

Strategic Change in Response to an Environmental Jolt: Rugby and the Olympic Games

Author

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Published

2016

Thesis Type

Thesis (PhD Doctorate)

School

Griffith Business School

DOI

[10.25904/1912/928](https://doi.org/10.25904/1912/928)

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Griffith Business School

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Benjamin Dawes Corbett

May 2015

Strategic Change in Response to an Environmental Jolt: Rugby and the Olympic Games

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Doctor of Philosophy

May 2015

ABSTRACT

The sport management field is relatively new, but there are now over one thousand sport management programs in universities around the world. This ubiquity spawned Chalip's (2006) call for sport management to become a distinct and legitimate academic discipline. Sport management has borrowed theory and models from a range of disciplines including health sciences, psychology, management, economics, and communications. Rightly, those are well-established, highly credible disciplines. However, a prominent way to advance any academic discipline is through theory development. This thesis introduces a new model, the Integrated Change Model (ICM), which collaborates and extends sport management research in organisational design, organisational change, and institutional theory as a contribution to the theoretical base of sport management.

To further develop and evolve the ICM past a conceptual framework, the present research set forth to explore organisational change in response to an environmental jolt. The context chosen was the Olympic Games' inclusion of rugby, specifically rugby's abbreviated version of "Sevens," to begin at the 2016 Games. The need for the ICM created three aims for the present study: 1) what; 2) how; and, 3) why changes occur in organisations (in this case, rugby national governing bodies) due to an environmental jolt (i.e. Olympic inclusion). It was of particular interest to understand the different responses among organisations in the same sector (i.e. international rugby competition). The research question was developed to satisfy those three aims, and therefore inform the new model: To what extent do organisations within the same sector vary in their response to the same environmental jolt?

The review of literature provided three major underpinnings for the study's conceptual framework, examining the 'what,' 'how,' and 'why' of changes within sporting organisations. First, design archetype mapping of Canadian national sport organisations, as developed by the research of Greenwood, Hinings, Slack, Kikulis, Thibault, and Amis from 1992-2004 added to understanding 'what' may have changed in the rugby NGBs. Second, Laughlin's (1991) model of organisational responses to environmental disturbances was employed to show 'how' the changes occurred, including rebuttal, reorientation, colonisation, or evolution. Skinner, Stewart, and Edwards (1999) demonstrated that Laughlin's model can assist in exploring 'how' sport organisations change; however, this approach needs to be extended to explore 'why' those organisations change in the differential manner that they do. Therefore, third, O'Brien and Slack's (2003) work on institutional field-level characteristics informed the examination of 'why' changes in sport organisations may occur based on changes in four field-level characteristics: 1) number and nature of actors; 2) exchange processes; 3) regulatory structures; and, 4) legitimate capital.

This research followed Pettigrew's (1990) case study method. Planned opportunism resulted in the selection of four case studies: Australia, United States, South Africa, and Kenya. Data were collected remotely and onsite from online archive records (302 items),

organisational documents (88), survey responses (53), public addresses (12), and semi-structured interviews (45). Data were coded and analysed with the assistance of NVivo software.

Rugby's inclusion in the Olympic Games, and the ensuing dynamic change environment this caused, provided an interesting and colourful context from which to evolve the ICM from its theoretical underpinnings. It was discovered that organisations in the same sector do vary in their responses to an environmental jolt. The most substantial change to rugby NGBs was to the Sevens high performance system. Significant changes to the way teams train and prepare for competition were occurring across all rugby NGBs, and were observed in all four case studies. Four high performance systems, or design archetypes for high performance, emerged from the data: 1) Airport Meet and Greet Model; 2) Training Camps Model; 3) Central Residency Model; and, 4) Hub and Spoke Model. Despite significant variations in the 'why' (i.e. field-level pressures and individual NGB inertia), each case study progressed to relatively the same 'what' (i.e. Central Residency high performance design archetype). It was the variations in field-level characteristics that pressured dissimilarities in the 'how' (i.e. process of change). Moreover, as the process of change and field-level pressures showed variation, isomorphic mechanisms institutionalised the NGBs, resulting in quite similar design archetypes on the macro level. It was the deeper investigation of intra-design archetypes on the micro level that identified distinctions and enabled comparison within and across cases.

The rise of women's rugby was another change identified and explored. The emerging focus on women's rugby will likely be a more important, long-term change than the high performance system changes. However, the change was too embryonic to determine the lasting effects on world rugby in this thesis. The gender theme did enable a deeper discussion into the intra-design archetypes of the NGBs, with a comparison of men's and women's Sevens programs.

STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the dissertation contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Benjamin Dawes Corbett

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ABBREVIATIONS

15s	15-aside Rugby
7s	Rugby Sevens
AIS	Australian Institute of Sport
AOC	Australian Olympic Committee
ARFU	Asian Rugby Football Union
ARU	Australian Rugby Union
ASC	Australian Sports Commission
BHHS	Brook House High School
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa
CAR	Confédération Africaine de Rugby
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CMO	Chief Marketing Officer
CONSUR	Confederación Sudamericana de Rugby
CRC	Collegiate Rugby Championship
ECU	Eastern Cape University
FIRA-AER	Association Européenne de Rugby
FORU	Federation of Oceania Rugby Union
HK7s	Hong Kong Sevens
IOC	International Olympic Committee
IRB	International Rugby Board
KRU	Kenyan Rugby Union
NACRA	North America Caribbean Rugby Association
NBC	National Broadcasting Corporation (USA)
NCAA	National Collegiate Athletic Association
NGB	National Governing Body
NSO	National Sporting Organisation
ODA	Olympic Development Academy
RFU	Rugby Football Union
RWC	Rugby World Cup
RWC7s	Rugby World Cup Sevens
SANZAR	South Africa, New Zealand, and Australia Rugby Union
SARU	South African Rugby Union
SAS	Stellenbosch Academy of Sport
SASCOC	South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee
SASR	Sydney Academy of Sport and Recreation
SGMA	Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association
USA	United States of America
USAR	United States Rugby Union
USOC	United States Olympic Committee
USOTC	United States Olympic Training Centre
WR	World Rugby
WRC	World Rugby Corporation
WSS	World Rugby Sevens Series

PUBLICATIONS

Textbook

Skinner, J., Edwards, A., & Corbett, B. (2015). *Research Methods for Sport Management* (1st Ed.). London: Routledge.

Textbook Chapter

O'Brien, D. and Corbett, B. (2015). Sport management strategic change. In Byers, T. and Gorse, S. Coventry University (Eds.), *Introduction to Sport Management: A Contemporary Issues Perspective*. London: Sage.

Corbett, B. Case study in Sotiriadou, P., Brouwers, J., & De Bosscher, V. (2016). Elite Development Pathways. In E. Sherry, N. Schulenkorf, & P. Phillips (Eds.), *Managing Sport Development* (pp. TBD). London and New York: Routledge.

Journal Articles

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2016). Breaking through the old boys club: the rise of women's rugby. TBD

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2016). Centralisation in Rugby: isomorphism of an old high performance system to a new Olympic sport. TBD

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2016). Organisational change in response to an environmental jolt: a new integrated change model. TBD

Peer Reviewed Conference Presentations

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2012). *A theoretical map to explore rugby national governing body strategic changes following Olympic inclusion*. Paper presented at the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) Conference, Sydney, Australia.

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2013). *Gender Differences in Four Rugby Governing Bodies' Olympic Development Plans*. Paper presented at the Sport Policy Factors Leading to International Sport Success (SPLISS) Conference, Antwerp, Belgium.

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2014). *Olympic pressures to centralise Sevens training in rugby unions*. Paper presented at the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

Corbett, B., Skinner, J., O'Brien, D., and Auld, C. (2015). *A new Integrated Change Model for Sport Management*. Paper to be presented at the European Association of Sport Management (EASM) Conference, Dublin, Ireland.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deep gratitude to all those on this doctoral journey:

To my wife, Halley, who acted as my research assistant in Africa, America, and Europe, and exhibited unwavering patience and support during those long analysis and writing days.

To my primary supervisor, Professor James Skinner, who guided me with rich insights and content, and provided me with abundant opportunities towards my advancing academic career.

To my associate supervisor, Professor Chris Auld, who inspired me with praise and directed me with wisdom.

To my external supervisor, Associate Professor Danny O'Brien, who did the hard yards with me – I could not have done this without you. Like a fly on the wall, you always had your eyes on my work.

To the Griffith University Business School staff, whom provided a wealth of support and tools to conduct the research and build my academic profile.

To the research participants, whom several have become friends, you provided so much rich content under the *comradery* of the rugby community – the most important of all rugby values and why I love researching within this context.

DEDICATION

For my South African father and Australian grandfather – thanks for letting this American fall in love with rugby, and inspiring me to travel abroad with your stories of adventure!



Strategic change in response to an environmental jolt:
Rugby and the Olympic Games

CHAPTER 1: DISSERTATION INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Chapter One introduces the research. First, the research problem is presented together with the key aims of the study. A justification for the research is offered and its limitations noted. An overview of the context under review is then provided followed by an outline of the research methods. Finally, the structure of the research proposal is detailed.

1.2 Research Problem

Rugby union underwent a significant change in the 1990s when it shifted from amateur ideals and values to become professional. For much of its existence, rugby union protected its amateur status from internal and external pressures to professionalise. However, in 1995, rugby's international governing body, the International Rugby Board (IRB), withdrew its stance on maintaining strictly amateur values in response to pressure from a new competitor, the World Rugby Corporation (WRC). The WRC signed many of the top international rugby players to contracts in the wake of a \$US550 million deal between News Corporation and SANZAR, the consortium of the major southern hemisphere rugby nations of South Africa, New Zealand, and Australia (Fitzsimons, 1996). The change to professional values forced some rugby union national governing bodies (NGBs) into organisational change with the aim to stay competitive internationally (O'Brien & Slack, 2003; Skinner, Stewart, & Edwards, 1999).

Three key lines of research have examined how the change to professionalism affected rugby union. The first was O'Brien and Slack's (1999) work that followed Oliver's (1992) lead using institutional theory, which argues that organisational interactions create environmental norms and pressures to which organisations must then conform or risk becoming uncompetitive (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). O'Brien and Slack demonstrated the process of deinstitutionalisation, the discontinuance of previous traditions and norms, of the amateur ethic in an English club in order to implement a professional logic. In the second key research stream, O'Brien and Slack (2003, 2004, 2005) expanded their institutional examination to the national level by analysing organisational change of the Rugby Football Union (RFU), England's NGB. O'Brien and Slack (2003) concluded that changes in the field-level characteristics, namely actors, exchange processes and inter-organisational linkages, legitimised forms of capital, and regulatory structures, indicated a shift in the field's dominant logic from amateurism to professionalism.

In the third line of research, Skinner, Stewart, and Edwards (1999) expanded Laughlin's (1991) environmental disturbances and organisational transitions and transformations model using a postmodern perspective to investigate how the Queensland Rugby Union (QRU) changed its organisational strategy to adapt to the evolving professional environment. Laughlin's (1991) model encompasses four processes for responding to environmental jolts. 'Rebuttal' and 'reorientation' are first order changes that do not encompass a change in the values or beliefs that guide strategic decisions, referred to as interpretive schemes (Ranson, Hinings, & Greenwood, 1980). 'Colonisation' and 'evolution' are second order changes where the interpretive schemes must change in an effort to navigate a changing environment. Skinner et al. concluded that organisational change is too complex to compartmentalise according to Laughlin's (1991) model, and the model must therefore be modified to explain why the changes have occurred, and to demonstrate that change can happen differently across various levels of an organisation.

Those three lines of research used England and Australia as the environmental context, two of the oldest (organisationally mature) and internationally competitive rugby union nations. However, while the minority (11) of rugby union's 118 nations decided to professionalise their operations, the majority have stuck to amateur ideals. Most NGBs decided, or were forced, to stay amateur due to a host of factors, such as lack of financial stability and resources, low infrastructure and governance capabilities, and competition for athletes in other sports (e.g. American football, soccer, basketball). Therefore, the competitive gap between the top and lower tiers of rugby nations expanded since professionalisation, as evidenced by the average score margin between Tier One and Tier Two nations. The average margin of defeat of a Tier Two nation by a Tier One nation at the Rugby World Cup has increased 41%, from 27.3 to 38.5 points, since professionalisation (IRB, 2011).

A decade later, rugby union NGBs are facing a new pressure to change strategy and structure. The emergence of Rugby "Sevens," the shortened form of rugby that uses seven players instead of the traditional fifteen players, has given opportunity for lower tier nations to compete with Tier One rugby nations, albeit in a modified format. Sevens has been in existence since 1883, although until recently, has widely been viewed as the "social" code of rugby. The IRB staged the first Rugby World Cup Sevens in 1993, and coupled with the success of the 1997 Rugby World Cup Sevens, launched the IRB Sevens World Series in 1999. The major antecedent for change came in 2009 when the International Olympic Committee (IOC) included Sevens into the Olympic program, beginning with the 2016 Olympic Games.

The IRB and IOC identified Sevens as a better fit for the Olympic Games than Fifteens based on three main factors. First, the Sevens competition can take place over two to four days, while the traditional code takes six to eight weeks, primarily due to recovery times

of players. Second, the Tier Two and three nations have proven they can compete with traditional Tier One rugby nations in Sevens, opening the game to a wider global population, and giving more nations a chance at medalling. Third, the emergence and competitiveness of women's Sevens was a requirement from the IOC for a new sport to be included in the Olympic Games (IRB, 2009).

Olympic inclusion has many implications for NGBs, including financial support from national Olympic committees, media, sponsors, regulatory changes (e.g. access to youth and school development programs) (Green, 2007). National pride and notoriety that comes with an Olympic medal has been shown to increase in the short term following the event (Elling, Van Hilvoorde, & Van Den Dool, 2014; Van Hilvoorde, Elling, & Stokvis, 2010), and may be more significant for fans or participants for specific sports rather than for the entire nation (Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2010). In addition, research on the overall demonstration effect on participation from previous Olympic Games has been widely disputed and often disclaimed (Girginov & Hills, 2008; Minnaert, 2012; Toohey, 2008; Veal, Toohey, & Frawley, 2012), but a systematic literature review by Weed et al. (2015) concluded that individual sports can obtain a participation legacy from the demonstration effect with a properly leveraged strategy. The IRB and national rugby NGBs have stated a primary goal of Olympic inclusion was to leverage this "feel good factor" and demonstration effect to increase awareness for the sport to increase participation.

However, Houlihan and Zheng (2013) acknowledge some potential negative implications of Olympic inclusion including predicting potential competitive advantage for a particular sport, the considerable cost in pursuing an Olympic programme, and the high potential for a negative return on investment. Houlihan and Zheng's evaluation would certainly limit the number of rugby union NGBs from pursuing the Olympic pathway. On the contrary, empirical evidence from this study shows a trend towards leveraging the positive implications from inclusion in the Olympic Games.

This study examined the strategic responses of a selection of rugby union NGBs resulting from the inclusion of Sevens in the Olympic Games. The research drew from theory, models, and concepts from previous rugby organisational change work by O'Brien and Slack (1999, 2003, 2004, 2005) and Skinner et al. (1999) to assist in contextualising and understanding rugby's most recent changes. This study extended those works by systematically explaining the specific internal changes each organisation underwent by assessing elements of design archetypes – the organisational structure and processes (D. Miller & Friesen, 1980a). The design archetype assessment closely followed that of the longitudinal study on Canadian national sporting organisations (NSOs) (Amis, Slack, & Hinings, 2002, 2004a; Hinings, Thibault, Slack, & Kikulis, 1996; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1992, 1995b). Moreover, this study expanded beyond a single nation and explored response differences in three NGBs in the international rugby sector. An international viewpoint

provided the opportunity to explore the effects of both global and national pressures for change in similar organisations due to the same environmental jolt.

As Skinner et al. (1999) demonstrated, Laughlin's (1991) model provides a typology to discover differences in 'how' organisations respond to environmental jolts; however, it does not offer understanding as to 'why' those changes occurred. Institutional theory does offer the ability to understand why organisations change, from both the environmental (field-level) and the organisational levels, as the basis for institutional theory is to understand change through the interactions of institutions (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991). An institutional approach to understanding why organisations change was adopted by O'Brien and Slack, and was included in the conceptual framework of this study. Finally, organisational design literature provided concepts and models to assess the nature of changes within each organisation. As this study draws from several theories, models, and concepts, there was a need for a new integrated exploratory model to assist in understanding 'why,' 'how,' and 'what' changes occur during an organisational response to an environmental jolt. This leads to the theoretical objective of this study - to develop an integrated model for understanding organisational change in response to environmental jolts.

1.3 The Research Objective

Develop an Integrated Exploratory Model for Organisational Change

The overarching purpose of this dissertation was to develop an integrated exploratory model to further illuminate our understanding of organisational change. This study drew from empirical studies and models based in organisational design, institutionalism, and organisational change to construct a conceptual framework to collect and analyse data from rugby union NGBs. The literature review failed to bring forward a single model that could lend itself to the exploration of this phenomenon, therefore a conceptual framework served as a starting point for the new integrated change model and evolved from the empirical data analysis. The empirical data analysis emanated from this present study on organisational change regarding NGB responses to Sevens' Olympic inclusion. The research aims were developed based on the need to integrate some of the various existing change concepts and models.

1.4 The Research Aims

The research objective of developing a new integrated model that assimilates previous organisational change concepts and models produced three aims for the study: 1) what; 2) how; and, 3) why changes occur in organisations due to environmental jolts. It was of particular interest to understand the different responses among organisations in the same sector.

1.4.1 Examine ‘What’ Changed in each NGB

Design archetype mapping of NSOs, as developed by the research of Hinings, Slack, Kikulis, Thibault, and Amis from 1992 to 2004 (Amis et al., 2002, 2004a; Hinings et al., 1996; Kikulis et al., 1992; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1995a; Kikulis et al., 1995b), contributed to understanding ‘what’ may have changed in the focal sport organisations.

1.4.2 Examine ‘How’ each NGB Responded to the Environmental Jolt

Laughlin’s (1991) model of organisational transitions and transformations guided the examination of ‘how’ the NGBs’ respective strategies shifted in relation to the development of Sevens around the Olympic announcement. As shown by Zakus and Skinner (2008) in their examination of organisational change in the IOC, an organisation can move through several types of responses and move both forward and backward.

1.4.3 Examine ‘Why’ each NGB Changed

Institutional theory, in particular O’Brien and Slack’s (2003, 2004, 2005) work on field-level characteristics informed the examination of ‘why’ changes occurred in NGBs, as well as why some changes did not occur.

1.5 The Research Questions

Research questions were developed to satisfy the research aims, and hence inform the new integrated change model. The main research question was:

To what extent do organisations within the same sector vary in their response to the same environmental jolt?

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were addressed:

- (1) Which field-level characteristics facilitated or constrained pressures for change?
- (2) What was the process of response within each organisation to the environmental jolt?
- (3) How were the outcomes of the response manifest in design archetype shifts?

1.6 Justification for the Research

It is important to examine and document strategic responses to environmental jolts to broaden the knowledge and understanding of organisational change. Although much research has been conducted on environmental jolts (Laughlin, 1991; Meyer, Brooks, & Goes, 1990; Skinner et al., 1999), institutional pressures for organisational change (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; O’Brien & Slack, 2005; Oliver, 1991), and specific changes in organisational design (Amis et al., 2002; Greenwood & Hinings, 1988; Kikulis et al., 1992; Siggelkow & Rivkin, 2003), there is minimal research that combines each of those concepts, especially in sport management. Many previous studies, such as Skinner et al.’s (1999) work, have combined several theories, models, and concepts to understand organisational change in response to environmental jolts; however, the current literature lacks a single exploratory model integrating the ‘why,’ ‘how,’ and ‘what’ to understand variations in organisational responses

to the same environmental jolt. The result of this research is a tool that researchers can use in many contexts within and outside of sport management to analyse organisational responses to significant environmental changes. This knowledge can assist future managers in making strategic decisions when faced with similar circumstances.

This research also has specific implications for rugby managers. Rugby union continues to evolve rapidly from the first 150 years of amateurism, through the professionalisation in the 1990s, and now through the inclusion of Sevens in the Olympics. The growth of rugby union has placed it as one of the world's most watched sports with the 2011 Rugby World Cup watched by a cumulative 4.2 billion people (RNZ, 2011); therefore, it competes with other sports for an additional share of resources (spectators, sponsorship, broadcast rights) (Slack, 1998). As sport organisations compete for limited resources, rugby must continually evolve to find a competitive advantage. Sevens offers an opportunity to reach new audiences in three ways. First, Sevens' fast-paced, exciting tournament style increases commercial and spectator opportunities. Second, Sevens offers a vehicle to second and third tier nations to compete with rugby's top tier nations, expanding competition. Third, Sevens increases the profile of women's rugby with new resources linked to Olympic inclusion.

1.7 Limitations of the Research

This research was an empirical investigation of organisational change in response to environmental jolts; however, it was limited to the period of time it took to collect and analyse the data. Therefore, it cannot encompass all internal or external changes to each NGB or its environment. The researcher does not attempt to understand the potential success each NGB might encounter after enacting changes. This research was also limited to investigating the impacts of Olympic inclusion of Sevens on NGB change and it should be noted that many other environmental forces could influence NGB changes. For example, expansion of professionalisation of the traditional code in new nations or development of new financial investments not related in any way to Sevens can lead to significant organisational responses. This research in no way suggests that Sevens was the only stimulus for NGB strategic change, however an examination of all factors leading to change was beyond the scope of this study.

1.8 Research Context - Sport of Rugby Union

This section provides a brief overview of the sport of rugby union. It outlines the history of rugby, notes previous environmental jolts, and ends with a discussion of the development of Sevens. This is important in order to understand the cultural and governance issues each NGB must deal with in responding to a changing environment. A detailed account of rugby's history, development, and governance is presented in Chapter Three.

Historically, rugby has endured four previous major environmental jolts. First, class conflicts between the northern and southern regions of England in the late 19th century

eventually led to the creation of “rugby league,” a different code of the game that subscribed to professional ideals (Dunning & Sheard, 2005). Second, rugby union debuted in the 1900 Olympic Games, and despite showing popularity among fans with the largest crowds at the Games, the lack of country participation, the departure of its main advocate, De Coubertin, from the IOC, and the Olympic initiative to add more individual and women’s sports, caused its exclusion after the 1924 Games (Godwin & Rhys, 1981). Third, the sport shifted from being player-centric to spectator-centric in the 1960s and 1970s leading to incorporation of leagues and cup competitions and the introduction of specialised training. These developments were seen as a separation from the amateur ethic, where people are expected to play purely for fun and recreation (Dunning & Sheard, 2005). Finally, as discussed earlier in this chapter, the IRB withdrew its firm stance on amateurism in 1995.

Olympic inclusion could offer rugby several benefits including international attention, funding, and new participants (Green, 2007). The IRB’s initial campaign for Sevens Olympic inclusion failed despite the growth and development of the game. The main rationale from the IOC was the lack of a women’s game, and, to a lesser extent, the argument that only a handful of countries are genuinely competitive (IRB, 2009). The IRB introduced the women’s RWC Sevens in 2009 and 80 nations competed in the qualifying rounds to earn one of the 16 spots. The IOC was present in Dubai for the 2009 RWC Sevens to witness not only the highly competitive women’s event where Australia prevailed and the USA made the semi-finals, but also to see that the men’s competitive gap was closing. Kenya, Wales, Argentina, and Samoa were the men’s semi-finalists, with only one foundation member. Seven months later, the IOC announced that Sevens would have its Olympic debut in 2016.

1.9 Research Design and Methods

This research adopted a qualitative approach to understand strategic responses to an environmental jolt by different sport organisations in the same sector. The research design followed Pettigrew’s (1990) procedures for conducting longitudinal case studies. Theory, models, and concepts in organisational change, institutionalism, and organisational design provided the base for creation of the conceptual framework of this study. The conceptual framework guided an “interpretive theoretical output” (Pettigrew, 1990, p. 280) aimed at creating a deeper understanding of organisational change and the development of an exploratory model. The case studies were selected with consideration of the questions posed, level of access, funding, and timeframe (Pettigrew, 1990; Yin, 2002).

Data came from archival records, document analysis, online questionnaires, observation, and semi-structured interviews. The timeframe for data collection needed to be long enough to establish a contextual background for current organisational values and structure. Although it could include archival records and documentary evidence from as far back as the 1820s, however, as some of the relevant data came from the mid-1990s, the

majority of data spanned the decade prior to 2014. Data were analysed by open, axial, and selective coding to develop and strengthen common themes. Chapter Four fully details the research methods.

1.10 Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation contains eight chapters. This chapter introduces the research problem and provides the research justification, limitations, and context under examination - the sport of rugby union. Chapter Two reviews the literature on organisational change by drawing key themes from previous organisational change research. Chapter Two concludes with the rationale behind selection of the theoretical approach used in this thesis, and then outlines this study's conceptual framework. Chapter Three provides a detailed history and current structure of global rugby. Chapter Four discusses the methodological approach and details the research design and method. Chapter Five introduces the results of the data analysis, and discusses some global changes that have occurred in rugby due to Olympic inclusion, providing additional context to the two major NGB responses. The two major responses, change to Sevens high performance model and resourcing the rise of women's rugby, are explored in Chapters Six and Seven, respectively. Chapter Eight concludes the thesis by presenting the new integrated change model.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter presented an introduction to the proposed research. The research objective of constructing a new integrated change model was proposed. This led to the creation of research aims and main research question: to what extent do organisations within the same sector vary in their response to the same environmental jolt? The chapter then outlined the justification and limitations of the proposed study. The research context was outlined - the sport of rugby union. Then, a brief overview of the proposed qualitative research methods was provided. This chapter also served as a reference to the structure of the dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents some of the key research related to environmental jolts and organisational change. To set the foundation of understanding organisational change in response to environmental jolts, this chapter commences with a review of the organisational design literature, as it is critical in this study to understand how an organisation is designed prior to identifying and examining changes in the organisation. The chapter proceeds with a discussion of literature on organisational environments, narrowing to environmental turbulence, and progressing into theory, concepts, and models that provide understanding of organisational responses to environmental jolts. The research question and aims are then outlined.

2.2 Organisational Design

Understanding the design of an organisation as well as how and why it was designed, can assist in the later determination of the scope and nature of organisational change. Research focusing on organisational design demonstrates that three major elements form an organisation: interpretive schemes, design archetypes, and sub-systems (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988; Laughlin, 1991; D. Miller & Friesen, 1980a). This section will define and examine each of these elements, as they are recurring themes throughout the organisational change literature.

2.2.1 Interpretive Schemes

Interpretive schemes are the core values and beliefs that underpin organisational structure and how decisions are made (Amis et al., 2002; Ranson et al., 1980). These values and beliefs, according to Greenwood and Hinings, “shape prevailing conceptions of what an organisation should be doing, of how it should be doing it, and how it should be judged” (1988, p. 295). Values are a preference for one type of behaviour, and beliefs are a premise to what the organisation views as legitimate. It is difficult to examine interpretive schemes directly, so most researchers conceptualise interpretive schemes by discussing their manifestations within the organisation (Ferkins, 2007; Kikulis et al., 1992). Four organisational factors offer understanding of the manifestation of interpretive schemes: orientation, criteria of effectiveness, domain, and principles of organising.

Orientation. Orientation is the level of support from public or private interests that the organisation seeks to attain. The public and private sectors offer different expectations of the organisation, thus affecting how the organisation seeks legitimation (Kimberly & Rottman, 1987). Legitimation is a process of norming activities or ideology within an organisation, sector, or field. The orientation of an organisation thus demonstrates the underlying values

about authority and decision-making to satisfy external interests. Legitimation has strong ties to institutionalism, and hence, will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Criteria of Effectiveness. Criteria of effectiveness refers to how the performance of the organisation is evaluated (Amis & Slack, 2008). “Effectiveness refers to extent to which an organisation achieves its goals” (Slack, 1997, p. 23), and goals are set according to how much value an organisation places on various internal and external responses to performance (French, 2009). Therefore, the amount of legitimation or resources each actor in the organisation’s environment offers can affect the degree the organisation values effectiveness in that area. Kikulis et al. (1992) found criteria of effectiveness in national sport organisations may come from membership satisfaction and participation rates, success in local or international competitions, increased private and/or public support, and quality of participation programs.

Domain. Domain refers to the services and market that the organisation targets (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988). The organisation will develop products and services in relation to its specific domain. These products and services may change over time, in response to changes in the values of an organisation. For example, rugby NGBs may divide products and services between two domains: (1) support for participation in all skill and age levels; and, (2) support of elite competition – either international or professional. If an NGB puts more resources into elite competition, then one might conclude that the interpretive schemes lean towards a culture of elitism and/or the NGB and its managers seek legitimacy from other organisations that value elite status.

Principles of Organising. Principles of organising are, “the values associated with reporting relationships, job responsibilities, and rules” (Kikulis et al., 1995a, p. 351). For example, (Auld & Godbey, 1998) illustrated professionalisation of sport in Canadian national sport organizations shifted some principles of organising from volunteers’ values to professionals’ values due to the perceived influence each group has on decision making. These values underpin the organisational structures of standardisation, specialisation, and centralization to form the organizational design archetypes (Amis & Slack, 2008; Greenwood & Hinings, 1993). In 2011, Australia’s rugby NGB was the first to hire a full-time women’s Sevens coach. This could signal the organisation’s changing interpretive schemes following Sevens’ inclusion in the Olympic Games as a new job responsibility was created and funded, demonstrating a new value placed on women’s Sevens performance. These principles are present in the way the organisation standardises policies and procedures, develops specialised roles, and arranges its hierarchy of authority (Hinings & Slack, 1987). Research suggests that standardisation, specialisation, and centralisation help form organisational design archetypes (Amis & Slack, 2008; Greenwood & Hinings, 1993). These terms are addressed in the next section.

2.2.2 Design Archetypes

Archetype research has evolved from organisational typology research. The primary reasoning for classification of organisations, or any general phenomenon, is for inducing theories and deducing hypotheses (McKelvey, 1975). The classification, or typology, provides a basis for research through identification of organisational similarities, by which differences can be discovered. Mintzberg (1979) summarised previous organisational design research by identifying five basic organisation design types: simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalised form, and adhocracy. However, limiting organisational design to only five design types prevents deeper understanding and comparison of closely structured firms in the same sector. Archetypes, like organisational typologies, dictate that organisations operate within finite combinations of environments, strategy, and structure (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988). Design archetypes, on the other hand, provide a broader array of organisation classifications, as organisations with similar general structure may actually have different design archetypes (Kikulis et al., 1992).

Miller and Friesen (1984) defined design archetypes as the interdependent and supportive elements within an organisation. Although each element may function separately, organisations create design archetypes to achieve a common purpose. It is the coherence of the organisation's structures and processes that forms the design archetype, or as best stated by Greenwood and Hinings (1988),

...patterns of organizational design, e.g., design archetypes are to be identified by isolating the distinctive ideas, values and meanings that are pervasively reflected in and reproduced by clusters of structures and systems. An organizational archetype, in this sense, is a particular composition of ideas, beliefs, and values connected with structural and system attributes. (p. 18)

Organisational structure and processes are governed by the organisation's management systems, which are underpinned by interpretive schemes (D. Miller & Friesen, 1980a; D. Miller et al., 1984). Therefore, design archetypes, as depicted in Figure 2.1, are the blueprint of the structure and management systems developed by means of interpretive schemes in order to achieve the organisation's performance criteria. This study's comprehensive review of organisational design research guided the development of Figure 2.1. Kikulis et al. (1992) discussed that organisational structure manifests itself in three forms: specialisation, standardisation, and centralisation.

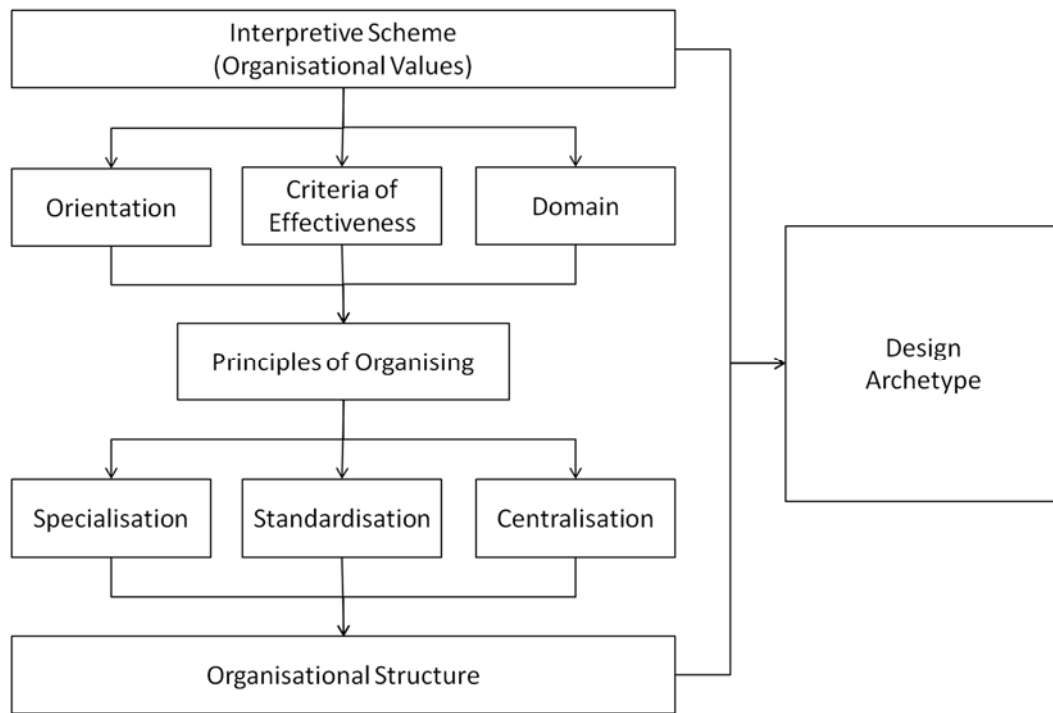


Figure 2.1 Blueprint of a design archetype.

Specialisation. Specialisation is the degree to which roles and tasks are differentiated (Kikulis et al., 1992). An organisation will create distinct roles and tasks in order to accomplish specific objectives, which can infer the amount of value placed on those objectives. The degree of specialisation also has considerable impacts on the organisation's ability to adapt to environmental jolts because of the training and capabilities of the people in roles subject to environmental influence (Damanpour, 1991). In short, if an organisation has specificity in roles in preparation for environmental jolts, then it has greater adaption capabilities.

Standardisation/Formalisation. According to Kikulis, et al. (1992), standardisation is the existence of rules, policies, and procedures within an organisation. This definition of standardisation has also been linked to formalisation (Rix & Lièvre, 2008), and the term formalisation will be utilised in the present study. In formalisation, organisations develop policies and procedures according to the interpretive schemes of internal actors and in response to pressures from external actors. Schulz and Auld (2008) found volunteer sport organisations in Queensland, Australia had evidence of role ambiguity, which was negatively related to role formalisation. This may be related to the differences in values between volunteers and professionals, because the values of domain, orientation, and criteria of effectiveness each contribute to formalising policies and procedures.

Centralisation. Centralisation refers to the hierarchy of control within the organisation (Kikulis et al., 1992). The organisation's chain of command can indicate the degree to which the organisation values an objective, as more highly valued objectives will demand a

decision from a higher stratum of management. Amis, Slack, and Hinings (2004b) identified three factors that indicate centralisation: locus of decision making, levels of involvement, and the number of decisions made at each level. Auld (1997) found the locus of decision making in Australian sport organisations was with professionals rather than volunteers. Although Auld noted professionals wanted decision-making parity with volunteers, attribution theory states the control should lie with those responsible for the outcomes (i.e. the criteria of effectiveness). For example, with the sudden demand for Sevens in the USA collegiate system, USA Rugby formed a committee in 2010 to decide on the direction of collegiate rugby. The committee, comprised mainly of volunteer college coaches, controlled decision-making. Then, in mid-2011, the CEO of USA Rugby, a paid employee, took control of decision-making by reducing the committee's authority to an advisory role, a lower level of involvement. This modification in the design archetype may signal a shift in interpretive schemes within USA Rugby as decisions on the future of collegiate Sevens has become more centralised.

2.2.3 Design Archetype Assessment

The researchers Amis, Kikulis, Slack, and Hinings collaborated at different times over a 12-year period to conduct a longitudinal study to demonstrate changes in Canadian national sport organisations (NSOs) (Amis & Slack, 2003; Amis et al., 2004b; Kikulis et al., 1992, 1995a, 1995b). The initial work in 1992 focused not on changes, but illustrated that variation in organisation design occurs among similar types of firms within the same sector. Kikulis et al. (1992) defined a sector as a group of organisations that have a common purpose and their structures and interactions align to achieve similar goals. To establish the sector, Kikulis et al. followed Child's (1988) research which identified three characteristics. First, the sector has objective conditions in that the economic, technological, and legislative demands of other organisations may determine the design and set of activities for the entire sector. Second, there is a common understanding of the overall shared values of each organisation within the sector. Third, the organisations form a collaborative network to share and spread information and valuable resources to strengthen the sector, which in turn, strengthens the individual organisations.

After establishing the sector in which the NSOs belong, and the resulting conditions, values, and networks, Kikulis et al. (1992) analysed the NSOs to establish design archetypes that illustrated the variations in organisation design. They used the seven concepts of orientation, domain, criteria of effectiveness, principles of organising, specialisation, standardisation, and centralisation to assess what design archetype a specific organisation exhibits within its sector, and found three different design archetypes in the NSOs they labelled 'Kitchen Table,' 'Boardroom,' and 'Executive Office.' These design archetypes varied among each of the seven concepts, offering empirical evidence that organisations

within a sector with a common purpose can be designed differently. Moreover, Kikulis et al. provided a framework for assessing these differences within NSOs that can be utilised to help understand differences in rugby NGBs.

2.2.4 Organisational Sub-systems

Sub-systems are subordinate to the organisation's design archetype, which are in turn directed by the interpretive schemes. Organisational sub-systems are the tangible elements, such as the buildings, technology, people, and finance, and the interactions between them (Laughlin, 1991). Organisations develop and maintain sub-systems to operate daily activities. Shifts in design archetype are always followed by changes in sub-systems (Laughlin, 1991) and therefore, a change in sub-systems may signal a change in design archetype within an organisation. For example, the inclusion of Sevens in the Olympic Games has allowed access to the USA Olympic training centre and staff, therefore the USA rugby NGB created an office within the training centre to accommodate the increased activity. As resources have been allocated to a new sub-system, it may be possible that a change in design archetype has occurred.

2.2.5 Summary

This section reviewed the research on organisational design and defined the key concepts of interpretive schemes, design archetypes, and sub-systems. This study examined NGB design archetype changes in response to Sevens inclusion in the Olympic Games. One line of work in particular, Kikulis, Slack, and Hinings' (1992) institutionally specific design archetypes: a framework for understanding change in national sport organisations, contributes directly to this study's conceptual framework. Interpretive schemes and design archetypes are prominent throughout organisational change research and therefore, it was critical to understand organisational design before exploring organisational change in response to environmental turbulence.

2.3 Organisational Environments

Organisations do not exist within a silo or vacuum; they interact with other constituents in their surroundings that make up an environment. Theorists suggest there are two types of organisational environments – the general and task environments (Slack, 1997). The general environment includes aspects that may not have a direct impact on the organisation, but rather influence the organisation indirectly (Slack, 1997). These broader areas include economic, political, sociocultural, legal, demographic, ecological, and technological trends and forces. For example, the civil rights movement in the USA in the 1960s saw a sociocultural environment shift as African-Americans began to receive equal rights, and a national sporting organisation, the NCAA, began allowing historically black colleges to join, which impacted the level of athletic competition and future revenues of the NCAA (Washington, 2004).

The task environment includes aspects of the general environment that directly impact an organisation's decision making and performance (Slack, 1997). The task environment includes competitors, suppliers, athletes' groups, customers or fans, and legislative agencies and can be referred to as the organisation's 'field' (DiMaggio, 1991). Figure 2.2 demonstrates that sport organisations are encompassed and directly influenced by the task environment, and the task environment is encompassed and influenced by the general environment.

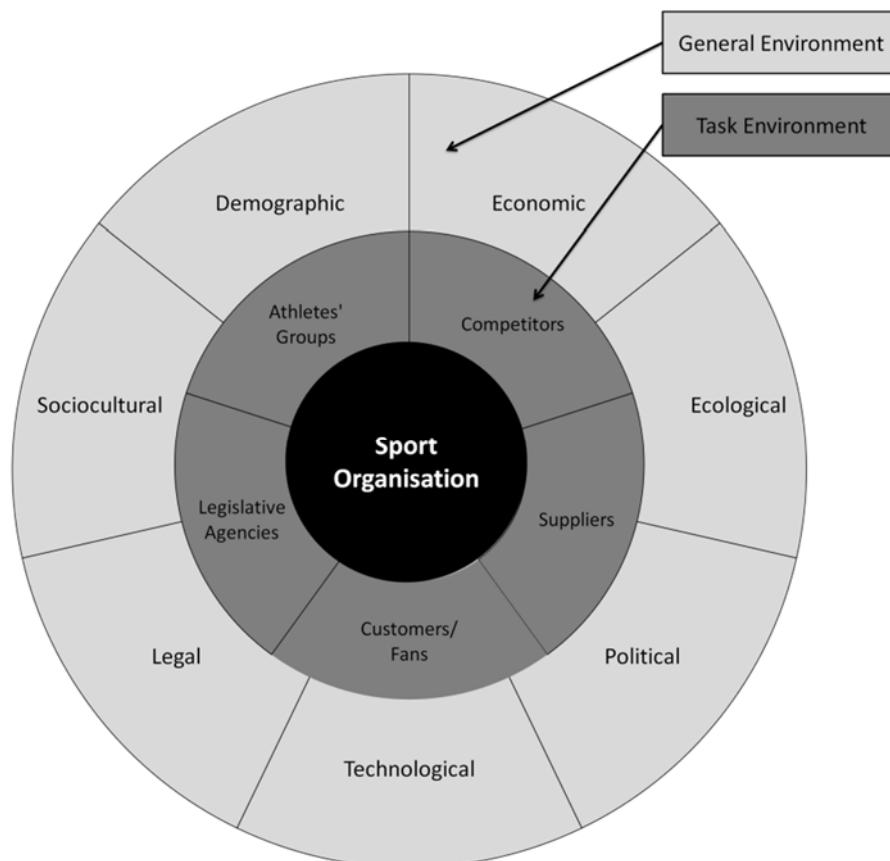


Figure 2.2 Sport organisation's general and task environment.

