join the club for the activity, but friendships keep them there	.629	.915
18. The club brings people together bonding them.	.713	.914
<b>Acceptance (Factor 1) –Cronbach's Alpha =.792</b>		
5. Members make friends with people from different backgrounds.	.568	.917
16. No matter who or where you come from, the club accepts you.	.654	.915
19. Diversity in our club makes it better.	.618	.916
27. Differences between income or education do not reduce club unity.	.616	.916
<b>Norms (Factor 2) –Cronbach's Alpha =.787</b>		
11. Our club expects a high standard of behaviour.	.525	.918
20. Club members behaving inappropriately are reprimanded.	.489	.919
22. In our club there are expectations of behaviour.	.562	.917
30. People behaving inappropriately are noticed.	.536	.917
<b>*Trusting-reciprocity (Factor 3) –Cronbach Alpha = .757</b>		
34. If a club members need to go away suddenly they trust friends in the club to care for their children.	.440	.920
41. Club members who help other members know the favour will be returned	.581	.916
36. People helped in the club have usually helped other members	.574	.917
24. Club members lend members money trusting them to pay it back.	.528	.918
<b>Governance (Factor 4) – Cronbach's Alpha = .831</b>		
40. The club allows members to have input into decisions.	.598	.916
9. For decisions club members discuss issues and decide together.	.598	.916
17. Members who disagree with club direction can voice their opinion.	.610	.916
32. Club leaders consult members about what they want in the club.	.635	.915

\*Item total correlation average .583

The reliability of the social capital subscales ranged from .757 to .831. In all cases all items in the subscales contributed towards the subscale reliability. Item-subscale-total correlations were moderate to high for all items within particular subscales reflecting standards of measure for attitudinal scale reliability- between .70 and .90 (Cohen,1988).

### 5.7.7 The Factor Structure of the Club Social Capital Scale

The obtained factors scale components coincide to some extent with the planned factors of social capital (Table 5.7). The two planned components of the scale, friendship and acceptance, in the analysis were not differentiated by the respondents. They emerged as parts of the same empirical factor (Factor 1: Friendly-acceptance). The items that were planned for norms and governance were differentiated by the respondents and emerged as separate empirical factors (Factor 2-Norms and Factor 4- Governance respectively). The two planned components of trust and reciprocity emerged as parts of an empirical single factor (Factor 3-Trusting-reciprocity-Helping others).

**Table 5.7 Structural Matrix of Items Representing Factors of Social capital**

With Discovered Factor	PLANNED FACTOR					
	Friendship	Trust	Governance	Reciprocity	Acceptance	Norms
F1 Friendly-Acceptance	13,18,15,2				16,5,19,27	
F2 Norms						22,20,11,30
F3 Helping- Others		24,34		41,36		
F4 Governance			9, 17, 32, 40			

The original concept for the social capital scale incorporated a scale which included six planned factors as shown in Table 5.7, however after analysis a smaller number of items loaded together on factors. This resulted in the new Club Social Capital Scale of 20 items which loaded under four factors: friendly/acceptance, norms, trusting-reciprocity (helping others), and governance.

### 5.7.8 Analysis of Behavioural Items

Factor Analysis employing direct oblimin rotation was conducted on the set of ten items in the Behavioural Scale which was developed as a cross reference for the psycho-metric Club Social Capital Scale used in the study. The scale sought information on the performance of pro-social actions within the club by the respondents. The factor analysis detected two factors and one item which failed to load on either factor, which resulted in this item (number 5) being removed from the scale. Subsequent factor analysis (Table 5.8) of the nine items showed that Factor 1 Social-Behaviour (visiting someone) had loadings that ranged from .672 to .829 and Factor 2 Helping Behaviour (providing club assistance) had loadings ranged from .680 to .878. Item number 3 loaded on both factors and could be retained as a stand-alone item depending on its contribution to the scale reliability.

**Table 5.8 Factor Structure of the Club Behavioural Scale**

Scale Item	F1 (Social)	F2 (Helping)
<b>Social Behaviour</b>		
8. Visited club members at their homes.	.829	
10. Had social phone conversations with club members.	.788	
6. Helped a club member with a problem.	.775	
9. Done a favour for a sick club member.	.765	
4. Sought advice from someone in the club regarding an important decision I had to make.	.750	
7. Attended club social events.	.672	
<b>Helping Behaviour</b>		
1. Attended working bees.		.878
2. Helped clean up the club.		.875
<b>Viewpoint</b>		
3. Voiced an alternative point of view in the club.	.611	.680

\*Lesser weights have been suppressed for clarity

### 5.7.9 Reliability of the Behavioural scale (Table 5.10)

The result in Reliability of the Behavioural scale was moderately high (Table 5.9) with a Cronbach's Alpha of .884 for the nine item scale (Devellis, 2003). All items of the scale contributed towards reliability and no items detracted from reliability. Correlation coefficients were used to check validity. Item Total Correlations were high ranging from

.575 to .682 (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, the corrected scale held together strongly with all items contributing to and none detracting from Scale Reliability.

**Table 5.9 Item-total correlations and item reliability assessment of the Behavioural Scale Section C: Behaviour in the Club**

Scale Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach Alpha if item deleted
1. Attended working bees.	.605	.874
2. Helped clean up the club.	.575	.876
3. Voiced an alternative point of view in the club.	.626	.872
4. Sought advice from someone in the club regarding an important decision I had to make.	.615	.873
6. Helped a club member with a problem.	.673	.868
7. Attended club social events.	.631	.871
8. Visited club members at their homes.	.668	.868
9. Done a favour for a sick club member.	.682	.867
10. Had social phone conversations with club members.	.626	.872.

Total Scale Cronbach's Alpha=.884 resulting in moderately high reliability (Cohen, 1988). Item number 3 in the Behavioural Scale loaded marginally on both factors. However, the item was retained in the scale as a separate component. This decision was based on the unique and important nature of the item representing a 3<sup>rd</sup> meaningful behavioural factor in the club (stating an alternative point of view). In the oblimin analysis it was marginally rejected and therefore the decision was to retain it in the scale as a whole factor represented by a single item. As this study is exploratory in nature it was important to retain as many factors as possible for validation.

#### **5.7.10 Relationship between Social Capital and Behavioural Scales**

The overall Social Capital Scale correlated positively but moderately with the overall Behavioural Scale (Table 5.10). Various subscales of the Social Capital Scale correlated positively but weakly to moderately with the Behavioural Scale Total. These correlations ranged from .227 to .427. Subscales of the Social Capital Scale correlated positively but weakly with various sub-scales of the Behavioural Scale. These correlations ranged from .456 to .096. Both the Social Capital and Behavioural Scales were measuring respondents'

attitudes and beliefs in social capital and were above the .7 level for Cronbach's alpha recommended and within .70-.90 for reliability (Cohen, 1988; Devellis, 2003).

**Table 5.10 Analysis of Behavioural Items measured against Social Capital Scale in Main Study Comparative Analysis (Correlation) of Behavioural totals, Behavioural Social and Helping items in the Scale**

Factor	Social Capital Total	Friendship	Acceptance	Norms	Trust-Reciprocity Helping others	Governance
Behaviour total	.377**	.276**	.251**	.227**	.427**	.270**
Behavioural Social	.373**	.296**	.268	.205*	.456*	.255**
Behavioural Helping	.293**	.172**	.161**	.213**	.271**	.232**
Viewpoint	.229**	.096**	.125	.141	.222**	.196*

\* p<.05 \*\*p<.01

Table 5.10 shows the associations between the Behavioural Scale and the Social Capital Scale and demonstrates to some extent the validity of the Social Capital Scale. In the analysis a positive strong relationship was noted between the Behavioural Total Scale, Behavioural Social and the subscale of Trust-Reciprocity, considered by many as crucial to the development of social capital (Field, 2007; Putnam, 2000; Uslander, 2000). Therefore, both the attitudinal Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS), and the Behavioural Scale show strong relationships with both measuring overall social capital, and measuring trust and reciprocity and can be used together in future research. The Behavioural Scale provides viewpoint on the validity of the CSCS.

## 5.8 Limitations - Data Collection Issues and Sample

The strengths of this study include the development and validation of the Club Social Capital Scale and the large sample size made up of respondents from a range of leisure clubs in Victoria incorporating a comparison of sport versus recreation networks.

However there are some limitations that need to be considered in the interpretation of the results.

In the data collection, the researcher addressed a number of issues influencing data collection from some associations and clubs. The timing of the sport seasons became a limiting factor for some clubs' involvement in the study. Baseball had completed their main winter season when data collection began. However, the researcher, through the

state development officer, was able to involve five baseball clubs playing in the spring/summer season.

Changing of office bearers in clubs at the end of the financial year (June) was another issue that had to be addressed and this therefore required more time to be able to contact clubs through new secretaries. The researcher relied on telephone, letters and emails in order to communicate with clubs.

In the research the small number of organised state recreation associations in comparison to sport associations was noted. To compensate, the researcher contacted additional recreation associations through their state development officer(s), for example the state canoeing and bushwalking associations, who then agreed to be involved in the research. Therefore, the sample included six state recreation associations in comparison with twelve state sport associations, reflecting the larger numbers of sport versus recreation organisations. Sport and recreation associations involved in the final sample included local clubs participating in the following activities: archery, baseball, bowls (lawn bowls), bushwalking, canoeing, car clubs, cricket, croquet, field hockey, fishing, football, ice hockey, lacrosse, sailing, soccer, softball, skiing, and tennis.

## **5.9 Conclusions**

This chapter described the development of the Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) and the process of data reduction. The empirical (CSCS) and final subscale factors did not provide results exactly as expected, however there is a strong degree of relationship between the planned and empirical scale. Through the qualitative phase a number of iterations resulted in a reduced number of components and scale items for the development of the questionnaire. At that point the developing scale and components were compared with the literature (Onyx & Bullen, 2000; Putnam, 2000; Narayan, 1999) to analyse the empirical scale. After a series of iterations and processes, including factor analysis, the new scale resulted in six components of social capital: trust, friendship, reciprocity, norms, governance, and acceptance. The conclusion of the main quantitative phase of this research and factor analysis resulted in a reduced final scale of 20 scale items incorporating four factors of social capital. The factors represented in the final scale included 'norms' and 'governance' as stand-alone factors, with 'friendship' and

‘acceptance’ loading together as one empirical factor but retaining two clear sets of meaning and identity. The components ‘trust’ and ‘reciprocity’ loaded together as one joined factor representing parts of this factor.

All factors in the CSCS are represented in the final subscale (see Table 5.7). ‘Governance’ and ‘norms’ correspond as independent factors as expected, but the remaining failed to emerge as individual factors in the empirical scale. ‘Trust’ and ‘reciprocity’ loaded together under ‘trusting-reciprocity (helping others)’ while ‘friendship’ and ‘acceptance’ were separate but statistically linked together.

The Club Social Capital Scale has been shown to be reliable and valid in measuring individual member’s perceptions of sport and recreation clubs’ social capital, factors inherent in their club social capital, and their behavioural patterns in the club social environment. The use of the behavioural scale can provide additional validation/cross referencing to the attitudinal-based Club Social Capital Scale and shows a form of triangulation within this research. The development of the Club Social Capital Scale through a series of both qualitative and quantitative exercises employing mixed methods provides a robust model of development for similar empirical research. Therefore, the process used in this research could be replicated in further future research of this nature.

The final Club Social Capital Scale comprises the factors ‘friendship-acceptance’, ‘norms of behaviour’, ‘trust/reciprocity (helping others)’, and ‘governance’, representing 20 items with high scale reliability (.920). This new scale has construct validity resulting from a thorough process and is a valid measure to be employed in future research of individual club members and their social capital levels.

The following chapter provides analysis of the 1079 individuals from 54 Victorian leisure clubs in the main study and outcomes related to social capital and factor levels in general and along the study descriptors. The analysis included analysis as clubs and also analysis as individual members of leisure clubs in the study. Analysis was conducted on the overall social capital scores in each of these groups as well as for the factors of social capital noted in, and as a result of, the scale development. These factors include ‘friendship’, ‘acceptance’, ‘norms’, ‘trust, (reciprocity-helping others)’ and ‘governance’.

A final discussion of the results in relation to the main objectives of this research will be presented in Chapter 7. This will include description of the analysis of the final Club Social Capital Scale, the components and factors of social capital, and the analysis of the descriptive characteristics from the main study results from Chapter 6.

## **Chapter 6: Club and Individual Variation in Social Capital**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter (Chapter 5: Scale Development), highlighted the development of a scale to measure social capital in leisure clubs. The scale developed through qualitative and quantitative processes was piloted, and after analysis refined to become the Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS). This scale measure was shown to have a strong factor structure and to be a valid instrument for the measurement of club social capital. The possible differences between leisure clubs in their dimensions of social capital was an important part of this research and is highlighted in Chapter 1. The development and testing of a scale to measure club social capital was the main focus of the research. However, exploration of clubs and possible differences in individual or club social capital overall is also an important component of the research aims. In this chapter, potential sources of variation in club social capital were assessed, including gender, sport versus recreation clubs, and clubs with junior teams. This analysis was done for individuals as well as for clubs.

### **6.2 Analysis Strategy**

The data was analysed using Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) (independent factor\* 5 subscales of the CSCS). In the instance of a main effect, follow up analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for each of the subscales. If required, post-hoc comparisons were conducted using Scheffe. Because of co-linearity the total score of the CSCS was analysed separately using ANOVA.

### **6.3 Club-based Social Capital**

#### **6.3.1 Gender**

In the initial concept for this research gender was noted as being a possible factor that may affect social capital. Clubs are often single gender, however a number are mixed gender. Therefore, single sex male and single sex female clubs as well as mixed gender clubs were analysed to explore possible difference in total social

capital or its subscales. The MANOVA for club gender and the five subscales of the CSCS was not significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .76$ ;  $p = .21$ ;  $Eta^2 = .13$ ). The ANOVA for the total score of CSCS was significant ( $F(2, 51) = 4.28$ ;  $p = .02$ ;  $Eta^2 = .14$ ). Post-hoc comparisons (Sheffe) showed that male-only clubs (4.27) scored substantially higher in comparison to female-only clubs (4.16;  $p = .02$ ).

### 6.3.2 Club Type - Sport Versus Recreation

There is some evidence to suggest that individuals' motivational orientation to become members of sport or recreational clubs differ. For example, a person partakes in recreation for personal and sometimes for social reasons. Sport offers more externally-oriented rewards, such as winning (Rossman, & Schlatter, 2008). Therefore, differences in social capital were explored between sport and recreation clubs. The MANOVA for the CSCS subscales was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .55$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $Eta^2 = .45$ ). Follow-up ANOVA showed a significant difference for 'governance' (see Table 6.1) with sport clubs scoring significantly lower (4.10) than recreational clubs (4.45). The ANOVA for total score of the SCSS was not significant ( $F(1, 52) = 0.29$ ;  $p = .59$ ;  $Eta^2 = .01$ ).

**Table 6.1 ANOVA Results for the Subscales of the CSCS for Sport vs. Recreation clubs.**

	<b>F(1,52)</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Eta<sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship	0.70	.80	.00
Acceptance	0.10	.76	.00
Norms	0.81	.37	.02
Trust	1.80	.19	.03
Governance**	12.91	.001	.20

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

### 6.3.3 Junior Teams

There is a strong belief in the sport sector that junior sides are important to clubs' future in growing inclusive clubs. In addition, it would be expected that clubs with or without junior programs might differ in their social capital. Therefore, clubs with junior teams were examined against clubs without junior sides to explore possible differences in social capital and its factors. The MANOVA for clubs with junior teams was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .73$ ;  $p = .01$ ;  $Eta^2 = .28$ ). Follow-up ANOVA (see

Table 6.2) showed a significant difference for the trust scale, with the clubs with junior programs (3.94) scoring significantly higher than the clubs without junior programs (3.69). The ANOVA for total social capital was not significant ( $F(1, 52) = 0.72; p = .40; \text{Eta}^2 = .01$ ).

**Table 6.2 ANOVA Results for CSCS scales for Clubs With and Without Junior Programs.**

	<b>F(1,52)</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Eta<sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship	0.00	.99	.00
Acceptance	0.00	.99	.00
Norms	1.50	.23	.03
Trust*	5.67	.02	.10
Governance	1.60	.21	.03

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

### 6.3.4 Social Committee

Comparisons were made between those clubs with a social committee versus those without. The MANOVA was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .79; p = .04; \text{Eta}^2 = .21$ ). Follow-up ANOVA showed significant differences for subscales 'norms' and 'trust' (see Table 6.3). Clubs with a social committee scored higher on both 'norms' (4.42 vs. 4.20) and 'trust' (3.92 vs. 3.64) in comparison to clubs without a social committee. The ANOVA for total social capital was not significant ( $F(1, 52) = 2.46; p = .12; \text{Eta}^2 = .05$ ).

**Table 6.3 ANOVA Results for CSCS Scales for Clubs With and Without a Social Committee.**

	<b>F(1,52)</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Eta<sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship	0.48	.49	.01
Acceptance	0.66	.42	.01
Norms*	4.70	.04	.08
Trust*	5.70	.02	.10
Governance	0.15	.70	.00

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

### 6.3.5 Club Rooms

Comparisons were made between clubs with club rooms versus those without. Possible social capital differences were predicted due to their 'social club' focus. The MANOVA was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .73; p < .01; \text{Eta}^2 = .27$ ). Follow up ANOVA did not show any significant differences for the variables (see Table K 2

also in appendix K). The ANOVA for total social capital was not significant ( $F(1, 52) = .30; p = .59; \text{Eta}^2 = .01$ ).

### 6.3.6 Club Relationships with Local Councils

Comparison of clubs with a close relationship with their local council through funding and support was explored to note any possible effect this might have on social capital levels. The MANOVA for measuring close relationship to councils and the five subscales was not significant ( $\text{Wilks}' \lambda = .91; p = .44; \text{Eta}^2 = .09$ ). The ANOVA for total social capital was also not significant ( $F(1, 52) = 0.02; p = .88; \text{Eta}^2 = .00$ ).

## 6.4 Discussion

A number of differences were noted in the subscales of the CSCS and total CSCS scores in the club analysis. For gender, the only meaningful difference was found for the total CSCS score with male clubs scoring higher than female clubs. The effect size was, however, small. This may be attributed to men in clubs learning to depend on one another and build social connections in a 'safe' setting. Sport and recreation clubs attract the second-highest number of volunteers after the community welfare sector and are one of the main areas of male involvement (ABS, 2006). This is supported by the findings that men's friendships generally revolve around particular involvements or 'activity friends' (Block, 1980) which the clubs provide. Men have fewer friendships than women and these often involve an activity such as playing on a soccer team or with a group of poker-playing friends (Block, 1980). Women have more friends, are close, and show emotional attachments while men help and assist each other (Bell, 1981). Sport and recreation clubs could be seen in this context as they support the development of trust while members undertake an activity, where the activity predominates (Traustadottir, 2004). Therefore, involvement in leisure clubs allows this type of relationships to develop without focussing on interpersonal feelings which are seen as not being masculine (Bell, 1981). Men in general like to work through problems and the sporting or recreation club allows them to be involved with people of a similar interest who accept them, cooperate with them and jointly resolve issues in the club (Bauman, 2001; Field, 2008; Putnam, 1995). In addition, men often are linked into other sectors referred to

as ‘cross sectional’ networks, where their sporting club interest is also part of their business or municipal network. Therefore, social capital and the networks it supports and develops may suit males in clubs who use it to enhance other linked pursuits such as their business or their jobs (Mattsson, Stenbacka & Stenbacka, 2003a).