Adapted from Slack (1997, p. 134).

A task environment, or field, differs from a sector. As defined previously, a sector contains similar organisations designed to achieve common goals (Child, 1988). Rugby NGBs could be classified as an international sector, as they share common goals of attracting rugby participation and competing internationally. Rugby NGBs share many global field-level constituents and characteristics. Furthermore, each rugby NGB also has its own national field-level characteristics that can be influenced by different general environmental areas, and each rugby NGB belongs to a national sector of NGBs of other sports. The rugby NGB environments, like most organisational environments, are very complex and always

evolving with resultant changes in both general and task elements (Aldrich & Pfeffer, 1976). A discussion of these changes, or “environmental turbulence,” will now commence, leading to an examination of organisational change in response to shifts in the environment.

2.4 Environmental Turbulence

Environmental turbulence is the level, nature, and speed of change in an organisation’s environment (Emery & Trist, 1965). One constant about an organisational environment is that it is always changing. Emery and Trist suggested that environments are, “themselves changing, at an increasing rate, and towards increasing complexity” (p. 21). Not all environmental turbulence requires or demands a response from organisations, as each environment has two aspects of turbulence - frequency and intensity (Volberda & Van Bruggen, 1997). The combination of change frequency and change intensity demonstrates the relative dynamism, or the spectrum of static to dynamic environments (Burns & Stalker, 1961). In dynamic environments, there may be constant innovation in technology, shifting customer demands, and/or continuous competitor turnover.

Dynamic environments on their own may not be worrisome; it is the predictability dimension of environments that can stress organisations (Tung, 1979). Turbulence that is cyclical or linear can often be managed without changes to organisational design archetypes, as the organisation should already be designed to cope with predictable environments. It is the unpredictable environmental turbulence that can ‘jolt’ an organisation into change. An environmental jolt can be defined as a sudden change in an organisation’s environment that requires a response (Laughlin, 1991).

2.5 Organisational Response to Environmental Turbulence

It is well accepted that environmental changes have effects on organisational design, strategy, performance, and welfare (Aldrich & Pfeffer, 1976; Child, 1972; Forte, Hoffman, Lamont, & Brockmann, 2000; Laughlin, 1991); however, it is the extent to which the environment can affect change that is widely disputed in the literature. This section will review the literature on organisational change in response to environmental turbulence. First, an organisation’s resistance to change, or inertia, needs to be explained, as it is a major tenet or concept in most organisational change theory.

2.5.1 Inertia

The physical sciences define inertia as an object’s resistance to change direction or velocity, or its momentum (Zare, 1988). Organisational theorists have adopted this term to signify an organisation’s momentum as it resists change in strategy (D. Miller & Friesen, 1980b). Gresov, Haveman, and Oliva (1993) found fourteen internal antecedents of inertia while modelling how organisational inertia affects an organisation’s ability to respond to competitive pressure. Gresov et al. (1993) noted that the manifestation and magnitude of the variables determine the speed at which an organisation can change. These internal variables

can be related to elements of organisation design - such as mission and perception of change reflect the interpretive schemes; structure complexity and formalisation reflect design archetypes; and, organisational size and technological capabilities reflect sub-systems.

External variables can also cause and maintain organisational inertia. These can include legal and fiscal barriers to entry and exit, cost of acquiring new information about the environment, and legitimacy constraints (Hannan & Freeman, 1977). Alternatively, some theorists conclude that organisations will continue on an inertial path until environmental turbulence forces strategic change. Huff, Huff, and Thomas (1992) define inertia as management's level of commitment to the current strategy, and further discuss that an environmental shock is the primary antecedent for organisational change. For example, the World Rugby Corporation signed players to professional contracts in 1995, pressuring the IRB and its union members to professionalise in order to remain competitive internationally. England's NGB first instituted a moratorium on change, thus reflecting inertia, but finally acquiesced to pressures for change when it adopted professionalism (O'Brien & Slack, 2003).

Furthermore, Kelly and Amburgey (1991) used the deregulation of the airline industry in 1978 to empirically illustrate their model of organisational inertia and momentum in relation to changing environments. They found five organisational responses. First, environmental change does not always increase the probability of a strategic response by an organisation. This has been the case with the majority (107 of 118) of rugby NGBs that have remained amateur in spite of the professional era. Second, older organisations typically have more inertia and are less likely to change than newer organisations. Third, organisational size does not relate to responsiveness to environmental changes. Fourth, organisations are more likely to repeat strategic shifts they have incorporated in the past. Finally, organisational change in response to environmental turbulence may not always contribute to organisational failure, as other factors may be more significant (Kelly & Amburgey, 1991).

Research has shown that even organisations with high inertial tendencies can change in response to environmental turbulence, such as rugby's journey from 150 years of amateurism to professionalism (O'Brien & Slack, 1999; Skinner et al., 1999). The focus of this study was not if an organisation could change, but the nature, extent, and process of organisational changes, all of which is obviously influenced by levels of inertia.

2.6 Organisational Change

Organisational change encompasses four main themes: process, content, context, and criterion (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Process is the action required to manifest the change (Galpin, 1996; Kotter, 1995) or the route change takes through the organisation (Laughlin, 1991). Content is the substance of the organisation change, or the conditions and factors that play a role in effecting change (Burke & Litwin, 1992). Context relates to the internal and

external environment, forces and conditions in which the change occurs (Haveman, 1992; Kelly & Amburgey, 1991). Finally, criterion are the outcomes caused by change (Judson, 1991). To encapsulate, process refers to ‘how’ an organisation changes, context and content both relate to ‘why’ organisations change, and criterion relate to ‘what’ changes within the organisation.

2.6.1 How Organisations Change

A review of the literature on the process of organisational change, or how the interpretive schemes and design archetypes shift in response to environmental turbulence, presented two main themes: (1) how to lead and implement change; and, (2) how the organisation responds to environmental change. The present study is concerned with the second body of literature, although the first theme could add another level of ‘who’ to the proposed model. For example, Wagstaff, Gilmore, and Thelwell (2015) investigated individual employee responses to repeated organisational change in elite sports. They found both positive and negative perceptions and behaviours occurred in employees when faced with change, but that repeated change fostered more negative perceptions and behaviours, and discussed the need for change leaders to facilitate a better change process. Wagstaff et al. concluded with a discussion about the insufficiency of current stage-based change models for exploring the complexity of human factors in change events. Adding the ‘who’ level to the model presented in this thesis would add too much complexity at this time, however could be a future direction of model evolution stemming from this research.

Acknowledging that organisations have their own complexity and inertia, Oliver (1991) identified five strategic responses to field-level pressures to change. Each escalating response demonstrates an increase in resistance to change. First, ‘acquiescence’ is the unquestioned acceptance of pressure to change by imitating other institutions or following norms. Second, ‘compromise’ is negotiating with stakeholders or accommodating constituents. Third, ‘avoidance’ is concealing nonconformity or changing vision. Fourth, ‘defiance’ is dismissing the new logics or challenging the source and requirements of pressure for change. Finally, ‘manipulation’ is forming coalitions or controlling constituents. However, while Oliver’s typology offers some understanding of different levels of response, it did not offer the present study the rigorous framework to test differences between NGBs.

Alternatively, Laughlin’s (1991) typology of organisational responses to environmental disturbances offered solid compartmentalisation (separation of mechanisms for analysis) of ‘how’ organisations respond, contributing four basic outcomes of rebuttal, reorientation, colonisation, and evolution. This empirically testable output lends itself well to building a research framework. Laughlin’s model comprises similar terminology and concepts as the organisational design Canadian NSO studies, allowing association between the two theoretical bases in developing a conceptual framework for the present study. Hence, Laughlin’s (1991) model was utilised in this study to examine and compare the processes, or

'how,' the NGBs changed strategy. Laughlin's main theoretical premise is that organisations stay in a state of inertia until disrupted by an environmental jolt that requires a strategic response. Further, managers typically attempt to keep the interpretive schemes, design archetypes, and sub-systems in equilibrium. The jolt causes internal imbalance requiring the organisation to re-establish equilibrium. The model includes four types of organisational responses. The first two are rebuttal and reorientation, and are classified as first order changes because the interpretive schemes are maintained. Colonisation and evolution are classified as second order changes because they incorporate fundamental changes to the organisation's interpretive schemes. Each of these responses is detailed below.

Rebuttal. Rebuttal occurs when the organisation absorbs the environmental disturbance without lasting changes to any of the sub-systems or design archetypes. Figure 2.3 depicts this type of change. The bold arrows illustrate the direction of the change process, and the thin arrows represent equilibrium. Design archetype 1A is temporarily developed to absorb the environmental jolt; however, the organisation reverts to design archetype 1 soon after equilibrium is restored. Organisations with high inertia are more likely to use rebuttal in reaction to a jolt (Laughlin, 1991).

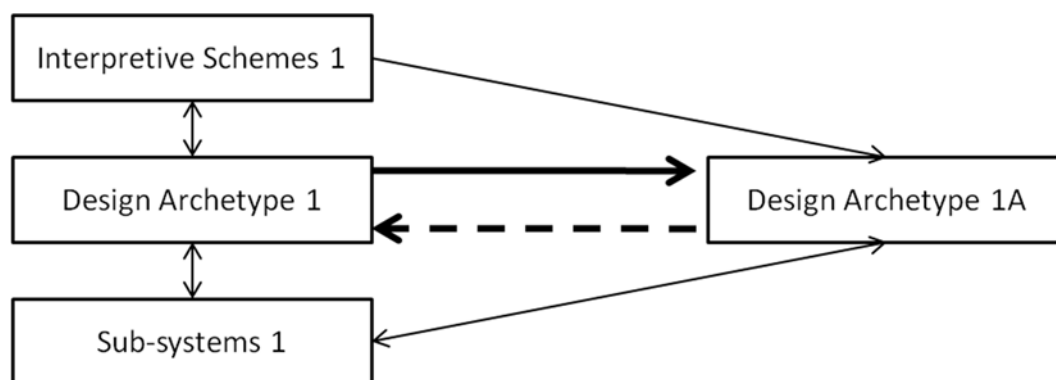


Figure 2.3 Laughlin's rebuttal model.

Reorientation. Reorientation occurs when the environmental disturbance must be accepted; therefore, a permanent change occurs in the design archetype. Figure 2.4 illustrates that the original design archetype may go through several iterations (1A, 2A, etc.) before equilibrium is achieved and the organisation settles on a final design archetype. Changes to design archetype are accommodated by changes to the sub-systems. The interpretive schemes of the organisation stay in place and the underlying structures and systems are made to fit with the current logic (Laughlin, 1991).

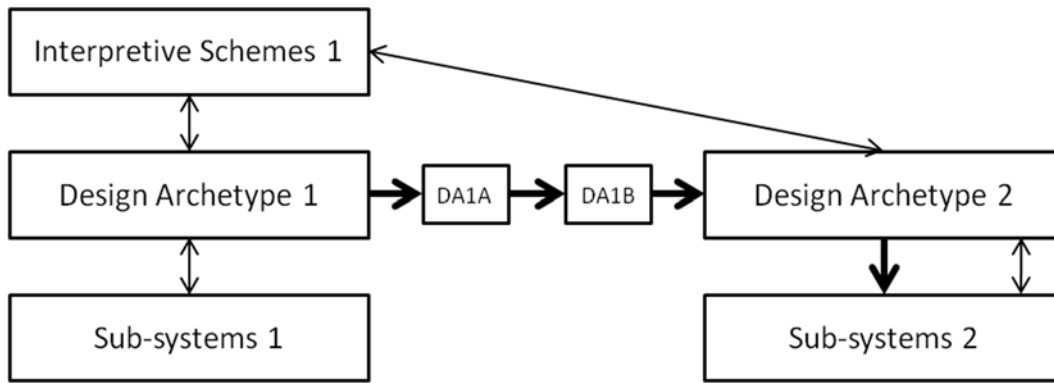


Figure 2.4 Laughlin's reorientation model.

Colonisation. Colonisation occurs when an organisation is forced to change due to an external pressure or internal directive in response to institutional pressure for change (see Figure 2.5). Changes first occur at the design archetype level, but result in a shift in the interpretive schemes of the organisation to achieve equilibrium. The sub-systems are modified to cope with the new design archetype (Laughlin, 1991).

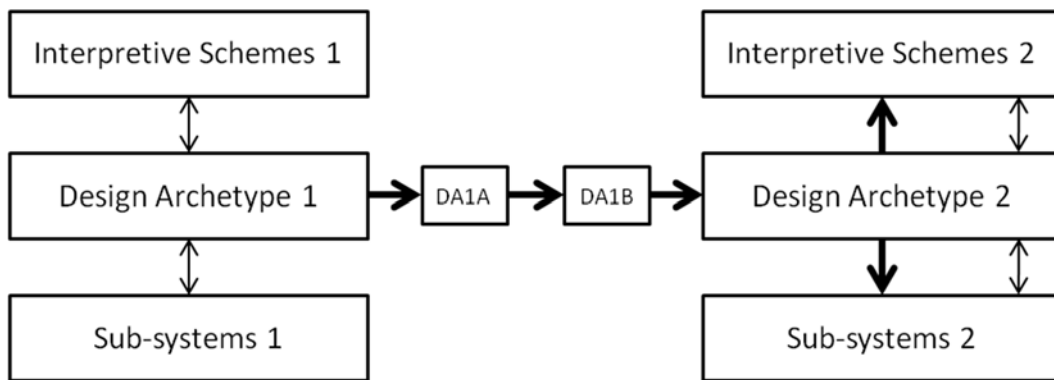


Figure 2.5 Laughlin's colonisation model.

Evolution. Evolution occurs when an organisation freely changes its strategic direction in response to the environmental jolt. As shown in Figure 2.6, new interpretive schemes are internally agreed upon, and then that logic is used to create new design archetypes and sub-systems. It is considered to be the most desirable form of second order organisational change, because the organisation actively and willingly shifts its interpretive scheme (Laughlin, 1991).

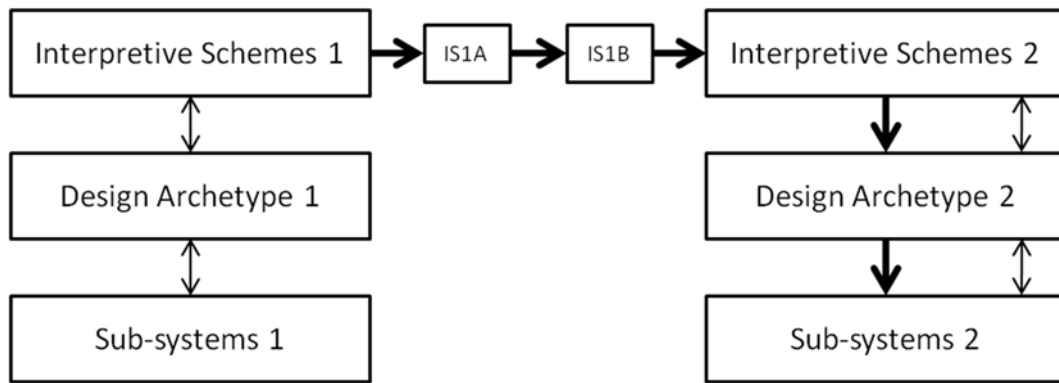


Figure 2.6 Laughlin's evolution model.

The first study to use Laughlin's organisational change model in a sport management setting was Skinner et al. (1999) who investigated the effects of professionalisation on the Queensland Rugby Union (QRU) in the mid-1990s. Skinner et al. demonstrated that different levels of an organisation could exhibit different types of change. In this case, the elite level of QRU evolved its structure to accommodate the environmental pressure to professionalise. The local club level of the QRU rebutted and retained amateur values, structure, and management. Skinner et al. noted the largest limitation of Laughlin's model – its inability to explain why the changes took place.

Zakus and Skinner (2008) revisited Laughlin's model to show changes in the International Olympic Committee (IOC) over three decades. Zakus and Skinner demonstrated that the IOC went through several stages of change. Starting in the 1980s, the IOC rebutted commercialisation, but eventually reoriented as external pressure mounted. In the 1990s, the IOC went through a colonisation in response to the Salt Lake City Olympic bid scandal – it was forced to change interpretive schemes due to the backlash of bribery allegations. In the 2000s, the IOC voluntarily began an internal discussion on the future of the organisation, resulting in an evolutionary change that reshaped the design archetypes and sub-systems from the top down. Similar to Skinner et al.'s (1999) study on the professionalisation of rugby in the QRU, Zakus and Skinner demonstrated that different levels of the organisation could change in different ways. In this case, organisational inertia was evident as the IOC fragmented with certain groups forming alliances to return to a past design archetype. This validates that organisations can regress in Laughlin's model (design archetype 2 back to design archetype 1).

These studies have established that the Laughlin model has value as a guide to conducting empirical research. Laughlin states the models are, "intentionally embryonic and skeletal requiring detailed case studies to amplify their nature" (1991, p. 211). One area that has not been empirically researched is how the same environmental jolt can affect change differently in different organisations within a specific sector. This study utilised Laughlin's model to examine the change process – 'how' the organisation responded to an

environmental jolt. The major limitation, as noted by Laughlin and verified by Skinner et al. (1999), was the inability of the model to explain ‘why’ the organisation under investigation responded in a particular way.

2.6.2 Why Organisations Change

There are many schools of thought explaining why organisations change, including population ecology, resource dependence, institutional theory, complexity theory, contingency theory, and strategic choice, among others. There is also a plethora of differences and similarities in each of these approaches, but a common theme derived from the review of literature was the amount of control the organisation has over its environment, and vice-versa. Figure 2.7 illustrates where many of these approaches fall on a continuum, depending on the extent to which the theory posits that either the environment or the organisation has control. It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to thoroughly detail each of these, so only a brief description will be provided of eight well-established theories. However, a review of the literature has revealed concepts from institutional theory may offer the most appropriate viewpoint to understand why organisations change in response to environmental jolts. This section will begin with a concise review of each theory in the environmental-organisational control continuum. Finally, institutional theory will be discussed and justified for selection as an element in the conceptual framework for this study.

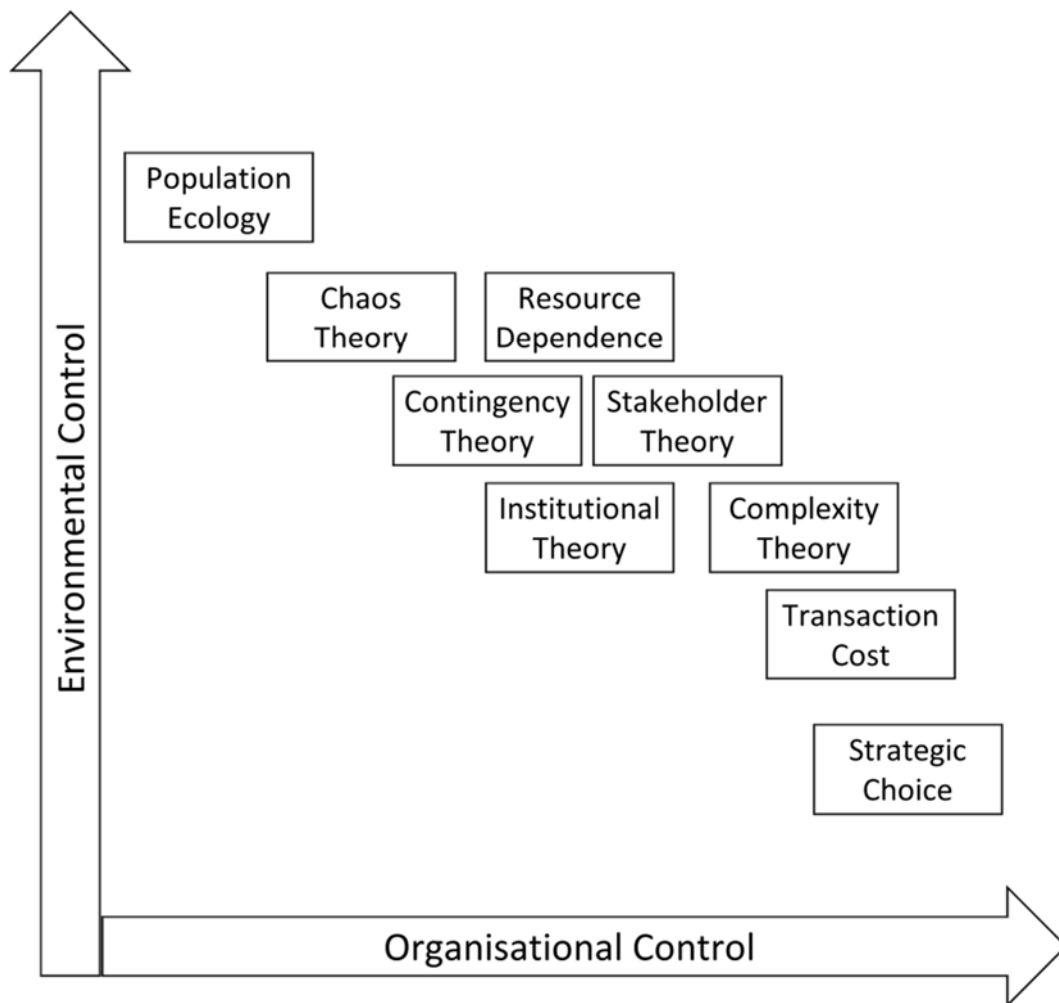


Figure 2.7 Environmental-Organisational change continuum of control.

Population Ecology. Population ecologists theorise that the environment has control over the lifespan of an organisation by selecting those organisations that best fit with environmental conditions (Aldrich & Pfeffer, 1976). Under this construct, organisations have limited control or influential power over the environment’s selection of organisations. This assumption is contrary to the strategic choice theory (or adaption or functionalist perspective) on the opposite end of the environmental-organisational change continuum, which posits that organisations actively examine the environment for threats and opportunities and then change strategic direction accordingly (Parsons, 1956). The difference, according to Hannah and Freeman (1977), is that population ecologists believe structural inertia limits the ability of organisations to adapt. Hannah and Freeman suggested that organisations are unable to change due to large inertial forces from both internal and external conditions; therefore, the environment selects the better fitting organisations.

Critics of population ecology have identified two main issues that may have direct consequences if population ecology theory underpinned this study. First, Young (1988) discussed the vague use of the term “species” when referring to organisations as a collective group. Population ecologists discuss groups or populations of organisations, and their ability

to survive. However, this does not allow researchers to distinguish between organisations to discuss their specific differences – a critical point to this present study. Second, population ecologists emphasise environmental power and too readily dismiss strategic choice. Critics, such as Astley and Van de Ven (1983), noted that population ecologists minimise the ability of organisations to make decisions and change their strategic direction in spite of inertial constraints. Therefore, population ecology limited this study's ability to examine organisational adaptation.

Strategic Choice. Strategic choice theory opposes population ecology in terms of environmental versus organisational control. Child (1972) discussed the need to extend strategic choice to the context surrounding the organisation by examining how organisations can influence and change their environments. Three flaws arise from critical evaluation of strategic choice theory. First, Aldrich (1979) argued that strategic choice understates the role of the environment by placing too much value on the decisions of organisations. Organisations may not have absolute power to influence or change their environment. Second, strategic choice is constrained by the abilities of organisational decision makers. Aldrich (1979) noted there is a large flaw in assuming people in each organisation can first choose between the environment and the perceived environment, and then make the best decisions for the strategic direction while at the same time ignoring internal and external pressures. Many NGBs are amateur and volunteer based organisations, frequently managed by time-poor volunteers. Moreover, many NGBs are without qualified or specialised staff capable of assessing the environment and making effective strategic decisions. Third, the strategic choice approach de-emphasises the impact of organisational inertia, by assuming strategic decisions actually have the ability to be executed. It has been empirically demonstrated by Skinner et al. (1999) that the Queensland Rugby Union was unable to overcome the organisational inertia towards an amateur ethic in all levels of the organisation. While strategic choice may offer a higher level of understanding of organisational change than population ecology from the perspective of this study, its limitations made it an unacceptable choice for this study.

Chaos Theory. Chaos theory is the study of nonlinear dynamic systems (Kiel & Elliott, 1996). Chaos theorists have shown that even slight variations in initial environmental conditions cause unpredictable results for organisations (Levy, 1994). A sensible analogy provided by Levy (1994) is comparing strategic planning to weather prediction. There are many environmental conditions that may instigate a change in the weather. Continually measuring and adjusting forecasts is a tedious process, and even with the best weather predicting resources, the forecasts may only be trusted for the short term, and never the long term. Therefore, an organisation's long-term welfare may be at the mercy of its environment, especially the initial environmental conditions in which the organisation's strategy was formulated.

Chaos theory could have been helpful in this study because it broadens understanding through primarily qualitative methods, as opposed to predictive, quantitative methods (Gregersen & Sailer, 1993). One of the principal limitations of chaos theory is also its principal tenet – that it can only be used for understanding the world as unpredictable, and that it is impossible for organisations to predict or control the destination of strategic plans. In this study, there may be some chaos in the rugby environment, especially with the onset of the Olympic era. Nevertheless, there has been a history of generally predictable results from rugby unions (and other types of sports) engaging in specific behaviours, and those behaviours have been disseminated through isomorphic processes in the attempt to control future outcomes. Chaos theory provides an interesting viewpoint and discussion on organisational behaviours in a dynamic environment; however, it fails to provide a systematic framework in identifying and, more importantly, comparing rationales for why organisations change in specific ways.

Complexity Theory. A variation of chaos theory is complexity theory. Both are based on the same line of thought, that:

Modern complexity theory suggests that some systems with many interactions among highly differentiated parts can produce surprisingly simple, predictable behaviour, while others generate behaviour that is impossible to forecast, though they feature simple laws and few actors. (Anderson, 1999, p. 217)

The main difference exists in the mathematical models developed to study complex and dynamic systems. Where chaos theory is predominantly a tool for understanding utilising qualitative methods, complexity theorists use primarily quantitative methods. Complexity theory may have had a place in this study as it could have provided the systematic framework that chaos theory lacks, but it was not utilised in this study due to the quantitative analysis of the relationships between every variable. The current study focussed on developing a qualitative understanding, rather than breaking down a complex system.

Transaction Cost. The transaction cost approach deems efficiency as the primary source of organisational decisions. For transaction cost to work properly in an organisation, humans need to be bounded by rational thinking and opportunism (Williamson, 1981). Williamson (1981) argued that a truly rational viewpoint would see all organisations simply contracting with other organisations in the pursuit of self-interest. However, humans are also bound to opportunism, where untruthful people within organisations may take advantage of simple contracts. Therefore, the transaction cost takes into consideration not just the exchange of goods and services, but also the uncertainty in fulfilling those exchanges.

In regards to organisational change, when new actors enter an organisation's environment new transactions are required. Organisations may choose to adapt their

structures in order to efficiently entertain these new transactions (Roberts & Greenwood, 1997). On the surface, transaction cost theory may have been helpful to this study, however two substantial issues limited its utility for the present research: 1) it falls short of explaining why some transactions are preferred over others with similar costing; and, 2) it dictates that efficiency lies at the core of each transaction decision, which may have merit in some industries (e.g. supply chain) but has not been proven in the sport industry (Sam, Batty, & Dean, 2005).

Stakeholder Theory. Freeman is generally credited with formalising stakeholder theory in 1984, and he defines stakeholders as entities who can affect, or are affected by, the accomplishments of organisations. Moreover, stakeholders have the power to enact change in an organisation because they hold power to affect organisational performance (Freeman, 2010). Stakeholder-organisation relationships feature three key factors: interdependency, ability to affect or be affected, and rights or interests in the organisation (Merrilees, Getz, & O'Brien, 2005).

While the underpinnings of stakeholder theory are widely used in both academic and practical environments, there is dispute about whether it is actually a theory or just an observation of relationships. Some argue that a theory needs the ability to be empirically tested under constructs, frameworks and/or variables (Bacharach, 1989; Treviño & Weaver, 1999). This highlights the most significant limitation of stakeholder theory's potential application in the current study which attempted to develop a new theoretical map with empirically testable constructs that stakeholder theory cannot provide.

Resource Dependence. Resource dependence proposes that only organisations with the ability to obtain critical resources from the environment can survive, and organisations are interdependent in obtaining valuable resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1987). Furthermore, Pfeffer and Salancik theorised that the patterns of dependence preclude power, and organisational restructuring occurs to manage a power struggle due to organisational interdependency. Managing the power relationship and organisational interdependence becomes the fundamental business duty. A core tenet of resource dependence is constraint absorption, where organisations gain resources by joining with other organisations through such means as long-term contracts, mergers and acquisitions, and vertical integration.

The emphasis on power separates resource dependence from most other organisational theories, with sources of power coming from tangible (e.g. cash, facilities, athletic ability) and intangible (e.g. legitimacy, coaching knowledge) resources (Davis & Cobb, 2010). However, resource dependence has not often evolved or been elaborated through empirical research. One example in sport management was the use of resource dependence theory by Filo, Cuskelly, and Wicker (2015) to discuss how an environmental jolt of a natural disaster affected resource utilisation and power relations in community clubs. They explored three concepts: 1) what entities provided resources; 2) the impact of the

use of those resources on the relationships; and, 3) the power relations between the clubs and resource providers. One could visualise how these concepts apply to exploring the Olympic effect on rugby, and may prove to be an interesting discussion. However, the theory fails to provide specific frameworks and concepts that benefit the present study's framework or theoretical output of a new model. In short, resource dependence is too broad.

In addition, a significant issue arises when applying resource dependence to rugby's Olympic journey: constraint absorption is not an option in many sport contexts. For example, the rugby unions of USA and Canada cannot merge to form a North American team to compete for Olympic acclaim. Athletes cannot be contracted or acquired easily due to regulations of citizenship.

Contingency Theory. Contingency theory places significant importance on the environment as it expounds that there may not be one ideal organisational structure, and organisations must adapt in order to fit with external conditions (Drazin & Van de Ven, 1985; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). This suggests that an organisation is uniquely structured to perform within its specific internal and external conditions. Contingency theory has been used often in comparisons of organisational design (Buttermann, Germain, & Iyer, 2008; D. Miller & Friesen, 1977; Siggelkow & Rivkin, 2003), which is a central feature of the present study. Slack and Kikulis (1989), whose works are critical to this study, considered contingency theory:

...a concern with the impact of contextual elements of organisation, such as resource availability and levels of interdependence, on the sequencing and extent to which specific components of a bureaucratic structure emerge in sport organisations, that is missing from most previous studies. Applying some of the approaches of contingency theory to sport organisations could help to rectify this situation and provide us with a richer understanding of the structural nature of these organisations. (p. 182)

Contextual elements are a critical component of this study. For example, the broad and task environments in South Africa may be unambiguously different to those in the USA due to economic, cultural, and political variances. Consequently, contingency theorists would argue that the South African and American rugby NGB organisational structures around Sevens would also be unambiguously different. But what happens if they are very similar? Is one NGB's structure not ideal for its environment? Contingency theory has a difficult time fully explaining why organisations may not attempt to find an ideal fit with their environments as any structural change is wasted if fit is not achieved (Kirkpatrick & Ackroyd, 2003). Further, organisations may choose to instead fit with other organisations in spite of direct environmental conditions.

Institutional Theory. Institutional theory (or institutionalism), takes into consideration both environmental pressures and the organisation's ability to make strategic changes. At the core of the theory are institutions. North (2009) defined institutions as,

...rules of the game in a society, or more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction. In consequence, they structure incentives in human exchange, whether political, social, or economic. (p. 3)

North (2009) further explained that each rule could be supplemented or contradicted by implicit rules taking the form of customs, traditions, taboos, and codes of conduct. It is these rules of human exchange, or interactions, that help dictate the formation of a "dominant logic," or the predominant norms and values in a particular field (Pralhad & Bettis, 1996). Similar to interpretive schemes within an organisation, a dominant logic underpins decisions on field-level interactions and system design through institutional pressures. Institutional pressures force organisations to succumb to the field's rules (Slack & Hinings, 1994). DiMaggio (1991) used an institutional perspective and emphasised the importance of field-level analysis. By examining change in field-level characteristics such as actors, regulations, and capital, the researcher is able to identify dominant logic shifts in the environment and the resulting changing beliefs of organisational leaders (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991).

Organisational fields can be considered complex and highly inertial, where a change to the field, such as a new actor, can have variable results on the field's organisations and require substantial time for adaption (Cousens & Slack, 2005). For example, the introduction of a new actor (e.g. the IOC in 2009) into the organisational field of rugby has resulted in preliminary signs of pressuring NGBs into shifting resources away from Fifteens to Sevens. However, it appears that, at least initially, different NGBs have responded quite differently and at significantly different rates.

As more organisations respond to the new field-level pressures for change, institutional theory would suggest that the remaining organisations must adapt over time or risk becoming competitively obsolete. Eventually, this leads to isomorphism – organisations becoming similar within the same organisational field. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) described three types of isomorphism: coercive, mimetic, and normative. Coercive isomorphism occurs when actors leverage valuable resources or legitimacy to force an organisation to conform to field-level norms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). For example, an Olympic Committee may pressure an NGB into allocating resources to certain programs (e.g. from Fifteens rugby to Sevens) by limiting use of Olympic funding or facilities. Mimetic isomorphism occurs when environmental uncertainty causes organisations to mimic peer organisations that are apparently thriving and legitimate (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Normative isomorphism relates best to the social learning process of diffusion, and can occur in two ways (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). First, formal education and training from outside

constituents can install norms into the organisation, exemplified by the IOC meeting with the IRB to discuss Olympic qualification criteria. Second, field-level networks diffuse norms among similar organisations within the field, as seen by repeated visits of New Zealand's Sevens head coach to train collegiate Sevens coaches in the USA.

This section has described the process of institutional change. In summary, Figure 2.8 illustrates how environmental turbulence can lead to deinstitutionalisation - the release of the dominant logic - of certain aspects in a field. Organisations then respond in various ways, from following norms to challenging them, in a process of "independent innovation" (Greenwood, Suddaby, & Hinings, 2002, p. 60). This model posits that the best innovations to strategy are adopted through isomorphic behaviours – which re-institutionalises the field.

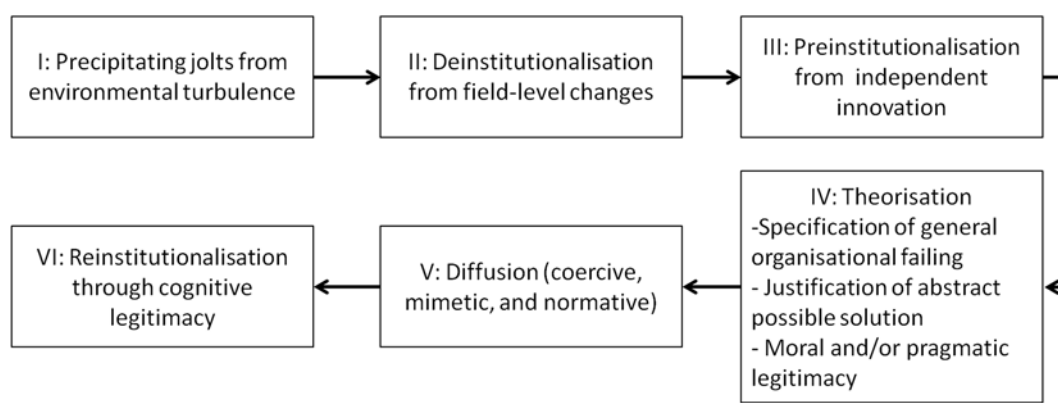


Figure 2.8 Stages of institutional change.

Adapted from Greenwood, Suddaby, and Hinings (2002, p. 60).

A widely explored example of institutional change is that of professionalisation. A literature review by Dowling, Edwards, and Washington (2014) led to a definition of sport professionalisation as "the process by which sport organisations, systems, and the occupation of sport, transforms from a volunteer driven to an increasingly business-like phenomenon" (p. 527). Sport organisations were almost entirely amateur, volunteer led and managed during their inception, but have been reinstitutionalised into professional organisations. Fifteens rugby began its institutional process towards professionalisation in 1995, and Sevens has signs of professionalising since Olympic inclusion in 2009.

Institutional theory thus offers researchers the ability to understand organisational change from both an environmental (field-level) and organisational perspective to answer why organisations change. The organisational field of international rugby may be undergoing a shift in dominant logic, largely from the introduction of a new actor, the IOC, which has opened the field to many other characteristic changes. One line of work in particular, O'Brien and Slack's (2003) use of field-level characteristics in examining professionalisation of English rugby, will contribute to this study's conceptual framework.

Drawing from institutional theory, O'Brien and Slack (2003) examined organisational field changes that developed from the professionalisation of rugby union in England in the mid-1990s. One of the key pressures on rugby union clubs came from the arrival of new actors to the organisational field from professional soccer. The professional soccer model shifted power from the clubs' previously volunteer-based management to new suppliers of revenue, such as club benefactors, media, and sponsors. In order to examine the change in the field's institutional logics, O'Brien and Slack (2003) used four "signposts of change." These field-level characteristics, which signalled a change in logics, were change in: (1) the number and nature of actors; (2) exchange processes and inter-organisational linkages; (3) legitimate forms of capital; and, (4) the field's regulatory structures.

Change in the Number and Nature of Actors. One easily observable field-level change is the number of actors within a field. Actors may enter or exit the field, and a change in the number of actors may signal a shift in field logics if the new actors' nature is underpinned with different interpretive schemes. For example, the IRB altered its nature in the late 1990s by politicking for Olympic inclusion. The IRB was content without rugby as an Olympic sport for 70 years, but a shift in organisational logic in the late 1980s opened the field to powerful new actors - the IOC and other national Olympic committees. The IOC brings previously held logics and now has the opportunity to pressure changes on other organisations in the field.

This characteristic also has direct implications for each of the other signposts of change. Stern (1979) showed that a TV network (new actor) increased revenue (legitimate forms of capital) from television contracts, which caused a strong financial inter-organisational linkage between the National Collegiate Athletes Association and the new actor. This eventually led to new regulatory structures put in place to monitor the prevailing amateur ethos of collegiate sports in the USA.

Change in Exchange Processes and Inter-organisational Linkages. The exchange processes in a field demonstrate how information is delivered, or diffused, to actors within and outside the organisation making the change. Kraatz (1998) described three processes of diffusion: bandwagon, status-driven, and social learning. Bandwagon diffusion is a widespread, disorganized, arbitrary implementation of new organisational norms, as organisations "get on the bandwagon" in order to not miss out on legitimacy and the resources to which they may attain access. Secondly, status-driven diffusion involves organisations mimicking the norms and practices of dominant organisations within the same or similar fields. Finally, social learning is the only process of diffusion that involves information sharing. In social learning, organisational actors network with other actors to facilitate changes through an educational learning process (Kraatz, 1998).

Exchange processes occur among organisations that are linked. These inter-organisational linkages can be identified through two characteristics described by O'Brien

and Slack (2003). The first involves the level of coupling between the actors in the organisational field. A tightly coupled field creates an elastic relationship among organisations – the change in direction by one organisation is felt more by another organisation as their coupling tightens. For example, as the US Olympic Committee tightens its relationship with USA Rugby there is an expectation of the Sevens national team performing better in international competition. If the national team wins an Olympic medal, both the USOC and USAR are more likely to be perceived as legitimised. Organisations may form coalitions to tighten their coupling as a way to seek legitimacy and access to resources.

Second, the multiplexity of ties is more complex and involves the type, number, and duration of inter-organisational links plus the resources exchanged among them. This was evident with the IRB, USA Rugby, USA Sevens (a private corporation), and NBC (a large USA broadcaster). The dawn of Olympic rugby has increased the multiplexity of ties among these organisations. The IRB controls the IRB World Sevens Series, in which the USA national teams compete. USA Sevens owns and operates the USA leg of the IRB World Sevens Series. The Olympic announcement provided the opportunity for USA Sevens to sign a broadcast deal with NBC – which has increased the multiplexity of ties among all actors. USA Rugby leveraged the publicity to grow participation rates and it receives a portion of USA Sevens event revenues, inclusive of broadcast money.

Change in Legitimate Forms of Capital. Capital is not limited to monetary transactions, but rather is any resource deemed valuable to the organisational field (Oakes, Townley, & Cooper, 1998). This can include emotional and cultural capital, such as national pride (Green, 2007). The amount and source of capital injection into or elimination from an organisational field can both signal organisational change is occurring and/or spark organisational change (O'Brien & Slack, 2003). Different forms of capital can often be an antecedent to a power struggle between actors in a field, as they compete for control or access to resources (Winters, 1994). O'Brien and Slack (2003) provided an example of a change in legitimate forms of capital when English rugby transitioned from social capital in the amateur era to financial capital as rugby became commercialised in the 1990s. Broadly speaking, those actors who valued social capital were delegitimised by actors who valued financial capital.

Change in Regulatory Structures. Regulatory structures refer to the mechanisms of governance in an organisational field. Changes to regulatory structures should occur to prevent organisations from gaining an unfair advantage and to facilitate healthy competition among organisations in a particular field (Joskow, 1997). However, coalitions are formed when actors either need to protect vested interests or want to change regulatory structures to gain control of valuable resources (Benson, 1975). O'Brien and Slack (2003) showed a shift

of regulatory power from England's NGB to the rugby clubs after the clubs formed coalitions, in order to protect their access to valuable resources.

O'Brien and Slack (2003) offer great understanding and clear definitions of changes in field-level characteristics emphasised by their discussions of "signposts of change" in the dominant logics of the field. The current study will utilise the same definitions of the four field-level characteristics, but in a different way – to understand *why* organisations in the same sector may respond differently to the same environmental jolt. It is understood that the changes in field-level characteristics are at once a reflection of organisational change and an agent of change. However, each organisation is equipped differently to handle those pressures and may have different performance objectives. Each NGB belongs to a global field, and experiences similar global field-level pressures. In addition, each NGB is embedded in its own national context, and can experience different field-level changes at the national level. This study will examine both the global and national field level changes for three NGBs.

2.6.3 Summary

This section discussed key organisational change theories and models. It was determined that there is no single theory, nor model, that can encompass every organisational change theme of context, content, process, and criterion. However, systematically combining multiple theories, models, and concepts may prove helpful in constructing a conceptual framework to collect, analyse, and interpret empirical data that will guide creation of a new exploratory model. Laughlin's (1991) model of organisational change has been determined as the most appropriate foundation to answer 'how' organisations respond to environmental jolts. The literature review suggested that it is appropriate to use institutional theory as the primary theoretical underpinning for answering 'why' organisations change in response to the same jolts. The next section restates the research objective, aims, and questions and then details the conceptual framework that was used to map the research and serve as a foundation for the development of a new integrated exploratory model.

2.7 The Research Objective

Develop an Integrated Exploratory Model for Organisational Change

The predominant purpose of this thesis was development of an integrated change model to further explore and understand organisational change. As discussed in this chapter, empirical studies and models based in organisational design, institutionalism, and organisational change underpinned the conceptual framework used to collect and analyse data from rugby union NGBs. The conceptual framework was also the foundation for the new integrated change model that could be evolved from the empirical data analysis. The following research aims were developed based on the need to integrate some of the various existing change concepts and models that can be utilised by researchers in many organisational change contexts. Although sport, and specifically rugby, provides the

empirical evidence to inform the new model, the model's utility extends into the general organisational change literature. However, it should be noted that a significant underlying agenda of the researcher was to progress the discipline of sport management. This thesis hopes to contribute to the call from sport management academics that places an importance on theory development as a way to progress the discipline (Chalip, 2006; Chelladurai, 2013; Cunningham, 2013; Doherty, 2013; Fink, 2013).

2.8 The Research Aims

The research objective of developing a new integrated model that assimilates previous organisational change concepts and models produced three aims for the study: 1) what, 2) how, and 3) why changes occur in organisations due to environmental jolts. It was of particular interest to understand the different responses among organisations in the same sector. For the purpose of this study, the sector is international rugby.

2.8.1 Determine 'What' Changed in each NGB

As an organisation changes its strategic direction, the design archetype - structure and management systems that are directed by an organisation's core values (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988) is 'what' changes. This study sought to identify different design archetypes in regards to management of the NGBs' strategies pertaining to Olympic Games inclusion.

2.8.2 Examine 'How' each NGB Responded to the Environmental Jolt

Laughlin's (1991) model of organisational transitions and transformations guided the examination of 'how' the NGBs' respective strategies shifted in relation to the development of Sevens around the Olympic announcement. As found by Zakus and Skinner (2008) in their examination of organisational change in the IOC, an organisation can move through several types of responses and move both forward and backward.

2.8.3 Investigate 'Why' the NGBs Changed

This study took an institutionalism approach to discover and understand 'why' organisations in the same sector might respond differently to the same environmental jolt. An institutional perspective allowed understanding of how changes in field-level characteristics can pressure organisations into change in different ways (DiMaggio, 1991).

2.9 The Research Questions

Research questions were developed to satisfy the research aims, and hence inform the new integrated change model. The main research question was:

To what extent do organisations within the same sector vary in their response to the same environmental jolt?

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were addressed:

- (1) Which field-level characteristics facilitated or constrained pressures for change?
- (2) What was the process of response within each organisation to the environmental jolt?

(3) How were the outcomes of the response manifest in design archetype shifts?

2.10 Conceptual Framework

The review of literature provided three major antecedents for establishing the study's conceptual framework based on the research objective, aims, and questions. The section summarises the rationale of each antecedent, highlighting reasons for encapsulating them into a single model. Distilling these previous works into a single model enables exploration of the 'what,' 'how,' and 'why' of changes within sporting organisations when confronted with an environmental jolt.

2.10.1 Analysing 'What' Changed within Organisations

Design archetype mapping of NSOs, as developed by the research of Greenwood, Hinings, Slack, Kikulis, Thibault, and Amis from 1989 to 2004 (Amis et al., 2002, 2004a; Greenwood & Hinings, 1993; Hinings et al., 1996; Kikulis et al., 1992, 1995a, 1995b), contributed to understanding 'what' may have changed in the focal sport organisations. Figure 2.9 illustrates a reform of the assessment criteria that were originally shown in Figure 2.1. This component of the conceptual framework assists in identifying design archetypes, the organisational structures and the underpinning values. However, although the Canadian NSO research team often used institutional theory to explain why changes occurred, this specific component was limited in this conceptual framework to exploring 'what' changed, and cannot account for 'how' or 'why' those changes occurred.

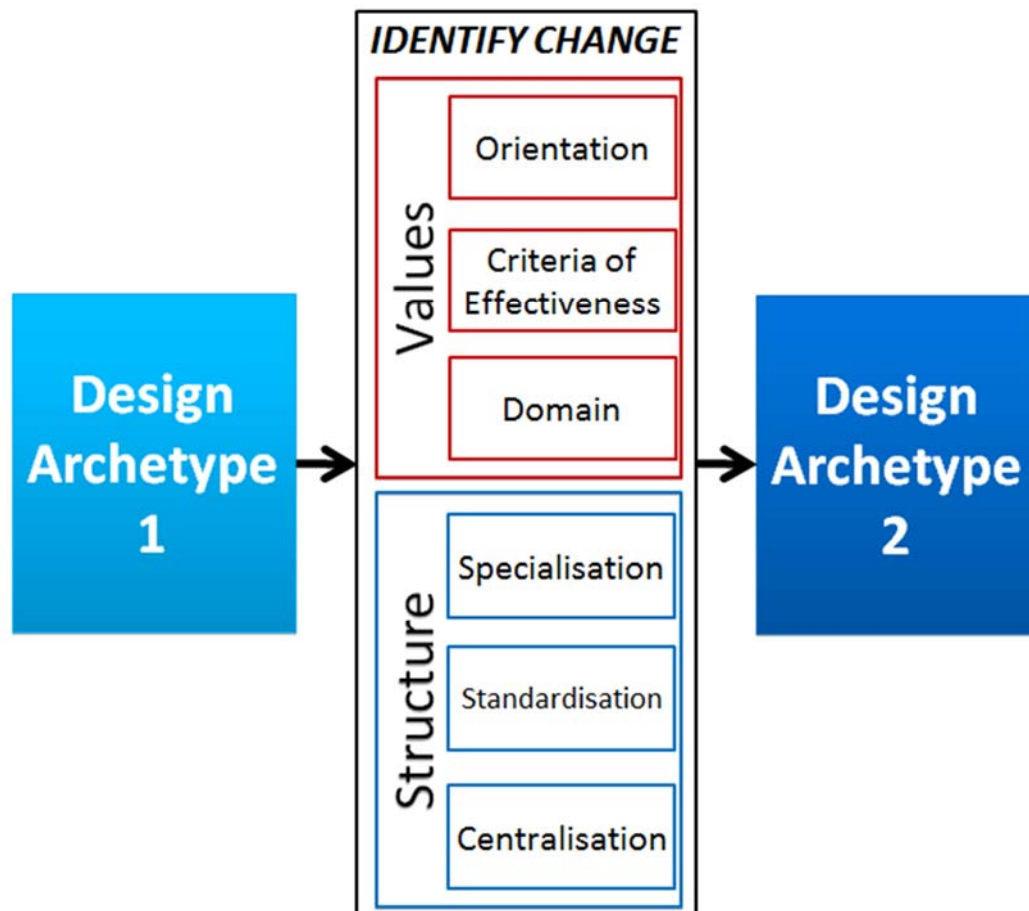


Figure 2.9 Factors in identifying change in design archetypes.

2.10.2 Analysing ‘How’ Organisations Change

Laughlin’s (1991) model of organisational responses to environmental disturbances was employed to show ‘how’ the changes occurred: rebuttal, reorientation, colonisation, or evolution as depicted in Figure 2.10. Skinner et al. (1999) and Zakus and Skinner (2008) demonstrated that this component can assist in exploring ‘how’ sport organisations change; however, this approach needs to be extended to explore ‘why’ those organisations change.

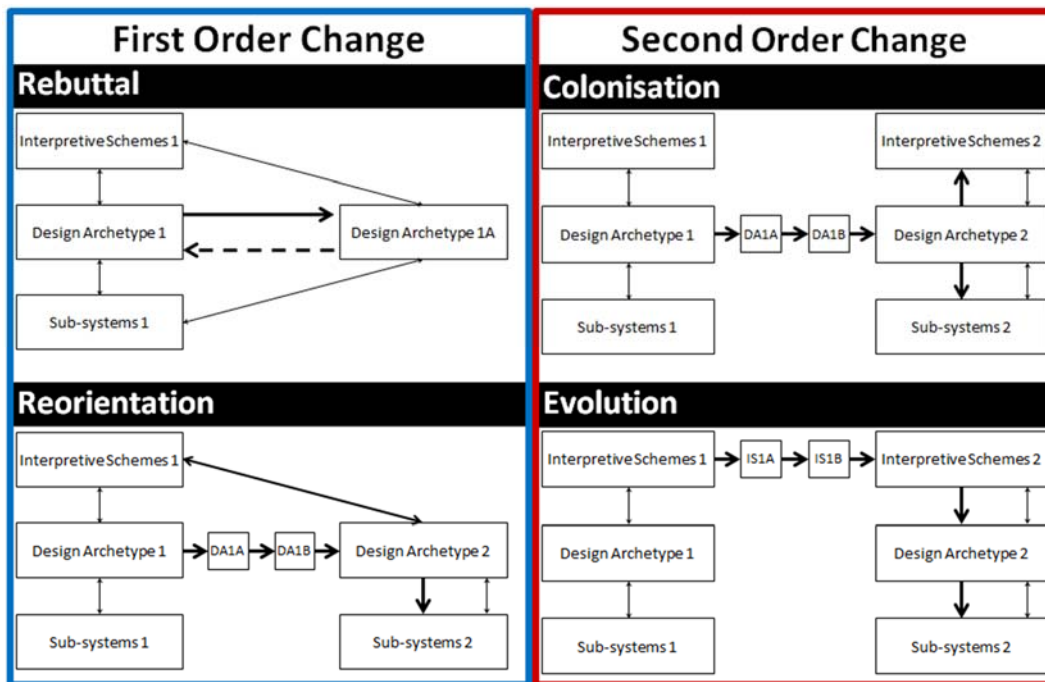


Figure 2.10 Laughlin's organisational responses to environmental jolts.

2.10.3 Analysing 'Why' Organisations Change

Institutional theory has been heavily utilised by sport academics (Washington & Patterson, 2011) and is widely accepted in discovering 'why' sport organisations change or remain the same. In particular, O'Brien and Slack's (2003, 2004) work on field-level characteristics can inform the examination of 'why' changes in sport organisations may occur. This component is illustrated in Figure 2.11. The field-level characteristics, or "signposts of change," encompass the sport organisation, are inter-linked, and act to pressure change. It is the sport organisation's design archetype, as described in the 'what' component, that helps resist or enable the change process depicted in the 'how' component.

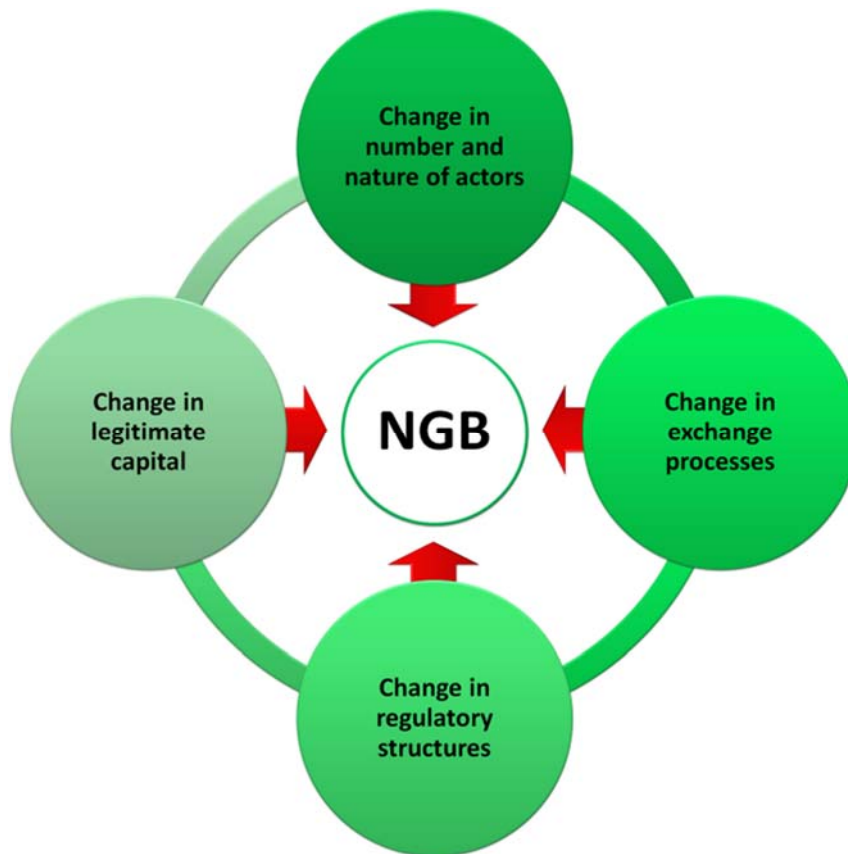


Figure 2.11 Field-level characteristics pressuring change on a NGB.

The study's conceptual framework was an evolution of Laughlin's (1991) models, and with inclusion of specific design archetype nomenclature replacing "interpretive schemes" and "design archetype." Figure 2.12, Figure 2.13, Figure 2.14, and Figure 2.15 shows inter-relatedness of the values (criteria of effectiveness, domain, orientation) and structures (centralisation, specialisation, formalisation). The framework depicts how the environmental jolt introduces changes in field-level characteristics (actors, resources, regulations, inter-organisational linkages/exchange processes). These changes in the field, due to the jolt, put pressure on the organisational balance (depicted by the double-sided arrows). An organisational response to the pressures is required because organisations perform optimally when the values, structures, and sub-systems are in balance.

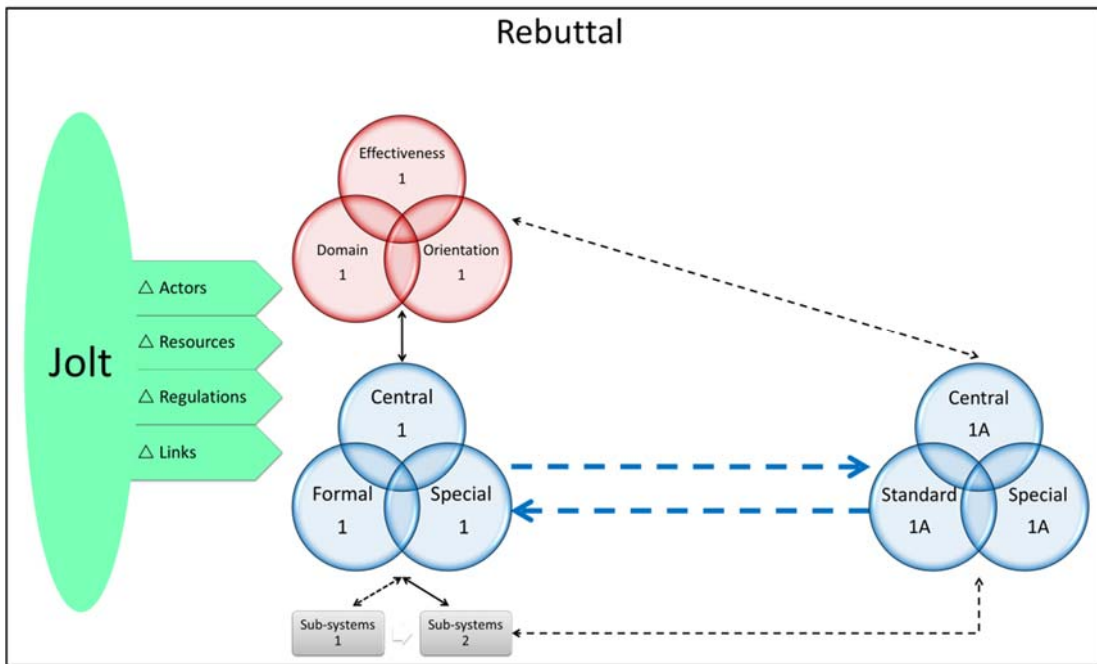


Figure 2.12 New rebuttal model.

Figure 2.12 is the new “Rebuttal” model, based on Laughlin (1991). In addition to the general changes described above, a “sub-systems 2” has been added to signify that although the organisational values nor structures permanently changed, changes to the sub-systems can occur to accommodate new interactions and transactions brought upon from the field-level changes.

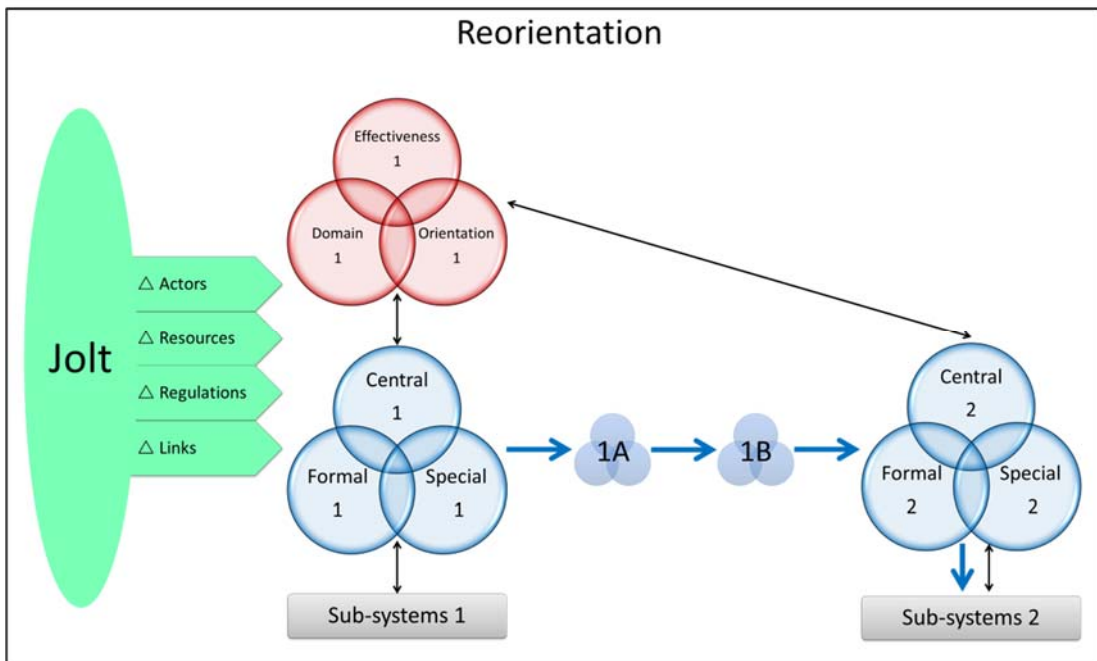


Figure 2.13 New reorientation model.

Figure 2.13 is the new reorientation model. Similar to Laughlin's (1991) description, the organisational values, or interpretive schemes, do not change. In the new model, field-level changes pressure change in centralisation, formalisation, and specialisation. Several iterations may be present (e.g. 1A, 1B) before the structures reach a balance with the organisational values. New sub-systems are continually modified, as directed by the organisational structures, until they reach a balance.

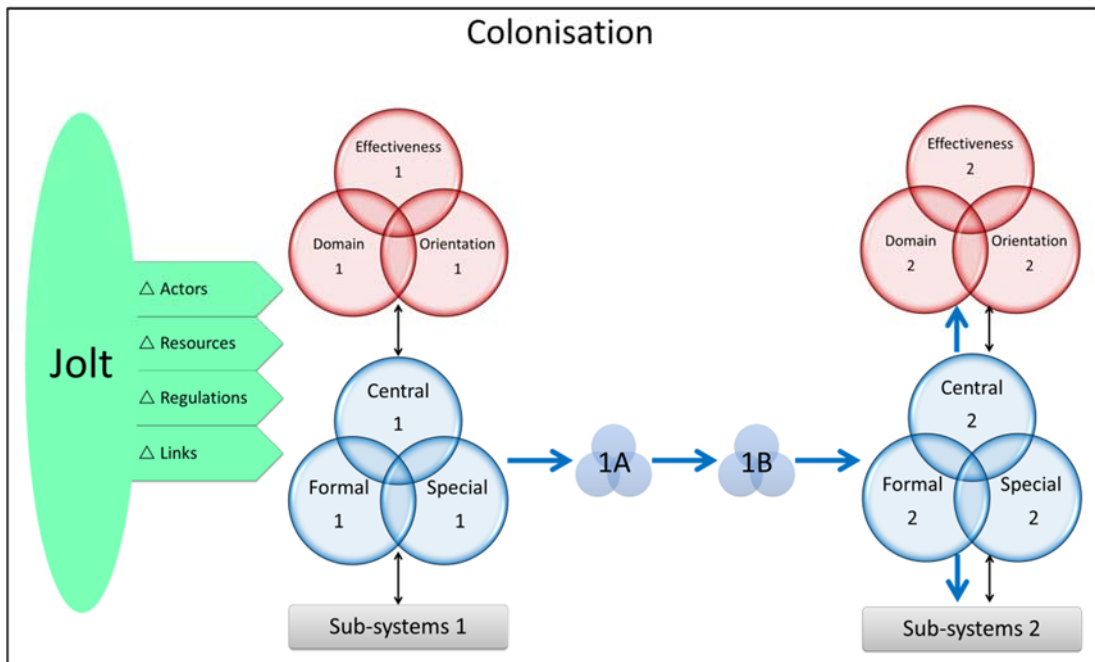


Figure 2.14 New colonisation model.

Figure 2.14 is the new colonisation model. The pressures from the change in actors, resources, regulations, and/or inter-organisational linkages/transactions require such a significant shift in organisational structures that the organisation is forced to change organisational values to balance the system.

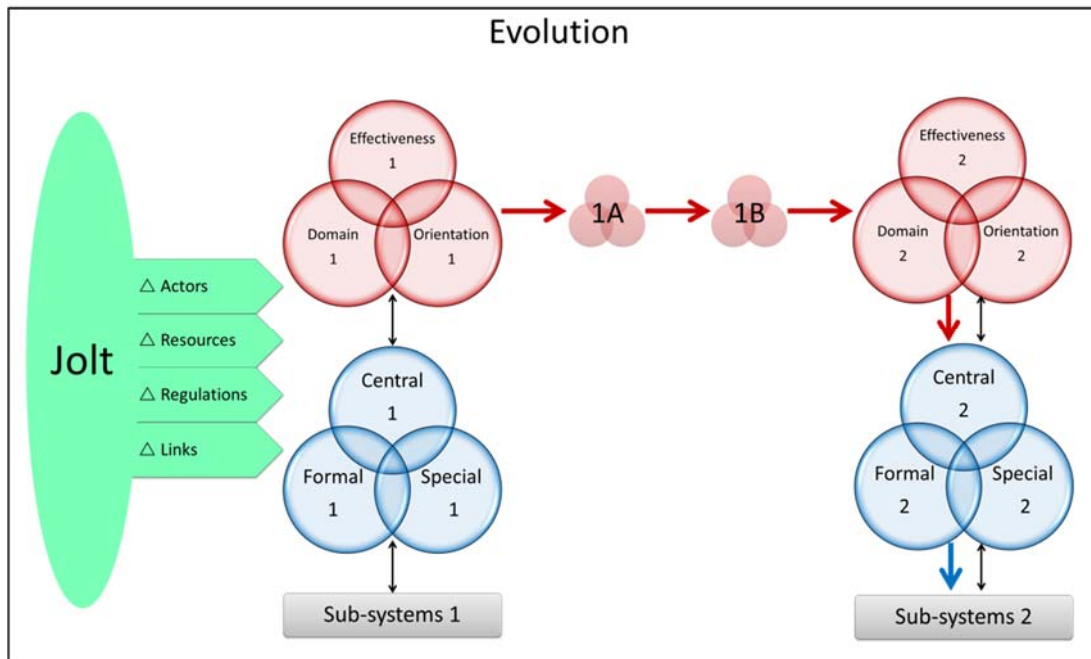


Figure 2.15 New evolution model.

Figure 2.15 is the new evolution model. Here, the organisational values of criteria of effectiveness, orientation, and domain change first. These changes require and direct changes in the centralisation, formalisation, and specialisation of the organisation to achieve balance. New sub-systems are implemented to physically carry out the organisations new purposes.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature on organisational change to develop the conceptual framework for the study. The framework consists of four new models that assisted in collecting, analysing, and discussing the data. Using these four models as a guide, Chapter Four discusses the collection and analysis, while Chapters Five, Six, and Seven discuss the results. Chapter Eight concludes the thesis by unveiling the new model underpinned with this conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH CONTEXT - SPORT OF RUGBY UNION

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Three provides an overview of the sport of rugby union. The chapter begins by outlining the history of rugby, noting previous environmental jolts, and proceeds with a discussion of the development of Sevens. This is important in order to understand the cultural and governance issues each NGB must deal with in responding to a changing environment.

3.2 History of Rugby

Despite the famous story of William Webb Ellis inventing rugby by picking up and running with the ball during a football match in 1823, rugby's true beginning occurred in the 1830s when a student at Cambridge, Albert Pell, formed the first team. By 1845 the game gained enough following that the first laws were written at the Rugby School by Arnold, Shirley, and Hutchins (Marshall & Jordan, 1951). The game continued to develop in the English Public School System and spread into mainstream English society by the 1850s (Dunning & Sheard, 2005). In 1871, the Rugby Football Union (RFU) was established in England to govern the game and enforce its laws. The RFU had created and governed the laws of rugby, but a dispute caused Scotland, Ireland, and Wales to form the International Rugby Football Board (IRFB, now the IRB) in 1886 to regulate the sport. England joined the IRB in 1890 and the IRB adopted and enforced the amateur values set forth from the RFU.

France, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand were the next four nations to join the IRB (IRB, 2011a), bringing the 'foundation nations' to eight. The early 'foundations' laid by those eight nations have cemented them as an integral part of the IRB's governance, with each having two seats on the IRB's Council. Italy, Argentina, Japan, and Canada each have one seat on the Council along with one representative from each IRB region (Europe, Africa, Oceania, North America, South America, and Asia). The foundation nations' 16 seats are the majority (10 remaining seats) and therefore, have the potential to dictate much of rugby's interests and strategic direction. The foundation nations have also held firm over the 127-year history of the IRB, as they remain the most competitive in international competition.

3.2.1 Previous Environmental Jolts

Rugby has endured four previous major environmental jolts prior to that under investigation in this study. The first major environmental jolt was the class conflicts between the northern and southern regions of England in the late 19th century (Skinner, Stewart, & Edwards, 2003). Beginning as early as 1877, working class rugby players from the north of England began demanding payment to compensate them for leaving work early on a Saturday. The RFU held very strict amateur ideals, prompting the formation of the Northern Rugby Football Union (NRFU) in 1895, keeping some amateur values but allowing

remuneration for missing work to play (Dunning & Sheard, 2005). In response, the RFU instigated further laws to protect against professionalism creeping into rugby (e.g. forbidding RFU clubs to play NRFU clubs), thus widening the schism between the north and south of England. Rugby “League” furthered themselves from rugby union by changing the rules, notably reducing players on the field to 13 (versus 15), removing contested ball at the tackle, and introducing a different scoring structure (Williams, Lush, & Hinchliffe, 2005).

Despite a new professional system in place for rugby players, most unions around the world did not challenge the amateur values held by the IRB. Australia was the most notable country to embrace League, attributed by some to the lower class status of the convicts that settled Australia (Williams et al., 2005). As of 2013, League was still more popular than rugby in terms of viewership and participation in Australia. The Australian Bureau of Statistics released a report on 19 December 2012 online (abs.gov.au) stating 1,563,000 and 576,000 people attended League and rugby union matches, respectively. Another form of the game was evolving in the United States, where in 1906 ‘American Football’ introduced the forward pass and began to institute professionalism, thus breaking away from the laws of rugby. Rugby remained in the United States, but only in a few universities and clubs.

The second jolt was early Olympic inclusion and exclusion. Rugby debuted in the Paris Olympic Games in 1900 and was contested three additional times in 1908, 1920, and 1924). Its initial inclusion fulfilled all the criteria at the time: amateur status, played internationally, not played by motorised means, and did not involve handicapping the play. Only three teams competed at the first Olympic Games, France won Gold and Germany and Great Britain shared silver. The United States, represented by the University of California, Berkeley, is the reigning Olympic champion after beating France in the 1924 Gold medal match.

Despite showing popularity among fans with the largest crowds at the Games, rugby was removed from the Olympics after the 1924 Games. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) ended rugby’s inclusion for three main reasons. First was the lack of country participation (3 in 1900, 3 in 1908, 2 in 1920, and 3 in 1924) with France the only foundation nation to compete in all four. Second, was the departure of its main advocate, Baron De Coubertin, from the IOC. De Coubertin was a rugby player and was integral in rugby’s four appearances. His replacement, Count Baillet-Latour was not a fan of rugby. Third, Baillet-Latour led the Olympic initiative to add more individual and women’s sports, and set an agenda to expel team sports (Godwin & Rhys, 1981).

The third jolt occurred in the 1960s when the sport shifted from being player-centric to spectator-centric. Incorporation of leagues and cup competitions occurred due to growing gate receipts followed by the introduction of sponsorship was introduced in 1975 (Dunning & Sheard, 2005). Increased spectatorship led to the introduction of specialised training to

increase competitiveness to attract more crowds. This was seen as a separation from the amateur ethic, where people are expected to play the game purely for fun and recreation (Dunning & Sheard, 2005). Compromises in the amateur ethic were made by the IRB, overlooking the specialised training techniques as long as player were not paid for their services, although some ‘under the table’ payments began in the 1970s and continued until the fourth environmental jolt occurred in the 1990s.

The fourth jolt pushed rugby union into the world of professionalisation. In 1995, the World Rugby Corporation (WRC) signed many of the top international rugby players to professional contracts. A US\$550 million deal between News Corporation and the South Africa, New Zealand, and Australia Rugby Union (SANZAR) was the antecedent to the WRC formation (Fitzsimons, 1996). This caused the IRB to relax its stance on amateurism after resisting professionalism in the first and third jolts.

Professionalisation sent global rugby into turmoil, and effectively widened the gap between those nations with the resources and rugby traditions to cope with professionalism, and those nations that have remained amateur (see Figure 3.1). Only ten of the 118 IRB unions were able to professionalise- the eight foundation nations plus Japan and Italy. This triggered the IRB to formalise three competition tiers based on the level of development and the potential competitive standard. These competitive tiers will be discussed later in this chapter.



Figure 3.1 Rugby World Cup between Tier One and non-Tier One nations.

The fourth environmental jolt affected the way unions have recently dealt with a fifth environmental jolt, the re-inclusion of rugby in the Olympics. Nevertheless, it was not the traditional Fifteens code that has been accepted into the Olympics beginning in 2016, rather it is the 7-aside version, or ‘Sevens.’ In order to better understand the rationale of Sevens inclusion over Fifteens, the structure of the IRB will be discussed.

3.2.2 Current Structure of the IRB

As of 1 December 2013, the IRB governs 101 full member nations and 16 associate member nations and is divided into six regional associations: Asian Rugby Football Union (ARFU), Confédération Africaine de Rugby (CAR), Confederación Sudamericana de Rugby, (CONSUR), Association Européenne de Rugby (FIRA-AER), Federation of Oceania Rugby Union (FORU), and North America Caribbean Rugby Association (NACRA). There are 35 regional nations governed by the regional associations, bringing the total official rugby playing nations to 152 (see Appendix 1: International Rugby Governing Bodies). Table 3.1 provides an overview of statistics for each region.

Table 3.1 Regional association statistics.

	ARFU	CAR	CONSUR	FIRA-AER	FORU	NACRA	IRB
IRB Members	17	15	8	38	12	11	101
IRB Associates	7	6	0	1	0	2	16
Regional Members	4	13	4	9	3	2	35
Total Unions	28	34	12	48	15	15	152
Total Players	289,222	856,927	55,216	3,039,275	522,124	548,245	5,311,009
Total Reporting	11	14	7	47	9	15	103
Ave per Union	26,293	61,209	7,888	64,665	58,014	36,550	254,619

Sources: <http://www.fira-aer-rugby.com> from <http://www.fira-aer-rugby.com/rubrique-21.htm> on 1 Jan 2014 and IRB.COM <http://www.irb.com/unions/index.html> on 1 Jan 2014

Table 3.2 lists the top 10 unions in terms of participation numbers and includes participation rates of each country (players/population). Six notable other countries are listed due to participation rate higher than 3%. Kenya (14th ranked overall participation, but only 0.10% participation rate) has also been included for comparison as it is part of this study. It is interesting that the countries with the highest participants and/or participant rates also perform among the top in international competition, as shown by the world rankings in Fifteens and Sevens (also depicted in Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Top rugby participation nations

Nation	2013 Players ¹	Rank ²	Participation Rate	Final Fifteens World Rank 2013 ³	Final Sevens World Rank 2013 ⁴
England	1,990,988	1	4%	4	6
South Africa	651,146	2	1%	2	2
USA	457,983	3	<1%	19	11
France	360,847	4	1%	5	9
Australia	297,389	5	1%	3	8
Scotland	216,657	6	4%	9	13
Ireland	153,823	7	3%	7	N/A
New Zealand	146,893	8	3%	1	1
Japan	122,368	9	<1%	14	18
Italy	89,835	10	<1%	13	N/A
Wales	79,800	11	3%	6	7
Kenya	43,291	14	<1%	34	5
Fiji	37,570	15	4%	11	3
Samoa	22,617	19	12%	8	4
Tonga	6,560	41	6%	12	17
Cook Islands	2,258	64	15%	46	N/A
Niue	440	87	27%	67	N/A

1. Sources: <http://www.fira-aer-rugby.com> from <http://www.fira-aer-rugby.com/rubrique-21.htm>

on 1 Jan 2014 and IRB.COM <http://www.irb.com/unions/index.html> on 1 Jan 2014

2. Only 103 of 152 unions reported participation numbers in 2013.

3. Source: <http://www.irb.com/rankings/sportid=1/ranking/index.html>

4. Source: <http://www.irbSevens.com/archive/tcode=1270/season=2012/standings.html>

3.2.3 IRB Tier and Band System

The IRB used a tier system when deciding on strategies such as competitive international fixtures, development, funding, and governance. Tier One includes the top 10 unions, including the eight foundation nations plus Italy and Argentina. Only Argentina has not been able to fully professionalise, however they enter a team in the South African professional competition and contract most of their players overseas. Tier Two includes the next level of international competitiveness. All eight of these nations routinely qualify for the Rugby World Cup. Japan has been the only Tier Two union to professionalise, and it is rumoured that Samoa will be promoted to Tier One due to ranking among the top 10 teams in international competition. Tier Three includes the remaining unions. The IRB released a 'band' system in 2008 that recognises development status and competition record, and this band system is used to disperse funding and other resources such as coaching consultations. The High Performance Band includes all of Tier One and Two. The Performance Band includes unions that have qualified for the Rugby World Cup. The Targeted Band includes the high population and large economic nations, and encapsulates the remaining BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) nations. BRICS are deemed emerging international economies on the threshold of being a fully developed nation, and may be

targeted by many international sporting bodies due to population size and their increasing disposable incomes. Finally, the Developmental Band includes the remaining nations. Table 3.3 lists the IRB tiers and performance bands. Note, as of mid-2014 the tier classification system was replaced entirely by the performance band classification, which underwent undisclosed revisions by 2015. This thesis research was conducted during the tier classification period, and hence discussion will take place using the tier classification.

Table 3.3 IRB Tiers and Bands

High Performance Band		Performance Band	Targeted Band	Developmental Band ¹
Tier One	Tier Two	Tier Three		
Argentina ²	Canada ^{2,3}	Namibia	Brazil ³	Barbados
Australia ^{2,3}	Fiji ²	Portugal ²	China	Belgium
England ^{2,3}	Georgia	Russia ³	Germany	Chile
France ²	Japan	Spain ^{2,3}	India	Cook Islands
Ireland ³	Romania	Uruguay	Mexico	Hong Kong
Italy	Samoa ²			Kenya ²
New Zealand ^{2,3}	Tonga			Netherlands
Scotland ²	USA ^{2,3}			Trinidad & Tobago
South Africa ²				Tunisia
Wales ²				Zimbabwe

1. Developmental band showing a selection of countries with Sevens focus and development.
2. Men's IRB Sevens Series core team in 2013-2014.
3. Women's IRB Sevens Series core team in 2013-2014.

3.2.4 IRB Governance

The IRB Council is the pinnacle of the organisation, convening twice a year to provide the strategic direction for rugby worldwide. The Council includes a representative from each regional association, two representatives from each Foundation nation, and one representative from the remaining Tier One nations (Argentina and Italy) plus Japan and Canada. The power sits with the Foundation nations with 16 votes compared to nine votes for non-Foundation nations. Tier One nations have 18 to 7 voting control over Tier Two and Three nations. The demographic make-up of the Council has been questioned by some ethnic and women's groups, with no women and a small representation of non-'white' (a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa) - two Japanese, two Hispanic (but with some European descent), and one Pacific Islander. The lack of female representation may influence the development of women's rugby, and this will be discussed later in the thesis.

3.3 How Sevens Developed into an Olympic Sport

Sevens was first played in Scotland in 1883. It was started as a fundraising event, with the shortened format (seven players a side and 7-minute halves) designed by Ned Haig, a butcher, to accommodate multiple teams in a tournament in a single day. Sevens proved to be successful as a social and fundraising tournament format, spreading throughout Scotland

in the late 1800s and through the British Isles in the 1920s. Despite the shortened code spreading throughout the British Empire in the mid-1900s, it was slow to gain much traction as a serious sport, staying on the fringes as a social code. The IRB took a while to recognise Sevens as an official code until Scotland hosted the first IRB sanctioned Sevens event in 1973 (MelroseRFC, 2008). The Hong Kong Sevens started in 1976 due to the success of that event.

The Hong Kong Sevens was a turning point for the sport. Its popularity began from the numerous expatriates living in Asia who rarely had a chance to see the Fifteens game. The popularity exploded when the nations of the Pacific Islands began to compete with, and defeat, the foundation nations. Soon, the tournament welcomed over 100,000 spectators and was broadcast to over 200 million homes in the 1990s (Starmer-Smith, 2009). Hong Kong, which does not have a ‘typical’ sporting culture in regards to sport leagues, soon hosted one of the world’s most watched sporting events (Vittachi, 1994). Other ex-patriot dense areas, such as Dubai and Singapore, have also used Sevens tournaments to engage expatriates, and their success has been one of the foundations of the current development in the sport.

The IRB introduced the Rugby World Cup Sevens (RWC7s) in 1993 with Scotland, the birthplace of Sevens, hosting. With the backing of the IRB, and the prestige of a “World Cup,” many of the world’s top Fifteens rugby players participated. As expected, the foundation nations and Pacific Island nations were the only real contenders of the 24 teams, with England beating Australia in the final to take home the ‘Melrose Cup’. Hong Kong was rightly awarded the second RWC7s in 1997, but the level of competition had changed in four years as Sevens began to claim its own identity from Fifteens. Sevens ‘specialists’ from Fiji, Samoa and South Africa defeated the top Fifteens players from England, New Zealand, and Australia (Starmer-Smith, 2009), with Fiji winning the Melrose Cup.

The commercial success of the RWC7s, coupled with the IRB’s vision to develop rugby in non-foundation nations, led to the creation of the ‘IRB Sevens Series’ in 1999. Until the IRB Sevens Series launch, most nations played a few invitational tournaments each year (Singapore, Melrose, Dubai, etc.) with Hong Kong Sevens being the pinnacle event. There had not been an official Sevens competition on an annual basis. Sevens was seen as more of an equaliser between the traditional rugby powers and the rest, as proven by the RWC7s and Hong Kong Sevens. Outside of Fiji’s achievements, other upsets included Hong Kong beating Scotland and Japan beating Ireland, neither of which would have been competitive matches in the Fifteens game.