Recreation clubs scored higher on the ‘governance’ subscale of the CSCS in comparison to sport clubs, explaining 20% of the variance. Recreation clubs focus on the intrinsic experience and freedom in the activity (Czikszentmihalyi, 1991; Kelly, 1987) and some (for example cross country skiing) are less involved with rules in their activity.

Recreation clubs have a focus on the activity for its own sake and provide relaxation, fun and enjoyment without having as many rules or levels of competition in the activity, unlike sport clubs (Kleiber, Larson, & Czikszentmihalyi, 1986; Rossman & Schlatter, 2008). However, today all registered clubs must have insurance and ensure corporate governance and duty of care are maintained (Sport & Recreation Victoria, 2012), thus providing safe club structures through good governance and processes. Recreation associations such as bushwalking and cross country skiing that offer potentially dangerous activities must have systems in place for potential accidents (Sport and Recreation Victoria-Sport Injury Prevention Fact Sheets, 2002). This may result in recreation clubs developing greater governance capacity to ensure accident prevention and liability systems are in place.

Clubs with junior teams showed important difference, as clubs with junior teams registered higher in the subscale of ‘trust’ than those clubs without. This variable explained 10% of the variance and may be due to clubs having a greater need for members to trust one another regarding safety and equipment. Also, members must undertake training before working with juniors and undergo a registration process, including police checks, before they can work with junior teams (VicSport, 2006) which may result in developing trust. Clubs also put resources into younger players by providing a safe environment which may result in the development of deeper trust in these clubs. Clubs with junior teams are ensuring their future by including young people and these clubs are often supported by local government and seen as model clubs (User Friendly Sport Clubs, 2002).

Clubs with social committees scored higher on ‘norms’ and ‘trust’ in comparison to those without social committees, explaining 8% and 10% of the variance respectively. This difference may result from closer social connections through organised events, allowing for development of trust and rules of behaviour. Social committees are social networks which have value in bringing similar people together with those who may be different thereby developing trust, and embedding norms of reciprocity (Dekker & Uslaner 2001; Uslaner 2001). Social capital is often referred to as the relationships, networks, contacts, and the trust in others (Black, Balatti, & Falk 2006). Trust, friendship, and social connections are elements of social capital and these factors are developed further and supported by social events and interactions (Putnam, 2000, Tonts, 2005). Clubs with social committees offer more social activities and events outside the main activity of playing the sport or partaking in the recreation activity. This would allow members to develop closer bonds of friendship and functional and emotional support through additional contact outside the main sport or recreation activity (Boneham & Sexsmith, 2006). It is in these settings members develop deeper friendships thereby increasing trust and developing norms between members.

## **6.5 Analysis of Individual Differences in the Total Sample**

The research examined possible individual differences in social capital and its subscales. This analysis reflects social capital levels measured against demographic factors including age, gender, income, education, and other factors for individuals in the study sample.

### **6.5.1 Gender**

The MANOVA for gender and the five subscales was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .97$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $\text{Eta}^2 = .03$ ). Follow-up ANOVA shows significant differences for ‘trust’ and ‘governance’ (see Table 6.4). Men had higher mean scores on ‘trust’ (male 3.97 vs. females 3.79) and ‘governance’ (males 4.33 vs. females 4.12). The ANOVA for the total score of social capital was also significant ( $F(1, 1077) = 11.57$ ;  $p = .001$ ;  $\text{Eta}^2 = .01$ ), males having higher mean scores than females (4.24 vs. 4.09).

**Table 6.4 Results of the ANOVA for the Subscales of the CSCS for Gender**

	<b>F(1,1077)</b>	<b><i>p</i></b>	<b><i>Eta</i><sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship	0.42	.52	.00
Acceptance	0.05	.83	.00
Norms	1.46	.23	.001
Trust**	12.28	<.001	.01
Governance**	12.860	<.001	.01

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

### 6.5.2 Individual Members' Age

Age as a factor was also analysed for the individuals in the sample. The MANOVA for age categories and the five subscales was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .83$ ;  $p < .001$   $Eta^2 = .04$ ). Follow up ANOVA showed significant differences for 'friendship' and 'trust' (see Table 6.5). Post-hoc comparisons showed that 'friendship' was higher among young people  $< 20$  (4.86) compared to those between 41-50 (4.56) and 51-60 (4.57). For 'trust', the  $< 20$  (4.32) and 21-30 (4.15) year old groups scored significantly higher than the other four age groups (31-40 = 3.88; 41-50 = 3.84; 51-60 = 3.66;  $> 60 = 3.72$ ) but were not different from each other (all  $p < .01$ ). The ANOVA for total scores was not significant ( $F(1, 1077) 2.04$ ;  $p = .07$ ;  $Eta^2 = .01$ ).

**Table 6.5 Results of the ANOVA for the Subscales of the CSCS Regarding Age**

	<b>F(1,1077)</b>	<b><i>p</i></b>	<b><i>Eta</i><sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship**	4.28	.001	.02
Acceptance	2.02	.07	.01
Norms	0.50	.78	.002
Trust**	18.51	.001	.08
Governance	2.02	.07	.01

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

### 6.5.3 Individuals' Income

Income was a factor which was analysed for individuals to note any possible effect it may have on total social capital and its scales. Participants' income was categorised as the individual's annual household income using five categories. The MANOVA for income and the five subscales was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .95$ ;  $p < .001$ ;  $Eta^2 = .01$ ). Follow-up ANOVA showed a significant difference for 'governance' (see Table 6.6). Post hoc comparisons showed that for 'governance' the \$0-\$30,000

(4.36) and \$31-\$60,000 (4.36) groups scored significantly higher than the \$81-\$100,000 (4.15) and > \$100,000 (4.10) groups. ANOVA for total social capital scores was also significant ( $F(1,1077) = 3.19; p = .01; \text{Eta}^2 = .01$ ). Again the \$0-\$30,000 and \$31-\$60,000 groups scored significantly higher (4.29 & 4.25) than the \$81-\$100,000 (4.11) and > \$100,000 (4.11) groups.

**Table 6.6 Results of the ANOVA for the Subscales of the CSCS for Individual Income**

	<b>F(1,1077)</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Eta<sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship	1.29	.27	.005
Acceptance	0.25	.91	.01
Norms	1.17	.32	.01
Trust	2.01	.09	.01
Governance**	4.34	.002	.02

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

#### 6.5.4 Individual Members' Education

Education as a factor was analysed for individuals in the sample. The MANOVA for measuring individual education level and the five subscales was significant (Wilks'  $\lambda = .91; p < .001 \text{Eta}^2 = .01$ ). Follow up ANOVA showed significant differences for the subscales 'friendship', 'trust', and 'governance' (see Table 6.7). Although the score for 'governance' decreased with higher levels of education post hoc comparisons did not show any significant differences. Similarly for 'trust' there was a decrease in score with higher levels of education. Post hoc comparisons showed a significant difference only between individuals with postgraduate studies (3.64) and those with high school (4.09) or trade certificates (3.95) with the latter scoring higher on 'trust'. ANOVA for total scores was also significant ( $F(1,1077) = 5.13; p < .001; \text{Eta}^2 = .02$ ). Post hoc comparisons only showed a difference between postgraduate (4.03) and high school (4.27) participants ( $p < .01$ ) with the latter group scoring significantly higher.

**Table 6.7 Results of the ANOVA for the Subscales of the CSCS for Individual Education**

	<b>F(1,1077)</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>Eta<sup>2</sup></b>
Friendship**	3.68	.003	.02
Acceptance	.56	.73	.003
Norms	2.16	.06	.01
Trust**	8.71	.001	.04
Governance**	3.32	.01	.02

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

### 6.5.5 Discussion of Individual Analysis of Members

Gender differences were observed for ‘trust’, ‘governance’, and total social capital score with men scoring higher than females although the amount of variance explained was only 1%. Men have close involvement working together in a club whether playing the sport or activity or undertaking other roles. Leisure clubs are one of the main areas of volunteer involvement for Australians, representing 26% of volunteer hours (ABS, 2006). For males, leisure clubs provide one of the most common opportunities for volunteering (Chubb & Chubb, 1985; ABS, 2006). These clubs are an environment where males are with like-minded people, feel comfortable and develop strong social connections (Putnam, 1995, 2000). The men in these clubs, through cooperation and working through issues, develop strong social connections and build trust. As indicated, men generally have fewer friends than women, especially close friendships, and their friendships are often based on ‘doing things’ together and being involved in various activities rather than in the close intimate relationships preferred by females (Bell, 1981; Block, 1980; Fasteau, 1991). Therefore the club setting is a good environment for trust and social capital to develop between men while engaging in an activity.

In regard to ‘governance’, men respond more than women to governance and rules in leisure settings, potentially due to the greater involvement of men at board level at work and this may be transferred to the voluntary sector (Mattsson, Stenbacka & Stenbacka, 2003b). Men also have ‘cross sectional networks’ where their job and their voluntary involvement in a club may overlap. Men are more often given board positions in leisure clubs, based on their work background and understanding of boards and governance (Mattsson, Stenbacka & Stenbacka, 2003a), which becomes an extension of their network. This results in men generally making up the majority on boards (Mattsson, Stenbacka & Stenbacka, 2003a). Governance therefore is something well-understood by men and valued in associations explaining their higher score over females in governance in this research. Until recent times little social capital research had addressed gender and governance. However, Clarke (2004), Hoye and Cuskelly (2007), Claringbold and Hoppers (2008), Adriaanse (2011), and the Australian Sports Commission (2013) have noted the need for an

increase in the number of women as advisers, board members and administrators in the sport sector.

When considering age as a moderating factor it was found that 'friendship' and 'trust' were rated higher by younger people. Hartley (1999), highlighted the importance of close relationships, trust, and involvement in recreation and the community as important for young adults in her research. On the whole however, little research has been conducted to examine age differences in social capital to date. This is supported by Schaefer-McDaniel (2004) who point out that more research should be conducted regarding social capital and young adults. However, she also notes the contribution of social capital in preparing young people for adulthood through friendships, relationships, and social networks based on trust. The role of mentors in leisure clubs is an important way clubs help young people to develop into adulthood (Baseball Victoria Junior Sport policy, 2006). Research also links the importance of place for young people which may suggest that club involvement fulfills this need. The significance of 'trust' and 'friendships' among younger club members in this research relates to, and is supported by, some of the limited research that has been undertaken regarding young adults and social capital. However more research is needed.

Income was a small moderating factor in 'governance' (2%) and Total Social Capital (1%) with individuals on incomes under \$60,000 per annum expressing higher levels of 'governance' and Total Social Capital than those on higher incomes. This may result from people on lower incomes experiencing less personal freedom in their lives and in employment, feeling vulnerable and therefore wanting rules to ensure fairness in their leisure activities. Initial research analysing income and social capital concentrated on third world regions (Grootaert, Van Bastelaer & World Bank, 2002) with the connection between social capital and income in developed countries being overlooked. However, Bjornskov's (2002) research links social capital and income production in Denmark. The research suggests individuals believe in institutions and desire supportive friendships with members of their groups for support and assistance in life. People on low incomes see the club as a vehicle for them to enhance their lives if it has 'good transparent' governance.

Bowles (1999) referred to clubs as a 'community' and pointed out that connection and good governance is important in addressing problems in a club or in a community. Members of the club should own the fruits of their labour and those on lower incomes may invest more of themselves as they usually have fewer leisure options. Research has shown that people on middle incomes or above prefer more and different choices in leisure, while those on lower incomes prefer more familiar choices (Snibbe & Markus, 2005; Stephens, Markus, & Townsend, 2007). People on higher incomes also may belong to leisure groups affiliated through their work, such as a gym or a golf club, thus the leisure club is not their only leisure outlet (Rossman & Schlatter, 2008). In this way those on lower incomes may invest more of themselves in a smaller range of social networks. The difference in Total Social Capital may reflect people with fewer options in leisure due to income investing more into a club. This area of income, social capital and the factors of social capital, need further investigation through research.

Education also showed significance: differences were noted in the subscales of 'friendship' (2%), 'trust' (4%) and 'governance' (2%) and total social capital (2%). People with lower levels of education registered higher mean scores in all of these subscales and the overall score. These results mirror findings in some of the limited current research on social capital and education. In the United States the percentage of people finishing high school has doubled over the past 40 years, however research indicates that social capital levels and volunteering are reduced (Putnam, 2000). This may be similar to the findings of this research where increased education resulted in lower social capital in some of the subscales and total social capital. Research refers to average education levels being critical for a successful working class identity to emerge in groups, including unions and clubs (Helliwell, & Putnam, 2004). Leisure clubs may allow for people of lower education levels (primary or secondary) to practice social capital skills such as participation and governance in a comfortable setting (Putnam, 1995). Sporting clubs and religious institutions can have an effect in creating and sustaining social capital in place of the tertiary education experience (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004). Young people in clubs can become embedded in club life and this becomes an important aspect of their development (Coleman, 1988). In contrast, people with higher education often seek

weak ties (Florida, 2002), have larger networks and their club involvement may be limited compared to people with lower education and fewer networks. Highly-educate people therefore may not need the deeper involvement in a club as they have a range of 'looser social connections' (Florida, 2002, 2004).

This exploratory research indicates and supports the need for further research in social capital and its relationship to a number of demographic factors including gender, income, education, age and ethnicity.

## **6.6 Summary**

This chapter examined potential variation in social capital from the perspective of the clubs or the individual. Sources of potential variation in social capital due to age, gender and club size and other factors were analysed. The differences obtained at both the club and individual level were noted and are supported to some extent by the limited literature which has examined the role of moderating factors on social capital. The effects were larger when analysed at the club level in comparison to the individual level. This finding could be expected as larger difference in social capital would be expected between clubs of very different nature and purpose than between individual members. This suggests that the CSCS is a valid and reliable instrument and can discriminate between clubs and individuals based on selected demographic and organisational factors.

The final chapter of the research (Chapter 7) will summarise and critically evaluate results from the study in relation to questions raised in the original research objectives, and in the analysis in Chapters 5 and 6. The final chapter will also discuss this research in regard to previous research and highlight the contribution the development of the scale and its analysis will provide to the field of research in social capital and leisure clubs.

## Chapter 7

### Research Discussion and Conclusion

#### 7.1 Introduction

In this final chapter the results and conclusions will be presented to explain the contribution that this research makes to the growing body of knowledge on social capital in relation to leisure clubs. In the first instance the results will be discussed in relation to the aims and objectives of this PhD. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations, practical implications and possible application and directions for future research. The chapter will conclude with the contribution that this PhD study will provide to the current body of leisure clubs and social capital research.

#### 7.2 Research Findings

This PhD addresses the research questions highlighted in Chapter 1, based on a thorough review of the literature on social capital and leisure clubs. In order to address the aims and objectives, the research adopted an exploratory approach to the study of psycho-social determinants of social capital in leisure clubs allowing explanations of the concept to emerge. Each of the aims of the PhD will be discussed separately.

##### 7.2.1 AIM 1: To identify significant components and indicators of social capital in leisure clubs.

This research aim related to the makeup of social capital and focussed on its nature through its components and indicators. In the literature social capital components were highlighted by Onyx and Bullen (2000), Okayasu, Kawahara, and Nogawa (2010), and Putnam (2000), among others. This PhD referred to this literature on social capital to provide an understanding of its nature in different contexts. Due to the limited research conducted on social capital in the domain of leisure the qualitative phase of the PhD was both inductive and deductive in nature and used aspects of grounded theory. In the literature components have been referred to by a number of different names including items and elements. In this research the integral makeup and parts of social capital were referred to as components in the qualitative

phase, then after factor analysis they became factors (measured with a varying number of items throughout the different phases).

The qualitative phase resulted in an initial list of twenty components of social capital. Ultimately, these components were collapsed into a four factor Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS) which provided the best psychometric properties. However, from a theoretical and practical perspective a five factor model seemed more appropriate. To illustrate this process the initial factors of tolerance and diversity were collapsed into a factor called Acceptance whereas networks and friendship collapsed into the factor Friendship. Hence, for an individual to be fully integrated into a leisure club it is not sufficient to be tolerated. From the qualitative data it emerged that an individual can be tolerated but that acceptance is required to be seen as an equal and this in turn can lead to friendship. In the four factor model the factors Friendship and Acceptance were grouped together into one factor. However, both Friendship and Acceptance retained four items in the CSCS and based on the qualitative data and other empirical evidence there is compelling evidence to treat these factors independently.

The social capital literature has provided a number of social capital factors although they relate to different social domains. Table 7.1 provides an overview of social capital factors reported in the literature. An important issue making comparison difficult is the terminology and definitions used. For example, a number of studies refer to civic action or civic participation. Although these factors are sometimes seen as being similar to the Governance factor in the present study, it would also suggest that governance in leisure clubs has unique features which are specific to the domain of leisure. This was supported by the findings that different type of leisure clubs differed in their need for Governance. In this research Governance refers to allowing for divergent opinions, input into decision making and providing a viewpoint. It also reflects consultation, and open discussion before decision making which supports open lines of communication as highlighted in the review of literature. The items to assess the Governance factor all reflect issue of operations and the managing of a club. In the study by Okayasu et al. (2010) on sport clubs in Japan, there was no reference to the role of governance as a factor in the development of social capital. In the Australian study by Onyx and Bullen (1997) on social capital in rural towns, Participation in the Local Community was included as a

factor of social capital. Although their study deals with a similar population the context is very different than leisure. Participation in the Local Community, people volunteering and joining groups in the local community, is very different than Governance in a leisure club. Similarly, Putnam (1995), referred to governance but described this as membership of organisations and volunteering. Although the individuals who govern leisure organisations and clubs often do this on a voluntary basis it is actually the way the club or organisation is managed (governed) which appear to be the key issue for the members. As such it is not the mere joining of organisations or clubs: what is important in leisure is the way the clubs and organisation are run that is essential. This is a key issue because the way a club or organisation is run is modifiable. As such interventions could be developed to further explore the importance of Governance to social capital in leisure clubs and organisations.

Interestingly Grootaert and van Bastelaer (2002), and Narayan and Cassidy (2001), who conducted research in small, third world villages on the trust of local governance also referred to governance. However, in this context governance was seen as empowerment and political action sharing. This, again, has a very different meaning than the Governance factor in the present study. However, it would be interesting to examine in future research whether good governance in leisure organisations can empower its members.