The IRB Sevens Series is a grand-prix style event that began with ten 16-team tournaments hosted on five continents. Points are allocated based on the finishing position at each of the events, with the winner based on total points. Forty nations from six continents competed in the inaugural series (IRB, 2000), with foundation nations competing against ‘rugby minnows’ (e.g. Kenya, China, Spain) in regular matches for the first time in rugby

union's history. Although the foundation nations and Pacific Islands still dominated competition, Sevens was becoming a more global game than the Fifteens code. The occasional upset (e.g. Hong Kong over Scotland) began to occur more frequently. In contrast to Figure 3.1, the point differential on the IRB Sevens Series steadily dropped by 49% from a peak of 23.5 points in 2000 to 12.0 points in 2013 (see Figure 3.2). The increased global competition helped the campaign for re-inclusion in the Olympic Games (IRB, 2009).

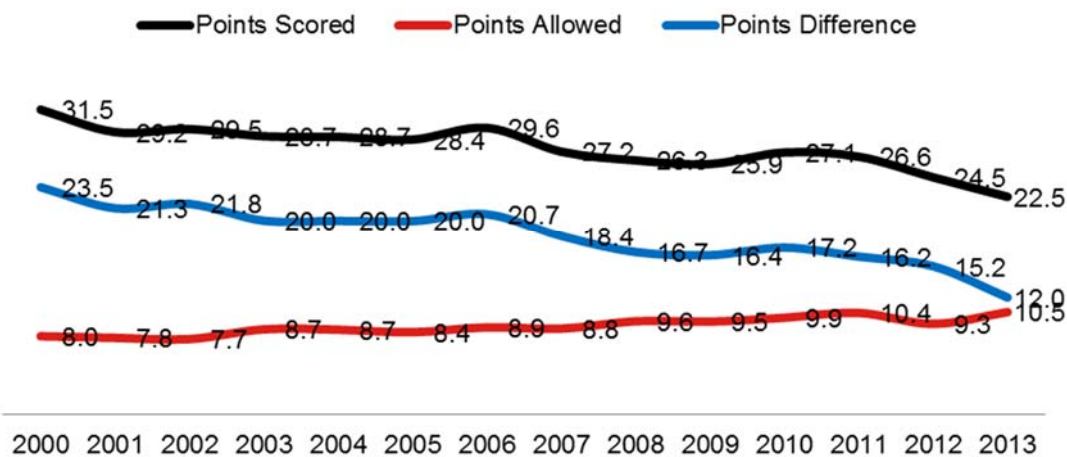


Figure 3.2 IRB Sevens Series Point Differential 2000-2013

Olympic inclusion offers rugby several potential benefits including international attention, funding, and new participants (Green, 2007). It was the latter that former IRB CEO Mike Miller stated during a public address attended by the researcher in 2013 as the main reason for Olympic inclusion, “the IRB wanted to grow the game in all markets around the globe, and the spectacle of the Olympics is the ultimate vehicle to do that.” The IRB’s initial discussions for Olympic inclusion began in the early 1990s, and centred on the Fifteens code.

The main issue facing the IRB with Fifteens was the recovery times between matches for players. The Fifteens RWC lasts six weeks, much longer than the 15 days of the Olympic Games and it would be impossible for the IRB to fit a competitive, global Fifteens competition into two weeks. Another minor point to the IRB at the time, however critical to the IOC, was the lack of global competitiveness. Only about six teams had a realistic chance of winning the RWC in Fifteens, and half of them would combine to field a Great Britain team in the Olympics. Despite these issues, the IRB was lobbying the IOC for recognition based on some rugby NGBs like France and Italy having official membership in their National Olympic Committees. In 1994, IOC President Juan-Antonio Samaranch officially made the IRB a Recognised International Federation. However, discussions of Olympic inclusion was losing momentum as efforts around Fifteens looked futile, and the IRB focused on the professional era beginning in 1995.

By the early 2000s, the turbulence of professionalisation was beginning to calm, and with those changes came a boom in rugby spectatorship and participation, both in Fifteens and on the Sevens. The IOC, which persevered through its own relaxation of amateur values in the 1990s, began to take notice of rugby's growth. In 2001, the Olympic Program Commission recommended that Sevens, and not Fifteens, should be included in the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. The IRB preferred Fifteens to Sevens, but soon realised that Sevens was better suited to a multi-sport format, evidenced by Sevens' success in both the Commonwealth Games (first appearance in 1998) and the Asian Games. Unfortunately, the IRB was unable to satisfy IOC requirements for inclusion in either the 2008 or 2012 Games (IRB, 2013).

The IRB came very close in 2005 (shortlisted) to inclusion in the 2012 Olympic Games, but failed for two reasons. The main rationale from the IOC was the lack of a women's game, and, to a lesser extent, the argument that only a handful of countries are genuinely competitive (IRB, 2009). In response, the new IRB Chairman, Bernard Lapasset, prioritised Olympic inclusion and introduced the women's RWC7s in 2009. Eighty nations competed in the qualifying rounds to earn one of the 16 spots at the women's RWC7s. The IOC was present in Dubai for the 2009 men's and women's RWC7s to witness not only the highly competitive women's tournament, but also to see that the men's competitive gap was closing. Kenya, Wales, Argentina, and Samoa were the men's semi-finalists, with only one foundation member – Wales – that had very little success in Sevens prior to the 2009 RWC7s. Four Olympic qualification regions were represented, showcasing the globalisation that Sevens had enjoyed. Seven months later, the IOC announced that Sevens would have its Olympic debut in 2016.

The IOC conceded that Sevens satisfies the Olympic Charter criteria, specifically from the IRB Website (<http://www.irb.com/rugbyandtheolympics/future.html>) on 30 December 2013:

1. Rugby reinforces the ideals of Olympism, thanks to Rugby's long-standing ethos of fair play and friendship.
2. Rugby Sevens would reach a new and young audience, including Rugby's 3 million players in 116 countries and the tens of millions of fans worldwide.
3. Rugby Sevens does not need a purpose built stadium and would fill an existing stadium, adding an additional vibrant and youthful tone for the Games.
4. Rugby Sevens would extend the number of potential medal-winning nations in what would be a true world championship. Countries that could aspire to Olympic success in Rugby include Fiji, Samoa, Argentina, South Africa, Kenya and New Zealand.
5. Rugby would increase funds to grow the Olympic Movement, by attracting new commercial partners and spectators. At the same time, Rugby would enjoy increased funding and access to facilities from National Olympic Committees as an Olympic sport.

3.3.1 Current Sevens Structure

The IRB has a Sevens Strategic Group to guide the development of Sevens worldwide. The groups consisted of directors from NGBs of Argentina (Chairman), Wales, USA, New Zealand, plus the IRB CEO and Head of Competitions. In addition to the Sevens Strategic Group, a General Manager of Sevens managed the development of Sevens worldwide.

Amateur status of Sevens. Although the Fifteens code has enjoyed a professional environment since the mid-1990s, Sevens was completely amateur until 2008 when South Africa contracted the first full-time men's Sevens squad. Almost every NGB participating in international competition has paid a per diem and expenses for national team members to compete. However, this was usually in the range of AUD50-100 per day while in Training Camp and on tour which typically covers between 20-130 days per year, depending on the athlete. No other union followed South Africa's lead until after the Olympic announcement offered additional resources to rugby unions. Most NGBs had to wait until at least 2012 for the 2016 Olympic funding cycle to begin in order to contract and pay Sevens players. Each NGB in this study had contracted Sevens players at some stage during the study period. For a general context of Sevens 'professionalisation,' Table 3.4 depicts nations that by 2014 had contracted Sevens players and remunerate them either with a professional salary, a government stipend, or a combination. The typical payment is about AUD25,000 per annum, but men are paid as much as AUD100,000 in countries like New Zealand.

It is important to note that only national team players have been provided an opportunity to become 'professional' as there are yet any professional leagues or series in which club players can participate. The only income available to Sevens players outside national team duties are from a few scattered, independent prize money tournaments offering a range from AUD5,000 to AUD75,000 in *total* prize money. Most of that prize money does not remunerate the players, but rather the team expenses. Often the prize money is won by a national team or national development team. There have been several recent attempts at professionalising Sevens outside the national team structure; however, none was noteworthy enough to warrant further investigation in this thesis.

Table 3.4 Nations that remunerate national team Sevens players.

	Men	Women
Australia	Y	Y
Belgium	Y	-
Brazil	-	Y
Canada	Y	Y
China	Y	Y
England	Y	Y
France	Y	Y
Hong Kong	Y	Y
Ireland	-	Y
Kenya	Y	-
Netherlands	-	Y
New Zealand	Y	Y
Portugal	Y	-
Russia	Y	Y
Scotland	Y	-
South Africa	Y	Y
Spain	Y	Y
USA	Y	Y
Wales	Y	Y

Sources: Qualtrics online survey, union websites, and press releases.

*There may be other unions not listed, but information has not been provided or located at time of thesis publication.

Olympic status has allowed women rugby players to be contracted and paid for the first time in history. The majority of funding for women contracts was from government or national Olympic committee funding. As with the men, New Zealand leads the way in women's remuneration, topping out at about AUD30,000 for the top players as of early 2014. The average remuneration package for women is considerably lower than men's in traditional rugby unions (e.g. New Zealand, South Africa, England), but relatively equal in other unions (e.g. USA, Canada, Spain). The number of contracted players typically leans towards the men, for example, the USA has 25 men on contract and only 18 women as of December 2013. Union often justify the remuneration gap by the higher number of competitions in which men can participate.

Competitions. As stated earlier, the RWC7s has to date been considered the pinnacle Sevens tournament. There have been six men's RWC7s since the inaugural event in 1993 and 2 women's RWC7s since 2009. The IRB has announced that the RWC7s will continue every four years; however, the cycle was moved so that it occurs in the middle of the Olympic cycle. The next RWC7s will be in 2018, which now conflicts with the Commonwealth Games, the third level of international competition. Sevens has been in the Commonwealth Games since 1998, becoming a 'core' men's sport beginning with the 2010 Games in New Delhi. A new strategic plan from the Commonwealth Games stated that women's Sevens would become a core sport from 2022. New Zealand won every Gold

medal at the Commonwealth Games from 1998 to 2010, four in total. Appendix 2 lists the unions that have participated in each RWC7s and Commonwealth Games.

The IRB Sevens Series is the top-level annual competition for Sevens. Fifty-five nations have competed on the IRB Sevens Series since its inception in 1999, and only five nations have competed in every tournament (see Table 3.5). Those five nations, with respective wins in parenthesis, Australia (6), Fiji (22), New Zealand (47), Samoa (9), and South Africa (18) plus England (16), Argentina (2), and France (1) are the only nations to have won an IRB Sevens Series Tournament between 1999 and 2013.

Table 3.5 Men's IRB Sevens Series appearances 1999 to 2013.

Australia, 121	Japan, 47	Tunisia, 17	Germany, 5
Fiji, 121	Russia, 41	UAE, 16	Paraguay, 4
New Zealand, 121	Tonga, 41	Singapore, 13	Croatia, 3
Samoa, 121	Spain, 31	Sri Lanka, 13	Guyana, 3
South Africa, 121	Zimbabwe, 30	Morocco, 12	Zambia, 3
Argentina, 118	Hong Kong, 26	Malaysia, 11	Moldova, 2
France, 115	Georgia, 25	Namibia, 11	Peru, 2
England, 113	China, 22	Niue, 10	American Samoa, 1
Canada, 107	Cook Islands, 22	Thailand, 9	Jamaica, 1
Scotland, 94	Korea, 22	Chile, 8	Madagascar, 1
Kenya, 91	Chinese Taipei, 19	Ireland, 7	Netherlands, 1
Wales, 87	Italy, 19	Brazil, 6	Trinidad & Tobago, 1
USA, 84	Papua New Guinea, 19	Mexico, 6	Vanuatu, 1
Portugal, 67	Uruguay, 18	Uganda, 6	

Source: <http://www.irbSevens.com/seriesinfo/aboutseries.html>

The popularity of the IRB Sevens Series had grown steadily prior to the Olympic announcement in 2009, but the announcement caused a large spike that season. Figure 3.3 highlights the Olympic effect as broadcasters began showing the IRB Sevens Series more often and to more markets around the world. There was a 2101% increase in total airtime from 2002 to 2013. In 2013, the IRB Sevens Series was viewed in 390 million homes with a potential audience of 886 million, up from 88 million homes and a 220 million potential audience in its inaugural broadcast year (IRB.com, 2013).

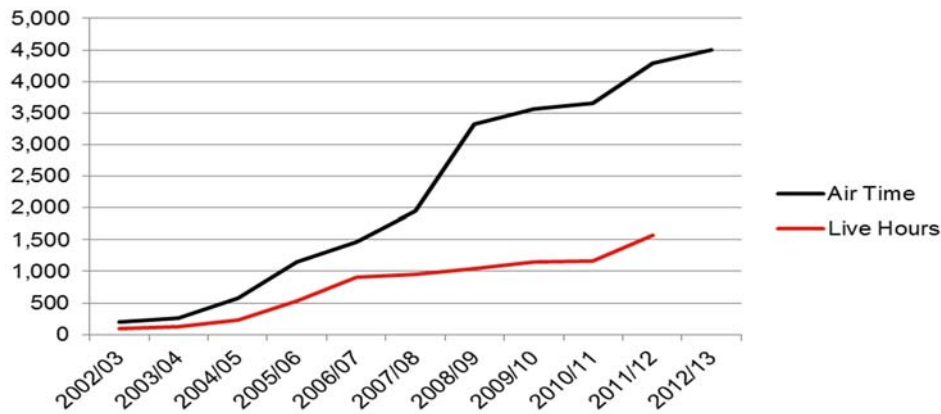


Figure 3.3 Broadcast time of the IRB Sevens Series

Source: IRB.com (2013)

Live attendance also increased from an average of 31,250 in 2006 to 62,498 in 2013. Average daily attendance (each tournament operates over two days) compares favourably with the most popular Fifteens rugby competitions, as shown in Figure 3.4. The Six Nations leads all rugby competitions likely due to the European population density and the popularity of rugby in the northern hemisphere Foundation nations and Italy. The Rugby Championship contests the southern hemisphere Foundation nations and Argentina. SuperRugby is the premier professional rugby competition with teams from the top three IRB ranked nations of New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa.

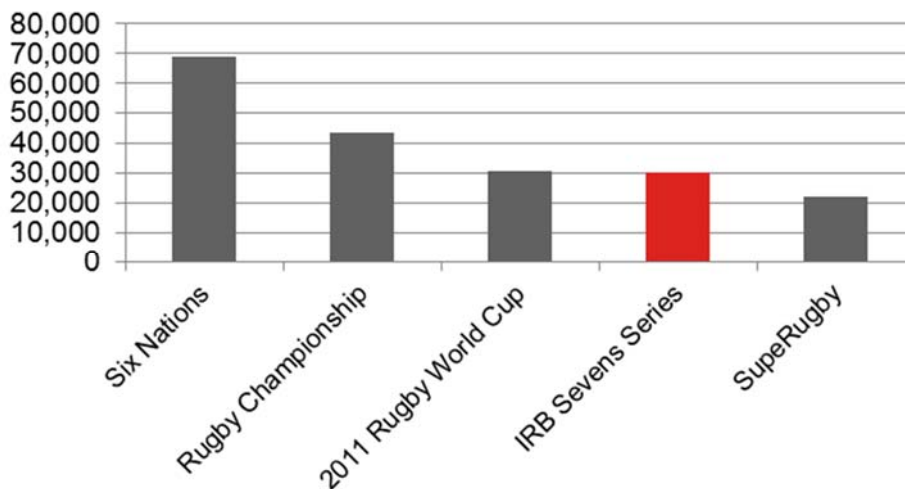


Figure 3.4 Average attendance for a single day.

Sources: IRB.com (2013), RugbyWorldCup.com (2012), Wikipedia (2013)

Women's Sevens competitions often leveraged opportunities from the men's competitions. There were very few playing opportunities for women prior to the 2009

RWC7s and the qualifying events for that competition. On occasion, women national teams or select sides played in unsanctioned invitational competitions on fields outside the men's main competition during tournaments such as Hong Kong and Dubai. The final of the women's bracket was sometimes played within the main stadium during a break in the men's action, providing little opportunity to showcase women's Sevens. It was not until 2012 that the IRB finally sanctioned a Women's Sevens World Series (WSWS).

The WSWS launched in 2012 as a standalone competition, using different hosting sites and dates than the men's IRB Sevens Series. Twelve teams, as opposed to 16 in the men's, competed at four tournaments in Dubai, Houston, Guangzhou, and Amsterdam. The WSWS featured six core teams in the inaugural season that were selected based on regional Sevens rankings and included Australia, Canada, England, Netherlands, New Zealand, and the USA. In total, 18 unions competed in at least one WSWS stop, with Brazil invited to compete in all four events and Russia and South Africa each competing at three. The 2013-14 season was expanded to five host sites, adding Brazil as preparation for the 2016 Olympic Games. The number of core teams was also expanded to eight, which were the top eight teams from the 2013 RWC7s – New Zealand, Canada, Australia, Ireland, USA, Spain, Russia, and England. Brazil attended all five stops as an invitational team despite not qualifying for core status.

Other Sevens competitions worth noting include regional Sevens series, such as the Asian Sevens Series, Euro Sevens Grand Prix, and the South American Sevens Series. Those mimic the style of the IRB Sevens Series, but only allow national teams in the ARFU, FIRA-AER, and CONSUR, respectively, to compete. The other regions of CAR, FORU, and NACRA only offer one regional championship Sevens event each year. Many multi-sport competitions, such as the World University Games and Youth Olympics, now host Sevens.

3.3.2 Summary

This section of the chapter has set the overall global context for Sevens. It has shown that Sevens has evolved rapidly from the initial RWC7s in 1993, but the pace of development has accelerated since the 2009 announcement of Olympic inclusion. Sevens can still be considered an infant code of rugby due to the small number of professional competitions and mass participation across the globe as it continues to linger in the shadows of the Fifteens codes. However, there is mounting evidence that Sevens may progress into a mainstream sport, possibly further separating itself from Fifteens code in non-traditional rugby nations. Sevens has also ignited a global participation and competition boom for women's rugby, with remuneration to women players available for the first time. This background information enabled the researcher to understand critical issues related to the broad and task environments. In addition, the contextual information provides relevant data for case selection in this study. Chapter Four takes up this discussion.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Four describes the research design and methodology. The chapter first describes the post-positivist viewpoint adopted by the researcher to understand how and why changes occurred in rugby. It then discusses why longitudinal case studies were used to answer the research questions, and details the data collection procedures for each of the four case studies. Finally, this chapter explains how the data were analysed and coded.

4.2 Methodology

A chosen research methodology creates the basis for research design, analysis, and discussion. The social science researcher has a wide array of methodologies from which to choose, and each has its own strengths and weaknesses. Burrell and Morgan (1979) described four main paradigms that sociological researchers utilise: radical humanist, radical structuralist, interpretive, and functionalist. Radical humanist and radical structuralist are undesirable in this research due to their underpinnings of radical change, so this dissertation will only briefly define them here. Radical humanist takes root from a subjectivist standpoint and shares many similar views as interpretivists. However, radical humanists desire to achieve human development and change past the conscious constraints placed on themselves from societal patterns (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). In disparity to limits of human consciousness, radical structuralists draw from positivist standpoints but seek to change the structural constraints in society. In contrast, both interpretive and functionalist (or positivist) approaches are the two competing research methodologies considered for this research due to their explanatory underpinnings.

4.2.1 Interpretive

Interpretivists are subjectivists. Interpretivists understand that people interpret the world in their own reality, based on their own values and experiences (Schwandt, 1994). Therefore, interpretivists seek implicit, rather than explicit understanding. There are three main advantages of the interpretivist perspective that may provide a worldview relevant to the present study. First, instead of just explaining what happened, interpretivism facilitates understanding of how and why social phenomena occur (Denzin, 2001). Second, it allows discussion of variations in context and perceptions (Hay, 2011). And third, complex social processes are more easily discussed (Crotty, 1998). However, some believe interpretive research is less credible than positivist research due to the subjectivity of the researcher (Tushnet, 1983). In addition, qualitative data collection and analysis can be very time consuming and complex, with uncertain outcomes (Skinner, Edwards, & Corbett, 2014).

4.2.2 Functionalist (or positivist)

Functionalists desire to provide rational explanations of society, emphasising problem solving (Habermas, 1989). The functionalist paradigm is analogous with positivism due to the very objective viewpoint with firm stances on cause and effect (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The advantages of taking a functionalist or positivist standpoint include focused theoretical application, greater control, easily comparable and generalisable data, and ease of handling large amounts of data (Crotty, 1998; Neuman, 2011). Research outcomes are quantifiable. However, critics of positivism argue that a major weakness is its limitation in understanding social processes and the meanings individuals or groups attach to various phenomena (Crotty, 1998; Edwards & Skinner, 2009; Neuman, 2011).

For most of this researcher's life, the world was viewed through a functionalist or positivist perspective - that most everything can be objectively described, compared and predicted with enough information. The beginning of this doctoral journey began with a strictly quantitative study, but this positivist stance went through a paradigm shift as the researcher, with the guidance of supervisors and other academic staff and students, learned more about the social sciences. In addition, where this researcher disagrees with a totally interpretive viewpoint, he has accepted and adopted more subjective understandings of the world. Therefore, a "post-positive" viewpoint was adopted for this research. A post-positivist perspective enabled the researcher to both objectively compare 'what' changes have occurred among the rugby national governing bodies (through post-positivist roots in positivism) and also include more of an interpretivist view in exploring and explaining 'how' and 'why' those changes occurred.

Figure 4.1 depicts a modified version of the Burrell and Morgan (1979) paradigms, placing post-positivism across the functionalist and interpretive paradigms. The quadrants are based on objective-subjective viewpoints on the x-axis and regulation-radical change view points on the y-axis. The further left on the x-axis signifies a more subjective view of the world, and calls for more qualitative research. The further right on the x-axis signifies a more objective view of the world placing emphasis on quantitative research. Moving up the y-axis signifies an attempt for the research/understanding of the world to cause change. Moving downwards, a researcher attempts research/understanding that 'regulates' or just explains social rules and norms.

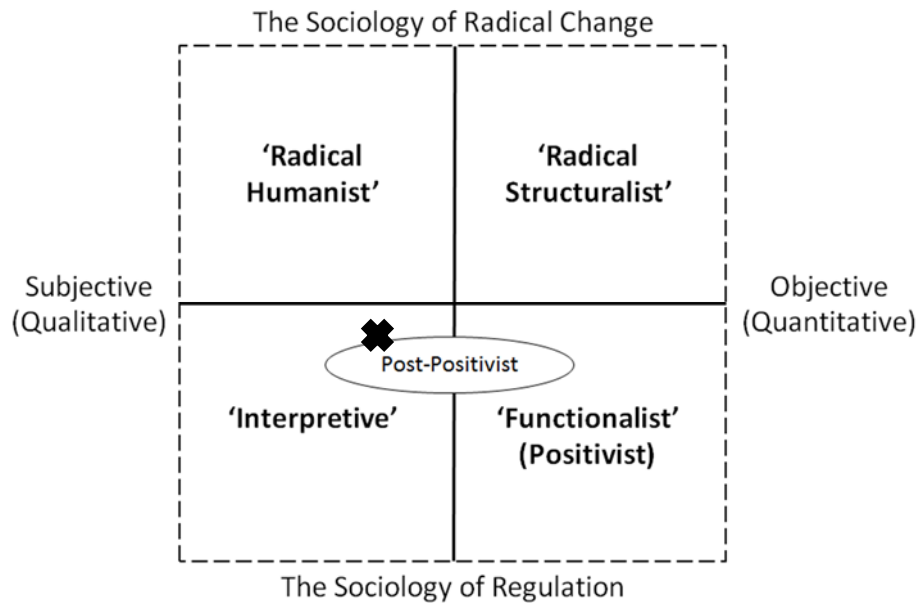


Figure 4.1 Four paradigms for the analysis of social theory.

Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. 23)

Since the present study was entirely qualitative (no quantitative data were collected or analysed), the approach falls in the post-positivist area within interpretive quadrant, as signified with an 'X'. However, the nature of the case studies and the conceptual framework include objective comparisons of organisational design archetypes, which does encroaches on the positivist quadrant.

4.3 Research Methods

A common mode of conducting post-positivist field research is the case study. Yin (1994) stated “the central tendency among all types of case study is that it tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result” (p.78). As such, Yin (2002) argued for three main reasons to use case studies. First, case studies provide a means of analysis if the type of research dictates answering ‘how’ and ‘why.’ Second, researchers can use case studies when they have little to no control over the events in question. Third, case studies can be used to examine a contemporary phenomenon in a real-life context. In this research, the questions ask why and how, the researcher has no control over the events, and it is an examination of a contemporary phenomenon (organisational change) in a real-life context (rugby union NGBs).

Case studies offer several benefits to researchers seeking detailed analyses of organisations. Case studies enable researchers to cope with unique situations where variables outnumber data points, relying on multiple participants and types of sources to attain credibility and confirmability (Skinner et al., 2014). They also offer opportunities to identify concepts and themes, which provide meaning to the original conceptual framework

(Neuman, 2011). They provide a means to discover the effect certain factors have on others. Most important to this research, case studies are used as a heuristic, assisting with new model and theory development (Neuman, 2011).

4.4 Case Study Design

The case studies analysed in this research follow the procedures set forth by Pettigrew (1990). Pettigrew's (1990) methodological intent was to "explore the contexts, content, and process of change together with their interconnections through time" (p. 268) by using contextual longitudinal case studies which compare organisations within a sector. The five major issues Pettigrew addresses in his application of longitudinal case studies were: (1) outputs and audience; (2) creation of a structured understanding; (3) timeframe; (4) choice of research sites; and, (5) data collection and degrees of involvement.

4.4.1 Outputs and Audience

Pettigrew (1990) suggested that longitudinal case researchers need to be clear about the output choice and intended audiences. Pettigrew's four varieties of outputs of comparative case studies included analytical chronology, diagnostic, interpretive theoretical, and meta-level analysis. Each type of case builds from the previous level and caters to a specific audience. The researcher needs to construct the case with this in mind and, therefore, each output will be detailed before revealing this study's output format.

Analytical chronology tells a story across different levels of analysis in order to clarify sequences, imply cross-level linkages, and ascertain analytical themes. This is not merely a case history, but rather a dictation of the progress of change by explaining the factors influencing and directing the change (Pettigrew, 1990). The audience of analytical case studies are firms, educators, and learners interested in specific cases of organisational change.

Diagnostic outputs build on analytical chronology by analysing current strategic issues. The analytical chronology is analysed with the intention of inducing why certain issues have arisen and then discovering the organisational capabilities to overcome those issues. This output provides the basis by which the strategic issues can be resolved (Pettigrew, 1990). The audience is almost entirely the organisation under analysis, as the result is prescriptive specifically to that organisation. Diagnostic outputs are typically consulting projects from the public or academic sectors.

Interpretive theoretical outputs progress the research beyond the analytic and moves into interpreting emergent themes based on theoretical constructs. The analytical chronology is therefore structured according to guiding theory from a wider body of literature. In return, linking the interpreted themes to other published empirical data can aid in generalisation (Pettigrew, 1990). Yin (2002) also advised that theoretical propositions should guide the case analysis. The audience for interpretive theoretical case studies is the general body of literature from which researchers can draw theories and models to assist in future research.

Managers can also use the body of literature to understand change in their organisations by learning how other organisations have adapted.

The final output type from case research is a meta-analysis across cases (Pettigrew, 1990). The result in linking empirical findings from many cases is creation of broad themes, similar to a literature review. In this output, the researcher does not investigate specific organisations nor sectors, but rather a wider body of works to discover themes and generalities. The audience is primarily academics as they use these themes to build theoretical constructs for the progression of research agendas.

This study provides an ‘interpretive theoretical’ output by connecting the analytical chronology with the theoretical construct depicted in the case study framework at the end of this chapter. The output for this research is two-fold: first, a deeper understanding of organisational change was developed through analysis of empirical data to demonstrate what changed, why it changed, and how the changes transpired. Second, a new integrated change model was developed to assist future sport management researchers in investigating strategic change in response to environmental jolts. After the research output and audience was defined, the case studies were designed to develop a structured understanding, which is the next stage in Pettigrew’s prescription.

4.4.2 Creation of a Structured Understanding

The central problem in case research is, “capturing all complexities of the real world, and then making sense of it,” while trying to avoid, “death by data asphyxiation” (Pettigrew, 1990, p. 281). Pettigrew offered ten ‘routes’ to structured understanding to help researchers navigate the seemingly endless supply of data. Table 4.1 summarises how this research satisfies all ten of Pettigrew’s routes.

Table 4.1 Pettigrew's (1990) Routes to Structured Understanding.

Route	Document Section
1. Being clear about research objectives	1.4 The Research Aims
2. Being clear about the unit of analysis and study questions	1.5 Research Question
3. Coming to terms with time	4.4.3 Timeframe
4. Making explicit your theory of method	4.4 Case Study Design
5. Making explicit your meta level analytical framework	2.10 Conceptual Framework
6. Making explicit the character of the generic propositions	2.10 Conceptual Framework
7. Identifying analytical themes which cut across the data	4.7.1 Coding
8. Using techniques of data reduction and display	4.7 Data Analysis
9. Making prescriptive statements as an aid to analytical generalisation	2.10 Conceptual Framework
10. Making explicit the varieties and sequencing of research output	4.4.1 Outputs and Audience

Yin (2002) outlined three common problems with creating a structured understanding. First, Yin noted that some researchers struggle with handling a plethora of data, and he emphasised a need to systematically analyse and report data. There needs to be a clear data analysis structure set before case research can begin, which this chapter sets forth. Second, Yin stated that the basis for case study generalisability lies in theoretical propositions, not the population, as is the case with positivist research. The main purpose of the current study was to create a theoretical exploratory model, where the theoretical insight can be applied to other cases. Third, Yin warned against taking too much time to collect and analyse data, which can lead to unreadable results with scattered data points. There needs to be a set timeline with deadlines and data goals established prior to commencing research.

4.4.3 Timeframe

The timeframe to study is crucial in giving perspective to organisational changes. The timeframe chosen must be sufficient to reveal patterns and causes of change; therefore, the longitudinal case study needs to explore the past and the emanating future (Pettigrew, 1990). There is not a minimum time requirement for data collection, as longitudinal case studies merely compare data from the same participants across different points in time (Neuman, 2011). In this study, the design archetypes of rugby union NGBs are compared from before the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement to June 2014, when data collection was ceased for the purposes of this thesis. These design archetypes have gone through several changes over the course of time, with the rate of change dependent on the respective NGB's' responses to the contextual pressures on them.

Arguments can be made that the inertia of each NGB began with its original formation, and that the field has evolved over time to set precedents for enacting change. Organisations have a tendency to repeat past strategic decisions when confronted by an environmental jolt (Huff et al., 1992; Kelly & Amburgey, 1991). However, the organisation's learning capacity and past performance in the wake of change can spurn new strategic directions (Huff et al., 1992; Vollmann, 1996). Therefore, contextual information from before 2009 was collected.

In order to contextualise the internal and external environments in which each NGB exists, this study provides (in Chapter Three) a historical background of rugby union's global context from its origins in the 1820s. The focus will be on landmark dramas or breakpoints, which can signal the beginnings of change or continuity (Pettigrew, 1990). Most attention is on recent history, dating back to the early 1990s when Sevens started to emerge, and NGBs began to employ many of the current managers and/or mentors. The professionalisation of rugby union in the mid-1990s will illuminate recent major strategic changes within the NGBs, and provide context to the current changes. The stopping point for the timeframe was June 2014, providing almost two years of data into the 2016 Olympic funding cycle that began after the 2012 Olympic Games.

4.5 Case Study Selection

Pettigrew characterised the choice of research sites by “planned opportunism” (1990, p. 274), where the (1) questions being posed, (2) the level of access, and (3) funding all contribute to successfully selecting cases. Four case studies were selected based on their fit with Pettigrew’s characteristics and their fit within this study’s conceptual framework. The contextual information gathered and discussed in this chapter significantly contributed to the case selection. Justification for case selection is provided below.

4.5.1 Selection Criteria: Questions Posed

The research questions are very relevant to case selection, and cases should be chosen which reflect questions identified in the conceptual framework of the research (Yin, 2002). Since analysis of field level characteristics is a significant portion of this study’s conceptual framework, identifying NGBs that anecdotally exhibit significant differences in those field-level characteristics was a major consideration in case selection. Furthermore, Yin (2002) stresses choosing cases with predictable contrasting results, which is selecting cases anticipated to have significant differences in results.

Moreover, a better case would be one that includes the most data points, or critical incidents, associated with the research question; therefore, a pragmatic approach was to select cases that appeared to have considerable amounts of change within the NGB in reaction to Sevens inclusion in the Olympics. Pettigrew (1990) suggested selecting cases where extreme situations and critical incidents can be identified. This is particularly true when a relatively small number of cases are observed (Pettigrew, 1990), such as in this study in which only four of 152 NGBs were chosen.

To gather data on extreme situations, this study chose cases based on wide variability in both rugby and socio-economic contexts. First, the rugby context was tested by examining one NGB from each IRB competition tiers to encompass variations in national field level characteristics and extremely different NGB situations. An additional nation was selected in Tier One to add a comparative dimension across the same tier level with high performing rugby systems in place. Secondly, countries were selected based on socio-economic differences and similarities to provide commentary on how and why those conditions may affect response to Olympic inclusion. Table 4.2 lists the primary case selection criteria, and indicates the criteria of the case selections of Australia, the USA, South Africa, and Kenya. Justification for each case in relation to the questions posed in the study is discussed below.

Table 4.2 Primary case selection criteria.

	USA	Australia	Kenya	South Africa
Researchers' familiarity of sport contexts	High	High	Low	Mid
Nation's value for Olympic success	High	High	High	High
Sport systems development	High	High	Low	Mid
Rugby systems development	Mid	High	Low	High
Economic environmental conditions	Developed	Developed	Developing	Emerging
Signals of high level of change occurring	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
IRB Fifteens competition tier	2	1	3	1
Professional rugby competitions	No	Yes	No	Yes
IRB World Sevens Series core team	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of questionnaire responses	5	6	2	3

Rationale for Selection of Australia: Tier One. Australia has been chosen for several reasons. First, it is the country where the researcher is based and has deep knowledge of the rugby, economic, sporting, and cultural contexts. It is one of the largest rugby playing countries in terms of participation, with over 100,000 registered players and 400,000 unregistered players. The British brought rugby to Australia in 1864, making it one of the oldest rugby playing countries and a Foundations nation. Historically, it is one of the most successful rugby nations in terms of IRB world rankings, where it has continually been in the top five and ranked as high as number one, winning two Rugby World Cups in 1991 and 1999. There has been extensive research conducted on organisational change in the QRU within the ARU (Skinner, 2001; Skinner et al., 1999; Skinner, Stewart, & Edwards, 2003, 2004), which can add significant amounts of context to the current strategic changes. From a general sporting perspective, Australia routinely wins more summer Olympic medals per capita than any other nation. Australia is widely known around the world as a sport-loving country due to its overachievement in international competition when compared on population.

In Sevens, Australia is one of only five nations to compete in every IRB World Sevens Series event since inception in 1999, as well as having competed in every RWC7s and Commonwealth Games. Despite this record, Australia has greatly underachieved in Sevens when compared to its accomplishments in the Fifteens code or rugby League. This underachievement roots in the lack of value put on the shortened code compared to other nations. Australia may value Sevens least among all top rugby playing nations, with the exception of Ireland which does not have a men's Sevens team. Outside of the newly established National Women's Sevens Championship single tournament and an invitational high school Sevens championship, the ARU has not hosted nor established any domestic Sevens competitions (as of December 2013), although there are some in development due to Sevens' growth.

Rationale for Selection of USA: Tier Two. Initially, the USA was chosen as it is the researcher's home country, therefore the researcher has an established knowledge of the

sporting culture and practices. The USA is culturally similar to Australia in terms of economy, language, and customs; however, some differences are noted in their respective sporting cultures. Commercialisation and professionalisation are features in both USA and Australian sports, but the participation and development patterns are very different. Rugby is a popular sport in Australia, but the USA favours American football. Although the USA is a top ten nation in terms of the overall number of registered rugby players, it is a niche sport with only 0.025% of the country participating (Chadwick, Semens, Schwarz, & Zhang, 2010). Despite several attempts to professionalise rugby in the USA, it is still primarily amateur outside USA Rugby (USAR) using US Olympic funding to contract to fulltime men's and women's Sevens players beginning in 2012. Another difference between Australia and the USA is the respective athlete development systems. Australia uses age-grade levels to identify and develop athletes. In contrast, the USA has an extensive collegiate sport system, which is a very influential and powerful institution in USA sports. There has been a very recent emergence of Sevens in the collegiate system, which could be an antecedent to a significant increase in youth participation.

Other reasons for selecting the USA include Olympic performance as the USA has won more medals than any other nation. The USA also has a unique situation where an independent company owns and operates the IRB Sevens Series event, which is the largest attended and television rated rugby event in North America. The USA is also a core team on the IRB Sevens World Series, meaning it competes at all tournaments each year, and the Sevens team performs consistently better than the Fifteens team. One of the nation's largest broadcasters, NBC, owns the television rights to the Olympic Games, and it has begun to broadcast rugby in the USA.

Rationale for Selection of Kenya: Tier Three. England introduced rugby when it ruled Kenya as a British colony; however, it was mostly played in the British private schools. This prevented rugby from developing as a mainstream sport, as was the case in many British colonies. Kenya is an interesting case study due to the value placed on Sevens over Fifteens rugby. In Kenya, Sevens is the pinnacle of rugby and takes precedence over Fifteens in terms of funding, recognition, and player aspirations. This is primarily due to its success on the IRB Sevens World Series, but other factors such as development pathways, technical skill required for scrums and lineouts, and access to resources for a larger squad have prevented Kenya from fielding a competitive Fifteens national team in international competition. Kenya's Sevens is now an IRB core team having competed in 75% of all IRB Sevens Series competitions, normally finishing in the top eight each season. Kenya has finished in the top four of the last two RWC7s. In contrast, the Fifteens team sits at number 34 in the IRB world rankings and has never qualified for a Fifteens World Cup.

Kenya is a developing country, with considerably less economic resources compared to other cases selected. This broad environment difference provides diversity when making comparisons, especially since Kenya attempts to mimic western, developed cultures' sport development systems. The British continue to have an influence in the Kenyan sport systems, with private schools acting as the primary development pathway. Kenya, as with all the case studies selected, is a proud sporting nation with heavy support from the general public, government, and private sector relative to other unions. Kenya Sevens lacks the following of football in terms of total number of participants and spectators, but is considered the nation's best performing team sport in international competition. The Sevens team has realistic medal chances in the 2016 Olympic Games, and could potentially win the only medal outside of athletics for Kenya.

Rationale for Selection of South Africa: Tier One. South Africa, like Australia, is a global powerhouse in rugby. Perpetually a top three team in both Fifteens and Sevens, rugby is considered the national sport by a certain portion (mainly white) of the population. Football (soccer) tops South Africa in terms of participation and spectatorship, but mostly with the black community, and lacks the commercial backing and international acclaim that rugby enjoys. South Africa has been a pioneer in Sevens, the first to centralise residency training, the first to contract Sevens specialists, and the first to have a Sevens development academy for under 20s. The success and popularity of rugby in South Africa has led to one of the largest budgets in world rugby, and the Sevens program is a benefactor with the largest budget of all Sevens programs in the world.

The financial situation of South African Rugby Union (SARU) is despite South Africa being one of the BRICS nations (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa), or nations that are distinguished by large, rapidly growing economies (Smith, 2011). There are apparent cultural and economic differences between the 'BRICS' nation of South Africa and the highly developed nations of USA and Australia, which adds to the variation in national field-level characteristics and the responses to the common global field-level characteristics. The obvious effect of having a BRICS economy (or developing as the case with Kenya) is the low level of government financial support that occurs in the developed nations, which carries over to the development of women's rugby.

4.5.2 Selection Criteria: Questions Posed Summary

The selection of these four cases has allowed significant data, relevant to the thesis research questions, to be collected. Each case has had a plethora of critical incidents signalling strategic change in response to Olympic inclusion, which is discussed in the later chapters. There are also significant similarities and differences in the broad and task environments creating a platform to compare and contrast field level pressures for change. Therefore, the selected cases satisfy Pettigrew's first characteristic of case selection –

questions being posed. Pettigrew's second characteristic, level of access, will now be discussed.

4.5.3 Selection Criteria: Level of Access

Pettigrew (1990) contended that once a list of cases that satisfy answering the research question were obtained, the researcher must then narrow the list to those cases that will allow for significant access to the data required to answer the research question. Australia, USA, Kenya, and South Africa were part of an initial list of 23 rugby unions that could have been studied to answer the research question posed (see Table 4.3). Those four cases were selected largely due to their level of access. Initially, the IRB agreed to assist with data collection to the extent of providing archival data, making introductions to key people in the selected NGBs, providing documents for analysis, and interviewing of IRB personnel. The IRB also supplied a list of rugby union contacts that were used to distribute the online questionnaire.

Table 4.3 Potential cases for selection and access path.

Potential Case	Initial Questionnaire Response	Initial Questionnaire Contact Details Provided	Twitter Contact
South Africa	Yes	Yes	Yes
USA	Yes	Yes	Yes
Australia	Yes	Yes	
Brazil	Yes	Yes	
Canada	Yes	Yes	Yes
Argentina	Yes		
England	Yes		Yes
Fiji	Yes		
Tunisia	Yes		
Kenya			Yes
China			
France			
Hong Kong			
Ireland			
Japan			
Netherlands			Yes
New Zealand			
Portugal			
Samoa			
Scotland			
Spain			
Wales			Yes
Zimbabwe			

Twenty unions responded to the initial distribution of the online questionnaire, with nine (Australia, Austria, Bahamas, Brazil, Canada, Guam, Lao, South Africa, USA) providing contact information and agreeing to be contacted for further questioning. Five of those nine (Australia, Brazil, Canada, South Africa, USA) were on the original list of 23 unions. A follow-up contact was made to those five unions, with all initially agreeing to be

included as a case study. However, due to privacy concerns, Canada opted-out after the research proposal was circulated and discussed among management.

The initial survey was distributed two months before the Twitter account for this research was created. Although Kenya did not respond to the initial online questionnaire, a Twitter dialogue began with the new Kenyan head coach in the lead up to the Gold Coast, Australia stop of the IRB Sevens Series. Through Twitter, he agreed to an interview, and at the interview he agreed to be the gatekeeper for access to Kenya Rugby Union. Twitter also enabled access to South Africa's head coach, leading to a reconsideration of South Africa as a case study.

Aside from the online questionnaire response, all five case studies (including Brazil at that point in time) were ideal candidates for data access due to their extensive media output. Although media material is not always a reliable source of data, the content can signal dramas, which are "transparently observable" indications of organisational change (Pettigrew, 1990, p. 275). Each drama can provide a point of data collection and can also be a mini-case study within the larger study (Pettigrew, 1990). Five cases have passed the first two stages of Pettigrew's case selection criteria, and were then examined in the context of budgetary considerations.

4.5.4 Selection Criteria: Funding

It was critical to select cases where data could be collected economically as the study was funded entirely by the student with assistance from an AUD\$4,000 research budget. With an international context, travel to the countries to conduct interviews and collect non-digital documents was a significant financial burden. It was decided to travel to each case to build a rapport with NGB employees, enabling a more effective interview situation. In-person interviews were preferred to phone or online video interviews when costs could be covered because in-person meetings enabled interviewer-respondent trust and observation of non-verbal communication.

A number of considerations assisted in deciding the final case selections. First, the IRB Sevens Series begins on the Gold Coast, Australia where the researcher resides, and many of the actors from core teams are present at that event each year, including head coaches and high performance managers. Therefore, selecting a team participating in that event allowed for both initial and follow-up interviews. Second, the lead researcher is a native of the USA, and travels there at least once a year. These trips were not deducted from the research budget. Third, the proximity of South Africa and Kenya to each other required one overseas trip to be paid from the research account. These considerations made Brazil a cost prohibitive case. Brazil was not a regular team on the IRB Sevens Series, and therefore, would not send potential interviewees to Australia. A trip to Brazil costs more than a trip to Africa from Australia, and that trip would have only garnered a single case study. In addition, Brazil was the only country under final consideration that does not speak English as

the primary language, meaning a translator would have been required adding to the already prohibitive expense.

4.5.5 Selection Criteria Summary

Based on Pettigrew's criteria of questions posed, level of access, and funding, four case studies were selected— Australia, USA, South Africa, and Kenya.

4.6 Data Collection and Degrees of Involvement

The case study should not only be a historical account of occurrences within a sector or organisation. Case studies should develop analytic themes to investigate 'why' and 'how' changes occur, and not merely state 'what' changed (Edwards & Skinner, 2009; Yin, 2002). Pettigrew (1990) explains that longitudinal case research in organisational change requires data collection in five approaches to develop the analytic themes: historical, processual, comparative, pluralist, and contextual. This section will begin by defining each of the five approaches of data collection, and then proceed to discuss the five types of data that were collected.

4.6.1 Approaches for Collecting Data

Historical data describe the progression of ideas, transformative actions, and the forces for change and constraints placed upon organisational decision makers (Pettigrew, 1990). Historical data in this study were collected primarily with archive records and document analysis, with semi-structured interviews providing additional information. Processual data emphasise how actions and structures change over time (Pettigrew, 1990). Processual data came from document analysis, online questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. Comparative data demonstrate the similarities and differences in organisations within a sector (Pettigrew, 1990), and this study gathered comparative data using all five types of collection: archive records; document analysis; online questionnaires; observation; and, semi-structured interviews. Pluralist data are used to analyse the change process through various actors' contending versions of reality (Pettigrew, 1990), and while the primary method for collecting pluralist data is semi-structured interviews, online questionnaires and observation techniques were also utilised. Finally, contextual data are collected to analyse the synergy between process and context, and should be gathered at different levels of the analysis (Pettigrew, 1990). For this study, contextual data were continuously collected throughout the research process from the five types of data discussed in the next section.

4.6.2 Types of Data Collected

This section describes the five types of data that were collected for this study: archive records, organisational documents, online questionnaires, observation, and semi-structured interviews. The participants, materials, and procedures for collecting each type of

data are discussed below. This section is organised so that participants, materials, and procedures are detailed under the description of each data type.

Archive Records. Archive data, consisting primarily of press releases, were collected to assist in identifying key antecedents to change because press releases can signal dramas. These dramas, such as new player contracts for women rugby players, are usually announced in the media with limited information. However, this information assisted in sequencing the data and demonstrating the pattern of changes made. It was also valuable in triggering a response from the researcher to seek further information in organisational documents, interview questions and follow-up questions. Examining secondary data sources for team participation, competitions, spectatorship, viewership, and other indicators of expansion assisted in tracing the development of Sevens.

Participants. Most of the archive data were accessed on the Internet as a secondary data source providing few interactions with people. In cases where the data had either never been published or had been removed from the Internet, then the IRB, NGB, IOC, and various media outlet public relations personnel were contacted to provide access to the archive records.

Materials. Archive data were sourced from Internet press releases and blogs (written, audio, and video), Internet databases (e.g. tournament results), books, press conference notes, and magazine articles, in descending order from where the most content was sourced.

Procedures. Archive data collection began in 2011 with a comprehensive search of the IRB websites, continuing to the NGB websites, and advancing to major media websites that cover Sevens, such as URSevens.com and IRBSevens.com. Next, the keywords of 'Sevens,' 'Sevens rugby,' and 'Olympic rugby' were used in a Google search engine to find all information related to Sevens, from both the global level as well as the national level for each case study. After the initial search was completed in 2011, a Google Alert was established using those same keywords, plus keywords for each case study (e.g. South Africa Sevens). The Google Alert emailed all relevant web content to the researcher on a daily or weekly basis, from which new dramas were discovered. In June 2011, a Twitter account was created (@SevensPhD) as an alternative source of discovering dramas. Twitter became a significant contributor of data access and of communication with a multitude of actors related to this study. More about the benefits and contributions of Twitter will be discussed in a section later in this chapter.

If a specific drama uncovered via Google Alerts, Twitter, or other casual means (e.g. conversations at site visits, Facebook, television, etc.) was deemed critical to the research, then additional Internet searching would commence to identify additional sources to verify the event, usually through the source website and through a more comprehensive Google

search. When appropriate, the researcher would contact the organisation directly by phone, email, or Twitter. These contacts assisted in gathering additional information, clarifying any confusing or contradictory information, and verifying the information was correct.

Only archive records containing critical information were collected and saved, whereas other records may have prompted more investigation but did not contain enough information to be saved. An archive record was considered critical if it contained one or more of the following: (1) an initial or first mention of investigated phenomena to be saved for sequencing; (2) detailed information on investigated phenomena; (3) important direct quotes from influential actors regarding investigated phenomena; and, (4) sufficient contextual information relevant to the investigated phenomena.

Collecting and saving the information was initially done by copying and pasting the web content into Microsoft Word documents. Photographs were taken of offline materials that could not be collected, and then converted into a Portable Document Format (PDF). Word and PDF documents were subsequently uploaded into NVivo software. NVivo has a Google Chrome browser plugin called NCapture that saves all web content and allows easier creation of PDFs for uploading into the software. NCapture was used to collect online archive records from June 2012, including written press releases, video and audio clips, social media feeds, and other blogs. In total, 251 written articles, 30 social media blogs, 18 video clips, and 3 audio clips were deemed to have enough critical information to be collected and saved. Each new archive record was then coded; the coding process will be detailed later in this chapter.

Organisational Documents. Archive data, specifically from press releases, may signal the change or continuity of strategy, but organisational documents can tell more of the actual intent of and rationale for organisational direction. Documents are formalised discourses that often promote the organisational values (D. Miller & Friesen, 1982), and can be utilised to discover changes in values over time. Organisational documents collected for this research came primarily from the Internet, interviewees, NGB offices, and the IRB World Conference.

Participants. The researcher collected and analysed documents from the IRB, IOC, and four NGB case studies. Many of the organisational documents were found online, and interview participants assisted in collection of the remaining documents. The total number of documents collected and analysed from each entity were 22-Australia, 6-Kenya, 8-South Africa, 24-USA, 27-IRB, and 1-IOC.

Materials. The primary documents reviewed were strategic plans, annual reports including financial statements, and formalised high performance plans. It was critical to collect these primary documents from before 2009 and through 2013 to observe changes in the frequency, context, and importance placed on Sevens before and after the Olympic

announcement. The strategic plans offered the best insight into the values and direction of each organisation. The annual reports signalled what was accomplished, and could be compared to the objectives in the strategic plan to assist in uncovering what objectives were the most valued. Financial documents were considered a critical source of data because the source and direction of funding as reported in financial statements can display the true intent of strategic decisions (Stickney, Brown, Wahlen, Baginski, & Bradshaw, 2010). Finally, the formalised high performance plans offered detailed insight into the newly standardised Sevens development pathways. Not all cases had these documents created, published, or available, and Table 4.4 shows key primary documents used in this study. Secondary documents were collected to gain further meaning of processes and structures, and to triangulate data with the primary documents, archive records, and interview data. The secondary documents included meeting minutes, marketing collateral, and email correspondence.

Table 4.4 Key primary documents collected and analysed.

	ARU	KRU	SARU	USAR	IRB
Annual Reports	2008-2012	N/A	2008-2012	2008-2012	2008-2012
Strategic Plans	N/A Since 2007	N/A	N/A	2009; 2013	2004; 2011
High Performance Plans	2012 Try Rugby; 2013 Sevens	2013 Sevens Program	2011 Sevens Academy	2012 Olympic Development	2012 Global Pathways
Other Critical Documents	ARU Governance Review	N/A	N/A	NCAA Rugby Defined	2006 & 2011 Sevens Strategic Plans; 2011 Women's Strategic Plan

Procedures. The annual reports, strategic plans, and other critical documents listed in Table 4.4 were readily accessible on the websites of the ARU, SARU, USAR, and IRB. The high performance plans were made available after meeting with managers of each rugby union. Secondary documents were collected with an internet search, through email correspondence with NGB and IRB staff, or in person during site visits. When documents were provided through personal contact (email or in person), a confidentiality letter was provided by the researcher, followed by a discussion and notation of what materials could be published or could only be used in theming. Documents found on the internet are considered public domain, and hence no confidentiality procedures were undertaken.

Online Questionnaire. An online questionnaire was deployed to all available rugby NGBs to collect information about interpretive schemes, design archetypes, and sub-systems based on the study's conceptual framework. The responses contributed to case selection, design archetype construction, and creation of semi-structured interview questions. Design

archetype construction and creation of the semi-structured interview questions are detailed in later sections of this chapter.

Participants. The online questionnaires were targeted at key personnel with information about the values and structures at each NGB. With the nature of online surveying, as many NGB managers as possible were included in the distribution list. An email list of 293 managers from 101 NGBs was made available from the IRB and from NGB website directories. The online questionnaire was opened by 127 of the 293 (43%) managers; however, only 53 responses were tallied by 28 different NGBs. Table 4.5 shows the number of participants from each NGB and highlights the global diversification of the sample.

Table 4.5 Total questionnaire responses from each NGB.

Case Studies	Other NGBs	
Australia, 6	Argentina, 1	Guyana, 1
Kenya, 2	Austria, 1	Jamaica, 1
South Africa, 4	Bahamas, 1	Japan, 1
USA, 7	Barbados, 2	Lao, 1
	Brazil, 5	Mexico, 2
	Cambodia, 1	Namibia, 1
	Canada, 4	PNG, 2
	Croatia, 1	Russia, 1
	Denmark, 1	Samoa, 1
	England, 1	Sweden, 1
	Fiji, 2	Tunisia, 1
	Guam, 1	Ukraine, 1

Materials. The questionnaire asked information about past and current areas of specialisation, formalisation, centralisation, orientation, domain, and criteria of effectiveness. These are all components of the Canadian NSO design archetype assessment project detailed in Chapter 2, and a major component of the conceptual framework. One of the Canadian NSO researchers was consulted on the use of their questionnaire. He provided a copy of the instrument, which was used a starting point for this study's questionnaire, and then modified to fit the context of this study. The questionnaire data assisted in construction of design archetypes for Sevens strategic initiatives, and facilitated the recognition of shifts in those design archetypes. The entire questionnaire used in this study can be found in Appendix 3.

Questions on Specialisation. Specialisation involves the differentiation of roles and tasks in an organisation (Kikulis et al., 1992). For this study, NGBs were asked if they have specific roles and managers to direct their respective Sevens programs. For example: *Please enter the typical number of coaches and training staff who work with the Sevens national team. This can include people who also work with Fifteens, full/part-time, & paid/volunteer.*

There were also questions relating to the specialisation of Sevens players (as opposed to playing both Fifteens and Sevens), as that was identified as a major theme from the archive records data. Five questions were included on specialisation. For example: *Please enter the typical number of coaches and training staff who work with the Sevens national team. This can include people who also work with Fifteens, full/part-time, & paid/volunteer.*

Questions on Formalisation. Kikulis, et al (1992) used standardisation in their archetype assessment, and it closely relates to formalisation that has been used in this study. Formalisation involves the existence of rules, policies, and procedures. NGBs were asked to what extent new policies and procedures have been written or implied to incorporate the Sevens program. Four questions were included on formalisation. For example: *Does your rugby governing body have formalised or written criteria for selection and recruitment of Sevens athletes at any level (age grade, developmental, national team, etc.)?*

Questions on Centralisation. Centralisation in an organisation refers to the level that decision making takes place: the locus of decision making (Kikulis et al., 1992). The NGBs were asked about the reporting structure to determine the final decision making authority in regards to Sevens, and if that changed over time. With the specialisation of roles a key separator in design archetypes, it was important to understand how much control the new Sevens management, if one exists, had in guiding strategy. Two multi-part questions were asked on the questionnaire. For example: *Currently, what level(s) in the rugby governing body makes the decisions for the following items in regards to Sevens? Please select all that apply.*

Questions on Orientation. Orientation is simply the focus on private or public interests (Kikulis et al., 1992). The emphasis does not have to be on public alone, nor private alone, and organisations can orient themselves to lobby both sources of legitimacy and support. This support can come in the form of funding, which can help to determine where along the scale of public and private orientation the Sevens program lies. Public funds include government grants, and private funds can include sponsorship, media rights, licensing fees, Olympic committee grants, public fundraisers, membership fees, and tournament gate receipts. The online questionnaire asked about sources of funding and how those funds are allocated in regards to financing the Sevens program. Five questions were included on orientation. For example: *Thinking back to BEFORE the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement, please compare Sevens' and Fifteens' level of importance/resources allocated from the rugby governing body.* The orientation of the organisation has direct ties to the criteria of effectiveness (Kikulis et al., 1992), so the responses to those questions were also utilised in this area.

Questions on Criteria of Effectiveness. Criteria of effectiveness refer to how the organisation assesses its success (Kikulis et al., 1992). For NGBs, this can include number of

Sevens players promoted to the Fifteens national team, Sevens national team win percentage, participation rates in Sevens and rugby in general, sponsorship and broadcast funding, media attention, and/or tournament attendance. Four questions were included on criteria of effectiveness. For example: *Thinking back to BEFORE the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement, please compare Sevens' and Fifteens' level of importance/resources allocated from the rugby governing body. A selection to the left is a sole focus on Sevens, and to the right is a sole focus on Fifteens. The middle selection is an equal importance/resources allocated.*

Questions on Domain. The domain is the target market to which the organisation provides services or products. National governing bodies range between two polar extremes: development of activities and participation in sport for all ages and skill abilities, and development of elite athletes (Kikulis et al., 1992). The extent to which the NGB targets the mass participation or the elite competition markets can be determined by eliciting information on programming. Five questions on domain were included in the questionnaire. For example: *How would you rate your rugby governing body's level of rugby programs in grade schools?*

Procedures. The questionnaire was designed and distributed using Qualtrics online survey software. Qualtrics was used primarily because of the free account offered by Griffith University. It has a modern, sophisticated survey design tool package, and is a stable and reliable online service. A variety of questions was utilised, from single multiple choice to matrix tables. The entire questionnaire is shown in Appendix 3. The questionnaire was translated into eleven languages (English, Chinese Simplified, French, Japanese, Russian, Spanish, Portuguese, Korean, Italian, and German) with assistance from international colleagues at Griffith University. Students were also tasked with testing the questionnaire before sending. Tests included time to complete, question comprehension, page flow, and answerability of each question. Changes were made prior to distribution.

The distribution took four phases. In the first phase, a link to the online questionnaire was emailed to NGB managers on 6 November 2012. The contact emails were provided by the IRB and NGB websites (see Appendix 5 Online Survey Invite Email). The second phase was a follow-up invite email sent on 19 November 2012 to all emails that had yet to click on the link from phase one. The first two phases assisted in identifying case studies of Australia, USA, and South Africa. The fourth case study, Kenya, did not originally respond to the online questionnaire during the first two phases. Phase three started in January 2013 after the cases were selected. Specific NGB managers for each case study were sent a personal email asking them to complete the online questionnaire. Canada and Brazil were still in contention to become case studies at this stage, and were included in phase three. Table 4.5 (above section) shows the response rate from each case study. Phase four launched

in March 2013 with one last mass email to the remaining NGB managers that either had not clicked on the invite link or clicked on the link but did not complete the survey. Qualtrics has the ability to track both of these groups. Nineteen additional responses were gathered during phase four, bringing the total responses to 53 as shown in Table 4.5.

Observation. Observation is a systematic recording of actions, events, and objects in the field (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). Although observation provided the least amount of actual data, it both enhanced understanding of the collected data and provided opportunity to collect other forms of data. Planned site visits allowed for chance meetings and conversations with key actors, which often became interviews. It also provided markers for developing questions in the semi-structured interviews. Public addresses with key actors were also attended, observed, and recorded.

Participants. Participants in observation included any actor encountered while on location on field visits. This included NGB and IRB staff and other personnel from sponsors, media, players, and fans. Organisational documents and archive records were also collected or photographed during site visits. The sites visited are listed in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Sites visited for observation and other data collection.

Site Observed	Location	Dates
IRB Sevens Series - Gold Coast	Gold Coast, Australia	9-14 October 2012 & 8-13 October 2013
IRB Sevens Series - Port Elizabeth	Port Elizabeth, South Africa	7-9 December 2012
South Africa Sevens Institute	Stellenbosch, South Africa	18-19 December 2012
Kenya Rugby Union Offices and Training Centre	Nairobi, Kenya	8-12 January 2013
USA Rugby National Summit	Costa Mesa, United States	18-20 January 2013
United States Olympic Training Centre	Chula Vista, United States	23 January 2013
IRB Sevens Series - Las Vegas	Las Vegas, United States	8-10 February 2013
Australian Rugby Union Offices	Sydney, Australia	13 March 2013 & 30 May 2013
Rugby Sports Business Panel	Sydney, Australia	30 May 2013
Rugby World Cup Sevens	Moscow, Russia	26-30 June 2013
IRB World Conference	Dublin, Ireland	17-20 November 2013

Materials. There were three forms of field notes taken during observation: jotted notes, direct observation notes, and systematic notes. Jotted notes are short, memory-triggers written down immediately after an event occurs (Neuman, 2011). These were incorporated into the direct observation notes after each site visit. Direct observation notes are more detailed notes written after leaving the field. The direct observation notes incorporated the jotted notes, photographs, audio recordings, and specific dialogue from memory (Neuman, 2011). The photographs assisted as reminders of particular cues. For example, photos were taken of a USA Rugby manager's presentation at the National Development Summit that

merged Olympic symbols and values with USA Rugby values. In total, 12 public speeches were recorded from three site visits – USA Rugby National Development Summit, Rugby Sports Business Panel, and the IRB World Conference (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6). Systematic note taking occurred during many observations. Sheets with predetermined concepts (e.g. positive or negative value of women's rugby) were brought into the observation opportunity, and any occurrence related to each concept was noted. An example of an occurrence was casual conversation with people at the site. The list of concepts evolved and emerged as data were collected. For example, as Sevens athlete specialisation emerged as a core theme, related additional concepts (e.g. bias towards playing Fifteens) were added to the sheet. This allowed for categorisation of data during later analysis.

Procedures. The researcher visited eleven sites as indicated in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6, taking an overt role, making the participants aware of data collection. A covert role was taken in some instances where it was not possible to inform all participants of the data collection; however, no sensitive nor confidential data were obtained during the covert observations.

The first site visit was to the IRB Sevens Series Gold Coast tournament because it was in close proximity to the researcher's home. Many of the actors were present at each of the IRB Sevens Series stops allowing broad observation across all case studies and other critical Sevens constituents. The first site visit was also an opportunity to meet critical actors for the first time, and have brief, casual conversations with them about changes in Sevens. The researcher was able to attend three additional IRB Sevens World Series tournaments and the 2013 Rugby World Cup Sevens in Moscow during the data collection period, allowing for follow-up conversations and observations of the development of Sevens' competitions. Site visits to each case study were planned predominantly for semi-structured interviews. Observation did occur at each site visit, with casual conversations, social gatherings, and marketing collateral contributing colourful data. The final site visit took place at the IRB World Conference in Dublin, Ireland, the home city for the IRB. A plethora of observation data was collected. Several speakers and panel sessions discussed the impact of Sevens across the World. Networking events at the conference enabled many casual conversations. The final round of semi-structured interviews also took place at the IRB World Conference.

Semi-Structured Interviews. A semi-structured interview, or field interview (Neuman, 2011), has several advantages to a structured or survey interview. It allows flexibility in tailoring open-ended questions to specific people and situations. This allows the interviewer to encourage elaboration and probe further into interesting answers. Markers, or a reference to an important occurrence or belief, can lead to follow-up questions that were previously unscripted. It also allows the interviewer to adapt the questions to the respondent's norms

and language. One key component to the field interview is building trust between the interviewer and respondent, which can establish familiarity and, therefore, deepen understanding. However, the interviewer needs to use caution and build a rapport with the respondent before probing too early, as this can cause apprehension leading to short, shallow answers (Neuman, 2011). Informal interviews also occurred during data collection, where a casual encounter during a site visit developed into an interview. These informal interviews did not have a pre-set structure, with questions arising both from memory of past data collected and organically developed during the encounter.

Participants. The researcher identified and interviewed key informants from the NGBs and IRB, and relevant external actors with significant influence on decisions. Informants included actors that were both affected by the changes, and those that initiated them. The types of actors consisted of: Sevens General Manager, Community Rugby Managers, Sevens Head and Assistant Coach, High Performance Manager, Operations Manager, Media Manager, Women's Rugby Manager, Youth Development Manager, Regional Manager, Team Manager, Board Member, Player, and various coordinators. A total of 45 interviews were conducted (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Interviews conducted for the study.

	Total Interviews	Board Level	General Manager Level	Professional staff level	Coach	Player	Other
Australia	9	0	1	3	1	2	2
Kenya	10	2	0	2	2	2	2
South Africa	8	0	1	3	2	1	1
USA	12	0	1	2	3	4	2
IRB	6	0	3	3	0	0	0

A gatekeeper was initially identified at the IRB, and then at each NGB. This was done through personal contacts, email addresses found online, online questionnaire responses, and Twitter. After identifying a gatekeeper, a snowball sampling method determined additional actors for interviews. In snowball sampling, new participants are identified by reference of the original participant due to interconnectedness (Skinner et al., 2014).

Materials. Initial questions were developed based on the themes derived from the preliminary data (archive records, online organisational documents, online questionnaire responses) to discover why and how changes in design archetypes transpired. The initial interview questions can be seen in Appendix 6. The initial questions were modified and adapted before each interview, dependant on the level or type of interviewee and consideration of new information from the previous interviews.

When allowed, the semi-structured interviews were digitally tape-recorded using an application on a cellular phone. Twenty interviews were recorded, with five interviewees refraining to be recorded due to privacy concerns. In those cases, notes were taken during and immediately after the interview. Unplanned, informal interviews during a site visit were not recorded; however, notes were either taken during and/or immediately following the interview. The primary problem with note-taking during an interview is that it distracts the interviewer from noticing markers and can interrupt free-flowing conversation (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2005). This distraction did occur on several occasions during informal interviews, so the researcher relied primarily on notations immediately after the interviews. Post-interview notes were either written or verbal. The latter collected by the researcher speaking into a recording device. Each interview was transcribed verbatim by the researcher or a transcription service. A transcription service was used on twelve of the recorded interviews due to the volume of recorded data.

Procedures. This study followed Skinner's (2001) method to conduct the interviews. Skinner combined techniques from Judd, Smith, and Kidder's (1991) funnel principle and Stewart and Cash's (1994) topical sequence. Skinner (2001) started interviews with general questions, which are very easy to answer, and then the theme-centric questions become more focused on specific issues as the interview progressed. This allows the interviewer to probe deeper into the issues while the interviewee eases into being questioned. This researcher found this method suitable during the interviews.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted primarily in person, with three Skype and two phone call interviews also conducted. The Skype and phone interviews were required because the actors were either not present at the same time the researcher was on a site visit, or the snowballing technique did not lead the researcher to those actors until after the site visit ended. Face-to-face interviews were preferred in order to establish trust, build a rapport, and identify non-verbal cues (Stewart & Cash, 1994). All of the informal interviews were conducted in person during site visits, and occasionally with multiple actors at one time.

Summary of data collected. This section provided details on the five types of data collected for this study: archive records, organisational documents, online questionnaires, observation, and semi-structured interviews. Participants, materials, and procedures were individually discussed for each type of data. The total number of data collected and analysed is summarised in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Total number of each type of data collected and analysed.

Data Type	Number
Archive Records	302
Documents	88
Survey Responses	53
Public Addresses	12
Interviews	45

4.6.3 Twitter as a Research Tool

Twitter became a critical aspect in this thesis journey. Twitter is a free social networking website, launched by Jack Dorsey in 2006, that allows users to create an account using a ‘handle’ or unique username. The main purpose of Twitter is to ‘connect with people, express yourself, and discover what’s happening” (Twitter, 2013). This micro-blogging service allows account holders to post and read small messages of 140 characters or less, and share photos, six-second video clips, or links to other websites. Twitter has emerged as a top-ten trafficked website, and usage statistics can be seen in Table 4.9. Its popularity has driven almost all sports entities to create an account to share information and marketing themselves. Almost every rugby NGB created a Twitter account, as have individual rugby administrators, coaches, athletes, and media agencies, making Twitter an ideal platform to source storylines or dramas on a single website.

The Twitter account @SevensPhD was created in June 2011 primarily as a mode to source storylines or dramas, and by October 2012, became a source of case study access, research networking, and research brand building. Academic researchers have increasingly utilised Twitter in those aspects, as well as exchanging scholarly ideas (Bruns, Dr Katrin Weller, Zimmer, & Proferes, 2014; La Rosa, 2013; Ovadia, 2009). Veletsianos (2012) found that scholars utilise Twitter for seven reasons, including information sharing, networking, and assistance requests. This section describes the three major uses of Twitter for this study: (1) data collection; (2) case study access; and, (3) building a personal research brand through networking and information sharing.

Table 4.9 Twitter usage statistics as of 1 January 2014.

Sourced from (<http://www.statisticbrain.com/twitter-statistics>).

Twitter Company Statistics	Data
Total number of active registered Twitter users	645,750,000
Number of new Twitter users signing up everyday	135,000
Number of unique Twitter site visitors every month	190 million
Average number of tweets per day	58 million
Number of Twitter search engine queries every day	2.1 billion
Percent of Twitter users who use their phone to tweet	43 %
Percent of tweets that come from third party applicants	60%
Number of people that are employed by Twitter	2,500
Number of active Twitter users every month	115 million
Percent of Twitters who don't tweet but watch other people tweet	40%
Number of days it takes for 1 billion tweets	5 days
Number of tweets that happen every second	9,100

Twitter for data collection. The original purpose of setting up a Twitter account was to source incidents of drama that may signal organisational change. This was done in two ways. First, user accounts of rugby NGBs, administrators (e.g. NGB CEOs, IRB Sevens managers), Sevens coaches, Sevens athletes, and media outlets were followed. Following a user account collects each of their 'tweets,' or micro-blogs, onto one webpage called a Twitter feed. The page was periodically checked for incidents of drama related to the thesis. For example, the news of USA Rugby paying players for the first time in history broke on Twitter (see Figure 4.2). Information like this critical incident was noted for sequence and then further researched.



Figure 4.2 Tweet from the USA NGB regarding player specialisation.

Second, a 'hashtag' search was conducted on a regular basis, at least once a month and often weekly. Hashtags (the # symbol) allows categorisation of keywords or topics (Twitter, 2013). When multiple users tweet about a particular phenomenon, they put a '#' in front of the word or short phrase without spaces. For example, when users discuss Sevens they may use '#Sevens' or '#7s' so that others can search and find their tweet. Users can

search for #Sevens and a feed of all tweets containing that keyword will appear. Table 4.10 lists the hashtag keywords searched for this study. If enough users tweet with the same hashtag, then that topic will ‘trend’ or appear automatically on the ‘Trends’ blog of Twitter, making it easy for users to view popular topics. The Trends blog (worldwide and regional) was accessed periodically to notice any new keywords or popular trends in Sevens, and Sevens trends usually occurred during large critical incidents such as a head coach change.

Table 4.10 List of hashtags periodically searched on Twitter.

General Sevens and rugby:	#Sevens, #Sevens, #rugby, #rugbySevens
Olympics and rugby:	#OlympicRugby, #Olympics + #Sevens, #rio2016
Case Studies:	#USASevens, #SASevens, #KenyaSevens, #AussieSevens, #AUSSevens
Women’s rugby:	#womensrugby, #womensSevens

Twitter feeds were used as data themselves. The increase in tweets and certain hashtag keywords provided evidence of growth and globalisation of Sevens rugby. Tracking the number of Sevens-specific user accounts and hashtags (e.g. #Sevens #7s) across different global regions signals where and when Sevens was developing or growing in popularity. NVivo software allowed collection of Twitter feeds through its NCapture plugin for the Chrome browser. This information assisted in building the global context for this study.

Twitter for case study access. An unexpected benefit from using Twitter was case study access. Many NGB coaches and administrators would not reply to emails; however, some were responsive to Twitter. For example, the Kenya Sevens Head Coach responded to a direct tweet to him, and the result was a private message through Twitter that produced a meeting at the Gold Coast Sevens tournament in October 2012, leading to him becoming a gatekeeper to Kenya Rugby Union (see Figure 4.3). Additionally, the Kenyan High Performance Director and board member was not available during the visit to Kenya for an interview, and he was engaged via Twitter in August 2013 that led to an hour interview by Skype. Furthermore, the South Africa and USA Sevens Coaches were primarily contacted via Twitter private messages, and led to additional access beyond what was granted through other NGB sources.

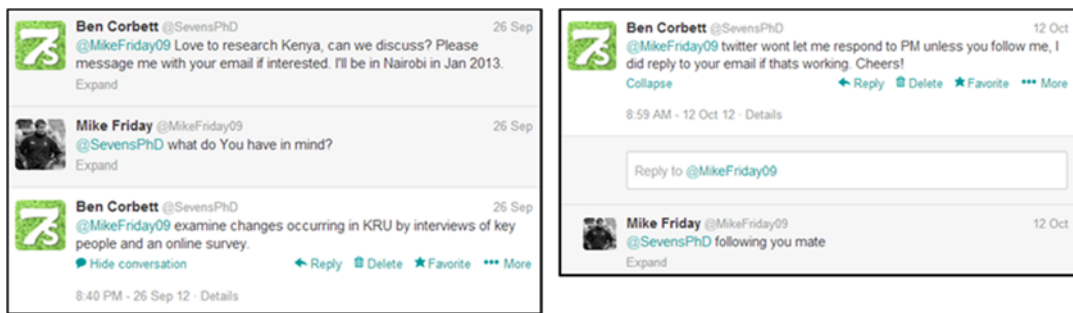


Figure 4.3 Tweets to engage Kenya as a case study.

Sometimes access to cases was unattainable; however, the attempt raised awareness of the research project. The former England Sevens Coach engaged via Twitter with initial interest in May 2012, but finally denied case access to England in October 2012 as seen in Figure 4.4. However, communication via Twitter continues with him in an attempt to build trust for access to future research.



Figure 4.4 Tweets engaging with Ben Ryan, England Sevens Head Coach

Set meetings with key people. As the @SevensPhD account attracted more followers by building a research and knowledge sharing reputation (discussed in the next section), NGB and IRB managers took notice. Occasionally, those managers contacted the account holder to ask questions about the research and to set meetings for discussion in more detail. These meetings allowed trust building for data access. For example, here is a quote from an email from a high-level IRB staff member:

I am sure you will be in the Gold Coast so can we catch up more formally then as your research is gaining a lot of interest - thanks to Twitter although I have to say there are some graphs etc. which I don't fully understand.

The email response to a the Twitter account to led to a meeting at the 2013 IRB Sevens Series tournament on the Gold Coast, with follow-up meetings and interviews with

several key IRB and NGB managers at the 2013 IRB World Conference in Dublin, Ireland. The IRB World Conference was the final location where interviews for this research occurred.

Twitter to build a research brand. Twitter has enabled the researcher to build a research brand. As with case study access, there was no initial intent to build a research brand using Twitter. This occurred naturally after the @SevensPhD account was created. In the beginning, only retweets of significant dramas (press releases) were posted to the @SevensPhD micro-blog primarily as a way to save and sort the dramas for later data consideration. The retweeting of dramas instigated new followers of @SevensPhD. Then, after initial data were collected in December of 2012, the @SevensPhD account began to build research credibility and legitimacy by posting data, as seen in Figure 4.5. The resulting credibility established trust among some NGB and IRB research participants, enabling further data collection as exemplified in the above section.

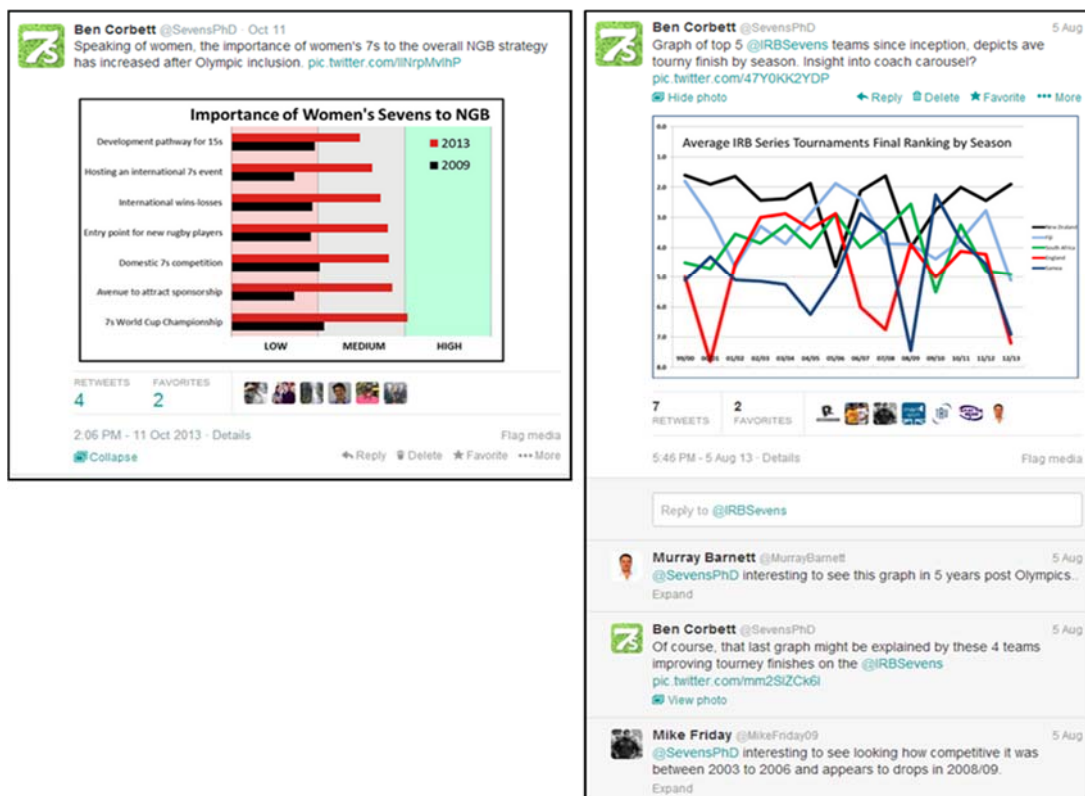


Figure 4.5 Research data tweets from @SevensPhD.

4.6.4 Triangulation

Triangulation is necessary in qualitative research to increase construct validity (Yin, 2002). It involves using different sources to converge concepts. This study compared data from various sources of the case study, across data related to different document analysis, observation, survey responses, and interviews. Responses from the same respondent or relating to the same incidents in the various data sources were checked for congruency.

Triangulation also came from using different levels of management within each organisation, to examine whether the responses are similar.

4.6.5 Ethical Clearance

Ethical clearance was obtained from Griffith University's Human Research Ethics Committee. Given the nature of this research, particularly how it pertains to strategic decisions in a competitive sector, information sheets describing the purpose of this research and confidentiality agreements were offered to each subject (see Appendices 2 and 3). Any specific data that might violate confidentiality was not included in this thesis nor any other publication. That data were used to formulate themes for coding; however, the specific event or issue and any identifying information were withheld after data analysis.

4.7 Data Analysis

This section details how the data were analysed. All data were coded and analysed following the conceptual framework outlined in Chapter Two, which draws from the literature on organisational design and change. This section discusses how the data were coded for analysis.

4.7.1 Coding

Coding organises data for analysis. In qualitative studies, data coding allows the researcher to create concepts and themes, eventually linking them together to create theoretical statements (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). The units of measurement, the themes and concepts, are not predetermined in case study research; although creating an initial list of themes can be useful in guiding the first examination of the data (Neuman, 2011). The data combine with theoretical constructs to specify the units of measurement (Neuman, 2011). Therefore, coding assigns the units of analysis. This study utilised three stages in analysing the data - open, axial, and selective coding.

Open Coding. Open coding condenses raw data into preliminary categories. The documents, observation notes, survey responses, and interview transcripts were read in detail, and people, key events, and terms were noted and grouped according to initial categories. The conceptual framework acted as a guide to examine the data by creation of initial categories to assist in coding. According to Neuman (2011), an initial list of themes based on the constructs of the case study serves three purposes. First, it allows the researcher a transitory look at the emerging themes. Second, it stimulates finding future themes. Third, it facilitates a universal list of all themes, which can eventually be reorganised, sorted, combined, discarded, or extended in future analysis. The initial list of themes in this study included: (1) environmental jolts; (2) organisational values; (3) organisational structure; (4) key actors; (5) inter-organisational links; (6) legitimate forms of capital; and, (7) regulatory structures. A list of initial codes developed using the conceptual framework prior to the first

round of open coding can be viewed in Table 4.11. These initial codes were not all used as final units of measurements, but they were useful in guiding the first examination of the data.

Table 4.11 Initial codes based on conceptual framework.

Broad Environment	Task Environment (Field-Level)	Inertia	Isomorphism	Organisational Design	Change Process
Socio-cultural	Actors	Resistance to change	Coercive	Centralisation	Rebuttal
Demographic	Exchange Processes	Acceptance of change	Mimetic	Specialisation	Reorientation
Legal	Inter-organisational Links		Normative	Formalisation	Colonisation
Economic	Regulatory Structures			Criteria of Effectiveness	Evolution
Political	Legitimate Capital			Domain Orientation	

During the first round of open coding, new themes (codes) began to emerge. The first round of coding produced 159 total codes, and an additional 73 categories. The 73 categories were not themes, but rather markers to assist in grouping data. For example, 'ARU,' 'Sevens GM,' and 'USOC' were among the 73 categories. The 159 themes included codes relating to the initial code list (e.g. specialisation, mimetic isomorphism, and field level pressure) and new codes (resistance to Sevens, exclusion of women, and Sevens residency).

Axial Coding. The second pass through the data involved axial coding. Axial coding connects the concepts and themes found in open coding (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). Open coding starts the process of developing themes, however, the codes need a coherent relationship with each other to offer structure to the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The 159 codes found in the open coding exercise were clustered together in sub-categories by a strategic and rigorous process to identify relationships among those open codes. These 159 codes were grouped, merged, and tiered to create a manageable list of 38 codes in seven primary themes depicted in Table 4.12. Additional core themes outside the theoretical construct were identified, providing guidance in the development of the exploratory model. Axial coding also strengthens reliability, as data are connected to themes with multiple evidences (Neuman, 2011).