**Table 7.1 Components of Social Capital from the Literature**

Researcher	Components used	Sample used in the research
Onyx & Bullen (1997)	Participation, social agency, trust-safety, neighborhood connections, family, tolerance of diversity, value of life, and work connections.	Residents in rural towns
Grootaert & van Bastelaer (2002)	Trust, norms, values, governance, networks and institutions	Studies of villages and health projects
Narayan & Cassidy (2001)	Trust, norms, friendship-sociability, networks connections, and volunteerism	Studies of small communities
Okayasu, Kawahara, Nogawa (2010)	Trust, networks, and reciprocity	Study of two types of Japanese sport club models
Putnam (1995, 2000)	Trust, networks, civic involvement, and group membership,	Studies of geographical regions and governance structures.
This PhD	Trust-Reciprocity, Friendship, Acceptance, Norms, and Governance	Leisure clubs, and their members

The factors Trust and Norms which emerged in the present study as important factors in leisure clubs are similar to those reported in the literature. They relate to the importance of providing a trusting and supporting environment which has a clear code of behaviour for its members. Overall this would suggest that social capital has both similarities and differences across different contexts.

This PhD provides grounded information on the factors that are contained within social capital in leisure clubs. It has provided a deeper understanding on the factors that are critical to social capital in this sector and as such provide a framework for future studies both in terms of theory development and measurement of social capital (Daniel, 2009; Franke, 2005).

### **7.2.2 AIM 2: The development and validation of a scale to measure social capital within leisure organisations.**

To date there has been no valid or reliable instrument to measure social capital in leisure clubs. As such an important aim of this PhD was to develop such a measure. The initial 200 item scale, based on the qualitative work of this PhD and the empirical literature, was reduced to a 20-item 4 factor Club Social Capital Scale (CSCS). The item reduction was achieved through pilot testing with a sample of 100 participants and with the sample of over one thousand participants in the main study. The final scale items clustered around 4 factors which represented 5 components of social capital (Norms, Governance, Trust/reciprocity, & Friendship/ Acceptance). All items measured social capital with high item correlation expressing a strong relationship between scale items and reliability. This was illustrated through high Cronbach alpha values (.92) showing excellent internal consistency, and validity with item total correlations in the range of .44 to .71. This represents moderate to high values indicating that all scale items make a real contribution to the total score and to the measurement of social capital.

The final scale included two stand- alone factors Norms and Governance, with Friendship-Acceptance independent but linking together, while Trusting-Reciprocity loaded together as one factor named Trust. The CSCS is the first scale to assess social capital in leisure clubs which not only has acceptable psychometric properties but also preliminary predictive validity. This was demonstrated with the associations obtained between the CSCS factors and the Club Behavioural Scale. Although this

PhD by no means has developed a definitive scale to assess social capital in leisure clubs it will provide an important instrument for other researchers to build on. The scale can be used in intervention studies to examine which social capital factors might be relevant for changes in selected outcome measures. For example, does improved governance in a sporting organisation result in recruitment of more members or reduce dropout. These are currently key issues within Australian leisure. The Australian Sport Commission (ASC) and the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in their recent strategic plan have emphasised the need for change in governance across the sport sector (The State of Australian Sport, 2012).

As indicated many times there is little work on the factors which develop or underlie social capital in leisure in general and leisure clubs in particular. The main study for comparison is the work by Okayasu et al. (2010) comparing types of sport clubs and social capital in Japan (see also Table 7.2). Their scale had three factors Trust, Networks, and Reciprocity (with 25-items) and shared some common features with this PhD. Governance, Acceptance, and Norms, important factors in this study were not included. While their use of items measuring the factor Networks shares some common features, their research was focussed outward into the community, not within friendship structures in the club. Another difference would be the Japanese sport model and philosophy, which is likely to be very different from the Australian model. The Australian sport model is based on local clubs linked to state and national associations and is similar to that in Canada and in New Zealand. In the research in Japan they are measuring traditional sport clubs which feature a limited variety of sport against a new model which represents a number of sport types and options.

Table 7.2 provides an overview of some other existing questionnaires, number of items, factors and sample which have been used in different contexts. In more general terms the CSCS differs from the instrument used by Onyx and Bullen (1997) in that the CSCS includes the factors Governance, Trust and Norms. The factor Acceptance in the CSCS, on the other hand, is not dissimilar to the Tolerance of Diversity factor identified by Onyx and Bullen. With regard to the work of Putnam the factor Trust seems to be the main overlapping factor with Governance, Norms and Friendship-Acceptance being different.

**Table 7.2 Research in the Literature**

<b>Researcher</b>	<b>Factors and items</b>	<b>Sample</b>
Onyx and Bullen (1997)	8 factors, 36 items	Residents in rural towns
Okayasu, Kawahara, Nogawa (2010)	3 Factors and 25 items	Members of two types of Japanese sport clubs
Putnam(1995,2000)	Used previous surveys, e.g. Roper and General Social Survey 5 factors and 13 items	Social capital over large geographical areas e.g. Italy north vs. south
This PhD	5 factors and 20 items	Victorian Leisure clubs

Of course from the current PhD it is unclear whether the same factors of social capital for leisure clubs are similar across different cultures. As can be seen from the Japanese study by Okayasu et al. (2010) there is a need to understand cultural variations in social capital. Factors influencing social capital might be influenced by ethnicity or cultural differences. Taking into consideration the study by Okayasu et al. (2010) it appears that differences in the factors underpinning social capital in leisure clubs have already been demonstrated. In addition, sport and leisure are organized differently across societies which are likely to influence the type and number of factors underpinning social capital (e.g. US sport model vs. European sport models). As such future research should establish whether cultural orientations and or ethnicity influence the number of factors and their significance. As such the functional, conceptual and psychometric equivalence of the CSCS has to be assessed in future studies.

Although the CSCS was specifically developed for the domain of clubs in leisure it would be of interest to examine its relevance to other domains. This would be particularly relevant to other organised clubs including arts groups and volunteer welfare groups. This would provide information on the similarities and differences of social capital factors across different (social) domains. Such research would have important implications for policy and interventions (e.g., does one size fits all?).

This PhD already examined some moderator variables. However, there are many others which could play a role in determining the significance of the different factors of social capital obtained in the present thesis. This could include attitudes or specific behaviours as well as demographic variables.

The present PhD did not conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to further explore the psychometric properties of the CSCS. This would be an important aspect of future studies. In particular CFA could establish whether a four factor model or a five factor model is more appropriate. In addition, the present PhD work is based on more traditional or classical test theory. More recently invariant measurement has come to the fore in the social and behavioural sciences. In particular the use of Rasch models has been promoted to examine items in questionnaires (Engelhard, 2013). However, such analysis was beyond the scope of the present research.

On the whole this research produced a relatively short (20-item) questionnaire to assess social capital in leisure clubs. The CSCS can be completed in 5-10 minutes by participants and has good psychometric properties. As such this thesis fulfilled its second aim.

### **7.2.3 AIM 3: Undertake an analysis of the effect of age, gender, income, education and sport versus recreation on social capital levels in the club members in the sample.**

An important aim of this research was also to examine factors which might influence social capital in leisure clubs. Although findings have been equivocal, some research suggests that some demographic factors can influence the relevance of factors underlying social capital as evidenced in neighbourhood differences in trust due to age, gender, and other demographic factors (Subramanian, Lochner, & Kawachi, 2003). Other research, on the other hand has found that social capital was similar across a number of demographic variables. For example, Onyx & Bullen (1997) did not find differences in social capital for age, gender or income. Okayasu et al, (2010) however, found gender differences in their Japanese sample of sport club members. Females scored higher levels of Social Capital, Trust and Networks which is in juxtaposition to the results for gender in this PhD. However, based on the literature and some theorizing it was expected that some factors (like having club facilities) could influence social capital in leisure clubs.

An obvious demographic factor which can influence social capital is age. It is well known that participation in leisure varies with age as do the motives to do so. For example, younger people are more likely to participate in sport because of the competitive element whereas older people engage for the health and social benefits

(Onyx & Baker, 2006; Australian Masters Games, 2012). As such age differences in social capital were expected. Indeed Friendship and Trust were rated higher by younger people. Some research has suggested that young adults require close relationships, trust and involvement in recreation and community (Hartley, 1999). Shaefer-McDaniel (2004) supported this observation by stating that young people have interactions, a mutual level of trust and reciprocity and a need to belong to their friendship networks but also to an immediate environment and/or entity which can be a club. This might explain why younger individuals rated Friendship and Trust higher than older individuals in this study.

It has to be acknowledged that age has not featured substantially in the social capital literature to date and that most studies have been conducted with adult samples. This is a strange state of affairs, particularly in the light that attitudes and motives for participation in numerous activities vary over time and as such would be expected to moderate social capital. For example Hartley (1989) states that social capital is important in preparing young people for adulthood through friendships, relationships, and social networks based on trust. Research also links the importance of place for young people which may suggest the involvement in a club as fulfilling this need. On the other hand research suggests daily social interaction is negatively associated with age resulting from fewer encounters due to retirement and general aging (McDonald & Mair, 2010). Friendship networks tend to shrink as people age and have less social contact for information sharing (Kalmijn, 2003; Wellman et al., 1997). However, the research is equivocal, some people increase their neighbourhood socializing and volunteering after age 57 (Cornwell et al., 2008). Taking into consideration the potential influence of age on social capital it would be suggested to adopt a life-span approach in future research on social capital in leisure clubs. This would help to establish whether social capital varies with age and whether different approaches need to be developed to enhance social capital among different age groups.

This study also found gender differences. Males scored higher on total social capital than the females. In addition men only clubs registered higher social capital than women's clubs. This highlights a small but statistical significant relationship between overall social capital and gender. A number of suggestions were provided

for this phenomenon. For example, although males are less likely to volunteer they do this in leisure clubs and this might be related to the notion that males tend to have greater access to social capital and its benefits (Parks-Yancey et al., 2006). The fact that they choose to volunteer in this sector may be reflected in their feeling comfortable in depending on one another in a 'safe' setting such as in a community leisure club (ABS, 2006). Men also enjoy friendships "activity friends" where they do things together which these clubs provide (Block, 1980). Men also have fewer friends than women and these often involve friends associated with a particular activity (Block, 1980). Men also registered higher levels of trust and governance than women which may reflect some of the previously highlighted research. Clubs provide the opportunity to work together and solve problems whether working out a team roster or training new players.

The higher score for Governance for men compared to women in this PhD might be the result of their need for rules, outcomes and the similarity with the roles they fulfil in their working lives (Mattsson, Stenbacka, & Stenbacka, 2003a). For example, men are more likely to be board members. Also, leisure clubs provide an environment in which trust can be built without the need for close interpersonal relationships (Traustadottir, 2004). In the study by Okayasu et al. (2010) on Japanese sports clubs, females were actually found to score higher than the males on the factors trust and networks. Notwithstanding the different measurement tool used across studies such differences points to the notion that culture and/or ethnicity play a role in the factors underlying social capital and how demographic factors influence this. For example, the different roles women play in societies in Japanese culture could be an explanation for this difference. Japanese sport developed in schools and companies resulting in a different participation pattern than the Australian community based club system. This model may have effected women's sport participation. Women's sport participation in Japan is lower than men's due to gender roles and the perceptions of women's abilities, however as in western culture these issues are being slowly addressed and change is taking place (Orlansky, 2007). Today the Japanese government is supporting existing state and national sport organisations linking clubs and schools, developing large comprehensive sport clubs which increase participation (Japan Sports Association, 2010; Okayasu et al, 2010). It is envisaged that this development will increase women's sport participation.

In this PhD, although some of the differences had only small effect sizes they do reflect important gender differences. These differences might be the results of the way leisure organisations and clubs have been managed. However, they also support more recent suggestions for reforms in the management and organisation of sport clubs in Australia (Australian Government Independent Sport Panel, 2009; Shilbury, & Kellett, 2011).

Income and Education (generally highly correlated factors) both showed differences in social capital: Individuals with lower income scoring higher on Total Social Capital and Governance. This might be related to lower levels of personal freedom (autonomy) in their life and employment and a need to join leisure clubs or organisation which have good Governance representing fairness. To many the club is their 'community' and they care and support it (Bowles, 1999). The literature reports that people on middle incomes and above prefer more and different choices in leisure and those on lower incomes prefer more familiar choices (Snibe & Markus, 2005; Stephens, Markus, & Townsend, 2007). In this way those on lower incomes may invest more of themselves in a smaller range of social networks. Although social capital research has strong roots in third world regions (e.g. Grootaert, & Lincoln, 1994), very few studies have examined differences in developed countries. Even fewer studies have examined how social capital and its factors might change as a consequence of income or educational background. This is surprising because there is good evidence that income is an important factor in how individuals participate in leisure and sport.

Lower levels of education in the present study were associated with higher scores on the factors Friendship and Trust. Like income, education has had little attention in the literature. The present findings seem to support the notion that sporting clubs (like religious institutions) can enhance social capital through Friendship and Trust in those groups who do not have a tertiary education experience (Helliwell & Putnam, 2004). Also, there is an indication that individuals with a higher education have larger networks but weaker ties (Florida, 2002) which would partly explain the lower score for Trust. Overall, there is an urgent need to further examine the influence of both income and education (both indicators of socio-economic status) on social capital.

In this PhD the assumption was made that recreation and sport clubs would differ in social capital because of the different needs they fulfil for members. Recreation clubs were found to score higher in Governance. The main explanation put forward for this finding is that recreation clubs, because of its lowered structure of its activities, actually requires strong governance. Sport has structure and rules for the activity and their clubs may be more inclined to accept rules. Higher level of governance within the sport clubs means the members depend on rules and may lead to their lower score of governance. Recreation clubs being less structured need governance to ensure that members can engage in recreational in a safe manner without concerns of the consequences.

The study also found that the existence of junior teams in the organisation resulted in higher scores on Trust. This may reflect that clubs with junior teams are more inclusive, having a wider age range of players and volunteers. Higher trust may also reflect safer opportunities and a more family approach creating a close trusting atmosphere. Existence of a social committee was also associated with higher scores on the factors Trust and Norms. However, those Leisure organisations with club rooms and good relationships with their council did not differ from leisure organisations without facilities or contacts in levels of total social capital or its factors. For all these variables little to no previous research exists. Findings of this PhD suggest that further study is required on some of these variables but not others.

The research on social capital in leisure is still in its infancy. This thesis has provided a tool for future studies to examine more closely factors which might influence social capital in leisure clubs. Such information is critical for policy makers to implement effective interventions to enhance social capital in leisure clubs.

### **7.3 Limitations of the Research**

Like any research project this PhD is not without its limitations. An important issue from the conception of this research was the limited empirical research on social capital in leisure and leisure clubs and the lack of clear definitions. To some extent this determined the research strategy adopted in the present thesis (a mixed method with a qualitative phase followed by the quantitative phase). Although the research

has increased the understanding of what social capital consists of in leisure clubs in Australia, further work is required to increase our knowledge base.

This research has mainly focussed on the factors underlying social capital in leisure clubs and the development of a scale to assess this. As such the research has mainly focussed on the underlying processes rather than what outcomes this might generate. The latter has been an important focus of much other research. The behavioural scale provided some evidence for the predictive validity of the CSCS however this should be an important aspect of future research. Hence, for a questionnaire to have a practical value it needs predictive validity.

From a statistical perspective a number of additional steps are required to further develop the reliability and validity of the CSCS. As indicated previously no confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted with a new sample. In addition, item response theory, or Rasch analysis (Baker, 2001; McDonald, 1985) was not utilized to further explore the way items relate to the CSCS. Rasch analysis should probably be conducted as an additional step to ensure structural validity and statistical reliability in future research.

A possible limitation of the current research was the way sport is currently organised in Australia. This might have result in some sampling bias despite the large sample size of the main study. For example, it was much easier to find sport associations and make contact for the sample used in the research; however there are fewer peak recreation associations in existence. This was an issue in the early stages of this PhD. The researcher had to contact a number of associations and in some instances go directly to local clubs to provide a sample of recreation clubs relative to the sport clubs that would be involved.

Although self-report is a common methodology to collect data in the social sciences it is not without its limitations. For example, when assessing somebody's physical activity levels one can compare self-report data with those collected via pedometers or accelerometers. This provides a good estimation of the reliability of self-report and whether individuals are more likely to over- or under-report (response bias). However, there is currently no gold standard to compare the factors of the CSCS with. In this research steps were undertaken to encourage honesty and minimize bias.

This included participants taking part on a voluntary basis, participants not required to respond to each item on the questionnaire and guaranteeing of anonymity (Northrup, 1996; Patton, 2002). In addition, the CSCS did not include any potential threatening items. The use of 7 point Likert response set also addressed central tendency by allowing greater variation of response points. So while there are some issues regarding the subjective nature of survey responses, efforts were made to address many of these issues in the development of the CSCS.

To limit social desirability responding by participants, items of the CSCS were spread out requiring greater attention from the participants. The use of a 7-point Likert scale also provided sufficient opportunity for participants to vary their responses. That said no social desirability scale was used in the present research.

The lack of conceptual understanding of social capital among members of the leisure clubs involved in the present research was a limitation. In the initial qualitative phase it was apparent that participants had a limited understanding of social capital in terms of its theoretical perspective in the literature and the terminology generally used to describe it. The leisure club members had difficulty understanding its characteristics in the initial focus group settings. This was addressed through discussions and a change in terminology to better reflect the members understanding.

While most research has limitations they are also strongly connected to future directions of the research, this will be discussed in the next section.

#### **7.4 Future Research Directions**

On the whole more research is required to increase our understanding of social capital in the domain of leisure and leisure clubs (Hemingway, 2006; & Zakus et al., 2009). There is a need for theory development as well as translational research. This PhD has developed a valid and reliable tool which could be used in future research addressing these issues.

Some of the future research should be directed to the further development of the 20-item CSCS itself. Its brevity, ease of completion and psychometric properties are strong points. However, as previously highlighted the process of refining the components of social capital to factors in this research resulted in a four factor

solution comprising five separate components (one shared factor). This PhD did not conduct a CFA to further explore the psychometric properties (model fit) of the CSCS. As such an important aspect of future studies would be conducting CFA to establish whether a 4 factor model or a 5 factor model would be best suited for future studies. This would be strengthened if this could be achieved with different samples retaining a good model fit. In addition, this PhD used classic traditional test theory to develop the CSCS but it would be appropriate to employ recent invariant measurement tools for its further refinement. In particular Rasch models could be used to examine the items in the scale (Engelhard, 2013). An additional aspect of testing the psychometric properties of the CSCS would be to examine whether the scale remains invariant across clubs in different cultures or ethnicity. For a scale to be accepted as reliable and valid its structural equivalence has to be tested.

Future research should also examine the validity of the CSCS. The qualitative work of the initial development and the large sample size suggest that the CSCS has face validity (measures what it claims it measures). However, the present thesis did not address concurrent validity. Although different forms of validity could be examined most importantly would be to further examine the predictive validity of the CSCS. For example, do changes in governance in clubs result in differences in social capital? In addition it would be important to measure other factors including trust, as well as friendship and acceptance in relation to higher levels of social capital in clubs. In this way correlation of high factors of social capital in the clubs could be tested against predictors of differing levels of social capital within the clubs. Therefore developing model levels of social capital for clubs that are growing, and operating well could be developed and would be of interest to the leisure sector.