Table 4.12 List of significant codes emerged from data.

Primary Theme	Child Codes
Organisational Design	Centralisation, Specialisation, Formalisation, Criteria of Effectiveness, Domain, Orientation
Broad Environment Field-Level Characteristics	Culture, Government, Corruption, Race, Technology Actors, Commercialisation, Exchange Processes, Inter-organisational Linkages, Governance, Participation, Regulations, Resources
Institutionalism	Inertia, Isomorphism (Coercive, Mimetic, Normative), Legitimacy
Gender	Disparity, Equality, Exclusion, Inclusion, Stereotyping, Women's Sevens Reliance
High Performance System	Airport Meet and Greet, Training Camps, Residency, Professionalisation
Sevens versus Fifteens	Effects on Fifteens, NGB Support for Fifteens, NGB Support for Sevens

Selective Coding. After the major themes and concepts were identified in the open and axial coding, the data was revisited to find supporting data. This is referred to as selective coding (Neuman, 2011). Selective coding was the final coding step, and only occurred after all the themes were well developed and identified. Selective coding elaborated on the central themes, giving a deeper understanding. All the data were searched for explicit examples to describe the central themes.

4.7.2 Coding Tool

NVivo software was the tool that assisted in managing the data coding process. NVivo allows the researcher to assign textual data to themes while open coding, which builds evidence for each theme. In axial coding, NVivo aided the researcher by facilitating recognition of connections among themes. This can help in identifying emerging themes and in organising data on how and why processes and relationships interact (Gibbs, 2002). Finally, NVivo enabled the researcher to efficiently access exemplary data to aid selective coding, which Sotiriadou, Brouwers, and Le (2014) discussed as a key benefit of using NVivo as a tool for linking data for deeper interpretation that allows for more elaborate story telling.

NVivo has limitations. NVivo, unlike Leximancer, does not identify concepts. Therefore, it is time-consuming to identify concepts, especially in un-structured discourse such as various types of interview transcripts (Sotiriadou et al., 2014). However, the extra time spent while analysing data allows the researcher to have a familiarity with the data. Another limitation is that researchers may exhibit bias while subjectively coding data by searching for data that fits with predetermined ideas and results. This validity issue was overcome with the use of a secondary coder for a sample of the data set (Lu & Shulman, 2008).

4.7.3 Determination of Design Archetypes

Each design archetype mechanism (centralisation, formalisation, specialisation, criteria of effectiveness, and domain) were scored on a five-point scale of very low to very high. Scoring was determined from questionnaire, organisational documents, and interview data analysis. It is important to note that this study's qualitative nature did not require quantitative analysis of the results, and the questionnaire was designed as such. Similar to the twelve year Canadian NSO study (Amis et al., 2004a; Kikulis et al., 1992, 1995a), qualitative analysis of the Likert Scales that are typically used for statistical comparisons were rather used to categorise design archetype mechanisms. The questionnaire allowed an initial mechanism categorisation of low, medium, and high based on the average Likert Scale responses.

Due to the perception differences of similar NGB staff across the four case studies, an adjustment of the initial mechanism categorisation was required. Analysis of organisational documents, especially the noted changes over time, and interview data allowed for two significant adjustments to the initial categorisations. First, the contextual analysis among case studies allowed adjustment of how the mechanism categorisations should be in relation to each case study. For example, Australia self-rated medium for formalisation for its first design archetype in the questionnaire, but was seen to have a low level of formalisation when compared to the three other case studies. Second, organisational document and interview data analysis assisted with a further differentiation of the mechanisms from a three-point to a five-point scale of very low, low, medium, high, and very high. This was a subjective perception of the researcher that was based on the change witnessed over time in the depth and breadth of centralisation, formalisation, specialisation, criteria of effectiveness, and domain.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the qualitative methods for this research undertaken with a post-positivist viewpoint. This study consisted of four longitudinal case studies with an interpretive theoretical output based on Pettigrew (1990). The four cases examined include the NGBs of rugby union for Australia, Kenya, USA, and South Africa. Data were collected and analysed from archive records, document analysis, observation, and semi-structured interviews, and then analysed using open, axial, and selective coding techniques. This allowed the researcher to address the research aims and questions.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Five serves as an introduction to the results and discussion of the thesis. First, the structure of the results and discussion chapters will be detailed. Next, a brief summary of major changes identified during coding of the data is presented with connections to the conceptual framework. The chapter concludes with the unveiling of the two most significant change themes that spread across and connect the changes brought on by Olympic pressures. Both of these change themes are introduced in this chapter and explored in depth in the following chapters with guidance from the study's conceptual framework.

5.2 Structure of Results and Discussion

The results and discussion for this study are presented over three chapters. This chapter utilises data from each of the four case study NGBs, other rugby NGBs, and the IRB to provide a general overview of changes occurring in rugby due to Olympic inclusion. Four general changes occurred in rugby due to Olympic inclusion: 1) globalisation; 2) participation boom; 3) competition structures; and, 4) Sevens versus Fifteens. These four changes have at the same time directly affected the focal case studies and were evident within each case study. Each of these four changes, or pressures for change, could constitute a single doctoral thesis on its own, however it was beyond the scope of this present study to fully explore each. Therefore, only a brief discussion of each occurs in Chapter Five as they do relate directly and indirectly to the two major NGB strategic changes that were deeply explored in this study: 1) the isomorphic change in Sevens high performance system; and, 2) the rise of women's rugby. Those two changes will be introduced at the end of this chapter, and will be discussed in detail in Chapters Six and Seven, respectively.

The conceptual framework guides the discourse of the study's empirical results. Chapter Five utilises the framework by compartmentalising the general results into the framework's core components of organisational field (why), design archetypes (what), and process of change (how). Chapters Six and Seven utilise the framework as a discussion guide. Moreover, the data presented in Chapters Six and Sevens informed the conceptual framework, and the result was the new integrated change model to be discussed in Chapter Eight. Data from the case studies cover all components of the model as the overall analysis of what, how, and why changes occurred.

5.3 Global Changes in Rugby

The following changes in global rugby were identified during data coding and analysis with the assistance of NVivo software. These changes affected most rugby unions, and have specifically driven organisational change within the case study governing bodies. The changes are grouped into four categories: globalisation, participation boom, competition structures, and Sevens versus Fifteens resource competition.

5.3.1 Globalisation

In a 2001 book, Miller, Lawrence, McKay, and Rowe discussed various historical and modern (at the time) issues around globalisation of sport, including the power of media, the sharing of national symbols, the binding of politics, economics, and sociology, and the governance of sport. Fifteen years later those issues still hold true, but the information age has vastly increased the both the interconnectedness and the rate at which sports globalise (Sage, 2015). Rugby acknowledges the increasing opportunity to globalise, as mentioned in a speech at the 2013 IRB World Conference in Dublin,

I think we recognise that for rugby it is a great opportunity to globalise and grow the sport, particularly for young people and the Olympic movement. It takes us into countries where there is a great feel for that. All sports that have an Olympic profile tend to get a greater handhold in those countries.

In addition, a Sevens tournament operator, who had been involved with IRB Sevens World Series since its inception in 1999, noted the globalisation of Sevens:

I had an inkling in 2000 that something might be able to grow out of the series, but the expansion of Sevens into non-traditional rugby nations and their ability to get competitive in the last three years was something I had not quite expected. I love the All Blacks, but they are going to have competition from only two or three countries [in Fifteens]. In the Sevens, isn't it exciting that Canada could beat the All Blacks one day, then Kenya could beat Canada, then Hong Kong could beat Kenya? Who knows? I mean that's what makes it exciting and a global opportunity.

Further, twenty-five nations bid to host a IRB Sevens World Series event (including non-traditional rugby nations like Portugal, Spain, and China), and 14 bid to host the 2018 Rugby World Cup Sevens, displaying the globalisation of rugby that Sevens created.

One way to look at globalisation was the volume and proportion of media releases on the subject of Sevens. Using Factiva, a Dow Jones database of media releases, two tables were created (Table 5.1 and Table 5.2). Table 5.1 shows the total number of media releases with keywords “rugby” AND “sevens” in the periods of 1975 to 2008 (pre-2009) and 2009 to 2014 (post-2009). A majority (72%) of media releases originated from the European and Oceanic regions. This was not a surprise, and may be attributed to those regions being the home of six of eight Foundation Nations and eight of ten professional rugby competitions.

Table 5.1 Rugby Sevens media releases before and after 2009.

Region	"Rugby AND Sevens" pre-2009	"Rugby AND Sevens" post-2009
Europe	26,234	26,431
Oceania	24,804	25,057
Asia	7,696	9,828
Africa	4,401	6,724
North America	2,083	6,490
South America	598	1,398

However, where the data offered a glimpse of the total production of media releases by regions, it was not representative of globalisation changes because media outlets and outputs have increased in most sectors due to the Internet's ease of access and posting. Therefore, a deeper look into the Sevens' media releases included the proportion of media releases on "rugby Sevens" is illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Proportion of Sevens media releases in Olympic regions.

Region	Releases per Million pre-2009	Releases per Million post-2009	Change
Oceania	1,231	1,206	-2%
Africa	750	931	24%
South America	211	522	147%
Europe	392	454	16%
Asia	169	192	13%
North America	27	97	254%

With this perspective, Oceania has had the highest proportion of media releases with keywords "rugby" AND "Sevens" with 1,231 and 1,206 releases per million of all media releases on any subject. Nevertheless, the evidence of globalisation was highlighted by the percent change column. South and North America have seen the proportion of Sevens stories grow by 147% and 254%, respectively. Africa and South America were ahead of Europe, even though each only has one Foundation Nation, and Africa only has one professional rugby nation (South Africa). Oceania was the only region to stay relatively the same between the two periods. These data assist in illustrating the increasing globalisation of Sevens, as every region except Oceania increased media attention on Sevens, and Oceania was already considered a rugby and Sevens region.

Globalisation and the organisational field. "The British settled their empire with the Bible in one hand and a ball and bat in the other" (Maguire, 2015, p. 520). That quote embodied Maguire's discussion of the influence and control that western cultures installed during the diffusion of sport across the globe, which was also the case with rugby. The British and its

former colonies have owned a controlling vote at the IRB since its inception. However, the current globalisation of rugby greatly affected the organisational field surrounding rugby NGBs. Actors (e.g. NGB administrators, national sponsors, government officials) in “minnow” rugby nations may have increased power within the global rugby community. The power, and resulting influence, may come from increased participation rates and media coverage in these Tier Two and Three nations leading to more voices increasing pressure on traditional rugby nations. This pressure began to change the way international competitions were designated and hosted (e.g. a New Zealand All Blacks full test match in the United States and Samoa for the first time in history). Even smaller concessions have been allowed, such as preferential match times on the IRB World Sevens Series.

In addition, significant pressure mounted on professional clubs in Tier One nations to release players (many from Tier Two nations) from professional duty to play on the IRB World Sevens Series in the lead up to the Olympics. In 2013, the IRB included the Olympic Games and all Olympic qualifying tournaments in the regulation governing the release of players by professional clubs for national team duty. The release of players for Fifteens test matches was always required, but rarely enforced. Players from Tier Two nations (especially the Pacific Island nations, Japan and the United States) have been rumoured to be secretly threatened with contract status if they chose to represent their nation over their professional club. Nicky Little, a Fijian international, was quoted by John Daniell (2012) in an online article of *The Independent*:

For many seasons, European and UK-based Islanders have either been blackmailed not to play for their countries, or had pay docked when they were with their national teams.

The tactic both weakened Tier Two teams and retained high calibre players for commercial gain by Tier One nation professional clubs. At the time of writing, it was yet to be determined how the Olympic qualification additions to the IRB regulation, and the growing voice of Tier Two nations, will pressure professional clubs to finally adhere to the regulations.

Another pressure for change was the repatriation of national team alliance. The IRB began allowing players who have been capped by one nation to be capped by a second nation in 2014. The regulation stipulated that the player must participate in four Olympic qualifying matches and not have been capped within the last eighteen months by the first nation. The IOC pressured this change through lobbying to have the world’s best rugby players at the Olympic Games. The new regulation provided more benefits to lower tier nations by fortifying their teams, as top-level nations such as New Zealand, Australia, and England have often capped players from nations like Samoa, Fiji, and Tonga. As this was a new regulation at the end of 2014, it warrants further investigation as to its impact on global rugby.

Globalisation and design archetype change. Globalisation, and the field level changes it brings, accelerated isomorphic processes resulting in faster and more detailed transfer of values and structures from one NGB to another. Normative isomorphism appeared to occur more frequently than expected as compared to rugby's most recent transformation due to professionalisation in the 1990s. Globalisation may have affected isomorphic mechanisms by opening more inter-organisational linkages, providing simpler and faster knowledge transfers, and breaking down previous cultural boundaries. The IRB facilitated the isomorphic process by providing networking opportunities, learning and sharing best practices from its entire member NGBs, and providing more international competitions that assist in bringing more nations together and breaking down the cultural divides.

The IOC and its member NOCs were actively spreading core values through the IRB and rugby NGBs. As the relationships between the rugby NGBs and their relative NOCs tighten, pressure increased on NGBs to adopt the Olympic value systems. Evidence of Olympic values adoption and tightening of relationships will be discussed in Chapters Six and Seven.

Globalisation and the process of change. Globalisation, and the resulting ease of isomorphic processes, affected the NGB's internal process of change most often through a colonisation or evolution, depending on the NGB and its own organisational inertia and willingness to seek outside advice. The data provided evidence that normative isomorphism more often led to evolutionary change, while coercive isomorphism led to colonisation change, as will be exemplified and discussed in Chapter Six.

5.3.2 Participation Boom

The IRB announced in 2014 that global participation increased from 2.9 million in 2009 (pre-Olympic inclusion) to 6.6 million participants worldwide. How much of the 121% increase can be attributed to the new Olympic status has not been determined, although many respondents speculated that Olympic status was a major contributor. Olympic status stimulated rugby's inclusion in schools, universities, and militaries.

For example, 16,000 more Australians participated in Sevens in 2013 over 2012, an increase of 41%. That brought the total number of Sevens' participants to a record 55,000. This contributed to an increase of 28% more people playing rugby in general in 2013, totalling 615,000 nationwide. However, despite Australia's Rugby World Cup Sevens win in 2009 and second place finish in 2013, still only 5% of all rugby players in Australia were female in 2013. The ARU CEO repeatedly stated the need to leverage Sevens in public addresses, including this statement in 2013:

Growing rugby, particularly in new markets using the exciting Sevens format of our game is critical to the long-term sustainability of rugby as we strive to ignite passion in the next generation of players and fans.

In the United States, the Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association (SGMA) released a report in 2011 stating that rugby was the fastest growing team sport in America, increasing participation by 51% from 2009 to 2010. Women comprised 32% of all 1.1million Americans that played rugby, according to the 2011 SGMA report.

As Australia and the United States have each enjoyed significant growth, South Africa has had more modest success leveraging the Olympics for boosting Sevens and women's rugby. South Africa-Respondent-28 stated:

From a strategic point of view, from the South African context, our next big challenge is to expand the game, to move it and stretch it beyond the traditional white supporter player base. That's the one thing that would be really to up the game in terms of women's participation. Like I said, we haven't scratched the surface not by any stretch of the imagination. There's a lot more we can do in terms of women's rugby but it's a perception thing.

This quote refers to the immense inertia within the South African community for "traditional" rugby – white, male, and Fifteens. In order to truly leverage the Olympic inclusion of Sevens in South Africa, SARU must further embrace both gender and race equality. These issues were often discussed during the researcher's interviews, especially the nexus of black females entering the world of South African rugby. More of this will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

A substantial benefit from increased participation could be increased media coverage, as more people were interested in covering and reading about rugby. An increase in participation and media attention may attract new sponsorship. Moreover, the Olympic aura has been attributed to increasing both media and sponsorship to its constituent sports. Rugby NGBs have seen an increased ability to attract both media and sponsorship, as illustrated in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.1 shows data from the online questionnaire regarding the NGB's ability to attract media coverage for rugby in general and specifically for Sevens for either men or women. Respondents answered whether the NGB's ability to attract media attention was high, medium, low, or non-existent. The results illustrate an upwards trend, with more responses for high and medium for 2013 versus 2009 as depicted by an increase in blue and green in the figures.

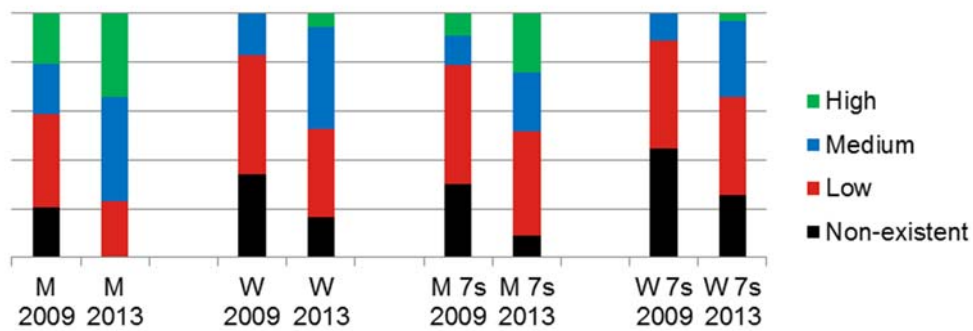


Figure 5.1 NGB ability to attract media coverage.

Figure 5.2 illustrates the NGBs' perceived ability to attract sponsorship. Attracting sponsorship lags behind attracting media. However, several interview participants discussed that they expected this to change as the Olympics approached, and especially after the 2016 Olympic Games when a larger audience is expected to witness Sevens.

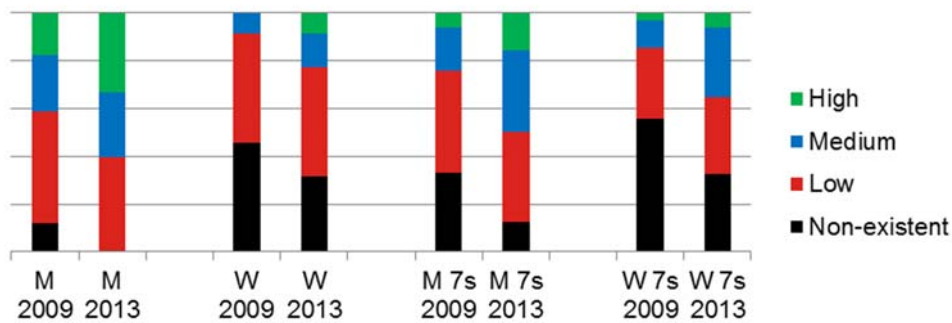


Figure 5.2 NGB ability to secure sponsorship.

The data in Table 5.3 also illustrates the increasing trends visualised in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2. It displays the average rating for men and women in 2009 and 2013 using the scale: high = 3, medium = 2, low = 1, non-existent = 0. The data were triangulated in the interview process, where it was found that many NGB managers believe the Olympics have opened media and sponsorship opportunities that were not possible before 2009. One trend that will be discussed further in Chapter Seven was that women have outpaced men in increasing ability to attract media and sponsorship.

Table 5.3 NGB ability to attract media and secure sponsorship.

	Attract Media			Secure Sponsorship		
	2009	2013	Difference	2009	2013	Difference
Men's Rugby	1.4	2.1	50%	1.5	1.9	32%
Women's Rugby	0.8	1.4	64%	0.6	1.0	59%
Men's Sevens	1.0	1.6	64%	1.0	1.5	58%
Women's Sevens	0.7	1.1	67%	0.6	1.1	76%

Participation boom and the field level. There was evidence that increasing participants increased the NGB's ability to attract media and sponsorships, which introduced new actors, resources, and inter-organisational linkages to the field.

Participation boom and design archetype change. Those field level changes from the prior sections affected values of domain, criteria of effectiveness, and orientation within the case studies. Participation boom, and the subsequent field changes, affected the construct of domain the most, as it increases the pressure on the NGB to focus its products and services on mass participation and away from elite performance. In the USA, membership dues constitute the largest revenue source for USAR. USAR developed an IRB award-winning program called "Get In to Rugby" that introduced rugby to over one million young people. However, some USA respondents stated that the program was under-resourced and unable to convert many of those casual introductions into long-term participants. The USA had difficulty in starting and maintaining youth clubs linked to the strong domain of elite performance that continues in the USA. Pressures came from television broadcasters, the USOC, and several sponsors that themed through data analysis to value Olympic qualification more than youth clubs.

The criteria of effectiveness construct was also affected by the participation boom. New membership and participation targets, especially for women, were created in all case studies, citing the Olympic-effect as a main driver to reach new demographics. However, similar to domain, the new objective of Olympic qualification and winning a medal trumped the new objectives for mass participation. Both the domain and criteria of effectiveness constructs affect each other, but more significantly, interact with the orientation construct.

It was not apparent that the participation boom had any significant impact on centralisation or formalisation in the case studies. There were some specialisation changes with new participation management roles in both Sevens and women's rugby to cope with the increasing demand for competitions and school age clubs.

Participation boom and the process of change. It was observed in each of the case studies that a reorientation occurred in response to the participation boom. As noted earlier, there was a change in domain values that drove some specialisation changes in roles and programming; however, the values did not change enough from the original value system to be construed as a major shift. Therefore, only a reorientation of specialisation structures was supported by the data.

5.3.3 Competition Structures

With globalisation and a participation boom comes a demand for competition structures at every level of rugby, from novice school aged children to elite international players. However, due to the focus on Fifteens professionalisation, very few Sevens

competitions were established prior to the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement. A question the researcher always asked in both formal and casual discussions:

If the Olympics inspire people to want to play Sevens, where can they go and sign up for *Sevens*? What competition structures exist for those that choose to only play Sevens, and not Fifteens?

The overwhelming response to that question themed around - they will want to play rugby, and there are many rugby clubs that will welcome them. Even the IRB CEO deflected this question when directed at him at the 2013 IRB World Conference in Dublin with a response:

The IRB's core game is, and always will be, Fifteens. We hope the Olympic Games inspires thousands of youth to rugby from the exciting display of Sevens. Sevens has the attributes that many youth are attracted to, and it is fast, exciting, wide-open style allows every position on the field to share the ball.

This was an ironic idea discovered throughout the research. The style of Sevens, and what makes it different to Fifteens (high scoring, open play, less time on lineouts and scrums, more chances for every player to handle the ball), would attract youth. But then those youth would be forced to play Fifteens right away as Sevens competitions were extremely limited. Australian clubs, for example, compete in one to three Sevens tournaments per year, as opposed to up to twenty to thirty Fifteens matches.

The researcher often followed that typical response with another question: “but what if the newly inspired youth *only* wanted to play Sevens?” That question was usually met with a look of puzzlement remarks about the “true” rugby code of Fifteens, especially in the Tier One case studies of Australia and South Africa. The IRB CEO backtracked after posed with the second questions, and speculated about an IRB reactive position regarding Sevens specialisation:

We [IRB] are trying to create more inventory for the sport [Sevens] around the world, either regionally or locally in schools, and at the highest level, which is the HSBC Sevens Series [IRB Sevens World Series]. But we need to manage expectations, but also plan for success. With Sevens, because of style and resources required and infrastructure, we can move quickly if there is a huge uptake in interest, and there will be.

This attitude highlights a truly inertial viewpoint of Fifteens hierarchal placement over Sevens. It became obvious from these questions that many NGBs had not valued strategising Sevens-specialists scenarios. There will be more discussion on the Sevens-specialists theme in the next section of Sevens versus Fifteens, and in Chapters Six and Seven.

Up until 2013, the only entry point for youth rugby was Fifteens, or possibly tag or touch rugby in some nations. The attitude of “Fifteens is rugby” was slowly dissipating, allowing Sevens to become the version of rugby used for introductory purposes. For example, Australia began devising plans for a new pathway of introducing youth to rugby via Sevens; however, the plans had not come to full fruition by the end of data collection. Australia-Respondent-3 addressed the need for Sevens as an introductory platform:

Sevens is more about running and expressing yourself. You don't have the scrums the lineouts and quite as much contact, so it appeals to the youth and the parents of the youth, especially those with an AFL [Australian Rule Football] background who despise the set piece that rugby has.

The rating of the level of rugby in grade schools, according to the online questionnaire, increased in both general rugby and Sevens between 2009 and 2013, as depicted in Figure 5.3. Every union that responded to the question had at least some level of male rugby competitions in grade school by 2013. Table 5.4 shows another way to express the differences in the level of grade school rugby programs from 2009 to 2013 by calculating the average level of each group using the scale: non-existent = 0; low = 1; medium = 2; high = 3.

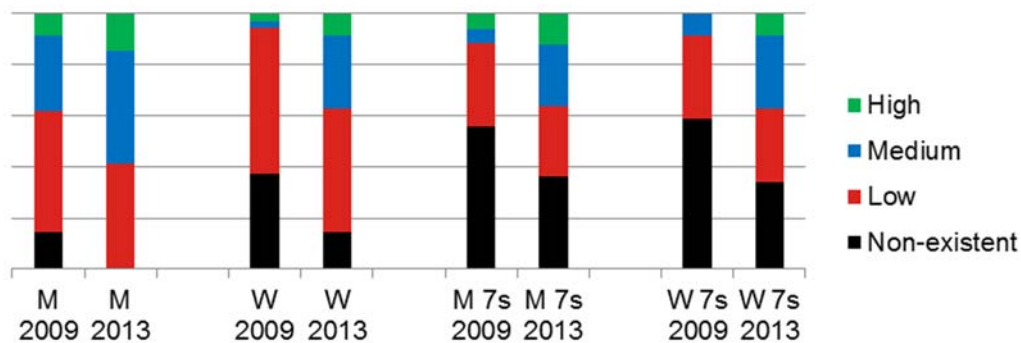


Figure 5.3 Rating the level of rugby in grade schools.

Table 5.4 Level of grade school rugby programs (scale 0-3).

	2009	2013	Difference
Men's Rugby	1.3	1.7	31%
Women's Rugby	0.7	1.3	86%
Men's Sevens	0.6	1.1	83%
Women's Sevens	0.5	1.1	120%

The next level of Sevens competitions includes senior clubs that could be utilised for both mass participation and elite player development. Australia-Respondent-2 described the current situation in Australia as:

The ARU has talked about a university-based Sevens program. We definitely need a domestic Sevens-based competition that feeds into a National tournament that can help with national selection. Right now we have a few Sevens comps but none of them are being run in a consistent manner. There is still room for those social or non-traditional Sevens tournaments but we need a national structure that feeds more elite players playing the game.

Using the same rating system used for the grade school rugby programs, Figure 5.4 shows rating of rugby and Sevens in senior clubs. The data are also depicted in Table 5.5. Comparing the youth and senior rugby programs it is evident that more resources have been directed to the youth programs than senior. This may be explained by the school policies in many countries that allow or seek official Olympic sports to be added to the school curriculum. This was the case in China, Russia, and the United States.

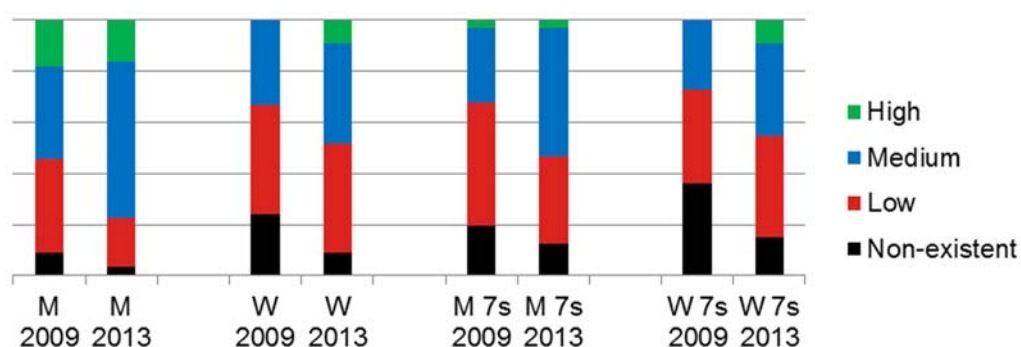


Figure 5.4 Rating the level of rugby in adult clubs.

Table 5.5 Level of adult club rugby programs (scale 0-3).

	2009	2013	Difference
Men's Rugby	1.6	1.9	19%
Women's Rugby	1.1	1.5	36%
Men's Sevens	1.2	1.4	17%
Women's Sevens	0.9	1.4	56%

Further, the development of coordinated, national Sevens competition was being addressed by rugby NGBs. Figure 5.5 illustrates the growth in the national Sevens competitions. Of the 28 NGBs that responded to the online questionnaire, only 13 (46%) male and 10 (36%) female nationally coordinated national Sevens competitions existed prior

to 2009. Those numbers increased to 24 (86%) male 27 (96%) female, inclusive of competitions that were started or were in development after Olympic inclusion. Women's Sevens amateur competitions may outnumber men's Sevens amateur competitions, a development that will be discussed further in Chapter Seven.

Figure 5.5 also depicts professional Sevens competitions for men and women. Professional meant that professional clubs enter the competition and/or prize money was offered to the winners. Unions can have both professional and amateur Sevens competitions.

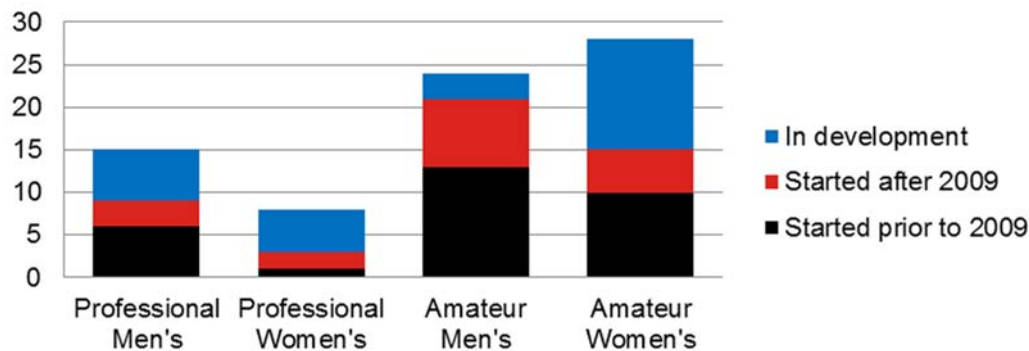


Figure 5.5 Establishment of a national Sevens competition.

The next level includes international competitions. The IRB World Sevens Series is the peak annual competition for Sevens. However, there were limited opportunities for nations to compete outside IRB World Sevens Series. The competitive gap was widening between IRB World Sevens Series core and non-core teams, and new Olympic funding was often linked to core status. For example, if the United States failed to remain a core team through the annual relegation process, then the USOC would reduce the number of stipends available for national team players.

The IRB and the regional governing bodies host varying levels of regional Sevens tournaments (e.g. Asian 7s Series, European Grand Prix Sevens), but these have not proven to be extensive enough to develop non-core nations to compete with core nations. As of 2014, the IRB was discussing several options for increased international competition, including an IRB World Sevens Series 'B.' The results of those discussions, and the impacts on non-core national team competitiveness would be fruitful areas for future research.

In addition, there was a severe lack of professional opportunities for Sevens specialists outside the IRB World Sevens Series. As of 2014, it was nearly impossible for a rugby player, only interested in playing Sevens, to earn a living as a professional athlete. A few touring teams (e.g. United Kingdom based Samurai, Australian based Tribe) were marginally successful winning prize money at non-IRB international Sevens tournaments. However, the winnings were usually insufficient to cover travel expenses, and only if the team takes first place.

A few fully professional Sevens circuits have been operated (e.g. Carlton Sevens in Sri Lanka) or proposed (e.g. Premier Sevens League in South Africa and Grand Prix Sevens in the USA), however none of them have been successful in creating a sustainable and liveable income for professional Sevens athletes. This is another potential research area moving forward.

Competition structures and the organisational field. Inspiring the world's youth through Olympic display of Sevens rugby may or may not be a realistic legacy for the IRB, as research has arguments on each side of that debate (Frawley & Cush, 2011; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Mahtani et al., 2013; Veal et al., 2012). There was evidence from this present study that Olympics inclusion has driven an increase in participation rates, not from spectating the Olympic Games, but from legitimisation of the sport. If Olympic Sevens does attract new athletes to play rugby, then those new athletes can pressure NGBs to further develop Sevens-specific competitions.

In addition, as NGBs have been resistant or slow to create Sevens competitions, new actors have entered the field in the form of independent tournament and Sevens series operators. With the operators come broadcasters, merchandisers, and spectators that have added pressures on the NGBs to work with the independent operators. This was evident in the USA where the operator of the IRB World Sevens Series Las Vegas event privately started competing with USAR in both university and high school Sevens tournaments. The company partnered with USA's National Broadcasting Network (NBC) and several companies to stage the Sevens competitions. This has introduced new, highly resourced actors into the rugby field in America. USAR, fearful of losing some control over rugby's commercial value, countered this intrusion by increasing resources in those same areas. The media, including media controlled by the private rugby enterprise, elevated this conflict. This created additional conflict among many of the USA's rugby members and participants over what entity(ies) should control these valuable commercial opportunities as rugby expands in the highly commercialised American sporting environment.

Competition structures and design archetypes. Competition structures are themselves organisational structures that fall under specialisation. In terms of organisation values, competition structures straddle the domains of mass participation and high performance. Every case study had NGB managers that stated more competitions were needed to capture growing interest to play Sevens, and elite level competitions are needed outside the IRB World Sevens Series to develop Sevens specific skills in athletes. The gender domains have also been affected by competition structures as NGBs may view Sevens as the future of women's rugby, therefore cannibalising women's Fifteens competitions in lieu of Sevens competitions.

Competition structures and the process of change. The case study organisations each underwent a different process of introducing new Sevens competitions. Starting with rebuttal, South Africa had been the slowest to add new Sevens competitions or increase capacity at current competitions. Instead, SARU seemed content to continue selecting Sevens athletes from Fifteens competitions, and then developing the Sevens athlete in the centralised training facility.

Australia reoriented after a long rebuttal period. While the ARU were not keen to heavily resource Sevens competitions throughout Australia, it established a National Sevens Championship for women in 2013. That competition will include men in 2015. The impetus fell to each state governing body to establish local Sevens competitions. The ARU was in discussion with several independently owned Sevens tournaments, such as the Noosa International Sevens and Central Coast Sevens, to establish an official “East Coast Sevens Series.” However, as of 2014, this plan had not launched and the tournaments remained independent.

Kenya always placed a high value on Sevens, and reoriented its national Sevens competitions by expanding the national Sevens Series. Old and new national sponsors have provided additional resources for Sevens competitions as the KRU sought to develop into a top four Sevens nation. However, the focus continued on the senior club and international competition levels, with few new resources directed at schools. The KRU placed the most attention on earning a spot on the IRB World Sevens Series by increasing the profile and operations of its flagship tournament – the Safaricom Sevens. The Safaricom Sevens mixed international teams, professional clubs, and invitational clubs. On occasion, it doubled as host for the Confederation of African Rugby Sevens Championships. The KRU bid at considerable expense to include it on the IRB World Sevens Series, with mixed support from its members. An increasing number of Kenyan rugby club administrators and coaches have called for those resources to be redirected at growing grade school competitions.

USAR have been pressured from the field to increase Sevens competitions at all levels, and the initial rebuttal created opportunities for external private entities to develop Sevens competitions. Eventually, the fear of losing commercial value produced a colonisation process whereby new departments and competitions were developed within USAR to handle increased demand. Eventually, USAR’s values of domain and criteria of effectiveness in relation to Sevens competitions realigned with other professional and university sport competition systems. The beginnings of a USAR created city-based, semi-professional (with goals of becoming professional) Sevens circuit was inaugurated in 2014. This was a significant shift from the local club based competitions that USAR promoted since inception, and matches the city based team concept prevalent in other American sports. Moreover, there was a significant rise in the number and complexity of university based Sevens competitions by USAR.

In summary, Sevens competitions were undergoing expansion and development over the data collection period. The competition values and structure changes relate to both the two major themes of this thesis (to be discussed in Chapters Six and Seven). First, the lack of consistent, high level Sevens teams and competitions was a major antecedent for NGBs centralising their Sevens national teams, creating a major shift in high performance systems. This is discussed in Chapter Six. Second, the rise of women's rugby pressured NGBs to develop new competitions to capture the increased demand. However, it appeared that it Sevens, and not Fifteens, attracted a large portion of women into rugby. This leads into the next global theme: Sevens versus Fifteens.

5.3.4 Sevens versus Fifteens

Globalisation, the participation boom, and competition structures all intertwine with the final global change theme identified in this research as "Sevens versus Fifteens." The word 'versus' was chosen because this theme emerged from the scarce resources available in many rugby NGBs. Sevens taken some of the existing resources, and new actors have provided additional resources, often deemed exclusive by actors for the Olympic development of Sevens. A majority of senior NGB and IRB staff agreed with the viewpoint of the IRB CEO's public statement released in 2013 on the IRB website:

Sevens is more accessible, bit more understandable, easier to put a team together, for countries that do not have infrastructure it is easier to get an infrastructure in Sevens earlier, and it is cost effective because it is half the number of people. But, having Sevens at Olympics is good for rugby. Sevens is 'rugby' not just Sevens code. When people get into Sevens they want to get into Fifteens as well, either as a spectator or as a player. There is a lot of complimentary for both of those versions of our game, rugby. A key point from that statement was "countries that do not have infrastructure." This refers to countries that did not have professional or heavily resourced amateur clubs, as were found in all Tier One rugby nations. Lower tier nations, particularly Tier Three, have been shifting focus from Fifteens to Sevens. Some publically discussed the possibility of dropping a national level Fifteens team altogether (e.g. China, India). The IRB maintained a firm stance that a NGB must field a national Fifteens side in international competition on an annual basis to continue membership status. However, two IRB managers discussed the possibility of relaxing this stipulation for women only as a way to increase NGB membership in the IRB. IRB membership offers benefits such as legitimacy, knowledge sharing, funding, international competition, and the ability to enter Olympic qualification tournaments. This unbalanced policy for women's rugby membership stipulation (over men's) adds to the rise of women's rugby theme that will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

Shift in support from Fifteens to Sevens. Fifteens has always been the core code of rugby. However, Sevens has siphoned resources away from the Fifteens code in each case study

examined, and across all of rugby. The online questionnaire provided data on the shift in NGB support for Fifteens in favour of Sevens and the data will be discussed in this section.

The following nine figures display the shift in importance in Sevens versus Fifteens. Respondents were asked whether Sevens, Fifteens, or both were favoured within the NGB for various strategies (e.g. attracting media attention). Sevens (in red) gained on Fifteens from before the Olympic inclusion announcement to 2013. Further, ‘favoured both’ became the highest response in 2013, indicating that Sevens and Fifteens were favoured equally in those NGBs. This was a definite shift from Fifteens favouritism in 2009.

The first two figures (Figure 5.6 and Figure 5.7) relate back to the globalisation discussion surrounding media attention and sponsorship at the beginning of this chapter. The importance of Sevens and Fifteens in attracting media coverage shifted from favouring Fifteens in just over 50% of responding NGBs to less than 20% from 2009 to 2013. An equal importance expanded from about 40% to over 60% of NGBs, with a minor shift in favouring Sevens.

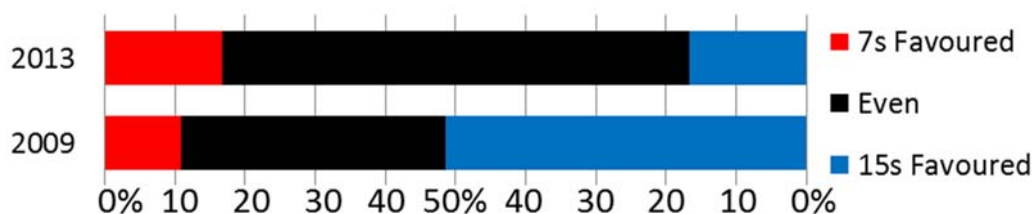


Figure 5.6 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for attracting media attention.

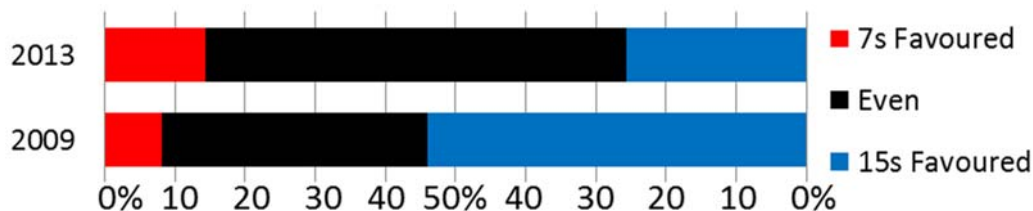


Figure 5.7 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for attracting sponsorship.

Sevens versus Fifteens and competition structures The shifting importance of competition structures was examined next, furthering the discussion from that section in this chapter. The data continued to show a shift from a Fifteens-centric domestic competition for both men and women to almost an even focus in men, and a Sevens focus in women. Figure 5.8 highlights that in 2009 over 60% of NGBs preferred hosting domestic Fifteens competitions, with less than 5% preferring domestic Sevens competitions. In 2013, about 20% of NGBs responded that a domestic Sevens competition was favourable, and only about 30% still primarily favour Fifteens. This shift almost mirrored in the importance of men’s international competitions as depicted in Figure 5.9.

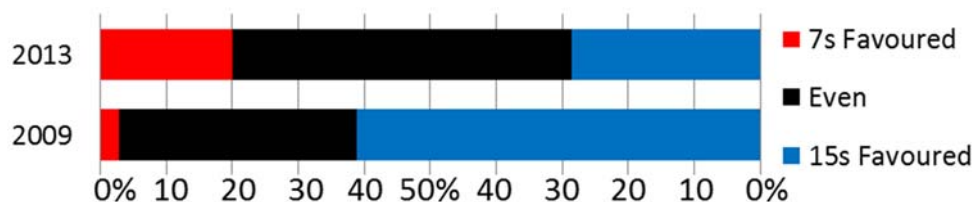


Figure 5.8 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for domestic men's competitions.

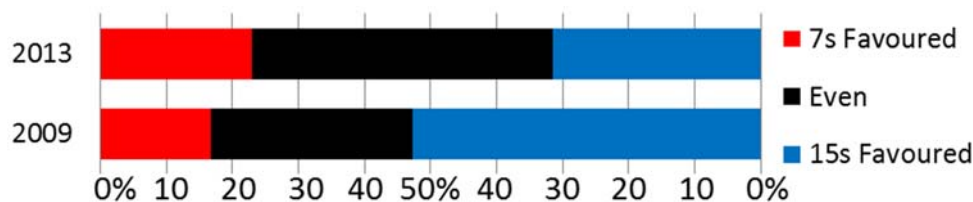


Figure 5.9 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for international men's competitions.

The shift was more pronounced for women, as seen in Figure 5.10 and particularly Figure 5.11. Almost 50% of NGBs valued international women's Sevens competitions above Fifteens in 2013, with an additional 40% valuing both Sevens and Fifteens. Only 10% of NGBs prefer Fifteens, compared to over 30% that prefer men's international Fifteens competitions. Women's Fifteens proponents in many nations feared that Sevens was going to completely overshadow women's Fifteens. The IRB's discussion of changing the membership rules to allow women's Sevens as the only international competition requirement drives this fear. Chapter Seven contains additional discourse and evidence on the effect of Sevens on women's rugby.

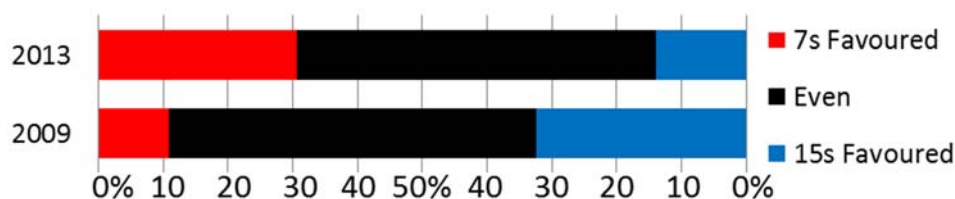


Figure 5.10 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for domestic women's competitions.

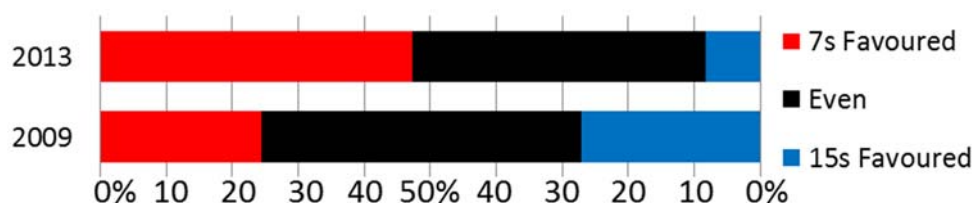


Figure 5.11 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for intl. women's competitions.

Sevens versus Fifteens and youth programs The importance placed on funding youth programs was examined next, and this related to the participation boom theme. Figure 5.12 illustrates that Sevens preference alone has not changed from 2009 to 2013, with about 5% of NGBs continuing to fund youth Sevens over Fifteens. However, Sevens encroached into Fifteens funding by having an equal importance in about 20% more NGBs in 2013 than in 2009 (from about 40% to 60%).

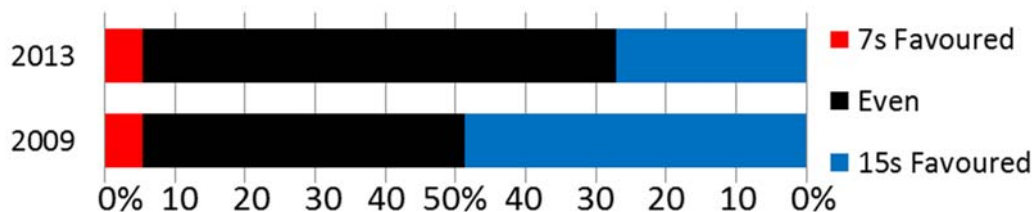


Figure 5.12 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for funding youth programs.

The change in structures was slow, and data point to new actors pressuring the changes. Here is a quote from an employee of United World Sports, the USA private company that operates the USA IRB Sevens World Series event and the Collegiate Rugby Sevens Championship:

The funny thing about budgets is they get made yearly, and not having much of a Sevens budget before the Olympic announcement in 2009 is no excuse for underfunding what is the biggest opportunity for American rugby ever. Think about how remarkable that is. We're all pinning hopes of waking the sleeping giant on the Olympics, yet we're not playing the Olympic version of rugby at the youth level, and we're barely playing it at the age-grade level. We weren't playing it at the college level until after United World Sports and NBC created the Collegiate Rugby Championship in 2010, either. Then USA Rugby decided it needed its own championship and that focusing a bunch of resources to have ESPN webcast it and tuck it away in the hinterlands of cable was a good idea.

This quote points to USAR's continued focus on Fifteens as the primary vehicle for youth funding and domestic competitions.

Sevens versus Fifteens and high performance pathways Figure 5.13 shows the importance of Fifteens or Sevens for identifying elite level players and coaches within the 28 responding NGBs. The shift followed a similar shift to funding youth programs, with a large increase in code equality from about 50% to 90%. This shift manifested itself with the creation of Sevens specific high performance units and player pathways.

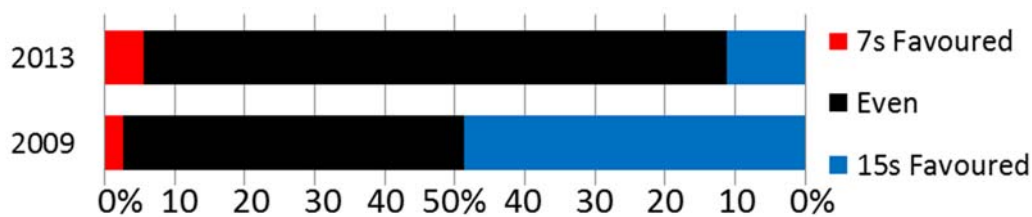


Figure 5.13 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for player and coach identification.

Most unions did not have the financial capacity in 2009 to have a standalone Sevens high performance unit. Therefore, the NGBs either relied on the Fifteens high performance pathway to identify Sevens athletes or on the Sevens coach to take the initiative to develop those pathways. Many Sevens coaches took an additional role of high performance manager and/or development manager, but were still paid substantially lower than their Fifteens counterparts.

Additionally, the Fifteens high performance unit typically comprised additional specific positional coaches, statistics and computer analysts, specialist conditioning coaches, full-time physiotherapists, player pathway managers, and recruiters. On the other hand, the Sevens programs typically had two to three staff to coach and administer the team's high performance with some casual consultation from the Fifteens staff. Olympic status assisted in shifting resources to Sevens high performance, and in many NGBs, new Sevens specific high performance units were created.

The new actor(s) that have enabled this shift were primarily the National Olympic Committees and National Sport Associations. Figure 5.14 illustrates the major shift in code favouritism in regards to external NOC support. In 2009, there was an equal value of NOC support between the codes, but this was primarily due to low reliance on NOC resources prior to Olympic inclusion. As expected, the data indicated a shift in preference to Sevens. However, accepting assistance from the NOCs and NSAs also pressured a shift in internal resources from Sevens to Fifteens. Chapter Six discusses the high performance changes in more detail.

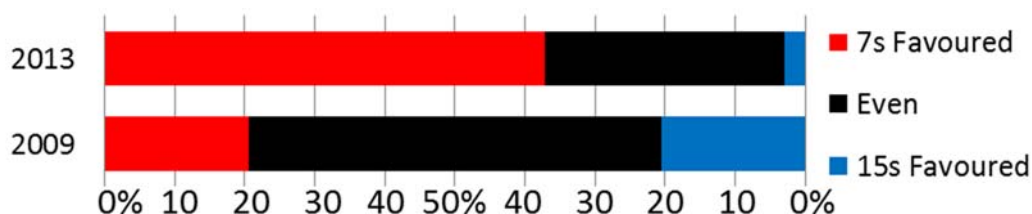


Figure 5.14 Sevens vs. Fifteens importance for NOC support.

One further piece of data to illustrate the growing prioritization of Sevens was word count examination on the annual reports for the IRB, ARU, and SARU (USAR and KRU do

not release annual reports). It revealed that the word “Sevens” encompassed 0.24% of all words in the reports in 2006-2009, and increased 33% to 0.32% in the 2010-2014 reports. New sections in the reports were instituted during the 2010-2014 period that specifically covered Sevens, often linking Sevens and the Olympics, Sevens and women’s rugby, and Sevens as an introductory code.

Sevens versus Fifteens and the organisational field. The mounting preference for Sevens, especially from Olympic-friendly actors, signified significant change in the NGBs’ organisational field. Notable resources (again, mostly from Olympic-friendly actors) were directed at Sevens. New regulations from the IOC, NOCs, and IRB drove Sevens competition and growth. All of these changes pressured the NGBs to respond with shifts in design archetype.

Sevens versus Fifteens and design archetypes. NGBs have been under pressure to develop Sevens, often at a cost to Fifteens. This resulted in identifying a new domain category in NGBs – code specific domain. Mounting pressure causes NGBs to satisfy both of these domains (or choose one), and also the domains of mass participation and elite performance and domains of men and women. The added products and services required to satisfy the Sevens domain strains the NGBs’ resources. NGBs may value Sevens more than Fifteens in the Olympic era due to shallower resources requirements (e.g. fewer players, less staffing, less equipment) and greater legitimacy (e.g. Olympic aura, international competitiveness). Seeking legitimacy results in NGBs orienting towards Olympic-friendly actors.

NGBs must restructure after choosing to emphasise the domain of Sevens, orient towards Olympic-friendly actors, and develop new Sevens-specific criteria of effectiveness. These new structures predominantly include specialisation of new competitions and Sevens high performance units. The shift in Sevens focus can also drive formalisation and centralisation changes. Each of these changes occurred in the case studies and will be examined in Chapter Six.

Sevens versus Fifteens and the process of change. Consistent with Skinner et al. (1999); Zakus and Skinner (2008), these case studies have also proceeded through several processual changes. The initial pressures to resource Sevens instigated an initial reorientation response in each focal organisation. Then, over the period from 2009 to 2014, the organisations each underwent varying degrees of first and second order change. Each of these processes will be detailed and discussed in Chapter Six.

5.4 Conclusion

Each of the global changes in rugby (globalisation, participation boom, competition structures, and Sevens versus Fifteens) outlined in this chapter were evident in each case study. The global changes originated from the environmental jolt of Olympic inclusion, and in turn forced responses from the NGBs. Two major NGB responses to the global changes

were identified in the data. First, Chapter Six examines isomorphic change in the high performance systems for Sevens, introducing four design archetypes that the case studies exhibited. Second, Chapter Seven examines resourcing the rise of women's rugby and compares NGB values and structures in regards to men's and women's Sevens.

CHAPTER 6: CHANGES IN HIGH PERFORMANCE SYSTEMS

6.1 Introduction

The major answer to the research question “To what extent do organisations within the same sector vary in their response to the same environmental jolt?” in regards to the study’s context was the way in which rugby NGBs restructured Sevens’ high performance systems to adapt to new Olympic systems. Chapter Six begins with a brief overview of the four high performance models that have been utilised in Sevens national team competition preparation. The chapter proceeds to discuss each case study in separate sections. This thesis’ conceptual framework guides the discussion using organisational design archetype structures as a basis for subsections within each case study section, while discussing how and why changes were made. This chapter concludes by highlighting significant differences and similarities of the NGBs’ changes.

6.2 Types of Sevens High Performance Models

This section provides a brief overview of the high performance models used by rugby NGBs in relation to Sevens. A substantial change in the development of Sevens has been to the high performance model. Significant changes to the way teams train and prepare for competition has been occurring across all rugby NGBs, and are evident in all four case studies. Four high performance models, or high performance design archetypes, emerged from the data, with slight variations on each model occurring throughout world rugby: 1. Airport Meet and Greet; 2. Training Camp, 3. Central Residency; and, 4. Hub and Spoke.

6.2.1 The “Airport Meet and Greet” HP Model

The Airport Meet and Greet high performance model was the traditional format utilised by most NGBs prior to 2009 and Olympic inclusion. However, fewer and fewer NGBs now engage this type of system. In Airport Meet and Greet, players are selected from various clubs across the nation, typically on recommendation from local coaches, with little to no contact with the national team head coach. Often newly selected players would meet the coach and teammates for the first time at the airport on the way to international competition. The team then flew to the destination, and trained in facilities lower than Olympic standard (high school grounds, local rugby clubs, etc.) for four to eight days prior to the tournament. This short schedule left very little time to implement tactics, let alone adjust to teammate tendencies. United States-Respondent-35 highlighted the major disadvantage of this model,

More often than not I would be introducing myself to a couple of new blokes at the airport, and sometimes I never actually seen them play before. We’d be hitting the ground running, spending too much time, really, on getting to know the players’ abilities and positions than preparing for opponents.

Each case study practised Airport Meet and Greet: Kenya until 2012, USA until 2010, Australia until 2009, and South Africa until 2008. Australia and South Africa mostly used an Airport Meet and Greet approach, however some tournaments followed a “Training Camp” approach. Each of the case studies began using the Training Camp model in some capacity after the Airport Meet and Greet, and none of them has continued Airport Meet and Greet as of 2014.

6.2.2 The “Training Camp” HP Model

Commonly called the “New Zealand” model in rugby circles after the NGB that initiated this format of preparation, the Training Camps high performance model brought players together for a short period prior to competition. The New Zealand head coach began this format in the 1990s when he would invite 15-20 players for a Training Camp in New Zealand for one to two weeks prior to departing for the tournament. The Training Camp also worked as a trial for new players, as only 10-12 players made the tournament team. The extra time on home soil provided additional fitness conditioning and testing, advanced tactical education, and better awareness of teammate tendencies. Australia and South Africa each followed the Training Camps model for some of the tournaments for much of the 2000s, and Australia converted fully to the Training Camp model in 2009.

Kenya began incorporating a more comprehensive Training Camp model in 2012 with the hire of an English head coach. Kenya was unique compared to the other case studies, as most rugby players and competitions were concentrated around Nairobi, making it easier for national team camps. Only a few players would have to travel from regional areas in Kenya to participate in Training Camps. Mainly due to geographic spread, the United States rarely had the financial resources to host Training Camps prior to 2010 when Training Camps became more prevalent. Finally, South Africa had the most frequent Training Camps prior to 2008 (following the New Zealand model), and in 2008 South Africa moved Sevens high performance forward with the “Central Residency” high performance model.

6.2.3 The “Central Residency” HP Model

The Central Residency high performance model was typically called “centralised,” “residency,” or “South African” model. It consists of a core team of Sevens specialists residing in a central training base. Other Fifteens players would be brought in for training camps at the residency location before competition, similar to the Training Camp model, and would be on trial for tournament selection and/or a residency contract. Central Residency started before the Olympic announcement, when Sevens’ pioneer Paul Treu made a full-time home for the South African Sevens national team in Stellenbosch in 2008. The United States and Kenya were next to incorporate a residency program in 2012 (although with significant variation in Kenya), followed by Australia in 2014. It was coincidental that all four case

studies progressed to Central Residency, as only South Africa had done so when this research commenced.

Other NGBs that have centralised approaches include Canada, England, Hong Kong, France, Russia, China, and the Netherlands. This demonstrates the wider growing trend of Central Residency programs in rugby, an entirely new concept to rugby national teams. Some prominent Sevens nations (e.g. New Zealand, Fiji) had not centralised as of mid-2014 at the time of writing this thesis, although Fiji were in the process in 2014 of investigating Central Residency. New Zealand released a statement in August 2014 that they would not move to Central Residency, but rather keep the Training Camps model that they had much success with for over 15 years. There was debate among managers and coaches within the case studies whether Central Residency is actually better than other models. Table 6.1 illustrates the pros and cons of Central Residency as distilled from data collected from Sevens coaches and high performance managers.

Table 6.1 Pros and cons of a central residency high performance model

Positive Aspects	Negative Aspects
1. Controlled environment for coaching system – reduced exposure to bad habits, unlearn-relearn system	1. Cost of facilities (initial and maintenance)
2. Build teamwork	2. Relocation of athletes (short and long term)
3. Learn team mate tendencies - ‘play off each other’	3. Reduced access to athletes in regional competitions
4. Sevens specific skills development	4. Potential reduced exposure of national team coaching in regional areas
5. Injury monitoring, prevention, and rehab	5. Athlete ‘burnout’ or boredom
6. Ease to introduce players into system	6. Reduced flexibility in selecting and recruiting athletes outside of those contracted in residency (contracts turnover rates)
7. Continual and elite Sport Science access – strength and conditioning, analytics, video, nutrition	7. Player psyche? Good or bad unknown.
8. Ease to prescribe, monitor, and adjust	8. Limitations of career development outside sport
9. Athletes get paid full-time salary, can focus on sport	

Given the pros and cons of a Sevens Central Residency model, the four case study nations ascertained that the pros outweighed the cons. However, there were different internal and external pressures influencing each NGB to adopt Central Residency. These pressures also caused variations in the centralised systems across all cases, leading the United States to pioneer a new (to rugby) system – the Hub and Spoke high performance model.

6.2.4 The “Hub and Spoke” HP Model

USAR was in mid-process of developing this fourth high performance model for rugby at the time of writing this thesis. Some data were collected on the fourth model, and further research should be conducted to explore the result. The “Hub and Spoke” model incorporated regional residency training centres (both privately and university operated) that

would feed Central Residency at the United States Olympic Training Centre. More details of this model will be provided in the United States HP Systems section below.

6.2.5 High Performance Model Summary

Four high performance models utilised by rugby NGBs were established after analysing data from the four case studies. These high performance systems may also be referred to as design archetypes, or better, “intra-design archetypes” as they represent a specific set of structures and values within each NGBs’ broader design archetype. These intra-design archetypes are underpinned by the broader design archetypes, and the broader values and structures must undergo change to allow the sub-set values and structures to prosper. The next four sections detail the progression of the high performance systems for each of the four case studies. The conceptual framework guides the discussion as each design archetype mechanism (e.g. specialisation), or ‘what’ changed or remained, provides a sub-section for each case study. The ‘why’ and ‘how’ the changes occurred, or did not occur, is woven throughout the discourse. The chapter concludes with a summative comparison across all cases.

6.3 South African HP Systems

The first case study to switch to a Central Residency high performance system was South Africa in 2008 at the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport. The strategy paid immediate dividends as South Africa won the 2008-09 IRB Sevens World Series for the first (and only) time. From the data, it was determined that SARU’s high performance system changes followed first a reorientation then a colonisation route of change from both internal and external pressures. The structures changed, and only after international success and additional pressures from new actors did the SARU values change. Figure 6.1 illustrates the three distinct design archetype changes SARU enacted relating to the Sevens high performance system in the Olympic era. The SARU section provides evidence for this illustration. This section follows the process of change in its discussion, beginning with the structural changes and finishing with the changes to values.

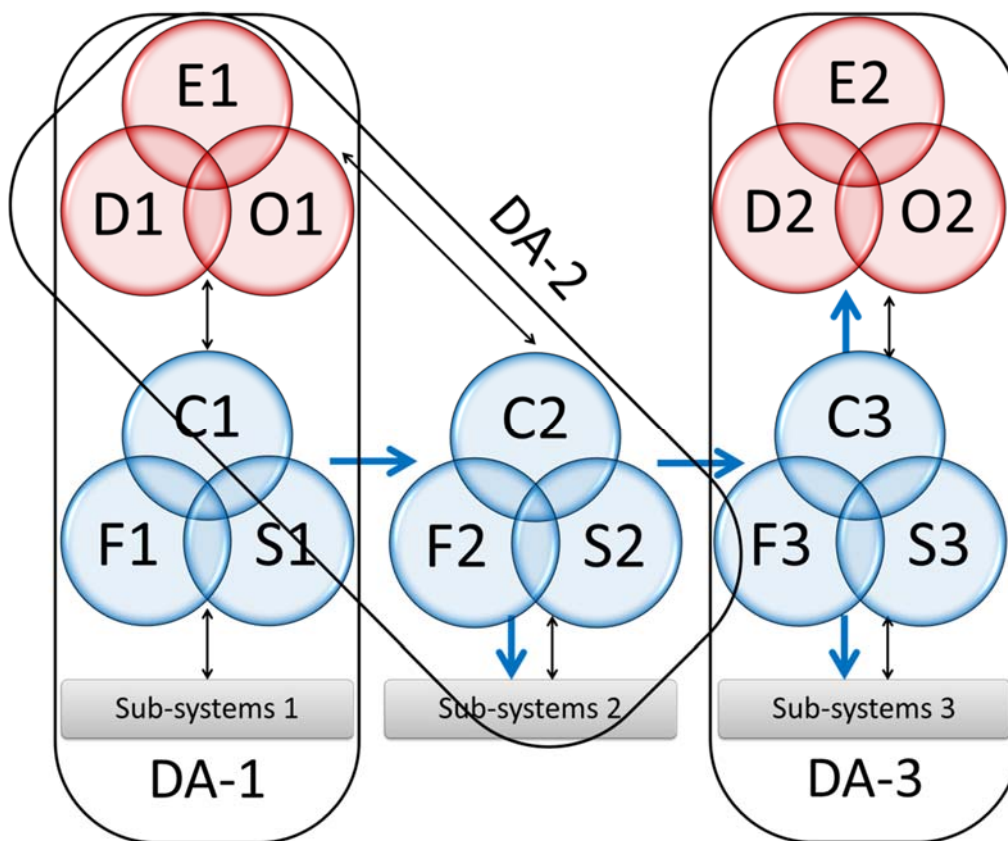


Figure 6.1 SARU process of changing design archetypes.

6.3.1 Changes to SARU Structures

Centralisation of SARU Sevens. As discussed in Chapter 2, centralisation in design archetype analysis refers to the hierarchy of control within the organisation (Kikulis et al., 1992). This definition is different from a “centralised” training base, which the Central Residency model discussed in this chapter was often labelled by the respondents. Of the three factors that indicate centralisation (locus of decision making, levels of involvement, and the number of decisions made at each level), South Africa displayed several schisms between 2008 (the start of residency) and 2014, as the legitimacy of Sevens propagated.

SARU Sevens locus of decisions. In the initial design archetype (DA-1), the locus of decision making regarding Sevens high performance was split between the Sevens head coach and the SARU High Performance Manager. The next level of control happened at the C-Level, although only decision relating to large changes in funding and resourcing made it to that level. Most of the decisions for Sevens occurred at the head coach and high performance manager level. In 2007, the head coach pioneered and drove the first shift from DA-1 to DA-2 by deciding to develop a centralised residency program. SARU did not agree that the Sevens program required a shift in high performance model (this was almost two years before the Olympic inclusion). This led to the head coach seeking external partners for assistance in centralising the Sevens teams. Coincidentally, the Stellenbosch Academy of

Sport and the Western Province Rugby Union were establishing a new training facility, and the SARU Sevens head coach approached them to become a permanent tenant. An agreement was reached and the Sevens team began training full-time in 2008. This was significant as the head coach consequently shifted control to himself from SARU.

SARU Sevens levels of involvement. The next change in centralisation came in 2012 when SARU created a new role of Sevens General Manager to oversee the Sevens program. By this time, the Sevens program at Stellenbosch was almost completely controlled by the head coach, and had grown from three full-time staff to ten since Olympic inclusion. The Sevens GM establishment was also a key specialisation change, as the new role specific to Sevens was deemed necessary to handle the increased demand and resources. South Africa-Respondent-31 stated, “with the Olympics coming in now there was a need for someone that was permanent at SARU at the head office to *drive Sevens from there*, so he has been appointed now from the start of the year [2012] into that position.” The respondent emphasised the words in italics. This appointment enabled SARU to regain some control of the Sevens program by having a decision maker located at the SARU offices.

SARU Sevens number of decisions at each level. The appointment of the Sevens GM at the SARU offices increased both the number of levels and reduced the number of decisions made by the head coach. These changes led to a power and decision making struggle, which concluded in the Sevens head coach’s contract not being renewed in 2013. These changes also signalled the third shift in design archetype (DA-1 to DA-2) through colonisation of Sevens values into the main SARU offices via the structures of centralisation and specialisation.

Formalisation of SARU Sevens. Formalisation reflects existence of rules, policies, and procedures within an organisation (Kikulis et al., 1992). One sign of shifting values and functions related to the Central Residency program was the development of a SARU Sevens recruitment handbook. Since there were few mass participation programs for Sevens in South Africa, the Sevens staff created the handbook to distribute to Fifteens coaches throughout South Africa to help identify potential academy and national team training camp invitees. The training camp invitees would then be evaluated for selection into Central Residency, or they would be instructed of areas to improve back in their home Fifteens environment with anticipation of future residential selection.

South Africa-Respondent-29 explained the need for a standardised handbook, “these Fifteens coaches would push on us only the quick shifty guys.” The ‘Coaches Handbook’ would be distributed to all Fifteens coaches as a scouting tool. South Africa-Respondent-30 proclaimed its merit:

This is what we want from an international player, the standard when we talk about contact skills, and this is what we mean by contact skills. There's a page for each position. Each position, this the player that we want. This is just like scouting, you do all positions, exactly what we want for each position so we're going to get the approval stamp and see our thoughts.

Another area of formalisation that was highly contested among coaches in South Africa was the formalisation of training and playing tactics. This was driven by the coaching staff under the guise that potential players that were brought in for Training Camps were taking too long to adjust to the head coach's way of doing things. There was an expectation from the national coaches that regional Sevens coaches needed to adhere to the national team training and tactical protocols, and if they did not then they risked having their players overlooked. The conflict was twofold: first, some of the regional coaches interviewed felt that the system prevented innovation – introducing and trialling new tactics; second, regional coaches and some staff felt that protocol was a control mechanism instilled by the coaching staff as a function of their power, and was more about ego than about functionality. A few respondents (including outside South Africa) also suggested that the coach's controlling nature was a significant part of SARU not renewing his contract in 2013.

These formalised items from the Sevens unit were a part of the reorientation from DA-1 to DA-2, but had little influence in the colonisation shift from DA-2 to DA-3 outside the formalisation of tactics that revealed the controlling nature of the head coach. The formalisation assisted in earning legitimacy within SARU and the rugby provinces as a signal to them that Sevens was beginning to be taken more seriously. Fifteens provincial coaches received the 'Coaches Handbook,' and for the first time thought Sevens was becoming more technical and tactical. The formalisation set a platform for increased awareness of Sevens, and that it should be taken more seriously.

Specialisation of SARU Sevens. Specialisation refers to the degree that roles and tasks are differentiated within the organisation to accomplish specific objectives (Kikulis et al., 1992). The specialisation of Sevens athletes by removing them from the Fifteens environment and placing them in a specialised Sevens residency was a strong signal of a shift in this design archetype element. The specialisation of Sevens was the most significant change, and drove the change in values. This is especially prevalent in the criteria of effectiveness to be discussed in the changes to SARU values section. Specialisation of Sevens high performance can be divided into six areas; player contracts, athlete specialists, coaches, administration, competitions, and facilities.

SARU Sevens player contracts. Prior to Sevens specialisation, any rugby player interested in a full-time career playing the sport could not do so Sevens. In Fifteens rugby, South Africa (like all Tier One nations except Argentina), had professional teams that

employ players at multiple levels. In addition to professional club salaries, the SARU offers financial incentives to players for national team selection. Financial incentives were also paid to Sevens national team players, albeit at a much lower rate and only for the specific time spent training and competing. As of 2014, there were no professional rugby Sevens competitions - only a few prize money tournaments with small payouts to the top finishing teams. The prize money rarely made it to the players after team expenses were deducted. The Central Residency model required full-time player contracts for Sevens for the first time.

SARU Sevens specialists. As a consequence of full-time residency, the SARU needed to renumerate Sevens players with annual contracts for the first time in history. Sevens had now become a viable career option, although larger salaries were still available for Fifteens players, even at developmental player levels. The Sevens staff were continually forced to leverage the Olympic pathway to lure Sevens players away from the higher pay scales available at provincial Fifteens teams. Once a Fifteens team signed a Sevens player, they had protection rights and the national Sevens team could not select that player unless it was negotiated with the Fifteens team.

To assist in attracting and retaining specialised Sevens players, a group of three retired Sevens players in South Africa developed an academy of high school aged athletes based at the same residential training academy as the national team. This academy fed into the Sevens residency program. It exposed a wider group of players to the specific skills and fitness demands of Sevens, and has proven successful with four academy players selected to the national team after the first year of opening the academy.

SARU Sevens coaches. Eventually, one of the academy coaches took the role of head coach of the men's national team and another was appointed to the women's national team. This statement came from an interview of one of those academy coaches regarding the need to specialise:

Definitely, we want that. We want guys to specialise in Sevens. We would want to get the best players come into the system at an early age. Say at the end of next year, or the year after, to be able to contract your best schools players and try to make some of them specialise in Sevens. They will specialise in Sevens even if it's only for a four-year cycle. The season is so long now. In the past we had an eight or seven month Sevens season, and then guys play Fifteens. But there isn't the time to play both now because the season lasts so long. It [IRB World Sevens Series] really starts in October or November, and then you go until June, so the guys are going to have to specialise. But I like it when the guys play both codes - especially the youngsters, 19, 20 year olds. I would want them to play both, but we'll see. Everyone has got their own opinion on that but the guys definitely are going to have to specialise. I would say come the Olympics, the core of your team will be specialist Sevens

players and the makeup will probably be from the [South African Fifteens] national team. So you'll probably have six, seven or eight Sevens players and I think they'll integrate them with Springbok Fifteens players, that's what I think it's going to look like.

This statement relates to an organisation's (Sevens program) ability to adapt to environmental jolts (Olympic Games). In short, it shows support for Damanpour (1991) that if an organisation has specificity in roles in preparation for environmental jolts, then it has greater adaption capabilities.

SARU Sevens administration. Due to being a first mover in both a centralised high performance system and a Sevens specific academy, South Africa did not show any isomorphic processes during its shifts from DA-1 to DA-3. South Africa-Respondent-29 highlighted the internal struggles in developing a Sevens program without outside consultation by stating:

There will be a lot of work, new structures, it's fairly new so a lot of the stuff we're starting, it's like trial and error that you won't know until you've tried it. So you've got to take some leaps into the unknown and try some new stuff. Hopefully, it all comes off in 2016. Realistically, with the youngsters, their aim will be 2020.

SARU Sevens residency competitions. A major issue with centralising the national team was providing enough elite competitions throughout the year. The IRB Sevens World Series was limited to nine total tournaments annually, and only 12 athletes are selected per tournament. South African domestic Sevens competitions were never a priority for SARU with one coach stating, "They [SARU] have too much to do [busy with] with Fifteens and developing those competitions, Sevens is overlooked." Further evidence was shown in terms of modest growth in new competitions throughout the study period. The national Sevens team and development teams travelled overseas to invitational tournaments, but these were very limited. Athletes were expected to play domestic Fifteens to continue to develop rugby skills and intelligence. As athletes specialised in Sevens, the amount of rugby playing time decreased. As SARU was not developing domestic Sevens competitions, the academy became more active in international invitational tournaments, which also became a source of prize money to assist in funding the academy. At the end of data collection, SARU had yet to have significant changes to this area of specialisation as the orientation (value) for Fifteens competitions still heavily outweighed Sevens.

SARU Sevens residency facility. The clearest signal of a shift from the Training Camps HP model in DA-1 to the Centralised HP model in DA-2 was the partnership with the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport (SAS) to become a full-time tenant. SARU men's Sevens have operated in the SAS as a centralised program since 2008 (DA-2 and DA-3). There was

some discussion on bringing the women to the SAS full-time, but that had not occurred by the end of data collection in 2014. The women did use the SAS for Training Camps.

These six areas of specialisation (i.e. player contacts, specialists, coaches, administration, and competitions) assisted in driving the colonisation of DA-2 to DA-3. Colonisation occurred because the structural changes drove the value changes. Initially in the DA-1 to DA-2 shift, the specialisation did not force SARU to change values. Nevertheless, these values slowly changed through the success of the program, lobbying from the head coach, and resource competition between Sevens and Fifteens. The value shifts will be discussed next.

6.3.2 Changes to SARU Values

In South Africa, the structural shifts to a Central Residency high performance model pressured value changes. These value changes included four main areas: 1) seeking legitimacy and identity from within the SARU; 2) seeking legitimacy from external Fifteens powers; 3) preference for winning Sevens competitions over developing Fifteens players; and, 4) desiring to become the premier, elite Sevens program in the world. These values balanced with the structural components of specialisation, formalisation, and centralisation discussed in the previous section. There were no significant changes to values in the shift from DA-1 to DA-2, hence only a reorientation was determined to occur. However, significant changes to SARU values occurred in the DA-2 to DA-3 shift that were driven by the structural changes; therefore, a colonisation was determined to occur. Each of the following values changes are examined during the colonisation.

Orientation of SARU Sevens. Orientation can exhibit the underlying values about what external interests the organisation wishes to satisfy (Kikulis et al., 1992). South Africa was an interesting case, because the Sevens program was struggling to find legitimacy within SARU. Orientation is often defined as how an organisation orients itself to the external environment to seek legitimation. However, it was the internal environment of SARU that forced the Sevens head coach to fight for a residency program before the Olympic inclusion announcement. Faced with a small support system from SARU, the head coach approached external partners about sharing resources in order to establish the Sevens program in Stellenbosch. The result was partnerships with the Western Province Rugby Union (which is a quasi-external partner as it takes direction from SARU) and the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport. The next priority for the Sevens program was attaining legitimacy from three main external groups: 1) Fifteens provincial teams; 2) Wider South African rugby player pool; and, 3) Commercial partners. South Africa-Respondent-32 explained the need for new partners,

There will always be resistance to change. Always. I've definitely seen it. It's going to take time for people to get used to new ideas and used to new people and on your

turf. It's a case of new guys, new ideas, new initiatives and new challenges. I would say more people challenge you but if no one challenges you, you won't be able to grow.

The external partnerships assisted in resourcing Central Residency. The commercial success of the centralised training program caused SARU to initially grant independence to the Sevens program. This independence allowed the Sevens program to seek out its own resources to become self-sustaining while still under SARU's governance. This could be viewed as SARU reducing its risk of diverting internal resources to Sevens from the more legitimate code of Fifteens, hence posturing to SARU's organisational field that Fifteens continues to take precedence over Sevens. The Sevens program had an opportunity to gain legitimacy from both internal staff at SARU and external partners.

For example, gaining legitimacy from the Fifteens provincial teams was (and still is) important for player access, and moving the residency program into a new, world-class facility in 2012 helped bolster Sevens' case as an important area for rugby in South Africa. As one of the South Africa-Respondent-27 stated,

The Olympics has opened new sources of funding that enabled the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport to open. Yes, the Western Province has also invested in the facility, but so have other private enterprises as they see Sevens as a growth opportunity.

The SARU Sevens program was able to orientate itself with separate and different field-level actors than SARU. New resources became available with that freedom. As South Africa-Respondent-31 stated,

We were once a by-line on the sponsorship contracts for the Springboks, with the revenue allocated by SARU. This meant we often received very little from those deals. We now were able to chase sponsorship deals of our own, and allocate that revenue how we saw fit.

This resource freedom was a risk to Central Residency sustainability if resources were not found, but the Sevens program managed to build the largest budget in the world for a national Sevens team. Some funding was still provided by SARU; nonetheless, most funding came from the new actors and new exchanges with traditional actors. These included Sevens specific sponsors, tournament prize earnings, and hosted training camps for other Sevens groups. The sustainability from the self-sufficiency developed internal legitimacy, and assisted in colonising new values in SARU in the DA-2 to DA-3 shift.

An important omission from much of the data presented thus far was the development of the women's team. SARU was very obviously oriented towards men's rugby. This will be discussed in the next chapter.

Criteria of Effectiveness of SARU Sevens. Criteria of effectiveness, or how the organisation judges its own success, may be the penultimate reason South Africa began residency in 2008. Even though South Africa was always near the top of the IRB Sevens World Series competition ladder, they had never collected enough victories over the course of a season to win the series. In addition, they had never won the Commonwealth Games, and a gold medal in the Commonwealth Games was acute to SARU's and South Africa's criteria of effectiveness in such a rugby-loving nation. Furthermore, the Olympic announcement was a few months away, and many (including SARU) foresaw that Olympic inclusion was coming. All three criteria (IRB Sevens Series title, Commonwealth Games Gold, and Olympic Games medal) became valued more than the previously highest value of effectiveness – bleeding Fifteens players in international competition.

SARU Sevens objective to develop Fifteens. The IRB Sevens World Series served South African rugby as a vehicle for young players to experience the conditions of international rugby before being chosen for elite Fifteens competition. Almost all NGBs practised this behaviour prior to the Olympic announcement, with goals of identifying young players with the mental and physical capacity to handle the pressures of international rugby. For example, the 2011 Rugby World Cup (Fifteens) included 160 players (27% of all participants) that played on the IRB Sevens World Series, highlighting the importance of the Series on developing rugby players.

SARU Sevens objective to win international competitions and Olympic qualification. However, as winning in Sevens and developing players have always been valued in South Africa, there was a major shift in values between DA-2 and DA-3. Winning in Sevens overtook developing players, which had been a major factor in starting and growing the South Africa Central Residency model. By 2013, the pressure to qualify for the Olympics as a top four team on the IRB Sevens World Series had some influence on the coaching change. Both new men and women's head coaches came from the successful youth academy, and had the respect of younger players from a wider range of backgrounds. SARU understood that Olympic success would require an influx of newer, younger talent, which the new head coaches had a proven record of finding and developing.

SARU Sevens objective to attract sponsorship and media. One of the largest shifts in SARU values came because of the structural shift of independently centralising the national team at the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport. Prior to taking residency there was minor emphasis placed on using Sevens to attract sponsorship and media attention, which was often connected to Fifteens (see Chapter Five). However, in order to be self-sustaining, the Sevens program developed new sponsorship deals. After finding success in attracting exclusive Sevens partners, the criteria of effectiveness shifted from very low in DA-1 to high

by DA-3. In turn, the external sponsors added to the legitimacy of Sevens within SARU, assisting in colonising a stronger preference for the Sevens domain.

Domain of SARU Sevens. As introduced in Chapter 2, domain in rugby is split into two areas: (1) support for participation in all skill and age levels; and, (2) support of elite competition – either international or professional. It was discussed in Chapter Five that two other domains could exist within NGBs: (1) domain of Sevens versus Fifteens; and, (2) domain of men’s rugby versus women’s rugby. The second domain (gender) will be discussed in Chapter Seven. This section will discuss the participation-elite competition and Sevens-Fifteens domains.

SARU elites versus masses domain. There was no doubt that South Africa Sevens values elite competition over recreational participation. SARU financial contributions to Sevens points to this conclusion. As the training base in Stellenbosch was initially developed by partnerships, SARU significantly increased funding each year to add staff, increase player salaries, attend more international competitions, and purchase training equipment and technologies. Very few (exact amounts were not made available) resources had gone into developing a domestic Sevens competition, or provide recreational Sevens opportunities for adults.

SARU Fifteens versus Sevens domain. The one area that SARU stated it had invested in Sevens participation was actually an investment in rugby overall. In South Africa, and in most every other rugby union, Sevens was (and is) leveraged to drive youth participation in rugby. However, it was a pathway into Fifteens rugby, and highlights SARU’s heavy preference for the Fifteens domain. The hope, set by a precedent from the IRB, was that the Olympics would inspire new children to try rugby. The IRB and its member unions’ rationale of Sevens as “kid-friendly” version of rugby were three-fold. First, Sevens requires less technical aspects than Fifteens, so it is easier for children to learn, therefore it reduces trial frustration. Second, Sevens requires fewer people on the field and its tactics provide more opportunities for all players to pass, run, and tackle than in Fifteens, therefore reducing on-field boredom. Third, Sevens is a “fast and exciting” version with more scoring and less stoppages in play, therefore attracting “the younger, less-attention span generation.”

This attitude, that Sevens programming for mass participation would be a mere introduction to rugby, provided rare opportunities to play Sevens above high school age. And in South Africa, even the youth Sevens playing opportunities were infrequent. A common question this researcher asked during the interview process was “what happens when Sevens inspires people to play Sevens, and they show up to a local rugby club and find only Fifteens rugby available?” The most common answer was “they will turn-up and fall in love with rugby,” which contradicts the three-fold rationale for why Sevens is kid-friendly. The Sevens

specific staff in South Africa identified this contradiction, and stated there should be more attention placed on mass participation in Sevens; however, those same staff agreed that was not as important as developing the elite structures such as buttressing the residency program. South Africa-Respondent-29 illustrated the importance of Fifteens over Sevens:

We always knew it [competition to sign Sevens players] was going to happen, so we started scouting for under-16. So we're starting a database for young players' high performance. But some of the squads fell out [to Fifteens contracts] so we're trying to keep track of more of the youngsters now. Initially, we want to create a system where we can have first signing rights on the players when they leave school, that's what we'd like to do, because there's a lot of competition, as you can imagine, with the Fifteens with the big unions signing guys when they're 16 years old.