As indicated in the limitations the use of self-report is an important issue and this has been of concern to researchers since the 1950's. In the scientific literature two methods have been used to examine the influence of social desirability bias in answering inventories or surveys. Some scales have included specific items in their scale to account for this or have similar questions which are either worded in a positive or negative way (although such a method doesn't sit well with Rasch analysis). Alternatively, participants can be asked to complete a social desirability scale. For example, future studies could include the Marlowe-Crowne Social

Desirability scale (MCSDS; 1964). A number of versions now exist of this widely used scale with one as short as 10 items. Future research could examine whether the CSCS or its items does not result in socially desirable responses by correlating this with the MCSDS.

The present research showed that governance was not only an important aspect of social capital in leisure clubs it also was moderated by a number of variables. An interesting question would be to examine whether the governance factor in leisure has spill over effects to other domains or communities. If a club is well governed network with transparent clear information flow to its members, and everybody is accepted as equals, would this encourage the members to be more active in their own community?

Additional research would include the use of this new scale with other-non leisure sectors including formal networks in the arts. This was reflected by Putnam (1995, 2000), where he referred to the existence of choral groups and possible links to high social capital levels in Italy. The generic contextual nature of the CSCS would theoretically allow it be used in other non-leisure settings or domains such as environmental groups.

Demographic characteristics of populations are a usual research focus of most social science research. Little research has been conducted on social capital differences due to demographic characteristics. Onyx and Bullen (1997) even suggested that demographic differences do not exist in social capital. However, the present research and that conducted in Japan (Okayasu et al., 2010) suggest this statement not to be empirically true. Findings on motives on sport participation and leisure pursuits across the lifespan also suggest that differences would be expected across age and gender (e.g., Biddle & Mutrie, 2008). Also, the role of socio-economic status or proxies of this (e.g. educational level, income) would be interesting factors to explore further. Hence, socio-economic status is an important factor determining physical activity and sport participation and health (e.g. Ford et al., 1991).

The CSCS include the factor Governance. Although most formal clubs have elected structures this is not the case for all. Some organisations do not have a governance structure. As such it would be important to establish whether the CSCS is a viable

instrument to be used with such organisations (informal networks). Hence, informal networks are prevalent in all communities and are numerous (Putnam, 1995). For example, this could include a group of friends who turn up every week to have a game of soccer in the park.

There are numerous other research directions which would help to better understand social capital in leisure clubs. That said the present research also has some practical implications which are related to future research directions.

### **7.5 Practical Applications**

This PhD provides a scale for the measurement of social capital in leisure clubs and organisations. The CSCS has shown to be a reliable and valid measure of club based social capital and therefore provides a practical tool for use especially in the Victorian Leisure sector. It can be applied at the local club level, or at the state and/or national level to measure organised club based network social capital.

Although unexplored to date the CSCS has the potential to be used in other domains as well including the arts or environmental networks because of the factors of social capital.

The CSCS could be a valuable tool for local, state and national governments to provide baseline levels of social capital in leisure clubs but also to examine the changes in social capital as a consequence of their policies and initiatives.

Governments at all levels try to develop better communities and leisure is a vehicle to do this. But rather than measuring possible outcomes of change (e.g. increased participation, less crime) it is also important to know which factors have resulted in such changes. The CSCS could be a tool to provide such information.

For example, the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) and Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in their latest plan have indicated that the governance structure has to change in Australian sport to enhance elite sport but also mass-participation. The CSCS could be a tool to examine the effectiveness of such a policy drive.

At the micro level, the use of the CSCS in clubs and further analysis of the data, could provide for a preferred model of clubs to be profiled and therefore lead to growth in club numbers, quality of membership and trust within clubs. So this

information would not only be of use to the leisure sector to support better Governance, Trust and other factors providing best practice model clubs but also at the club level to implement these changes.

The demographic differences found in the present PhD would suggest that policy has to be targeted. In order to develop social capital in leisure different strategies are most likely required for males and females and age. Also, an issue not addressed in the present PhD, is culture. Australia is a highly multicultural society and there are important differences in participation rates across different cultural groups (ABS, 2006; The State of Australian Sport, 2012). The CSCS might be a tool to examine factors which are important to different groups to enhance their leisure experience and increase social capital.

The use of the CSCS with the Social Capital Behavioural Scale as a cross reference to ascertain good community and club network social capital based on actions is another practical application of this research. This could be of interest to the sport sector(s), the ASC, and other levels of government as it would provide theoretical constructs of what supports better growth and governance in clubs. Therefore through analysis, model club components can provide examples of specific behaviours which support new constructs of leisure clubs.

## **7.6 Conclusions**

This research has contributed to knowledge development in the area of social capital in leisure clubs by identifying key factors. In addition, it developed a short and easy to complete 20-item instrument to assess social capital in leisure clubs. It also showed that demographic factors have the potential to influence social capital. Through this research a number of avenues for future research and practical applications were identified.

Social capital has been identified in last few decades as an important concept to governments and societies. Much of the empirical work on social capital has been conducted on possible positive outcomes (reduced criminality) with little emphasis on the possible underlying mechanisms. As such this PhD provides a unique contribution to the literature. Through its mixed methodology it identified key factors underlying social capital in leisure clubs. The CSCS in this respect will

provide researchers with a powerful tool to examine the level of these factors in different leisure settings but also to examine how changes in these factors might help to improve selected outcomes (increased participation).

The present study doesn't provide an explicit definition of social capital in leisure clubs. However, by identifying the key factors it helps to better understand what social capital means within the context of leisure and clubs thus enhancing clarity within the scientific literature. It was important to further the study of the field of social capital and this PhD will be able to contribute a tool for measurement to the sector as well as a greater understanding of the theory of social capital and its operation.

This PhD hopefully will support and raise the profile of social capital as an important theoretical and practical concept in the world of leisure and leisure clubs and the CSCS will be adopted as the instrument of choice to examine and evaluate social capital.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: Focus groups, interview forms, information

*Faculty of Human Development  
Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance*



#### **A Study of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs**

Dear Focus Group Participants

The following page of information provides you with an overview of my study A Study of Social Capital in Local area Leisure Clubs.

I am a PHD student in the Human Movement, Leisure and Performance course at Victoria University and am currently in the process of organising my research part of my study. I am holding two focus groups to provide “grass roots” information from people who are member of sport and recreation clubs. This information will be used to develop a questionnaire, which will be given to 3,000 club members from over 100 sport and recreation clubs later this year. The attached information sheet will give you additional information about what the content of the focus groups will include.

Please feel free to ring me on 9208 3499 to discuss any aspects of the study or the focus groups.

Yours sincerely

Tom Forsell  
Email [tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au](mailto:tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au)

## FOCUS GROUP INFORMATION

Thank you for agreeing to represent your club by participating in a focus group for my study on “The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs”.

Participation in a wide variety of sport and recreation activities has been accepted as an important part of Australian life. Participation make us fit, teaches us new skills, and develops game sense. One of the main avenues of sport and recreation participation is through local clubs. These sport and recreation clubs, whether they are soccer, netball or fishing clubs, provide more than just the activity the club offers, they provide members other people to do the activity with, and an identity that comes from belonging to the group, all in a social setting.

I am interested in looking at this social nature of clubs in my study. I want to look at local sport and recreation clubs and identify the social benefits of club membership. I am especially interested in why people join clubs, what they think they get from being in the club, and how the club seems to be a ‘good, friendly place’. I will try to test and demonstrate these ideas.

The social interactions and relationships in clubs provide valuable things like trust, sense of acceptance of members and thus they sustain healthy communities. These things are referred to as social capital. I want to develop ways to measure social capital and how it is developed in sport and recreation clubs. I believe the more we know about local clubs’ social capital levels will provide us with important information on how to make better, closer knit clubs. This will also give governments a clearer picture of the social benefits of being in a sport and recreation club.

I am interested in discussing some of these ideas with you in the focus group. We will talk about why you are in your club, and look at what you think are the reasons people join and stay in clubs. The information from the focus group will help develop a questionnaire to give out to other club members in the second part of the study.

I will need to take notes of the comments of focus group participants. As well I will record (audio) the discussions of the focus groups. However, the records will remain confidential and they will be destroyed after they have been written up. Names of focus group members will not be used in the report and you will not be identified on the tape. In addition, you are free to not answer any questions you may feel awkward about, and if you feel so you can withdraw from the focus group at any time.

This focus group will be held at the State Fencing Centre-Fencing Factory (see Melways map 30, A-5) off Holmes rd turn right in to Donald St. Brunswick. Go down Donald **past Lincoln Street, past Aurora Receptions** and turn left into the next drive into a large parking lot. The session will go from 6:30- 8:00 PM on Tuesday September 28 and we will have food and drinks. The group will have 10 people representing the different clubs. Please **keep this information**, and if you have any **questions about the focus group** please do not hesitate to contact me directly.

**My mobile 0419 573 973**

**Tom Forsell PHD Researcher Phone 9208 3499 Email: tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au**

*Faculty of Human Development  
Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance*



## *A Study of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs*

Dear Interview Participants

The following page of information provides you with an overview of my study A Study of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs.

I am a PHD student in the Human Movement, Leisure and Performance course at Victoria University and am currently in the process of organising my research part of my study. I am conducting 5 one on one interviews to provide “grass roots” information from people who are members of sport and recreation clubs. This information will be used to develop a questionnaire, which will be given to 3,000 club members from over 100 sport and recreation clubs later this year. The attached information sheet will give you additional information about what the content of the interview will include.

Please feel free to ring me on 9208 3499 to discuss any aspects of the study or of the interviews.

Yours sincerely

Tom Forsell  
Email [tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au](mailto:tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au)

## INTERVIEW INFORMATION

Thank you for agreeing to represent your club by participating in an interview for my study on “The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Leisure Clubs”.

Participation in a wide variety of sport and recreation activities has been accepted as an important part of Australian life. Participation make us fit, teaches us new skills, and develops game sense. One of the main avenues of sport and recreation participation is through local clubs. These sport and recreation clubs, whether they are soccer, netball or fishing clubs, provide more than just the activity the club offers, they provide members other people to do the activity with, and an identity that comes from belonging to the group, all in a social setting.

I am interested in looking at this social nature of clubs in my study. I want to look at local sport and recreation clubs and identify the social benefits of club membership. I am especially interested in why people join clubs, what they think they get from being in the club, and how the club seems to be a ‘good, friendly place’. I will try to test and demonstrate these ideas.

The social interactions and relationships in clubs provide valuable things like trust, sense of acceptance of members and thus they sustain healthy communities. These things are referred to as social capital. I want to develop ways to measure social capital and how it is developed in sport and recreation clubs. I believe the more we know about local clubs’ social capital levels will provide us with important information on how to make better, closer knit clubs. This will also give governments a clearer picture of the social benefits of being in a sport and recreation club.

I am interested in discussing some of these ideas with you in a phone interview. We will talk about why you are in your club, and look at what you think are the reasons people join and stay in clubs. The information from these interviews will help develop a questionnaire to give out to other club members in the second part of the study.

I will need to take notes of your comments for better recall. As well I would like to record our telephone discussion. However, the records will remain confidential and they will be destroyed after they have been written up. Names of people will not be used in the report and you will not be identified on the tape. In addition, you are free to not answer any questions you may feel awkward about, and if you feel so you can withdraw from the interview at any time.

Please **keep this information**, and if you have any **questions about the interview** please do not hesitate to contact me directly.

Thank you

**Tom Forsell PhD Researcher Phone 9208 3499**

**Email: tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au**

**My mobile 0419 573 973**

## **APPENDIX B: Focus group interview process and questions**

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- Focus groups and interviews will be held to provide club input to the study.
- Focus groups will have 10 participants representing 5 of the key activity areas of the research project, eg. 4 representatives from each of the following: baseball, fishing, bushwalking, netball, and badminton or softball.
- Each focus group will run approximately for 1-½ hours and interviews of 1 hour.
- Representatives will provide additional information from their grass roots club base perspective on friendships, trust, reciprocity, and acceptance to be input into the draft questionnaire and to augment the reading.
- Representatives will be from a diverse club background including volunteers, players, and executive members.

### **Questions will include:**

- Why do people belong in local clubs?
- Why are you in your club?
- What keeps you in this club?
- What does your club does for people to make them feel welcome?
- How would you describe the relationships between your members?
- Why would a person join your club?
- What informal things happen in your club between members? Why?
- How are these things important?
- Do you like most of the members of your club?
- Is trust important in clubs? Why?
- Is it important between club members? Why?
- Define trust-what does it mean to you?
- How can you show or prove trust?
- If you were at your club with your children and an emergency came up at work or home, could you leave your children there with the club members? Why?
- If someone in your club had an emergency to attend to could they leave their kids with you? What does this mean to you?
- If someone helps you do you like to repay the favour?
- How does it make you feel?
- What levels of trust exist in your club/? Why?
- Do your club members have a strong sense of belonging to the club?
- Do your club members accept each other? How can you know this?
- What is important to make a close-knit friendly club?
- How do you rank your club?
- Do you see many members of your club outside of the club functions?

### **Possible questions for the questionnaire**

1. If a club member suffered an economic loss, who do you think would help them?
2. Do you think that members of your club trust in lending each other things?
3. Has this level of trust gotten better, worse or stayed the same?
4. Do members of your club when they go away have club members watch their house or would they get neighbours to do this?
5. If you had to go away for 2 days who would you count on to take care of your children? Neighbours, family, club members?
6. People here look out for their family members and their welfare and do not care much about the clubs welfare. Do you agree or disagree?

### **Tell me whether you agree or disagree with these statements.**

7. Most people in the club are basically honest and can be trusted.
8. People are always interested in their own welfare.
9. Members of this club are always more trustworthy than members of other clubs.
10. If I have a problem in the club there is always someone to help me.
11. Most people here will help you if you need help?
12. The club has prospered in the past 3 years.
13. I feel accepted as a member of this club.
14. If you drop your purse or wallet in or around the clubrooms, someone will see it and return it to you.
15. Does your club leadership change regularly?
16. Do your club leaders stay in their position long enough to gain experience?
17. Do your leaders usually come from a few certain families and are the same or do they change?
18. What percentage of your leaders are women?
19. Do many women and poorer people partake in your club?
20. Do you feel fairly represented by your club leaders?

**FOCUS GROUP PROCEEDINGS**

Introductions with the name tags

Housekeeping;

5 Minutes on the background of the study

Importance of sport and recreation in other studies

How the findings of this study can have an impact.

**STUDY OUTCOMES**

Questionnaire to measure clubs sense of social capital

Model of club types which can develop higher stores of social capital

Information on what social aspects of clubs are important.

Focus group purpose- to feed in to the questionnaire scale development process.

**WHY PEOPLE JOIN CLUBS.-Focus Group and interview questions****1. BELONGING/Friendship**

**Does your club have a strong sense of identity (belonging to the club)?**

*How do you know that this is true?*

**2.INFORMAL-Social**

**What informal things happen in your club between members?**

**3.JOINING CLUBS.**

**Why did you join your club?**

**What keeps you in this club?**

**4. RECIPROCITY/give and take**

*How do you know that there is reciprocity in your club where people are giving and taking.*

**5.TRUST IN CLUBS**

**Is trust important in clubs? Why?**

*Can you give an example of how trust occurs in your club?*

**6.ACCEPTANCE/TOLERANCE**

**Do your club members accept each other?**

*How can you show this?*

**Do you see members of your club outside of the club functions? Why?**

Name of club and your role \_\_\_\_\_

**Complete these questions in about 10 minutes and we will discuss your responses**

## APPENDIX C: First iteration of themes

AppC

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
1		Elwood	Go fishing	participate
2		Elwood	I get help	support
3		Elwood	Strong bond	bonding
4		Elwood	time 15 years in club	loyalty
5		Elwood	When players are offered money to leave the club for another they decline.	loyalty
6		Elwood	you do it for the club	loyalty
7		Elwood	people wear their hats, colors, and badges when out.	symbols
8		Elwood	colors,badges	symbols
9		Elwood	friendly ad hoc fishing outings.	friendship
10		Elwood	friendly ad hoc fishing outings.	external
11		Elwood	socialise after training	chatting
12		Elwood	Weekends away and bbq's	external
13		Elwood	Weekends away and bbq's	socialise
14		Elwood	Dining out	socialise
15		Elwood	Dining out	external
16		Elwood	fishing together outside of club doos	external
17		Elwood	friendships are made outside of the club setting	external
18		Elwood	Friendly meetings and trips	socialise
19		Elwood	Support is provided	support
20		Elwood	Sense of belonging	bonding
21		Elwood	there is an acceptance of why different people are there	acceptance
22		Elwood	Subgroups are accepted	acceptance
23		Elwood	People set aside differences and pull together	acceptance
24		Elwood	People set aside differences and pull together	bonding
25		Elwood	Work as one	bonding
26		Elwood	Code of acceptable behavior	mores
27		Elwood	Tolerance	tolerance
28		Elwood	friends	friendship
29		Elwood	respect	respect
30		Elwood	camaraderie	camaraderie
31		Elwood	fellowship	fellowship
32		Elwood	Pride in the group	pride
33		Elwood	Self esteem in belonging	self esteem
34		Elwood	sense of duty	duty
35		Elwood	put something back	altruistic
36		Elwood	sense of community	altruistic
37		Elwood	knowledge of the need for people to contribute	put in
38		Elwood	paasionate about club survival	altruistic
39		Elwood	club is bigger than the individuals	alturistic
40		Elwood	many peole help	contribute
41		Elwood	training kids	put in/back
42		Elwood	putting back in	put in/back
43		Elwood	share the load	contribute
44		Elwood	older members pass on skills	put in/back
45		Elwood	collaboration on tasks eg car pooling	contribute

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
46		Elwood	Unwritten rules eg when a boat comes in you help land/moor it	mores/expect
47		Elwood	People are expected to help	mores/expect
48		Elwood	people who do not help are worked around until they understand	mores
49		Elwood	Our turn to help-people self monitor	contribute
50		Elwood	share costs	contribute
51		Elwood	the more people who help the less work for everyone	contribute
52		Elwood	people who take and not give are excluded from social events	mores/expect
53		Elwood	you need trust in clubs	trust
54		Elwood	you must be able to rely on others eg safety on the water	trust
55		Elwood	Reliability turn up when you are expecterd	trust
56		Elwood	If trust is broken people feel uneasy	trust
57		Elwood	In a club you do not like to not trust others	trust
58		Elwood	If trust is broken people feel uneasy	trust
59		Elwood	If trust is broken people leave	trust
60		Elwood	If trust is broken most want to fix it	trust
61		Elwood	you must be able to trust others with your things and club equipment	trust
62		Elwood	the club depends on people's contributions	contribute
63		Elwood	if someone leaves and does not tell others this can be detrimental	mores
64		Elwood	trust is needed in the game, to pay bills	trust/depend
65		Elwood	officials must be trustworthy	dependability
66		Elwood	Security	trust/depend
67		Elwood	Reliability turn up when you are expecterd	dependability
68		Elwood	Rely on others for security/safety	trust/depend
69		Elwood	openess and honest opinions	trust
70		Elwood	Support is provided	support
71		Elwood	People need to feel secure in the activites eg on the sea	secure/trust
72		Elwood	Trust is bounded by a code of conduct	code/mores
73		Elwood	clubs function better when you abide	mores
74		Elwood	you only know boundaries when they are broken	mores
75		Elwood	There are unwritten expectations eg leaving a note if you borrow something.	mores/code
76		Elwood	New members are helped and brought in to the	mores
77		Elwood	If people do not act within boundaries eg they do not leave a note	loss of trust
78		Elwood	everyone points at each other	distrust
79		Elwood	Don't know who is responsible	distrust
80		Elwood	The group suffers	loss of trust
81		Elwood	The group does not feel good/does not work	loss of trust
82		Elwood	Bad feelings	loss of trust
83		Elwood	Apprehension	apprehension

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
84		Elwood	Sense of relief when someone admits to doing the wrong thing	rebuilding trust
85		Elwood	Acceptance/Tolerance	acceptance
86		Elwood	club members accept each other	acceptance
87		Elwood	they show this when they greet each other	acceptant/bond
88		Elwood	vocal members in sport clubs are accepted/tolerated	accept/tolerate
89		Elwood	Thir hearts are in the right place	acceptance
90		Elwood	colorful people add to the club	acceptance
91		Elwood	Everyone brings something different	equality/acceptance
92		Elwood	We are very suportive	support
93		Elwood	people are all different but band together to do something	accept/bond
94		Elwood	Working together makes a good club	bonding
95		Elwood	respect and fellowship are important in close knit friendly clubs	respect
96		Elwood	communication is important	communicate
97		Elwood	people do not give enough	take not give
98		Elwood	Same people do everything	nonreciprocal
99		Elwood	clubs which do not make new people feel welcome and assist them	friendly/support
100		Elwood	clubs which do not reward people enough do not work well	friendly/support
101		Elwood	do not let the activity of the club eg playing softball outweigh the benefits of interacting with people	social focus
102		Elwood	We have many friendships	friendship
103		Elwood	We often go to other events with club members	friendship/out
104		Elwood	friendships have developed outside of the club	extended friends
105		Elwood	Similar interests helps	like minded
106		Elwood	Its fun to see each other outside of the club	social focus
107		Elwood	Many of our friends are from the club	extended friends
108		Elwood	Most of our friends are from the club	extended friends
109		Elwood	Clubs should have someone as the welcoming person.	friendly/support
110			<b>FOCUS GROUP BRUNSWICK SEPTEMBER 28</b>	
111	Sep-28	Bruns	Club has a strong bond	bonding
112	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes strong sense of history	bonding
113	Sep-28	Bruns	Shared experience	bonding
114	Sep-28	Bruns	Many people have been in the club a number of years	bonding
115	Sep-28	Bruns	Strong sense of belonging	bonding
116	Sep-28	Bruns	Some members have been in the club for over 50 years	bonding
117	Sep-28	Bruns	We have a core of members who have been in the club 15 plus years	bonding
118	Sep-28	Bruns	Those that compete talk highly of the club ranking against other clubs	status

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
119	Sep-28	Bruns	Members attend meetings/events.	commitment
120	Sep-28	Bruns	Strong bond they tell us	bonding
121	Sep-28	Bruns	Most of the members strongly identify with the club	bonding
122	Sep-28	Bruns	We have a core of members who participate in club activities	commitment
123	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes strong sense	identity
124	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes club bond was shown when we were going to close down	bonding
125	Sep-28	Bruns	Concern when someone is missing	caring
126	Sep-28	Bruns	Older member's strong sense rubs off on younger members	bonding
127	Sep-28	Bruns	<b>Caring</b> -one older member is important to the people and others care about his health he is a central figure	caring
128	Sep-28	Bruns	Long term commitment	commitment
129	Sep-28	Bruns	Long term members who others look up to	status/mentor
130	Sep-28	Bruns	Club has mentors who help/guide	mentors
131	Sep-28	Bruns	We have members from diverse backgrounds	acceptance
132	Sep-28	Bruns	Outside of the peer group	acceptance
133	Sep-28	Bruns	Leveling-members are one even with different backgrounds	equality/acceptance
134	Sep-28	Bruns	It's important in keeping the club together in lean times	loyalty
135	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes it is a self-help club that needs loyal members to function	loyalty
136	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes it helps the sense of belonging	
137	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes club loyalty is most important	
138	Sep-28	Bruns	It helps bond new members and creates a positive atmosphere in the club for others to enjoy	loyalty/bond
139	Sep-28	Bruns	It is part of a cycle bringing in new ones	loyalty
140	Sep-28	Bruns	It's important for turnover, as you don't need to be a member to fish	loyalty
141	Sep-28	Bruns	Don't have to be a member to compete	acceptance
142	Sep-28	Bruns	Loyalty is important to retain members	retention
143	Sep-28	Bruns	A meeting point	loyalty
144	Sep-28	Bruns	Like minded people	similar interest
145	Sep-28	Bruns	People who can connect use the same style	bonding
146	Sep-28	Bruns	Common values and easier to make friends	bonding
147	Sep-28	Bruns	Organise social trips	social focus
148	Sep-28	Bruns	Family experiences	social focus
149	Sep-28	Bruns	Members do much out of the club	extended friends
150	Sep-28	Bruns	BBQ's/cards	extended friends
151	Sep-28	Bruns	Fishing with others	social focus
152	Sep-28	Bruns	BBQ'S	social focus
153	Sep-28	Bruns	Working bees at houses	extended help
154	Sep-28	Bruns	Social events	social focus
155	Sep-28	Bruns	Most afternoons	social focus

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
156	Sep-28	Bruns	The main activities outside of fishing comps are informal	social focus
157	Sep-28	Bruns	Bike rides/bush walks/email joke lists	extended social
158	Sep-28	Bruns	Had a BBQ and grand final-no one watched the TV-they talked	social focus
159	Sep-28	Bruns	We make personal friends that extend outside of the club	extended friends
160	Sep-28	Bruns	We go to other events with our club friends	social outside
161	Sep-28	Bruns	Clubrooms are a meeting point for the activity or cards etc	social
162	Sep-28	Bruns	Social dinners have huge attendance	social
163	Sep-28	Bruns	Very important	social
164	Sep-28	Bruns	They just develop as people become friends	social friends
165	Sep-28	Bruns	They need to do more than just bowl	social
166	Sep-28	Bruns	These allow participants to bring back external experiences that help the club grow	social bond
167	Sep-28	Bruns	These also create an air of friendship that extends beyond the club	extended friends
168	Sep-28	Bruns	These are important	social
169	Sep-28	Bruns	<b>I joined:</b> to meet people who share my likes	social/likes
170	Sep-28	Bruns	Information sharing	information
171	Sep-28	Bruns	To volunteer for something I believe in	altruistic
172	Sep-28	Bruns	To contribute to the public good	altruistic
173	Sep-28	Bruns	I joined to fish	participate
174	Sep-28	Bruns	Learn fly-fishing	skill develop
175	Sep-28	Bruns	For my health	health
176	Sep-28	Bruns	To learn something	learn
177	Sep-28	Bruns	To learn fly fishing	skill develop
178	Sep-28	Bruns	To play the sport	participate
179	Sep-28	Bruns	I joined through a brochure at the show	information
180	Sep-28	Bruns	My brother was a member and I joined but am loyal and have friends/put in	introduced/loyal
181	Sep-28	Bruns	Loyalty	loyalty
182	Sep-28	bruns	fun	fun
183	Sep-28	Bruns	Now because of friendships	friends
184	Sep-28	Bruns	Because of communication with others who understand why	similar interest
185	Sep-28	Bruns	To play	participate
186	Sep-28	bruns	enjoyment	enjoyment
187	Sep-28	Bruns	The club is important role in my life	loyalty
188	Sep-28	Bruns	Fishing	participate
189	Sep-28	Bruns	friendship	friendship
190	Sep-28	Bruns	fun	fun
191	Sep-28	Bruns	Friendship	friendship
192	Sep-28	Bruns	fellowship	fellowship
193	Sep-28	Bruns	Give something back to the club	altruistic
194	Sep-28	Bruns	Club loyalty	loyalty
195	Sep-28	Bruns	Friendship	friendship
196	Sep-28	Bruns	Friendship and meeting people	social

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
197	Sep-28	Bruns	My improvement	skill develop
198	Sep-28	Bruns	social get together	social
199	Sep-28	Bruns	Friendship	friendship
200	Sep-28	Bruns	fishing friends	participate
201	Sep-28	Bruns	Ownership	
202	Sep-28	Bruns	Most give but not all	reciprocity
203	Sep-28	Bruns	Give time as volunteer and want others to do	reciprocity
204	Sep-28	Bruns	In club there is a sense of sharing, giving gear, tips, buying cars	reciprocity/help
205	Sep-28	Bruns	There is an unwritten code to help others out	help/support
206	Sep-28	Bruns	Playing away not everyone wants to drive-roster and pay	reciprocity
207	Sep-28	Bruns	Not anywhere near enough	nonreciprocal
208	Sep-28	Bruns	New members are taken out fishing	supported
209	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes plenty of support	supported
210	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes during holidays people help me with my duties	supported
211	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes the load is shared	reicrocity
212	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes good support	supported
213	Sep-28	Bruns	I give my time because I expect and know others will give to the club	reciprocity
214	Sep-28	Bruns	If someone helps you <b>YOU FEEL HAPPY AND SATISFACTION</b>	supported
215	Sep-28	Bruns	If you are busy people help-no asking-people are proactive	supported
216	Sep-28	Bruns	There is an expectation others will help	expectations
217	Sep-28	Bruns	Obligation/expectations you return the favour	expectiations
218	Sep-28	Bruns	Want to set a good example/give encouragement	encourage
219	Sep-28	Bruns	Support comes from members besides coaches	supported
220	Sep-28	Bruns	We don't keep a tally of giving	giving
221	Sep-28	Bruns	This give/take bonds people/brings them together	reciprocity
222	Sep-28	Bruns	Good communication helps	communicaiton
223	Sep-28	Bruns	It becomes a burden if only one helps	
224	Sep-28	Bruns	People are more enthusiastic if they have more time to put in	contribute
225	Sep-28	Bruns	If people feel uncomfortable they withdraw	friendly
226	Sep-28	Bruns	Making formal comments makes it harder	
227	Sep-28	Bruns	The more I give the more others give so there is a return	reciprocity
228	Sep-28	Bruns	Members teach each other to cast and fish	reciprocity
229	Sep-28	Bruns	Members share the teaching load	contribute
230	Sep-28	Bruns	Limited support to undertake formal responsibility	supported
231	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes people help each other, give each other ideas/advice	supported

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
232	Sep-28	Bruns	New members get special instruction from older members (this is how they learned)	supported
233	Sep-28	Bruns	Only a few members give	lack of support
234	Sep-28	Bruns	If you don't help this week you get different role	giving
235	Sep-28	Bruns	Input=respect, also talent, but more respect is given for putting in to the club	respect
236	Sep-28	Bruns	Info sharing-important-people that fish and share have esteem and are asked to fish	esteem
237	Sep-28	Bruns	Talented players who do not share are not respected	take
238	Sep-28	Bruns	Talent is not everything	
239	Sep-28	Bruns	Life membership is given because of their contribution	altruistic
240	Sep-28	Bruns	All members should have some input into social interaction and have expectations	social
241	Sep-28	Bruns	Respect is necessary in team sports	respect
242	Sep-28	Bruns	New members must find their feet-get their confidence	adjust
243	Sep-28	Bruns	People who put in spend more time at the club	contribute
244	Sep-28	Bruns	Members with little time to contribute are expected to do little things	contribute
245	Sep-28	Bruns	It's important for the club to go on	trust
246	Sep-28	Bruns	Trust is a key concern	trust
247	Sep-28	Bruns	It's very important	trust
248	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes it binds us	trust/bonds
249	Sep-28	Bruns	Allows us to rely on each other	rely
250	Sep-28	Bruns	If I trust others I know the time I put in will be reciprocated	reciprocate
251	Sep-28	Bruns	You need trust sometimes as things can be dangerous	trust
252	Sep-28	Bruns	Money collection is done at the end of the night	trust
253	Sep-28	Bruns	We trust people and respect the club and other's property	trust/accept
254	Sep-28	Bruns	Trust is vital if a club is to go on	trust
255	Sep-28	Bruns	Safety is an issue (fencing) must trust members	trust
256	Sep-28	Bruns	We put trust in someone who has had problems in the past and he is a good club member	trust
257	Sep-28	Bruns	Insurance policy no committee members can be held responsible	
258	Sep-28	Bruns	If you don't have trust-you don't have a club	trust
259	Sep-28	Bruns	Trust is essential	trust
260	Sep-28	Bruns	If you do not have trust you have to spend time monitoring	trust
261	Sep-28	Bruns	No trust takes the fun out of clubs	loss of fun
262	Sep-28	Bruns	When we play games and have any money issues there is always more money	trust

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
263	Sep-28	Bruns	Safety goes beyond immediate environment and give lifts	trust
264	Sep-28	Bruns	We raised money in a raffle, put in a pack in the cupboard and later raffled the pack off and winner took it home and brought back \$1900 that we forgot in the pack	trust
265	Sep-28	Bruns	Trust is like a gift	trust
266	Sep-28	Bruns	Betrayed/disappointed	betrayed
267	Sep-28	Bruns	Not right	negative
268	Sep-28	Bruns	Feel bad	negative
269	Sep-28	Bruns	People feel uneasy with each other	unease
270	Sep-28	Bruns	Look at people differently –who did it	distrust/suspicion
271	Sep-28	Bruns	When you steal from a club you are taking from yourself and other members	distrust/suspicion
272	Sep-28	Bruns	Show concern	care
273	Sep-28	Bruns	Club can address the problem with the committee making a decision	formal fix
274	Sep-28	Bruns	Improve security	formal fix
275	Sep-28	Bruns	When there is a breach you lean on others	use trust
276	Sep-28	Bruns	When you address the problem people become tighter	bonding
277	Sep-28	Bruns	Get people more involved	bonding
278	Sep-28	Bruns	Make members feel proud/the club is theirs/part of a family	pride/bonding
279	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes we accept each other	accept
280	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes we accept	accept
281	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes	accept
282	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes	accept
283	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes a high level	accept
284	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes generally	accept
285	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes	accept
286	Sep-28	Bruns	Once you walk in the door you are treated as an equal	equality
287	Sep-28	Bruns	New members are the lifeblood and have the same standing as older members	equality
288	Sep-28	Bruns	When you play away new members are introduced before play	introduce
289	Sep-28	Bruns	We welcome new members and make them feel welcome	welcome
290	Sep-28	Bruns	We give new members information packs	introduce
291	Sep-28	Bruns	We approach new members and break the ice	friendly
292	Sep-28	Bruns	We make an effort to bring new members in and keep them	support
293	Sep-28	Bruns	Although sometimes new members may not get enough attention	support
294	Sep-28	Bruns	It takes all types	acceptance
295	Sep-28	Bruns	We are a social club and don't play for high stakes"sheepstations"	social bond
296	Sep-28	Bruns	Diversity strengthens the club	acceptance

LINE	DATE	FOCUS	RESPONSE	OPEN CODE
297	Sep-28	Bruns	Tolerance in clubs reflects the community as a whole	tolerance
298	Sep-28	Bruns	If club members are tolerant they attract "tolerant" people	tolerant
299	Sep-28	Bruns	We look forward to getting experience from other members.	acceptance
300	Sep-28	Bruns	The wide range of ages and people doing things together	diversity
301	Sep-28	Bruns	There is a high level of tolerance	tolerance
302	Sep-28	Bruns	Good players will play with less able ones without any patronising	tolerance
303	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes we acceptance and respect all ages	acceptance
304	Sep-28	Bruns	It exposes you to a range of people	tolerate
305	Sep-28	Bruns	Getting together and helping	social bond
306	Sep-28	Bruns	We have get togethers	social dos
307	Sep-28	Bruns	We become good friends	friendship
308	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes we have become good friends	friendship
309	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes we see each other outside	extended friends
310	Sep-28	Bruns	Member's friendships extend beyond the club	extended friends
311	Sep-28	Bruns	They are our friends	extended friends
312	Sep-28	Bruns	Yes	friendship
313	Sep-28	Bruns	We see members every week outside of the club	extended friends
314	Sep-28	Bruns	Most fishing trips are ad hoc not club trips	extended friends
315	Sep-28	Bruns	Go on many holidays with the club	social events
316	Sep-28	Bruns	It gets very personal	close knit
317	Sep-28	Bruns	There is pride in everyone feeling connected	connected
318	Sep-28	Bruns	Run club in a friendly way to tie people together/people want to come	friendly
319	Sep-28	Bruns	Key people are important and if they leave they take critical part with them	mentors
320	Sep-28	Bruns	You get satisfaction teaching others even if they don't become life members	altruistic
321	Sep-28	Bruns	Clubs are important for the retired and for busy working people	participation
322	Sep-28	Bruns	Clubs that are close knitted are important	friendly
323	Sep-28	Bruns	Some clubs have a view they have something special to offer	sense of pride
324	Sep-28	Bruns	<i>Some small clubs do not want new members can be a threat want change</i>	not open
325	Sep-28	Bruns	Large clubs can offer many things what do you want	variety
326	Sep-28	Bruns	It's best to join a small club	close knit
327	Sep-28	Bruns	If you don't know everyone it's hard to be accepted	friendship
328	Sep-28	Bruns	Sometimes clubs are not friendly	negative
329	Sep-28	Bruns	If core people in the club are not friendly, it rubs off	leaders effect



## APPENDIX D: Initial scale (questionnaire 161 items)

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1. Our club makes people feel welcome.
2. Our club gives members a sense of belonging.
3. Our club feels like a home.
4. The people in our club are more important than club colours, its history, or status.
5. Our club creates a sense of belonging and community.
6. People bond together in the club.
7. People in this club are more interested in sport and recreation than in developing friendships.
8. People remain members of the club for its friendship.
9. The club is made up of a number of friendship groups.
10. Many of the groups in the club are “clicky”.
11. Interaction with other club members is more important than the activities of the club.
12. If a member needed help, they would confide in a friend in the club.
13. Most members of the club make close friends in the club.
14. Club members sit down together to chat at the club.
15. Before or after matches or club functions, most club members chat and socialise.
16. People join our club just for the sport or the recreation activity, and not for friendship.
17. Relationships between club members are cool and polite.
18. Relationships between club members are fairly formal.
19. People join our club mainly for its status not for socialising.
20. People stay members of this club for the friendship.
21. The club is a club but the people are important.
22. People in our club make friends with club members from different backgrounds, eg education or occupation.
23. People in the club make friends with other members who are different from them.
24. Club members are bound by a code of expectations to help each other.
25. People who are helped in the club usually return the favour.
26. Club members who receive help from others in the club try to return the favour.
27. Many club members stay around the club before and after games/events.
28. Members are able to exercise their rights and share the power within our club.
29. In this club the same people want to run everything.
30. Members enjoy meeting people with different lifestyles in our club.
31. In the club, members associate with all types of people.
32. Differences between people, eg. in income or education, do not reduce our club’s cohesion.
33. Cultural differences between people in our club make the club stronger.

34. Differences between people in our club make the club more interesting.
35. Our club, with its differences in members income, education and lifestyle, is still a friendly club.
36. The diversity of people in our club make it better rather than making it worse.
37. People in our club work together as “one”.
38. Most club members have a strong sense of duty and try to make a contribution to the club.
39. Members don’t show much disappointment when people they know leave this club.
40. There is more friendship outside of the club than inside.
41. Members greet each other on a first name basis at this club.
42. Members are disappointed when a member they know leaves the club.
43. Other club members feel like family to me.
44. I do not feel that I really belong in this club.
45. Our club works like a team.
46. Our club is not very close-knit.
47. I feel that I belong to this club more than to any other recreation organisation.
48. People join our club only for the sport and recreation it offers, not for friendship.
49. Our club is a status club not a friendship club.
50. In our club, meeting the people is just as important as doing the activity.
51. People in our club are more trustworthy than people outside of the club.
52. People in our club contribute to and add to the club.
53. The club has been so good for members that they are happy to repay and put something back.
54. This club is a cluster of friendship groups.
55. In the club our members really care about each other.
56. This club has close friendship groups.
57. This club is not really friendly.
58. The relationships between people here are warm and friendly.
59. Most of my friends are not from the club.
60. When under threat, our club comes together.
61. Our club is really “an excuse” to make good friends.
62. The informal social things we do in the club bond members together.
63. People join the club, then the friends they make keep them here.
64. If I were upset, I would confide in friends of mine in the club.
65. If club members are upset, they confide with other club members.
66. If a club member was looking to buy a car, or a refrigerator they would ask friends of theirs in the club to help them.
67. If club member needed a babysitter or housecleaner, they would ask their friends in the club who they could recommend.
68. If someone in the club needed to raise some money quickly, they would ask their friends in the club.
69. If a club member had to go away for two days, they could count on friends in the club to take care of

their children.
70. People at our club can be trusted.
71. If someone found a wallet at a club function, it would be returned.
72. Our club thrives on mutual obligation, people helping each other.
73. If trust were ever broken in our club, we could fix it.
74. When our club has troubles, we pull together.
75. Distrust among our members threatens to destroy our club.
76. If someone betrays club trust, the whole club feels betrayed.
77. When our club's trust is lost our bonds break.
78. Our club has trust, if broken, would concern us all.
79. Most members in our club make close friends with other members of the club.
80. Most club members do their activity and then go home.
81. In our club, it is easy to make friends.
82. Club members often pass each other without talking.
83. Club member's greet each other in a friendly manner when they meet.
84. People in our club are polite rather than friendly.
85. People in our club generally get along well with each other.
86. Members mostly talk "business" while at the club.
87. There are lots of handshakes and hugs given around this club.
88. It doesn't matter where you are from or who you are, this club will accept you.
89. New members are made to feel welcome in this club.
90. The club has a strong sense of fellowship, respect, and camaraderie.
91. Many club members are not very loyal.
92. People in our club have a strong sense of loyalty to the club.
93. This club is only as strong as the people who are in it.
94. In this club people are always helping or giving.
95. Our club does not have a great deal of loyalty.
96. In the past month, club members have gone out with people from our club for a meal or drinks.
97. The trust among people in the club is stronger than outside.
98. In the past month, club members have visited other club members in their homes.
99. People in the club only see people socially who are like them.
100. People in our club make friends with other members who are of similar background in education or occupation not people who are different.
101. People in our club can lend other members money/or equipment and trust them to do the right thing.
102. The time someone puts into the club will be reciprocated.
103. In the past 12 months, club members have helped friends from the club with personal problems.
104. People in our club are trustworthy, they do the right thing.

105. Respect and fellowship are important in our club.
106. When a club member helps another club member, they try to return the favour.
107. Our club expects members to help others and be helped when they need assistance.
108. Our club has an unwritten code to help others.
109. A core of people do all of the work in the club.
110. Cooperative behaviour binds our club together.
111. People help without being asked when there is work to do.
112. Older club members support and teach newer members.
113. In our club talent/ability is good, but helping means more.
114. In our club, most people like to repay favors.
115. Club members give to make sure they ease the load and expect others to do the same.
116. Club members contribute time, or money toward common club goals.
117. In the past weeks, club members have helped other club members.
118. People generally do not contribute to the club without being asked.
119. People in this club, are willing to help each other with club tasks.
120. Members of this club help each other outside of the club.
121. If someone in our club had a serious illness, club members would get together to help.
122. Most people contribute to the running of the club.
123. People who do not participate in club activities are treated coolly.
124. If a club project does not directly benefit all members they would still contribute money or time to it.
125. Members often borrow things and exchange favours with others in our club.
126. Members rarely help others in the club with small tasks such as shopping or rides home.
127. All club members are expected to pitch in with club work.
128. Life membership is given to club members who contribute and help others rather than members who compete and win.
129. Club members vote and help make decisions in this club.
130. The club allows me to have input into decisions.
131. Many ordinary club members attend our AGM and other meetings.
132. Overall, club members have limited impact on making the club a better place.
133. Individual members have made significant changes/improvements in the club.
134. When decisions are to be made, club members discuss the issues, and decide together.
135. Overall, our club leadership is fair, democratic and effective.
136. Usually the same small group of people tend to want to run the club.
137. Many members have initiated programs or activities in our club.
138. Some people do not encourage others to take part in running our club.
139. In our club, some people try to stop others from having input in to decision making.
140. Our club gives everyone the opportunity to join committees.

141. Our club limits the number of years people can be on a committee and encourages new people to contribute.
142. I feel well informed about our club matters.
143. Information within our club is not always provided promptly.
144. The selection of leaders in our club is fair and effective.
145. People are able to have their say and affect our club's direction.
146. The mixed cultures in our club, make it a better club.
147. Members of our club, have made friendships with people from different backgrounds.
148. The diverse membership in our club allows people to develop trust in people from different cultures and viewpoints.
149. Our club is very black and white with like-minded people.
150. Diversity makes our club better.
151. The feeling of togetherness is very strong in our club.
152. Good communication among members keeps our club strong.
153. Differences between people in our club cause problems within the club.
154. Everyone in our club is basically accepted as an equal.
155. People from different backgrounds are not always provided opportunities to influence the club.
156. People in our club set aside differences and pull together.
157. In our club, we accept each other's differences.
158. Our club has a strong sense of tolerance.
159. Tolerance of different people and views in our club is stronger than in the outside community.
160. The club has made me a better, trusting person.
161. Poor communication and information within the club leads to distrust.

# APPENDIX E: Panel of experts directions A and B

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## Review of Items for a Measure of Social Capital - A

### Background

Thank you for agreeing to be a part of the panel of experts of this important stage of my research into “The Nature of Social Capital in grass roots leisure Clubs”.

You are a member of a panel that includes academics, members of the recreation industry, consultants, state government and local government staff. Your reactions will assist in the development of a quantitative instrument to measure social capital in local clubs.

Social Capital refers to “social relations of mutual benefit that are based on norms of trust, and reciprocity”(Winter 2000). The idea of social capital is that the quality of these relationships is generated and stored in communities and can be “used” to benefit the communities. Sport and recreation clubs are believed to be significant generators of social capital that is believed to spill over into the community. Thus it is important that the capacities of sport and recreation clubs to produce social capital are more fully understood.

The extensive list of items for the questionnaire has been developed from the literature and the qualitative phase of my research, which has included focus groups and individual interviews.

### Instructions

Read the items in the list one at a time. For each item:

1. Classify the item as being a positive or a negative indicator of social capital, by writing a “+” or a “-“ in the box next to the statement. A positive indicator is one that, if you agree with it, it indicates there is high social capital whereas a negative indicator is one where, if you agree with it, it suggests that social capital is low.
2. Classify the item in terms of being an attitudinal or behavioural indicator by writing either “a” or “b” in the box next to each statement. An attitudinal indicator is an opinion about the club whereas a behavioural indicator is one that tells that certain behaviours occur in the club.
3. Provide feedback on any item (s) that appear to be similar to others by marking them with a D = Duplicate.

KEY + = positive, - = negative; a = Attitude, b = Behaviour

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	+ or -	a or b	D
1. Our club makes people feel welcome.			
2. Our club gives members a sense of belonging.			
3. Our club feels like a home.			
4. The people in our club are more important than club colors, its history,			

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	<b>+ or -</b>	<b>a or b</b>	<b>D</b>
or status.			
5. Our club creates a sense of belonging and community.			
6. People bond together in the club.			
7. People in this club are more interested in sport and recreation than in developing friendships.			
8. People remain members of the club for its friendship.			
9. The club is made up of a number of friendship groups.			
10. Many of the groups in the club are “clicky”.			
11. Interaction with other club members is more important than the activities of the club.			
12. If a member needed help, they would confide in a friend in the club.			
13. Most members of the club make close friends in the club.			
14. Club members sit down together to chat at the club.			
15. Before or after matches or club functions, most club members chat and socialise.			
16. People join our club just for the sport or the recreation activity, and not for friendship.			
17. Relationships between club members are cool and polite.			
18. Relationships between club members are fairly formal.			
19. People join our club mainly for its status not for socialising.			
20. People stay members of this club for the friendship.			
21. The club is a club but the people are important.			
22. People in our club make friends with club members from different backgrounds, eg education or occupation.			
23. People in the club make friends with other members who are different from them.			
24. Club members are bound by a code of expectations to help each other.			
25. People who are helped in the club usually return the favour.			
26. Club members who receive help from others in the club try to return the favour.			
27. Many club members stay around the club before and after games/events.			
28. Members are able to exercise their rights and share the power within our club.			
29. In this club the same people want to run everything.			
30. Members enjoy meeting people with different lifestyles in our club.			
31. In the club, members associate with all types of people.			
32. Differences between people, eg. in income or education, do not reduce our club’s cohesion.			
33. Cultural differences between people in our club make the club			

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	<b>+ or -</b>	<b>a or b</b>	<b>D</b>
stronger.			
34. Differences between people in our club make the club more interesting.			
35. Our club, with its differences in members income, education and lifestyle, is still a friendly club.			
36. The diversity of people in our club make it better rather than making it worse.			
37. People in our club work together as “one”.			
38. Most club members have a strong sense of duty and try to make a contribution to the club.			
39. Members don’t show much disappointment when people they know leave this club.			
40. There is more friendship outside of the club than inside.			
41. Members greet each other on a first name basis at this club.			
42. Members are disappointed when a member they know leaves the club.			
43. Other club members feel like family to me.			
44. I do not feel that I really belong in this club.			
45. Our club works like a team.			
46. Our club is not very close-knit.			
47. I feel that I belong to this club more than to any other recreation organisation.			
48. People join our club only for the sport and recreation it offers, not for friendship.			
49. Our club is a status club not a friendship club.			
50. In our club, meeting the people is just as important as doing the activity.			
51. People in our club are more trustworthy than people outside of the club.			
52. People in our club contribute to and add to the club.			
53. The club has been so good for members that they are happy to repay and put something back.			
54. This club is a cluster of friendship groups.			
55. In the club our members really care about each other.			
56. This club has close friendship groups.			
57. This club is not really friendly.			
58. The relationships between people here are warm and friendly.			
59. Most of my friends are not from the club.			
60. When under threat, our club comes together.			
61. Our club is really “an excuse” to make good friends.			
62. The informal social things we do in the club bond members together.			

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	<b>+ or -</b>	<b>a or b</b>	<b>D</b>
63. People join the club, then the friends they make keep them here.			
64. If I were upset, I would confide in friends of mine in the club.			
65. If club members are upset, they confide in other members.			
66. If a club member was looking to buy a car, or a refrigerator they would ask friends of theirs in the club to help them.			
67. If club member needed a babysitter or housecleaner, they would ask their friends in the club who they could recommend.			
68. If someone in the club needed to raise some money quickly, they would ask their friends in the club.			
69. If a club member had to go away for two days, they could count on friends in the club to take care of their children.			
70. People at our club can be trusted.			
71. If someone found a wallet at a club function, it would be returned.			
72. Our club thrives on mutual obligation, people helping each other.			
73. If trust were ever broken in our club, we could fix it.			
74. When our club has troubles, we pull together.			
75. Distrust among our members threatens to destroy our club.			
76. If someone betrays club trust, the whole club feels betrayed.			
77. When our club's trust is lost our bonds break.			
78. Our club has trust, but if it is broken, our members are concerned.			
80. Most club members do their activity and then go home.			
81. In our club, it is easy to make friends.			
82. Club members often pass each other without talking.			
83. Club member's greet each other in a friendly manner when they meet.			
84. People in our club are polite rather than friendly.			
85. People in our club generally get along well with each other.			
86. Members mostly talk "business" while at the club.			
87. There are lots of handshakes and hugs given around this club.			
88. It doesn't matter where you are from or who you are, this club will accept you.			
89. New members are made to feel welcome in this club.			
90. The club has a strong sense of fellowship, respect, and camaraderie.			
91. Many club members are not very loyal.			
92. People in our club have a strong sense of loyalty to the club.			
93. This club is only as strong as the people who are in it.			
94. In this club people are always helping or giving.			
95. Our club does not have a great deal of loyalty.			
96. In the past month, club members have gone out with people from our			

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	<b>+ or -</b>	<b>a or b</b>	<b>D</b>
club for a meal or drinks.			
97. The trust among people in the club is stronger than outside.			
98. In the past month, club members have visited other club members in their homes.			
99. Most people in the club only see people socially who are like them.			
100. People in our club make friends with other members who are of similar background in education or occupation not people who are different.			
101. People in our club can lend other members money/or equipment and trust them to do the right thing.			
102. The time someone puts into the club will be reciprocated.			
103. In the past 12 months, club members have helped friends from the club with personal problems.			
104. People in our club are trustworthy, they do the right thing.			
105. Respect and fellowship are important in our club.			
106. When a club member helps another club member, they try to return the favour.			
107. Our club expects members to help others and be helped when they need assistance.			
108. Our club has an unwritten code to help others.			
109. A core of people do all of the work in the club.			
110. Cooperative behaviour binds our club together.			
111. People help without being asked when there is work to do.			
112. Older club members support and teach newer members.			
113. In our club talent/ability is good, but helping means more.			
114. In our club, most people like to repay favors.			
115. Club members give to make sure they ease the load and expect others to do the same.			
116. Club members contribute time, or money toward common club goals.			
117. In the past weeks, club members have helped other club members.			
118. People generally do not contribute to the club without being asked.			
119. People in this club, are willing to help each other with club tasks.			
120. Members of this club help each other outside of the club.			
121. If someone in our club had a serious illness, club members would get together to help.			
122. Most people contribute to the running of the club.			
123. People who do not participate in club activities are treated coolly.			
124. If a club project does not directly benefit all members they would still contribute money or time to it.			
125. Members often borrow things and exchange favours with others in			

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	<b>+ or -</b>	<b>a or b</b>	<b>D</b>
our club.			
126. Members rarely help others in the club with small tasks such as shopping or rides home.			
127. All club members are expected to pitch in with club work.			
128. Life membership is given to club members who contribute and help others rather than members who compete and win.			
129. Club members vote and help make decisions in this club.			
130. The club allows me to have input into decisions.			
131. Many ordinary club members attend our AGM and other meetings.			
132. Overall, club members have limited impact on making the club a better place.			
133. Individual members have made significant changes/improvements in the club.			
134. When decisions are to be made, club members discuss the issues, and decide together.			
135. Overall, our club leadership is fair, democratic and effective.			
136. Usually the same small group of people tend to want to run the club.			
137. Many members have initiated programs or activities in our club.			
138. Some people do not encourage others to take part in running our club.			
139. In our club, some people try to stop others from having input in to decision making.			
140. Our club gives everyone the opportunity to join committees.			
141. Our club limits the number of years people can be on a committee and encourages new people to contribute.			
142. I feel well informed about our club matters.			
143. Information within our club is not always provided promptly.			
144. The selection of leaders in our club is fair and effective.			
145. People are able to have their say and affect our club's direction.			
146. The mixed cultures in our club, make it a better club.			
147. Members of our club, have made friendships with people from different backgrounds.			
148. The diverse membership in our club allows people to develop trust in people from different cultures and viewpoints.			
149. Our club is very black and white with like-minded people.			
150. Diversity makes our club better.			
151. The feeling of togetherness is very strong in our club.			
152. Good communication among members keeps our club strong.			
153. Differences between people in our club cause problems within the club.			
154. Everyone in our club is basically accepted as an equal.			

<b>Instructions:</b> A1. Please indicate which items are positive indicators of social capital (+) and which are negative (-). A2. Show which items refer to attitudes (a) and which refer to behaviours (b). A3. Mark any duplicate items. (D)	<b>A1</b>	<b>A2</b>	<b>A3</b>
	<b>+ or -</b>	<b>a or b</b>	<b>D</b>
155. People from different backgrounds are not always provided opportunities to influence the club.			
156. People in our club set aside differences and pull together.			
157. In our club, we accept each other's differences.			
158. Our club has a strong sense of tolerance.			
159. Tolerance of different people and views in our club is stronger than in the outside community.			
160. The club has made me a better, trusting person.			
161. Poor communication and information within the club leads to distrust.			

*Please provide any additional comments concerning the wording of items, components and definitions of social capital used.*

## **Review of Items for a Measure of Social Capital**

### **Background**

I wish to thank you for agreeing to be a part of the panel of who will provide feedback to me for the next stage (quantitative) of my research into "The Nature of Social Capital in local area leisure clubs".

I am attaching a list of items and instructions with this covering letter which will explain the task that I have requested that you complete.

If you have any questions about this task please contact me on Phone 9208 3499 or email [tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au](mailto:tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au) during the day and I will be able to discuss any issues that you might have regarding the work. When you complete the task could you email it back to me on this email address or you can mail a hard copy for me to

Tom Forsell  
142 Union Street  
Brunswick 3056

Thank you and I look forward to your responses.

Tom Forsell

## Review of Items for a Measure of Social Capital - B

### Background

Thank you for agreeing to be a part of the panel of experts of this important stage of my research into “The Nature of Social Capital in grass roots Leisure clubs”.

You are a member of a panel that includes academics, members of the recreation industry, consultants, state government and local government staff. Your reactions will assist in the development of a quantitative instrument to measure social capital in local clubs.

Social Capital refers to “social relations of mutual benefit which are based on norms of trust, and reciprocity”(Winter 2000). The idea of social capital is that the quality of these relationships is generated and stored in communities and can be “used” to benefit the communities. Sport and recreation clubs are believed to be significant generators of social capital which is believed to spill over into the community. Thus it is important that the capacities of sport and recreation clubs to produce social capital are more fully understood. Social capital is believed to be comprised of several separate components (factors) such as friendship, networks, trust, and self-governance.

The extensive list of items for the questionnaire has been developed from the literature and the qualitative phase of my research, which has included focus groups and individual interviews.

### Instructions

Read the items in the list below one at a time. For each item:

1. Rate items on their ability to indicate social capital using the scale weak (1), moderate (2), or high (3) by writing the appropriate number in the box next to the item. If an item’s indicative ability is high, if people agree with the statement, you are quite certain their club has a store of social capital. If an item’s ability is low, if people agree with it, you are none the wiser about the extent of social capital in their club, the item does to tell about social capital!
2. Categorise items in terms of the components (see definitions below) of social capital that they indicate e.g. reciprocity, trust, governance etc, by putting a tick in the column representing the component most appropriate to the statement. You may wish to suggest alternative components for use in the final questionnaire.
3. Lastly provide any further feedback regarding wording, style or content of the items.

### Definitions

I wish to define the components of social capital as:

- Trust - willingness to take risks in a social context based on the confidence that others will respond in a mutually supportive way.
- Networks - close relationships between others of a like mind, dense interlocking relationships between individuals and groups.
- Shared norms - patterns of behaviour/expectations of behaviour in a group.

- Reciprocity - people help others at a personal cost but expecting one day if needed the favour is returned.
- Civic representation - being informed and having the opportunity to have input into decision making in the group and doing so.
- Tolerance of diversity/bridging - equality among members and willingness to allow variations or differences in the group.

Key-social capital weak= 1, medium=2, high=3

	B1	B2					
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b> <i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest.</i> <i>B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>	Strength social capital	trust	networks	shared norms	reciprocity	civic representation	tolerance
1. Our club makes people feel welcome.							
2. Our club gives members a sense of belonging.							
3. Our club feels like a home.							
4. The people in our club are more important than club colors, its history, or status.							
5. Our club creates a sense of belonging and community.							
6. People bond together in the club.							
7. People in this club are more interested in sport and recreation than in developing friendships.							
8. People remain members of the club for its friendship.							
9. The club is made up of a number of friendship groups.							
10. Many of the groups in the club are “clicky”.							
11. Interaction with other members in the club is more important than the activities of the club.							
12. If a club member needed help, they would confide in a friend in the club.							
13. Most members of the club make close friends in the club.							
14. Club members sit down together to chat at the club.							
15. Before or after matches or club functions, most club members chat and socialise.							
16. People join our club just for the sport or the recreation activity, and not for friendship.							
17. Relationships between club members are cool/polite.							
18. Relationships between club members are fairly formal.							
19. People join our club for its status not for socialising.							
20. People stay members of this club for the friendship.							
21. The club is a club but the people are important.							
22. People in our club make friends with club members from different backgrounds, eg education or occupation.							
23. People in the club make friends with other members who are different from them.							

	B1	B2					
	Strength social capital	trust	networks	shared norms	reciprocity	civic re-orientation	tolerance
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b>							
<i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest.</i>							
<i>B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>							
24. Club members are bound by a code to help each other.							
25. People who are helped in the club usually return the favor.							
26. Club members who receive help from others in the club try to return the favour.							
27. Many club members stay around the club before and after games/events.							
28. Members are able to exercise their rights and share the power within our club.							
29. In this club the same people want to run everything.							
30. Members enjoy meeting people with different lifestyles in our club.							
31. In the club, members associate with all types of people.							
32. Differences between people, eg. in income or education do not reduce our club's cohesion.							
33. Cultural differences between people in our club make the club stronger.							
34. Differences between people in our club make the club more interesting.							
35. Our club, with its differences in members income, education and lifestyle, is still a friendly club.							
36. The diversity of people in our club make it better rather than making it worse.							
37. People in our club work together as "one".							
38. Most club members have a strong sense of duty and try to make a contribution to the club.							
39. Members don't show much disappointment when people they know leave this club.							
40. There is more friendship outside of the club than inside.							
41. Members greet each other on a first name basis at this club.							
42. Members are disappointed when a member they know leaves the club.							
43. Other club members feel like family to me.							
44. I do not feel that I really belong in this club.							
45. Our club works like a team.							
46. Our club is not very close-knit.							
47. I feel that I belong to this club more than to any other recreation organisation.							
48. People join our club only for the sport and recreation it offers, not for friendship.							
49. Our club is a status club not a friendship club.							
50. In our club, meeting the people is just as important as doing the activity.							

	B1	B2					
	Strength social capital	trust	networks	shared norms	reciprocity	civic re-orientation	tolerance
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b> <i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest.</i> <i>B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>							
51. People in our club are more trustworthy than people outside of the club.							
52. People in our club contribute to and add to the club.							
53. The club encourages members to put something back.							
54. This club is a cluster of friendship groups.							
55. In the club our members really care about each other.							
56. This club has close friendship groups.							
57. This club is not really friendly.							
58. The relationships between people here are warm and friendly.							
59. Most of my friends are not from the club.							
60. When under threat, our club comes together.							
61. Our club is really “an excuse” to make good friends.							
62. The informal social things we do in the club bond members together.							
63. People join the club, then the friends they make keep them here.							
64. If I were upset, I would confide in friends of mine in the club.							
65. If club members are upset, they confide with other club members.							
66. If a club member was looking to buy a car, or a refrigerator they would ask friends in the club.							
67. If club member needed a babysitter or housecleaner, they would ask their friends in the club who they could recommend.							
68. If someone in the club needed to raise some money quickly, they would ask their friends in the club.							
69. If a club member had to go away for two days, they could count on friends in the club to take care of their children.							
70. People at our club can be trusted.							
71. If someone found a wallet at a club function, it would be returned.							
72. Our club thrives on mutual obligation, people helping each other.							
73. If trust were ever broken in our club, we could fix it.							
74. When our club has troubles, we pull together.							
75. Distrust among our members threatens to destroy our club.							
76. If someone betrays club trust, the whole club feels betrayed.							
77. When our club’s trust is lost our bonds break.							
78. Our club trust, if broken, would concern us all.							
79. Most members in our club make close friends with other members of the club.							
80. Most club members do their activity and then go home.							

	B1	B2					
	Strength social capital	trust	networks	shared norms	reciprocity	civic representation	tolerance
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b>							
<i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest.</i>							
<i>B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>							
81. In our club, it is easy to make friends.							
82. Club members often pass each other without talking.							
83. Club members greet each other in a friendly manner when they meet.							
84. People in our club are polite rather than friendly.							
85. People in our club get along well with each other.							
86. Members mostly talk “business” while at the club.							
87. There are lots of handshakes and hugs given around this club.							
88. It doesn’t matter where you are from or who you are, this club will accept you.							
89. New members are made to feel welcome in this club.							
90. The club has a strong sense of fellowship, respect, and camaraderie.							
91. Many club members are not very loyal.							
92. People in our club have a strong sense of loyalty to the club.							
93. This club is only as strong as the people who are in it.							
94. In this club people are always helping or giving.							
95. Our club does not have a great deal of loyalty.							
96. In the past month, club members have gone out with people from our club for a meal or drinks.							
97. The trust among people in the club is stronger than outside of the club.							
98. In the past month, club members have visited other club members in their homes.							
99. Most people in the club only see people socially who are like them.							
100. People in our club make friends with other members who are of similar background in education or occupation not people who are different.							
101. People in our club can lend other members money/or equipment and trust them to do the right thing.							
102. The time someone puts into the club will be reciprocated.							
103. In the past 12 months, club members have helped friends from the club with personal problems.							
104. People in our club are trustworthy, they do the right thing.							
105. Respect and fellowship are important in our club.							
106. When a club member helps another club member, they try to return the favour.							
107. Our club expects members to help others and be helped when they need assistance.							
108. Our club has an unwritten code to help others.							
109. A core of people do all of the work in the club.							
110. Cooperative behaviour binds our club together.							

	B1	B2					
	Strength social capital	trust	networks	shared norms	reciprocity	civic representation	tolerance
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b>							
<i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest.</i>							
<i>B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>							
111. When there is work to do around this club members help without being asked.							
112. Older club members support and teach newer members skills.							
113. In our club talent is good, but helping means more.							
114. In our club, most people like to repay favours.							
115. Club members give to ease the load and expect others to do the same.							
116. Club members contribute time, or money toward common club goals.							
117. In the past weeks, club members have helped other club members.							
118. People generally do not contribute to the club without being asked.							
119. People in this club, are willing to help each other with club tasks.							
120. Members of this club help each other outside of the club.							
121. If someone in our club had a serious illness, club members would get together to help.							
122. Most people contribute to the running of the club.							
123. People who do not participate in club activities are treated coolly.							
124. If a club project does not directly benefit all members they would still contribute money or time to it.							
125. Members often borrow things and exchange favors with others in our club.							
126. Members rarely help others in the club with small tasks such as shopping or rides home.							
127. All club members are expected to pitch in with club work.							
128. Life membership is given to club members who contribute and help others rather than win trophies.							
129. Club members vote and help make decisions in this club.							
130. The club allows members to have input into decisions.							
131. Many ordinary club members attend our AGM and other meetings.							
132. Overall, club members have limited impact on making the club a better place.							
133. Individual members have made significant changes/improvements in the club.							
134. When decisions are to be made, club members discuss the issues, and decide together.							
135. Overall, our club leadership is fair, democratic and effective.							
136. Usually the same small group of people tends to want to run the club.							
137. Many members have initiated programs or activities in our club.							
138. Some people do not encourage others to take part in running our club.							
139. In our club, some people try to stop others from having input in to decision making.							
140. Our club gives everyone the opportunity to join committees.							
141. Our club limits the number of years people can be on a committee and encourages new people to contribute.							

	B1	B2					
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b> <i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest. B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>	Strength social capital	trust	networks	shared norms	reciprocity	civic representation	tolerance
142. I feel well informed about club matters.							
143. Information within our club is not always provided promptly.							
144. The selection of leaders in our club is fair and effective.							
146. The mixed cultures in our club, make it a better club.							
147. Members of our club, have made friendships with people from different backgrounds.							
148. The diverse membership in our club allows people to develop trust of different cultures and viewpoints.							
149. Our club is very black and white with like-minded people.							
150. Diversity makes our club better.							
151. The feeling of togetherness is very strong in our club.							
152. Good communication in the club keeps it strong.							
153. Differences between people in our club cause problems within the club.							
154. Everyone in our club is basically accepted as an equal.							
155. People from different backgrounds are not always provided opportunities to influence the club.							
156. People in our club set aside their differences and pull together.							
157. In our club, we accept each other's differences.							
158. Our club has a strong sense of tolerance.							
159. Tolerance of different people and views in our club is stronger than in the outside community.							
160. The club has made me a better, trusting person inside and outside of the club.							
161. Poor communication and information within the club leads to distrust.							

**Please provide any additional comments concerning the wording of items, components and definitions of social capital used.**

## APPENDIX F: Result questionnaire from Panel of Experts

	B1	B2					Tolerance /bridging
	Strength social capital Score	trust	Networks	Shared norms	reciprocity	Civic represent	
<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b> <i>B.1. Please rate the strength of each item as an indicator of social capital using levels from 1-3 with 1 being the lowest and 3 being the highest.</i> <i>B.2. Tick the appropriate component (classification) of social capital for each item, e.g. trust, reciprocity.</i>							
1. Our club makes people feel welcome.	2.3	2	2	1			1
2. Our club feels like a home.	2	1	2	2			
3. The people in our club are more important than club colors, its history, or status.	2.2	1	3	1			
4. Our club creates a sense of belonging and community.	3	2	2	3			
5. People bond together in the club.	2.3	1	5				
6. People remain members of the club for its friendship.	2.4		5	1			
7. The club is made up of a number of friendship groups.	2.2						
8. Many of the groups in the club are “clicky”.	1.8		3	1			
9. Interaction with other members in the club is more important than the activities of the club.	2		3	2			
10. If a club member needed help, they would confide in a friend in the club.	2.8	6	3	2			
11. Most members of the club make close friends in the club.	2.8	1	5	2			
12. Before or after matches or club functions, most club members chat and socialise.	2		5	2			
13. Relationships between club members are cool/polite.	1.6	1		1			2
14. People join our club for its status not for socialising.	1.6		1	3			2
15. The club is a club but the people are important.	2.4		5	2			
16. People in our club make friends with club members from different backgrounds, eg education or occupation.	2.8		1	2			2
17. People in the club make friends with other members who are different from them.	2.8			2			2
18. People who are helped in the club usually return the favor.	2.2	2			7		
19. Club members who receive help from others in the club try to return the favour.	2.5	2			7		
20. Members are able to exercise their rights and share the power within our club.	2.4		5	1			
21. Members enjoy meeting people with different lifestyles in our club.	2.5		1				4
22. In the club, members associate with all types of people.	2.4	1	1				7
23. Differences between people, eg. in income or education do not reduce our club’s cohesion.	2.6						7

24. Cultural differences between people in our club make the club stronger.	2.6	1	1				7
25. The diversity of people in our club make it better rather than making it worse.	2.2	1					6
26. People in our club work together as “one”.	2			5	1	1	1
27. Most club members have a strong sense of duty and try to make a contribution to the club.	2.4			3	4	1	1
28. There is more friendship outside of the club than inside.	1		2				
29. Members greet each other on a first name basis at this club.	1.6		2				1
30. Members are disappointed when a member they know leaves the club.	2	1	1				
31. Other club members feel like family to me.	2.4	1	4	1			
32. I do not feel that I really belong in this club.	1.8		1	3	2		
33. Our club works like a team.	2.2	1	1	2	1		
34. Our club is not very close-knit.	1.6	1	2	1			
35. I feel that I belong to this club more than to any other recreation organisation.	2.2	1	1	3	1		
36. People join our club only for the sport and recreation it offers, not for friendship.	2.6		3	2			
37. In our club, meeting the people is just as important as doing the activity.	2.2		4	2			
38. People in our club are more trustworthy than people outside of the club.	1.8	7		1			
39. People in our club contribute to and add to the club.	2.8	2	1	1	3	2	
40. The club encourages members to put something back.	2				6	1	
41. In the club our members really care about each other.	2.6	2	4	1	2		
42. This club has close friendship groups.	1.8	2	4	3			
43. This club is not really friendly.	1.6	1	2	1		1	1
44. The relationships between people here are warm and friendly.	2.2	1	5	1			
45. Most of my friends are not from the club.	1.4	1	3	1			1
46. When under threat, our club comes together.	2.6	1		3	1		
47. Our club is really “an excuse” to make good friends.	1.8		5				
48. The informal social things we do in the club bond members together.	2.8		5	3			
49. People join the club, then the friends they make keep them here.	2.4	1	7	2			
50. If I were upset, I would confide in friends of mine in the club.	2.2	4	1	1	2		1
51. If club members are upset, they confide with other club members.	2.4	4	1	1	2		1
52. If a club member was looking to buy a car, or a refrigerator they would ask friends in the club.	2	2	1		3	1	1
53. If club member needed a babysitter or housecleaner, they would ask their friends in the club who they could recommend.	2.4	1	2	1	2	1	1
54. If someone in the club needed to raise some money quickly, they would ask their friends in the club.	2.2	2	1		3	1	1
55. If a club member had to go away for two days, they could count on friends in the club to take care of their children.	2.8	3	1		3		1

56. People at our club can be trusted.	2.2	7					
57. If someone found a wallet at a club function, it would be returned.	2	7					
58. Our club thrives on mutual obligation, people helping each other.	2.4	1			5	1	
59. If trust were ever broken in our club, we could fix it.	2	4	1	2	1		
60. When our club has troubles, we pull together.	2	4		1	2		
61. Distrust among our members threatens to destroy our club.	1.8	3	1			1	1
62. If someone betrays club trust, the whole club feels betrayed.	1.4	3	1		1	1	
63. Our club trust, if broken, would concern us all. xxx	1.8	3	2	1			
64. Most members in our club make close friends with other members of the club.	2	1	2	1			2
65. Most club members do their activity and then go home.	1.4		1	2			1
66. In our club, it is easy to make friends.	2.2		3	4			
67. Club member's greet each other in a friendly manner when they meet.	2	1	1	2			1
68. People in our club get along well with each other.	2		5		1		
69. Members mostly talk "business" while at the club.	1.6		2	3			
70. There are lots of handshakes and hugs given around this club.	2.4	2	4	3			1
71. It doesn't matter where you are from or who you are, this club will accept you.	2.8	1					7
72. New members are made to feel welcome in this club.	2.6	1	1	1			4
73. The club has a strong sense of fellowship, respect, and camaraderie.	2.6		1	4			2
74. People in our club have a strong sense of loyalty to the club.	2.2	5					
75. This club is only as strong as the people who are in it.	1.6	1	1		2	1	
76. In this club people are always helping or giving.	2.2		1	1	2		
77. The trust among people in the club is stronger than outside of the club.	2.4	6	1				
78. In the past month, club members have visited other club members in their homes.	2	1	3	1	1	2	
79. People in the club only see people socially who are like them in education or income.	1.4	3	1	2	1		2
80. People in our club can lend other members money/or equipment and trust them to do the right thing.	2.2	4	1		3		
81. The time someone puts into the club will be reciprocated.	1.8	1			4		
82. In the past 12 months, club members have helped friends from the club with personal problems.	2.2	2	1		4		
83. Respect and fellowship are important in our club.	2.4	1	1	2			1
84. When a club member helps another club member, they try to return the favour.	2.2					5	1
85. Our club has a code which expects members to help others and be helped when they need assistance.	3				1	4	
86. Cooperative behaviour binds our club together.	2		1	2	3	1	
87. When there is work to do around this club members help without being asked.	2			2	2	2	

88. Older club members support and teach newer members skills.	2.4			1	3	3	1
89. In our club, most people like to repay favours.	2	1			4		
90. Club members give to ease the load and expect others to do the same.	1.8				6		
100. Club members contribute time, or money toward common club goals.	2.2	1		3	3		
101. In the past weeks, club members have helped other club members.	1.6		1	1	4		
102. People in this club, are willing to help each other with club tasks.	2		1		5		
103. Members of this club help each other outside of the club.	2.4		3	1	5		
104. If someone in our club had a serious illness, club members would get together to help.	2		2	1	5		
105. Most people contribute to the running of the club.	2.6			1	2	3	
106. If a club project does not directly benefit all members they would still contribute money or time to it.	2.2					5	
107. Members often borrow things and exchange favours with others in our club.	2	2				6	
108. Members rarely help others in the club with small tasks such as shopping or rides home.	1.6		1	1	3		
109. Life membership is given to club members who contribute and help others rather than win trophies. keep	1.6			2	4		
110. Club members vote and help make decisions in this club.	2.2					4	
111. The club allows members to have input into decisions.	2.5					7	
112. Many ordinary club members attend our AGM and other meetings.	2.2					7	
113. Overall, club members have limited impact on making the club a better place.	1.8					7	
114. When decisions are to be made, club members discuss the issues, and decide together.	2.5		1			5	
115. Overall, our club leadership is fair, democratic and effective.	2					5	1
116. Usually the same small group of people tends to want to run the club.	1.6				1	5	
117. Many members have initiated programs or activities in our club.	2.2		2			6	1
118. Our club gives everyone the opportunity to join committees.	2.3					6	1
119. Our club limits the number of years people can be on a committee and encourages new people to contribute.	2					6	1
120. The selection of leaders in our club is fair and effective.	2	1				4	
121. Members of our club, have made friendships with people from different backgrounds.	2.4			1			6
122. The diverse membership in our club allows people to develop trust of different cultures and viewpoints.	2.6	1					6
123. Our club is very black and white with like-minded people.	2.6			2			4
124. Diversity makes our club better.	2						5
125. The feeling of togetherness is very strong in our club.	2.2	3		3			3
126. Good communication in the club keeps it strong.	1.4			2		2	1

127. Everyone in our club is basically accepted as an equal.	2	1		1			5
128. People from different backgrounds are not always provided opportunities to influence the club.	1.8					2	3
129. People in our club set aside their differences and pull together.	2.6			1	1	1	3
130. In our club, we accept each other's differences.	2						5
131. Tolerance of different people and views in our club is stronger than in the outside community.	2.2	5		1			5
132. The club has made me a better, trusting person inside and outside of the club.	2.2	5					3

# APPENDIX G: Pilot study questionnaire

## CLUB CULTURE SURVEY

**This questionnaire is part of a study of the character of sport and recreation clubs, which includes trust and friendships. Your responses will provide important information for sport and recreation managers in developing clubs and may help government departments in assessing the achievements of community building through clubs.**

**Thank you for agreeing to be a part of this survey.**

### SECTION 1: YOU AND YOUR LOCAL CLUB

**To help with analysing your responses please answer the following. Please tick one for each item.**

1. Gender:    male             female
2. Age:    20-25     25-30     30-35     35-40     40-50     over 50  years
3. Consider the sport or recreation club, of which you are a member that is most important to you. What type of club is it? e.g. hockey, bowls \_\_\_\_\_
4. Number of years in this club.  
Less than one     1-2 years     2-5 years     over 5
5. What is your role in the club? Please tick your answers. player/participant     volunteer   
committee member     coach/referee     social member     other

### SECTION 2: SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS IN YOUR LOCAL CLUB

The items listed below refer to important aspects of most sport and recreation clubs. We are interested in the extent to which these characteristics exist in your club. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements in terms of your club and respond to each item.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In this club no matter who you are you can effect change.					
2. New members are made to feel welcome in the club.					
3. Members are able to share the power and exercise their rights in the club.					
4. When decisions are to be made club members discuss the issues and decide together.					
5. The club has made me a more trusting person.					
6. People feel obligated to behave a certain way in the club.					
7. Most members vote and help make decisions in the club.					
8. Club members have made friendships with people from different backgrounds in the club.					
9. Club members help each other outside of club events.					
10. If a club member needed a housecleaner they would ask members in the club for advice on finding someone.					

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements in terms of your club and respond to each item.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
11. There are a lot of handshakes and hugs given around this club.					
12. I feel accepted and valued in the club.					
13. It doesn't matter who you are or where you are from, this club will accept you.					
14. People join the club for the activities, but the friendships they make keep them here.					
15. Our club expects a high standard of behaviour.					
16. Differences between people in our club make our club stronger.					
17. The club works well because members know what is expected of them.					
18. The diverse membership in our club allows members to appreciate people from different cultures and viewpoints.					
19. Club members help out with duties to ease the load, and expect others to do the same.					
20. Everyone in our club is accepted as an equal.					
21. Most people in the club only associate with people similar to themselves.					
22. Our club expects members to help others when they need assistance.					
23. Our club thrives on give and take, and people helping each other.					
24. It is important for club members to know club protocols.					
25. If someone in our club had a serious illness, club members would get together to help.					
26. People who are helped in the club have usually helped other club members.					
27. Members who disagree with the direction of club decisions can voice their opinion.					
28. Overall, club members have limited impact on making the club a better place.					
29. The club brings people together and bonds them.					
30. In our club we accept each other's differences readily.					
31. Close friendships are made in this club.					
32. The diversity in our club makes it better not worse.					
33. In our club, most people like to repay favours.					
34. Members associate with all types of people in the club.					
35. Club leaders work hard for the improvement of the club.					
36. Members enjoy having people with different lifestyles in our club.					
37. Club members who behave inappropriately are likely to be reprimanded					
38. Members often borrow things and exchange favours with others club members.					

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements in terms of your club and respond to each item.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
39. Usually the same small number of people try to run everything.					
40. In our club there are expectations of behaviour.					
41. Tolerance of people and their views are higher in the club than outside.					
42. The club encourages members to put something back in to the club.					
43. Involvement in the club has provided me with new experiences and friends.					
44. The trouble with this club is no one knows how they should behave.					
45. Our club limits the number of years someone can be on a committee and hold office.					
46. In our club socialising with other members is just as important as doing the activity.					
47. If club members need to raise money quickly they would ask club members for help.					
48. Relationships between club members are warm and friendly.					
49. Differences between people's income, or education do not reduce club unity.					
50. People remain in the club for its friendship.					
51. People from different backgrounds are not always provided opportunities to influence the club.					
52. Many of the club members are 'clicky'.					
53. Club members who receive help from others in the club try to return the favour.					
54. In the club, members really care about each other.					
55. People at our club can be trusted.					
56. If people behave inappropriately they are noticed.					
57. When club members need help they ask a friend in the club they can trust.					
58. If club members lend other members money, they trust them to pay it back.					
59. Members often visit other members at their homes.					
60. In our club it is easy to make friends.					
61. The club gives me the opportunity to influence decisions.					
62. If trust was ever broken in our club it could be rebuilt.					
63. New club members are given a set of rules of behaviour.					
64. People in our club are more trustworthy than people outside of the club.					
65. In the club people express what is on their mind and are not penalised for speaking out.					
66. New members are informed of club expectations.					
67. When club members are upset, they confide in other club members.					
68. If someone found a wallet at a club function it would be returned.					
69. Club leaders consult with other members about what they want to happen in the club.					

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements in terms of your club and respond to each item.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
70.If a club member needed to go away suddenly for two days, they could trust friends in the club to take care of their children.					
71.The club allows all members to have input in to decisions.					
72.Before and after matches club members chat and socialise.					
73.If the club folded tomorrow, I would still see my friends I made in the club.					
74.Club members who help other members know the favour will be returned.					
75.If a club member needed to buy a car they would ask their friends in the club for advice.					
76.Most club members contribute to the running of the club.					

**Thank you for completing this survey and please return and mail it to Tom Forsell at :**

**142 Union Street**

**Brunswick 3056**

# APPENDIX H: Club Social Capital Scale

## CLUB CULTURE SURVEY

This questionnaire is part of a study that looks into the social aspects of sport and recreation clubs and explores trust and friendship. Your responses will provide important information for sport and recreation officers and for government departments in understanding the important role clubs play in community building. Your responses will be confidential. Please answer each question.

Thank you for agreeing to be a part of this survey.

## SECTION A: YOU AND YOUR LOCAL CLUB

To help with the analysis of your responses, please provide the following information.

1. **Club's name. (Please print clearly)** \_\_\_\_\_

2. **Gender:** male ...1 female ...2

3. **Age: Please circle**

20 & under ...1 41-50 ...4  
21-30 ...2 51-60 ...5  
31-40 ...3 over 60 ...6

4. **Postcode or suburb you live in. Please write in**  
postcode \_\_\_\_\_  
suburb \_\_\_\_\_

5. **Total annual household income. Please circle**

\$0- \$30,000 1 \$31-60,000 ...2 \$61-80,000 ...3  
\$81-100,000 4 over \$100,000 ...5

6. **Highest level of education completed. Please circle.**

primary school ..... 1 bus/trade certificate ... 4  
leaving certificate ....2 Bachelor's degree ... ...5  
high school .....3 Postgraduate studies ....6

7. **Current main role in the club. Please circle.**

player/participant .... 1 coach/referee ...4  
Volunteer ...2 social member ...5  
committee member...3 other ...6

14. **Other Comments**

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8. **Number of years as a member of this club. Please circle**

less than one year ... 1 3-5 years ...3  
1-2 years ...2 over 5 years ...4

9. **How many other members of your household or family are members of this club? Please write in**

\_\_\_\_\_

10. **Are you a member of any other sport or recreation clubs?**

Yes ....1 No .... 2

11. **Why did you first join this club? Please circle**

for the sport/rec activity ...1 fitness ...5  
to meet people ...2 Fun ...6  
to be with friends ...3 Other ...7  
partner/family are members ...4

12. **What is the main reason for staying in this club? Please circle.**

sport or recreation ...1 fitness ...5  
friends ...2 I like the club ...6  
fun ...3 Other ...7  
partner/friends ...4

13. **Is this the nearest club of its kind to you?**

Yes ...1 No ...2

## SECTION B : SOCIAL ASPECTS IN YOUR LOCAL CLUB

**The items listed below refer to the social aspects of most sport and recreation clubs. We are interested in the extent to which these characteristics exist in your club.**

<i>Please respond to each item by circling the appropriate number that indicates how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement regarding your club.</i>	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. In this club, no matter who you are, you can make changes.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. New members are made to feel welcome in the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Members are able to share the power and exercise their rights in the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. The club works well because members know what is expected of them.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Club members have made friendships with people from different backgrounds in the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Club members help each other outside of club events.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. There are a lot of handshakes and hugs given around this club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel accepted and valued in the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. When decisions are to be made, club members discuss the issues and decide together.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. When someone in our club has a serious illness, club members get together to help.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Our club expects a high standard of behaviour.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. When club members need help, they ask a friend in the club they can trust.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. In our club, it is easy to make friends.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Our club thrives on give and take and people helping each other.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. People join the club for the activities, but the friendships they make keep them here.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. It doesn't matter who you are or from where you come, this club will accept you.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Members who disagree with the direction of club decisions can voice their opinion.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. The club brings people together and forms bonds.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. The diversity in our club makes it better not worse.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Club members who behave inappropriately are likely to be reprimanded.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Members borrow things and exchange favours with others club members.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. In our club, there are expectations of behaviour.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Tolerance of people and their views is higher in the club than outside of the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. If club members lend other members money, they trust them to pay it back.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. In this club, everyone behaves or knows how to behave.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. If club members need to raise money quickly, they would ask club members for help.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Differences between members' income or education do not reduce club unity.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Club members who receive help from others in the club try to return the favour.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. In the club, members really care about each other.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. If people behave inappropriately, they are noticed.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. If trust was ever broken in our club, it could be rebuilt.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Club leaders consult with other members about what they want to happen in the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Members often visit other members at their homes.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. If a club member needed to go away suddenly for two days, they could trust friends in the club to take care of their children.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. The club gives me the opportunity to influence decisions.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. People who are helped in the club have usually helped other club members.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. People in our club are more trustworthy than people outside of the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. The club encourages members to put something back into the club.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. Everyone in our club is accepted as an equal.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. The club allows all members to have input into decisions.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. Club members who help other members know the favour will be returned.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. If a club member needed to buy a car, they would ask their friends in the club for advice.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

### SECTION C: YOUR BEHAVIOUR IN THE CLUB

**Please respond to each item by circling the code number that corresponds to the frequency of your response to each of the statements regarding your club.**

<i>In the past three months I have;</i>	<b>Never 0 times</b>	<b>Rarely 1-2 times</b>	<b>Occasionally 3-4 times</b>	<b>Frequently 5 or more</b>
1. Attended club working bees.	1	2	3	4
2. Helped clean up the club.	1	2	3	4
3. Voiced an alternative point of view in the club.	1	2	3	4
4. Sought advice from someone in the club regarding an important decision I had to make.	1	2	3	4
5. Resolved disputes with people in the club through mediation.	1	2	3	4
6. Helped a club member with a problem.	1	2	3	4
7. Attended club social events.	1	2	3	4
8. Visited club members at their homes.	1	2	3	4
9. Done a favour for a sick club member.	1	2	3	4
10. Had social phone conversations with club members.	1	2	3	4

### SECTION D: YOUR CLUB AND THE COMMUNITY.

<i>Please indicate by ticking the appropriate box your response to each of the statements in terms of your club.</i>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>A little</b>	<b>Moderately</b>	<b>A lot</b>
1. The club has made me a more trusting person.	1	2	3	4
2. The friendships made in the club make the community stronger.	1	2	3	4
3. The club makes the community a better place.	1	2	3	4
4. The club has helped make the community become more tolerant and accepting.	1	2	3	4
5. People are more prepared to help their neighbours because of the give and take they've learned in the club.	1	2	3	4
6. The club has led to more volunteering in the community.	1	2	3	4
7. In this club, people learn that they can make a difference in the wider community.	1	2	3	4

### SECTION E.

**Any further comments you wish to make about social capital in your club.**

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**Thank you for completing this survey. Please return it to the person who handed it to you or mail it to: Tom Forsell, 142 Union Street Brunswick 3056 Please make sure that you have responded to every item.**

## APPENDIX I: Quantitative Phase - Club Secretary information

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Victoria University Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance

### The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Sport and Recreation Clubs

Dear Club Secretary:

Thank you for allowing me to involve your club in my study entitled *The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Sport and Recreation Clubs*.

Sport and recreation clubs, whether they provide soccer, netball or fishing, deliver more than the activity. This social side and the relationships that develop in clubs provide trust and a sense of acceptance for the members, their clubs, and their communities. These resources are referred to as social capital.

The development of a greater understanding of factors representing these social interactions (social capital) in local clubs is very important for the sport and recreation industry. This study will provide ways to measure these factors and demonstrate the benefits of sport and recreation clubs to their communities.

I am requesting your assistance in distributing a questionnaire for this study to your club members. It will be necessary for you to select a representative sample of 20-30 club members to complete the questionnaire.

After analysis is completed, clubs that take part in the study will receive:

- a report on their club's social capital score
- their club score in comparison with other similar clubs and
- their score in relation to the score of all sport and recreation clubs in the study.

If you feel that your club may be interested in taking part in the study can you sign and return the club consent form, and a club information sheet and after you send this back I will send your club questionnaires for members to fill out.

If you want to discuss any aspects of the study, you can contact me on 9208 3499 at DVC or at home on 9387 9854, or by email [tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au](mailto:tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au). I appreciate your interest in this very important study of sport and recreation clubs and look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely

Tom Forsell  
PhD Candidate  
142 Union Street  
Brunswick 3056



Victoria University Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance

## The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Sport and Recreation Clubs

### Questions for the Club Secretary

1. What is the name of your club? **Please print clearly**  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. How long has the club been in existence? \_\_\_\_\_
3. How many members does the club have? \_\_\_\_\_
4. Is the club for men only, women only, or mixed?  
men only \_\_\_\_\_ women only \_\_\_\_\_ mixed \_\_\_\_\_
5. Does your club have a junior program? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_.
6. Does your club have a social committee? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_
7. Does your club have its own clubrooms for meetings and social events? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_
8. Does your club receive either grants or clubrooms from the local council? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_
9. Are there any comments that you would like to make about the nature of social capital in your club or its influence on its community?

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Victoria University Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance

## Club Consent Form

I, (print name) \_\_\_\_\_

Club Name \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_

suburb \_\_\_\_\_ postcode \_\_\_\_\_

I certify that I am the secretary for the above club and that I legally give my consent for the club to participate in the research study entitled:

### ***The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Sport and Recreation Clubs***

which is being conducted by Tom Forsell of Victoria University.

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks to and safeguards associated with the procedures, have been provided in writing for me and explained to me and that I have had the opportunity to have any questions about the study answered.

I understand that responses of club members will be anonymous. I understand that the information the individual club members provide will be kept confidential. I understand that my name and the name of my club will be kept confidential and that I and my club will not be named in any report of the study.

I understand that the club and its individual members can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise the club or the participating members in any way.

I freely consent to my club's participation in the main study by agreeing to have 30 members complete questionnaires.

Signed: ..... Date: .....

Does your club wish to receive information about the results of this study? (Circle) Yes No

**Return to:** Tom Forsell PHD Candidate 142 Union Street Brunswick 3056  
Email: tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au

Questions about participation in this study may be directed to Tom Forsell, Phone: 9208 3499; If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University PO Box 14428 MC, Melbourne, 8001 (Phone: 03-9919 4710).

# APPENDIX J: Club participant information

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Victoria University Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance

## Consent Form for Participants Involved in Research

I, (print name) \_\_\_\_\_

Club Name \_\_\_\_\_

Club role (circle your present main role):

committee member    volunteer    player/participant    coach/referee    social member  
other

I certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I can legally give my consent to participate in the research study entitled:

***The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Sport and Recreation Clubs***  
which is being conducted by Tom Forsell of the Victoria University

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks to and safeguards associated with the procedures have been provided in writing to me and explained to me by the club secretary and that I have had the opportunity to have any questions about the study answered.

I understand that my responses will be anonymous and that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way.

I freely consent to participation by completing a questionnaire.

Signed: ..... Date: .....

Any questions about your participation in this study may be directed to the researcher, Tom Forsell, Phone: 9208 3499; Email: tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University PO Box 14428 MC, Melbourne, 8001 (Phone: 03-9919 4710).



Victoria University Department of Human Movement, Recreation & Performance

## Research Project Information for Participants

### The Nature of Social Capital in Local Area Sport and Recreation Clubs

Sport and recreation clubs provide more than an opportunity for the members to participate in their sport and recreation activities. They provide a setting for social networks to develop which build friendships, trust, and tolerance among the members. We call this social capital. Your willingness to participate in the study is important in order for us to learn more about clubs like yours and how they develop and maintain social capital.

We have received permission from your club secretary to seek your assistance in the study by completing a short questionnaire. You will be one of 3,000 people from 100 Victorian sport and recreation clubs partaking in this study.

Participation is entirely voluntary, and you can resign from being involved at any time without any adverse consequences. If you find any questions dealing with sensitive issues that you would like to discuss with someone, a list of local support contacts can be provided.

Participation is easy, and the questionnaire will take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Your club secretary will tell you how to complete the questionnaire and if you finish it at the club, you can hand it in right away. If you wish to complete it later (e.g. at home), you will be given a reply paid envelope so you can send it back.

Your responses will be totally anonymous and records dealing with your participation will be kept confidential. These records will remain safely stored for five years following the completion of the study and then be destroyed. If you have any questions and wish to discuss the project, you can contact me at work on 9208 3499, at home on 9387 9854 or email [tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au](mailto:tom.forsell@dvc.vic.gov.au)

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Secretary, University Human Research Ethics Committee, Victoria University PO Box 14428 MC, Melbourne, 8001 (Phone: 03-9919 4710).

**Tom Forsell**  
PhD Candidate

**Thank you for assisting us with this important research project.**

## APPENDIX K: Analysis results-One Way ANOVA- Club gender, Clubs with clubrooms and close to council

**Table K1 Results Club gender follow-up ANOVA**

	F(2,51)	p	Eta <sup>2</sup>
Friendship	2.36	.10	.09
Acceptance	1.35	.27	.05
Norms	0.61	.55	.02
Trust	1.41	.25	.05
Governance*	5.23	.00	.17

\*p < .05; \*\*p < .01

**Table K2 Results of the ANOVA for the subscales of the CSCS for clubs with clubrooms and those without.**

	F(1,52)	p	Eta <sup>2</sup>
Friendship	0.52	.47	.01
Acceptance	0.62	.44	.01
Norms	1.55	.22	.03
Trust	2.73	.10	.05
Governance	1.76	.19	.03

\*p < .05; \*\*p < .01

**Table K3 Results of the ANOVA for the subscales of the CSCS for clubs with close relationships with council and those without.**

	F(1,52)	p	Eta <sup>2</sup>
Friendship**	0.001	.974	.00
Acceptance	0.152	.699	.003
Norms	0.270	.607	.005
Trust	0.480	.494	.009
Governance	2.100	.153	.040

\*p < .05; \*\*p < .01