South Africa-Respondent-28 outlined the problem with competing with provinces [regional Fifteens unions/teams] for the best players:

We're trying, but it's tough. When it comes to money and performance, all the unions and all the coaches are going to be judged by performance so they want the best players. Everyone wants the best players and if you don't do well ... look what happened to the Lions [relegated from Super Rugby] so they'll want the best players. The unions get funded by South Africa Rugby [SARU]. I think there's one union that doesn't take any funding. I think the Sharks are doing their thing but all the unions are connected to Rugby, so in effect they have to obviously listen [to SARU].

With the current domain focus on Fifteens, and using Sevens as a vehicle to drive mass participation to Fifteens, the Sevens program had fully focused on elite competition. SARU Sevens also preferred the men's domain over the women's as illustrated by South Africa-Respondent-31:

It's all about our primary focus being the feeder system. Year two, we wanted to get a Sevens coaching and development program into the academy. We wanted the women's Sevens to be part of it so we wanted everything under the one roof. But I think they're going to move to here but they're separate. I think going forward they might be more part of us than previously.

The evidence showed that SARU's value of domain was unchanged in the DA-1 to DA-2 shift – heavily focused on elite performance of men's Fifteens. This included utilising the Sevens program as a development pathway to elite Fifteens competitions. In addition, although the Olympics may offer inspiration for an increase in mass participation of Sevens, SARU stated the focus was still to drive those new participants to the Fifteens domain. However, the DA-2 to DA-3 shift included pressure and lobbying from the new centralised Sevens program and some field level actors (e.g. IRB, SASOC) to allow the Sevens to focus

on its own elite performance, shifting some of SARU's preference from Fifteens domain to Sevens domain.

6.3.3 SARU HP System Summary

South Africa's Sevens high performance system progressed from a Training Camp system to a Central Residency system before the Olympic announcement in 2009. The initial change (DA-1 to DA-2) resulted in only reorienting structures. The new structures and the Olympic announcement in 2009 then pressured the second change (DA-2 to DA-3), which solidified Sevens as a specialised code and created colonised values in SARU. The external pressure from SASOC and the IRB, and the pressure from the self-sufficient, quasi-internal Sevens program forced colonisation of values resulting in new criteria of effectiveness and shift towards the Sevens domain. This was required to re-balance the values and structures in the new design archetype. This colonisation was not without organisational conflict, as evidenced by the release of the pioneer head coach that enabled the reorientation shift from DA-1 to DA-2 and began the colonisation from DA-2 to DA-3.

The significant changes in each design archetype have been distilled to a brief description based on the discourse in the South Africa HP Systems section. Table 6.2 summarises the changes that occurred in the shift from DA-1 to DA-3 in SARU in relation to Sevens high performance systems. Each design archetype mechanism (centralisation, formalisation, specialisation, criteria of effectiveness, and domain) have been scored on a scale of very low (VL), low (L), medium (M), high (H), and very high (VH), relative to the other three case studies.

Table 6.2 SARU Sevens HP design archetype changes.

	DA-1 Training Camps	DA-2 Central Residency	DA-3 Central Residency
Centralisation: Overall	H	M	M-H
Centralisation: Locus of Decisions	SARU High Performance Manager	Head Coach	Sevens GM at SARU office
Centralisation: Levels of involvement	2-4	1-3	3-4
Centralisation: Number of decisions at each level	Concentrated at higher level	Mixed	Concentrated at middle level
Formalisation	L Very little Sevens HP documentation or processes	M-H Coaching and recruiting guidebook	M-H Same as DA-2
Specialisation: Overall	L	M-H	H
Specialisation: Facility	Various	Stellenbosch Academy of Sport	Same as DA-2
Specialisation: Player Contracts	Tournament remuneration only	Few full-time, most part-time	Most full-time
Specialisation: Sevens Specialists	Very few, only by choice	5-10 specialists, Sevens youth academy started	10-15 specialists, some protection from Fifteens poaching, wider academy selection base
Specialisation: Coaches	Only national team Sevens-only coaches, no Sevens skills coaches	National team and academy Sevens-only coaches, very few Sevens skills coaches	National team and academy Sevens-only coaches, increased Sevens coaching courses, very few Sevens skills coaches
Specialisation: Admin	Sevens managed by same people as Fifteens	Head coach took some admin roles, many still managed by Fifteens staff	New Sevens GM and department
Specialisation: Competition	Very few domestic Sevens tournaments offered, international Sevens limited to national team	Same as DA-1 with some academy tours	Same as DA-2 with increasing academy tours
Orientation: Primary	SARU Fifteens development	IRB Sevens Series	Olympics
Orientation: Secondary	IRB Sevens Series	SARU Fifteens development	IRB Sevens Series
Orientation: Tertiary	Media	Stellenbosch Academy of Sport	Stellenbosch Academy of Sport
Effectiveness: Fifteens	VH	H	M
Effectiveness: Winning	M	H	VH
Effectiveness: Olympics	N/A	N/A	VH
Effectiveness: Sponsor	VL	M	H
Effectiveness: Media	VL	L	M
Domain: Elite	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Participate	M	M	M
Domain: Fifteens	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Sevens	L	L	M
Domain: Men	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Women	L	L	L-M

6.4 United States HP Systems

The United States of America Rugby Union (USAR) was the first of the case studies to follow South Africa to a Central Residency high performance model in 2012 when they began training full-time at the United States Olympic Training Centre (USOTC) in Chula Vista, California. USAR also offered full-time contracts to any rugby players for the first time in 2012. As Figure 6.2 depicts, USAR underwent four design archetype changes from 2009 to 2014. USAR migrated from the Airport Meet and Greet model in 2009 to the Training Camp model in 2010-2011, to the Central Residency model in 2012, and finally the Hub and Spoke model in 2014.

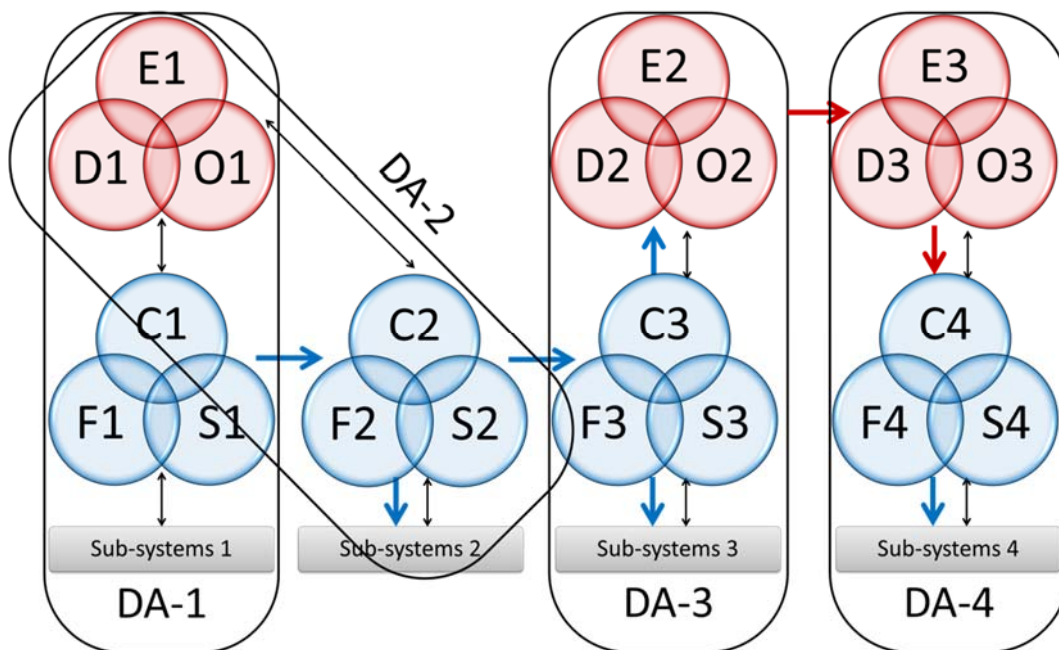


Figure 6.2 USAR process of changing design archetypes.

USAR first went through a reorientation process of change from its Airport Meet and Greet model (DA-1) to the Training Camps model (DA-2). This was followed by a colonisation process by accepting USOC resources and adopting USOC values to become a Central Residency model (DA-3). Finally, USAR was undergoing an evolutionary change at the end of data collection as it progressed to Hub and Spoke model (DA-4). The evolutionary change is the most desired form of second order change as it is most likely to be successful at sustaining the change and overcoming the environmental jolt in the long term (Laughlin, 1991). As the change in structures of USAR changed first in DA-2 and DA-3, the structures will be discussed first in this section followed by the values changes.

6.4.1 Changes to USAR Structures

Centralisation of USAR Sevens. USAR began with a different style of centralisation than SARU, but followed a similar trend in changes of locus of decision-making, levels of involvement, and number of decisions at each level.

USAR Sevens locus of decisions. The locus of decision making at USAR around the Sevens HP system had always been with the CEO through DA-1, DA-2, and DA-3. It was only in DA-4 (2014) that a new Sevens High Performance Director position was created and provided a level below the CEO for most Sevens decisions. The Sevens HP Director (similar position to the SARU Sevens GM) was a previous head coach of the men's team that had familiarity with the program, the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) processes, and many of the players. He was the head coach that spearheaded the creation of the Olympic Development Academy (ODA) plan that would eventually become the Hub and Spoke HP model. The new position of Sevens HP Director was created in tandem with the hiring of a new coach in 2014. The new head coach was hired to only coach, releasing the administration duties from the role with which the previous head coaches were often burdened.

USAR Sevens levels of involvement. In DA-1, the CEO was centrally involved in most decisions around the Sevens program, and typically consulted with the head coaches on the decisions. The head coach position in USAR (as was typical in many Sevens programs) included most of the administrative responsibilities in regards to planning HP activities. There was no discernible change in the levels of involvement in DA-2, and only a small change in DA-3 that included additional consultation from USOC administrators once the team centralised at the USOTC. Even though the USOC was external to USAR, the relationship (due to the Olympics) changed the inter-organisational link – providing the USOC some authority in the decision making process. The first major decisions pressured by the USOC were the specialisation of athletes in residency and the contract status that will be discussed in the USAR Specialisation section. An additional level of involvement came with the new administration level (Sevens HP Director) and signalled the major shift to DA-4.

USAR Sevens number of decisions at each level. The data showed that the USAR shift to a more horizontal structure in DA-3 to DA-4 allowed more decisions to be made at lower levels. This included the new Sevens HP Director level, and included some additional autonomy in regional program design around the Sevens ODAs and competitions. As United States-Respondent-41 stated:

Well, instead of a top down approach, let's create, give opportunities for entrepreneurs and clubs perhaps, groups that want to support that endeavour and deliver on a set of deliverables.

This quote signalled a separation from USAR's previous stranglehold on rugby decisions in the United States, especially those concerning high performance. However, the ODAs were not granted total autonomy, and had to adhere to specific guidelines and criteria set forth by USAR to remain sanctioned.

Formalisation of USAR Sevens. USAR had little history of Sevens formalisation until the relationship with the USOC strengthened in DA-3. Once the program centralised at the USOTC, new strategic plans and documents were written and distributed among various USAR internal and external actors. Along with the USOC demanding a formalised Sevens strategic plan, the ODAs began pressuring USAR to formalise the process, as outlined by United States-Respondent-36:

The process was, they called and asked us if we wanted to be an Olympic Development Academy. But there was no application or guidelines, so it's been very informal. [Sevens head coach] was meant to send over a list of deliverables, but, to be honest, we don't really have any deliverables from USA Rugby. The way we looked at it is we're just going to keep doing what we're doing and get on with it.

By the end of DA-3, the formalisation of the ODA process assisted in pushing USAR into DA-4. A document titled "USA Rugby Olympic Development Program" was released to each potential ODA in 2013, and was posted online for anyone interested. The document outlined USAR's Sevens strategy, development pathways, and requirements for the USAR-ODA relationship.

In 2014, USAR released two additional documents - the "American Rugby Model" and the "High Performance Player Pathway." The press release on usarugby.org announcing the models stated the rationale:

To ensure players at all levels have multiple ways to achieve growth and reach the next level of development. As the popularity of rugby surges across America, USA Rugby plays the leading role in efforts to increase access, improve quality, and expand rugby opportunities for rugby athletes wanting to maximize their potential as elite rugby players.

Those two documents specified a wide variety of entry points to the USAR HP system, especially focusing on the youth level according to United States-Respondent-39, "developing a long-term development model for rugby will address critical areas in our system for kids at a very early age." That respondent also highlighted the obstacles rugby must overcome being a niche sport spread over a large geographical area, while attempting to streamline the process of moving from Central Residency at the USOTC to the Hub and Spoke model, as highlighted by United States-Respondent-43, "children progress through the same development stages and this model will ensure we address the appropriate points along the development curve in order for them to reach their genetic potential."

Specialisation of USAR Sevens. For the first time in history, the United States had resources (from the USOC) to allow rugby players to specialise in their sport on home soil. This section outlines the six specialisation areas as discussed in the SARU specialisation section; player contracts, athlete specialists, coaches, administration, competitions, and facilities. This section goes further to discuss the specialisation of the new ODAs.

USAR Sevens player contracts. USAR began contracting rugby players for the first time in 2012 with the shift into DA-3. This included Sevens or Fifteens players, and marked a dismissal of the amateur status of USAR. A few USAR national Fifteens players had been able to secure professional rugby contracts overseas, primarily in the United Kingdom and France. However, this was the first time rugby players could be paid while training in America. United States-Respondent-43 discussed how the contracts worked in DA-3:

We currently have sixteen residents for the women and I believe sixteen residents for the men's Sevens team. We have up to twenty spots for the men and they've been bringing some guys in and out so they might have like a college player in this month, but he might not be here next month. So some guys have signed a contract through to the end of June, some people have only signed a contract for one month, that they're on a one month training contract so we have different types of agreements for the players.

By DA-4, five levels of contracts existed; full-time, part-time, housing only, local teams, and USA military. The USA military had an agreement with the USOC that Olympic caliber athletes can be stationed at a base near the USOTC and train full-time while still being paid by the USA military. Between two to six resident athletes were in the military program during DA-3 and DA-4. Full-time players usually signed for one year at the normal stipend rate of about USD20,000. The USOC and USAR each contributed to the stipend as detailed by United States-Respondent-43:

The average pay for the player is about 400 (USD per month) from the USOC and then USA Rugby contributes the rest of the payment which is about 1200 (USD per month). They get that pay cheque from the USOC and then they get a separate pay cheque, not pay cheque, a separate stipend from USA Rugby. *We've been careful to call them residency athletes rather than contracted or professional athletes.*

Calling the payment a stipend was another USOC stipulation, and came about from the USOC preventing unions forming among the athletes to drive up salary. A stipend was to be used for living expenses while training, a salary was considered payroll. This difference enabled the USOC and its constituent NGBs to prevent escalating salaries seen in other sports. It was the USOC that forced a cap on the overall stipend amount. The USOC cap was based on other Olympic sports, and prevented competition between national Olympic

governing bodies. Players were allowed to seek endorsements to increase annual wages. As United States-Respondent-41 illustrated:

Most of the Olympic hopefuls training here full-time are paid the average stipend. You take someone like Michael Phelps or Lulu Jones or whoever, they receive sponsorship money and endorsements - that's how they receive more money than just the USOC or NGB stipend that they receive. It's a stipend, it's not pay based on performance or someone getting more than another because they're performing better or a certain time of year is more important. I don't really see it changing that much.

Players could also be contracted to ODAs, but that arrangement was determined by each ODA and not USAR.

The USOC cap heavily restricts player recruitment in the USA market because endorsement deals were rare for rugby players. One manager stated "anyone could argue these full-time player stipends do not necessarily allow you to focus on rugby full-time, as \$20,000 a year is hardly a liveable wage, especially in Southern California." Rugby players in the USA were still expected to "compete for the rings" as the USOC wanted. Several interviewees in the USA discussed how they felt the USOC continued to hold on to amateur values, and that Olympic athletes should sacrifice wealth for sporting glory. Whether that was true, or it was the USOC, preventing escalating expenses was unclear in the data.

United States-Respondent-40 understood the situation, and identified positives with this statement:

If you're still a young player in this country you want to play at the Olympics, but at the end of the day you're only going to get a very small stipend to stay here where you can make six figures playing overseas. That's great, good on you, and any of our guys get Fifteens contracts overseas, we're excited for them. That's one more guy being developed by somebody else that we can then bring into this assembly. So by the time it builds up to the Olympics and it rolls around, we have much more competition for spots.

The club versus country debate and the Sevens versus Fifteens debate, as first discussed in Chapter Five, could act contrary to the above quote if the players were not released to play. That is yet to be discovered in this thesis, and should be investigated in 2016. United States-Respondent-34 added this sentiment:

These players are Olympic hopefuls, the guys I developed a residency program for which is much different than a professional athlete. Professional athletes - you think of money, contracts, agents, that kind of stuff - these guys don't have that. These guys are getting paid a stipend to pay their rent, they're getting meals on site here, very bare bones, and when you watch an Olympics, this past year 2012, and you

hear about the sacrifices that the Olympians made, I never actually understood it until I've seen the guys out here, the guys and girls, because they're sacrificing a lot. We have a girl who left a job at Google to come out here to train to be an Olympic hopeful and I know she's only receiving a small portion of what she made before but it's a stipend to be able to train, to live that Olympic dream and it's still three years away. That's definitely the big difference between the professional and the Olympic hopeful when you think of things in terms of that.

It was unknown whether the residency athlete income would ever increase to match professional rugby standards, or at least allow a comfortable living near the USOTC. When asked about increasing budgets, several interviewees shared this theme as explained by United States-Respondent-43:

At this point, we aren't really profiting off Sevens. It is probably not going to be the biggest moneymaker, so until we can start making more money from these athletes directly, I just don't see it increasing. It might, we might somehow get a new sponsor and new funding, but it's an average NGB stipend to an Olympic hopeful. We haven't even qualified for the Olympics yet in all honesty so I don't know that it's really going to be increasing. I think the athletes might become smarter about how they receive endorsements, how they go out to clubs and coach on a weekend and they get a stipend or they have that club pay them a stipend for coaching. I think the athletes are going to become more lucrative and get more money but it's not going to be from the NGB stipend.

USAR Sevens specialists. Specialisation of Sevens players did not exist to any large scale in DA-1 or DA-2, with a rare player choosing to only play Sevens during national team tours or the summer domestic Sevens season. With the first professional contract in USAR history going to Sevens players, many decided to quit playing Fifteens to not jeopardise that contract. This signalled a major shift in values of the Sevens versus Fifteens domain in the DA-2 to DA-3 change. The resident athletes at the USOC had the ability to play Fifteens if they chose, but most have decided to concentrate on Sevens. United States-Respondent-34 stated:

Because they're contracted for Sevens, I'm not sure of all of their exact feelings about this, but from what I get they don't really want to risk injury to themselves in a Fifteens match when there is a Sevens match two weeks later, and contracts are coming up for renewal in January, and there's a Sevens World Cup in a couple of months. So I think for the players themselves, Sevens is a priority because that's where they're making their living right now.

This was very different to South Africa (and any other Tier One nation), where the players had more opportunities and larger pay scales in Fifteens. There was a lure from overseas competitions for the USAR Sevens players, and several of them left the residency program to pursue those contracts. About half of them were successful in sustaining a Fifteens career, while the other half either returned to the USOTC, joined an ODA, or retired from rugby.

USAR Sevens coaches. USAR's Sevens coaching staff multiplied from one part-time coach (for each men and women) in DA-1/DA-2, to one full-time coach with two to four casual assistants in DA-3, to a staff of seven coaches working together with the men's and women's teams in DA-4 plus several part-time and full-time ODA coaches. In addition, the growth in Sevens coaching development mirrored the rate of coaches involved with the national Sevens teams.

In DA-1 and DA-2, Sevens coaches could not earn a liveable wage, and needed to maintain another job in the private sector. Despite being part-time coaches, the role of the coach through DA-3 included HP management duties (e.g. training periodization, player pathways and development) and often administration and fundraising duties (e.g. tournament paperwork and travel planning, creating sponsorship proposals). This created a stressful work environment as discussed by United States-Respondent-42,

The coaches are overworked outside of the coaching responsibility, travelling ten months a year and trying to develop new players in constantly evolving rosters. They also wear a second hat of high performance administrator and team manager. Quite often they are unable to focus just on coaching as a Fifteens coach would. There was a third hat were they have another job, a full-time job or part-time job, that has a lot of flexibility to travel ten months of the year. But, they still must focus on that as well and the expectation to win is dramatically higher because the added pressure of the Olympic Games and the resources and publicity that that has brought with it.

That statement was made prior to the hiring of the first full-time men's coach in DA-3, a year after the team centralised at the USOTC. The Olympic pressure to win, and possibly pressure from the USOC, dictated that a coach was required full-time onsite with the teams. Having a coach onsite also assisted in coaching development. USAR began to bring current and potential domestic Sevens coaches to the USOTC to expose them to the HP environment and share knowledge, as United States-Respondent-34 explained:

We get them to call each week to share ideas. We'll break down a game that the US has played in, go through the decisions we made and why we made them, answer any questions about what we're doing in training. Of course they've got some good ideas to share. So that's USA Rugby as a whole coaching department and that's what we do. I help provide information. We have shadowing here, there's one or two a

week come through that they're allowed to be on site with us and share ideas and talk to us about what we do, similar to what we're doing now.

These coaches were also allowed to tour with the national team, as further explained by United States-Respondent-34:

So on the coaching front one of the things we've done is we've made it very clear to our affiliate folks that every tour that we coach, we're going to be taking affiliate coaches with us, at least one coach on every tour, and we're going to help develop the coaches. They'll also get a bit of international experience; they can come see what we're doing.

This was partly in response to the ODA program launch at the shift from DA-3 to DA-4, and after several of the new ODA coaches voiced concerns over the lack of coaching development. USAR went through four national team men's coaches in four years (2011-2014). Each time, the coaching search was seen as haphazard and confidential with the new candidate lacking any international coaching experience until the most recent hire in 2014. Displeasure about the lack of development of domestic coaches was voiced by United States-Respondent-36:

Coaching wise I don't know what USA Rugby is doing. To be honest, I really don't know what they are thinking because they haven't made actually a pathway for coaching to the national team.

In addition, United States-Respondent-42:

I feel like it's a bit of a kick in the teeth on the local searches when there's no clarity on what we need to do to be able to get ourselves ready to coach the Eagles one day. Just like players, coaches want to be able to see the light at the end of the tunnel.

USAR was in the process of attempting to fix this issue by the end of the data collection process, with the United States-Respondent-34 stating the opportunity for coach development through both the ODAs and the NCAA (which is the typical USA HP sport model):

With the introduction of a full collegiate Sevens season in place, we now have rapidly added hundreds of coaches to the task of earnestly preparing and playing the game of Sevens rugby. No other country in the world has had the opportunity to so quickly re-focus nearly 200 coaches to the endeavour of developing high-performing Sevens teams. It is now to the benefit of the Sevens game and the national team that coaches are turning their focus for an entire season of Sevens, putting it under a microscope, all the while training the next wave of Olympians.

The new university-based competition structure will be discussed in the residency competitions section.

Additional coaches were introduced in DA-3 and carried over into DA-4. The head coach was essentially alone in coaching duties until DA-3 when several specialist coaches were brought in to the help with the expanded training squad to handle skills, defence, and kicking. As United States-Respondent-35 inferred, an isomorphic approach of mimicking other professional sports was utilised (as Sevens was in professional infancy),

The goal is to have these guys come in for a few days when they are able to come. And then we evolve to have them coming for a longer period in our preseason to help really build the foundation. But more than that, they are a brains trust. They are a technical group I can reach out to, chat to. They can give me their thoughts, but those thoughts are based on a knowledge of where we want to go. I want to surround myself not only with good players, but good coaches and good people. You look at the professional teams in any sport and they have specific position coaches and coaches for specific skills. Rugby is moving that way. There are elements of the game I am really good at coaching, and some elements others are better than me - I've never been a kicker so why would I coach kicking? It's about growing our knowledge base, and my job is to see the overall picture.

USAR Sevens administration. DA-1 and DA-2 of the Sevens high performance administration was not separate from the Fifteens administration other than the Sevens head coach's administration duties. New roles were created with the move to Central Residency in DA-3. Initially, the team services manager's role (both Sevens and Fifteens) increased to managing the residency program, which means managing the athletes on a daily basis. United States-Respondent-41 stated, "team servicing has increased for the Sevens team by 400% with new competitions added each year, and now someone needs to manage the full-time residents." Eventually, this role became standalone, focusing full-time on Sevens resident athletes and international travel.

Another role outside the HP area, but still linked to Olympic pressures, was a new Chief Marketing Officer in 2013 (DA-3). The USAR CEO announced the hire at the 2013 National Development Summit with, "USA Rugby is making bold and aggressive moves to advance its organization by appointing [female marketing professional] as Chief Marketing Officer to lead all internal and external marketing and sponsorship efforts for the organization." It was the momentum from Olympic inclusion that pressured USAR to create this position, and signalled USAR's intent to adopt USOC values. This was highlighted by the CMO's first public speech that included her vision to rebrand USAR with a merging of values from the USOC, relying on Sevens Olympic status to communicate rugby to a broader audience.

DA-4 saw the largest shift in administration specialisation with the development of the Sevens High Performance Director position. A past head coach was hired for that position, and he lobbied for its creation as early as 2012 when he illustrated the difficulties of the joint head coach-HP manager role:

There were no real systems in place so anytime you're developing a team, you've got to get a lot of the off-field issues right in order to have the on field. Funding isn't what it needs to be and nobody else is doing that work. How do you make sure that there's money to have a camp like we did last week? So you [head coach] have to create fundraising methods and systems. We've done that. Nobody else here is doing it so in order to have a successful team you have to get after it. Identification system - how are you going to identify the athletes and how are you going to continue to identify them and then where do they go when you have identified them? There weren't really systems in place to deal with that outside of you play high school, you play college, you play club. Well that level is here; it is not getting here at this level, right, so how do you deal with that.

sition was introduced alongside the hiring of the fourth men's head coach in four years (and four design archetypes). The women's coach had remained the same throughout the shifts from DA-1 to DA-4. The 2014 men's head coach came from England, and was the head coach in Kenya in 2012-2013 - an interesting connection of case studies. The head coach's Kenyan role was an important cog in the development of the USAR Sevens HP Director position. The English head coach was overwhelmingly the top Sevens head coach available, and was considered in 2013 by USAR after he resigned from Kenya. He was not hired in 2013 due to two primary circumstances: 1) higher salary demands that USAR could not afford at the time, and, 2) unwillingness to move to the USOTC full-time.

The 2013 head coach was hired without any previous elite coaching experience nor HP management experience. He was the current national team captain, and jointly played and coached in the first tournament in 2013. USAR did not confirm the rationale for his hiring, although several sources outside of USAR staff mentioned that USAR hired him due to his relationship with Serevi Rugby. Serevi Rugby was an independent firm based in Seattle that operated youth and adult high performance camps and coaching services, and eventually became an official ODA. The rumoured condition for hiring the 2013 head coach

□ □ 璦耗 de continued to work for Serevi Rugby, thus reducing the salary requirements from USAR. However, this created a perception that Serevi Rugby now had an unfair direct access to USAR, allowing its coaches and member athletes better opportunities than rival ODAs and independent rugby clubs. This coaching hire during the transition period in 2013 signalled organisation strife consistent with the colonisation process from DA-2 to DA-3, and was eventually rectified with the evolutionary process from DA-3 to DA-4.

The “odd and non-competitive” inter-organisational relationship between USAR and Serevi Rugby was weakened in 2014 with the firing of the head coach. The USOC pressured his release citing poor on-field performances and lack of leadership. The USA Sevens national team had regressed in global competition effectiveness under his leadership. The USOC became involved with the coaching search in 2014, demanding an elite hire to lessen the risk of the USA not qualifying for the Olympics. The English coach was considered by most Sevens circles to be the best candidate for the job, but, he stood by his 2013 demands to not relocate to the USA and to have only coaching duties. This meant a new position had to be developed to manage Sevens HP, hence the new Sevens HP Director. As was the case in Kenya, the English coach hired an assistant coach to oversee the day-to-day training environment at the USOTC with assistance from local, domestic coaches. The head coach would travel to the USOTC for Training Camps for two to three weeks prior to international competition. DA-4 began with the framework of a separate department to manage Sevens, with staff size projecting to overtake the Fifteens-specific staff in the near future.

USAR residency competitions. USAR had a respectable history of staging both Sevens and Fifteens amateur competitions, leading to the summary that adult clubs were one of the top external groups USAR oriented towards. However, there has never been an elite or professional rugby competition held on a regular basis by USAR. The USA’s largest Sevens tournament was linked with the IRB Sevens World Series and operated by an external group after purchasing the rights from USAR in 2004. This tournament grew consistently, and by 2012, (DA-3) was considered one of the top Sevens events in the world. The same company started the Collegiate Rugby Championship (CRC) in 2011 and partnered with the USA’s Olympic broadcast rights holder, NBC. The commercial success of those tournaments, and the increasing pressure from adult and university clubs, pressured USAR to finally establish additional elite Sevens tournaments. This change began in DA-3 with the establishment of the USAR College National Sevens Championships (a rival to the CRC).

As the university sector developed, USAR began to focus on the residency and ODA athletes in 2014. Looking to professional rugby, United States-Respondent-37 stated athletes needed “60-75 Sevens matches per year (equivalent to 25 Fifteens matches) like many of the professional rugby clubs.” By DA-4, USAR launched the ‘Elite City 7s’ competition – basically the ODAs plus select sides from large USA cities. The concept started with one tournament in 2014, with plans to expand in future years.

At the same time, the private company that operated the largest Sevens tournaments launched a new version of Sevens with unlimited substitutes and twenty minute halves. A third group, who owned the rights to professional Sevens via a contract with USAR, was attempting to launch a Million Dollar Sevens tournament. Other groups, including Serevi Rugby, were busy establishing new prize money tournaments. This level of entrepreneurship introduced new actors, new resources, and new exchange processes, but also highlighted the

capitalistic underpinning of sport in America – where groups would rather stake a claim and compete than to merge and cooperate. Many interviewees agree that Sevens, and not Fifteens, was the future for professional rugby in America. That argument will be discussed in the USAR Fifteens versus Sevens domain section.

USAR Sevens residency facility. Throughout DA-1, USAR would utilise various locations for rare HP Training Camps during the Airport Meet and Greet stage. Sometimes the USOTC was utilised, so USAR were familiar with it when they shifted to DA-2. The Training Camps were usually hosted at the USOTC, but not always. As United States-Respondent-45 recounted:

I trained there when I played, and over that period you'd get invited wherever you lived in the country, you'd fly out to the Olympic centre and you'd be for one week training with 20 other people and 12 people would be chosen the day before you fly. The people who didn't make it would be on the next flight home, and they'd be gone, and they would be back to their routine and back to their jobs. Obviously the 12 that made it would travel, generally two tours, and then also come back and go back to a regular job. So that was obviously amazing as a player but you couldn't accomplish as much as you wanted to. During that short space of time not only did you have to get your fitness, not only did the coach have to select the 12 players, you obviously had to play as a team. It's very tough to play as a team when you fight against each other, competing which is good but you don't have enough time to foster that camaraderie and that kind of trust.

With the new Olympic funding cycle beginning in 2012, USAR was able to move into the USOTC full-time. The annual access to elite level training conditions made an immediate difference in the team perspective as described by United States-Respondent-37:

Now the difference is really something. The difference is that the players obviously now live out at the Olympic training centre. They can train every single day together as a team and, yes, there may be 16 players and only 12 get to travel, and maybe one or two outsiders join the team and travel, but those core players are there day in day out and they're together and they're building that kind of unity which we never had and I think that's a very exciting part.

As far as the services available to residency athletes, the 2013 head coach, a South African by birth, often referred to the South African model and stated a desire to recreate that version at the USOC. This highlighted normative isomorphism, the learning process from professionals from other organisations to adopt similar design archetypes in response to environmental changes (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Normative isomorphism also came from the USOC itself, as the staff educated USAR staff on the Olympic systems that have

produced the highest Olympic medal count throughout the history of the Olympic Games – “The USOC is very special, every four years they have huge success. They know how to win medals and gold medals at that. They know how to create a winning environment, being a part of that for us is huge and irreplaceable,” stated United States-Respondent-35. Facilities at USOC include; sport psychologist, nutritionist, director of medical, cafeteria, fields, weight room, physio room, and equipment. The USOC model was not to be a provider of many services, more like a facilitator. The USOC assists with the process of sourcing sport science, but does not always directly provide it. As United States-Respondent-34:

The USOC is not like ... you always think it's going to be like Rocky IV where it's really the centre for huge technology and everything else. It's a facility, most of the sports science comes in from each individual sport, each individual national governing body. There are a few people here who can help but they're looking after a lot of teams, and it's not like Australian sport where they're actually doing the research on the ground. For us in the United States that's done at the university level that's where our intellectual capital is produced.

The Sevens national teams were located at the USOTC through DA-3 and DA-4, with no signs at the end of data collection to leave the facility. The major change from DA-3 to DA-4 was the development of the Olympic Development Academy system to offer high performance training environments in regional areas across the vast USA.

USAR Sevens Olympic Development Academy (ODAs) USAR created the Olympic Development Academy system that forms the basis for the shift into DA-4. Instead of being based in San Diego at the USOTC, athletes join independent satellite academies operating under sanctioning from USAR. The ODAs are under agreement that they provide a certain level of training, a certain level of competition, and a certain level of exposure to both domestic and international Sevens. The ODAs were autonomous, regional training bases. Each ODA had the ability to generate its own programming, identify and recruit elite athletes, and link with any other organisations (e.g. local universities, local rugby clubs, high schools). In return for establishing an ODA, USAR offered coaching and technical support, invited ODA athletes to Training Camps, monitored athletes in conjunction with the ODA monitoring system, and hosted tournaments for the ODAs to compete against each other.

These academies were new at the end of data collection, and had not been fully integrated into the USA development pathway system. However, it appeared that they might be a successful tool in developing USA Sevens athletes. From the ODAs, players will be selected into a wider high performance Training Camp. Those not selected still have the opportunity to work in a high performance training system to develop their skills. There was some negativity from some ODA start-ups regarding the integration, as illustrated by United States-Respondent-44:

I think it's a concept in development honestly. I think every time I turn around you hear of a new ODA being talked about, and I think right now there is no real control of who is doing what. As far as our little spot goes, it doesn't really matter to us if USA Rugby takes the bull by the horns or not because we've got the ball rolling and we're going to do it regardless.

In response to that and other negative comments, United States-Respondent-34 discussed USAR's role with the ODAs:

Our job is to help feed them and give them as many ideas as possible. Now we have a place when we release a player from contract and they aren't done forever. They go back to their home and they join the academy and it gives them an opportunity to play their way back in. Where if they are chasing a full-time career at that location it gives them regular training, but then gives them a shot to be called back to the national team, whether they are here or not.

USAR wanted to increase high performance training sessions for all athletes. In attempting to establish a baseline structure to begin in DA-4, the Sevens HP Director looked to other sports that he was familiar with his private sector job in commercial video analysis. This introduced systems from professional and National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) sports such as basketball, hockey, and lacrosse, and this normative isomorphism assisted in the evolutionary pathway of change. The workflows of those sports were taken into consideration for developing the USA HP structures. United States-Respondent-34 stated:

Ice hockey athletes need 200 training sessions per year, but that's unrealistic for rugby due to 6 months training season, so look at 150 sessions. Six per day for six months is only 150 training sessions.

The initial ODAs were a mixture of established Sevens touring squads (e.g. Tiger Rugby), established adult clubs (e.g. Glendale Rugby Football Club), new businesses (e.g. Northeast ODA), and the emerging Serevi Rugby conglomerate. One of the ODA managers firmly stated that his rugby program existed before USAR officially started the ODA program:

So that all happened at least a couple of years ago. The whole Olympic development strategy is something that USA Rugby's kind of stuck their moniker on by changing but we were doing it way before them. I've been working with a bunch of universities, high schools, clubs. We are setting up a network affiliate program across the country where we will be sharing knowledge as well as using it as a way to identify players.

One of the pressure points for having the ODA system came from the limitation of athlete availability, including the unwillingness to earn the small stipend. Several interviewees stated, “lack of competitive environment” and “not always the best players are chosen” as detriments to Central Residency. There was the growing disconnect of a large number of potential elite players from the USOTC and the national team coaches. Many players and coaches expressed that the initial residency athletes had a major advantage in national team selection at the expense of potentially better athletes that could not take up a residency contract in California. Another argument against residency was the dilution of talent in local clubs that occurred by relocating the top athletes, hence reducing the competition level in those regions. United States-Respondent-43 stated:

Like for Houston for the women, you won't see anyone that's not in the residency program on the Houston Sevens team and the same with the men going to Wellington and Vegas. Every person who is on the team is in the residency program now so it's becoming harder and harder for the people not in the residency program to make the USA Sevens team.

USAR, realising the limitations, intensified discussions with the NCAA and its member universities to develop the NCAA-pathway model for Sevens. The NCAA has been the traditional high performance platform for most USA sports. However, this would be a lengthy process and consist of universities either redirecting funding from current Olympic sports or developing new funding – one university at a time.

The progression of USAR's elite pathway system looks to continue towards the NCAA-model according to several USAR coaches and managers, but may also stand as an example for future niche sports striving to elevate international competitiveness. The official relationship and purported USAR support formalised the arrangements with external partners – ODA and universities. It is yet to be seen how DA-4 finally evolves with the ODAs and the NCAA. USAR began increasing support in the university system at the same time as the ODAs.

6.4.2 Changes to USAR Values

Values went mostly unchanged in the reorientation of DA-1 to DA-2. Then, USAR underwent some value changes pressured by the greater structural changes occurring in the DA-2 to DA-3 shift that caused organisational imbalance. As with most colonisation changes, this caused both internal and external organisational conflict resulting in high coach and athlete turnover, poor team performance, USOC displeasure and eventual interference, and rugby member (participants) plus ODA outwardly questioning USAR's governance. The DA-3 to DA-4 sought to rectify this conflict by undergoing an evolutionary change by first establishing a new values system that would underpin the additional structural changes. Discussion begins with orientation, then criteria of effectiveness, and finally domain.

Orientation of USAR Sevens. USAR was primarily oriented towards the IRB in DA-1, with domestic competitions for USAR members secondary. The data were unclear on what external group held the third spot, most likely sponsors and potential sponsors. Although USAR had relatively little sponsorship during DA-1, as compared to other rugby unions or especially USA sports, they did often release media statements regarding sponsors.

During the shift to DA-2 in 2011, USAR became a full sport member of the USOC, and was recognised by the USOC as the official governing body for rugby in the USA. In 2012, during the shift to DA-3, the USOC provided USD562,508 in direct funding, in-kind, planning, and expertise. The majority was direct funding, and that money went to the USA men's and women's Sevens teams. This shifted the primary orientation from the IRB to the USOC. However, the USA Men's Sevens team also received USD130,000 from the IRB in support of participating as a core team in the IRB Sevens World Series, relegating the IRB to a very close second in terms of orientation. USAR not only required the IRB's funding, but also needed to stay in good standing with the IRB to be allowed to compete in international competition, including the Olympic Games. Figure 6.3 was published by USAR in its Strategic Plan 2013-2015 to show the orientation of USAR to the IRB and USOC. Both relationships were critical, however the resources provided by the USOC pressure more decisions regarding the high performance setup more than the IRB resources.

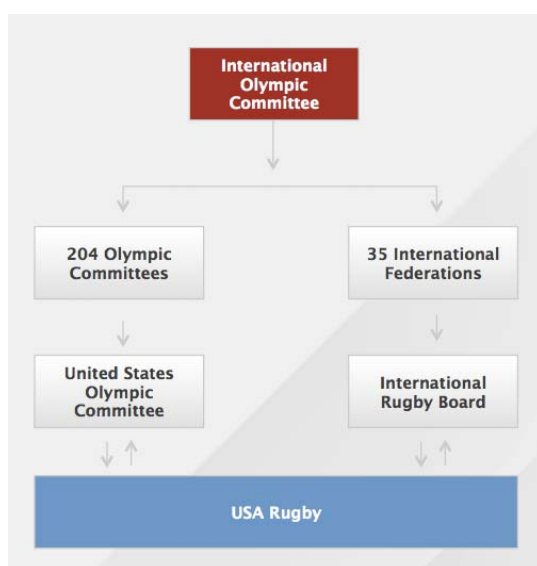


Figure 6.3 USAR Strategic Plan 2013-2015 relationships to IOC and IRB.

Another resource that matters significantly within the context of the USA was that the USOC offers what the IRB cannot - domestic Olympic legitimacy. United States-Respondent-34 described this resource while creating the ODA system in DA-3 to DA-4 transition,

We can also share the branding, USA Rugby Olympic Development. That goes a long way, you are trying to brand whether it's for profit or non-profit and so you create academies that are competing against each other for athletes and the right to identify and develop athletes and play against each other.

Senior clubs (USAR members past university age), and particularly their hosting of domestic competitions, had been the secondary orientation of USAR. One major outcome of this relationship was a robust and established summer Sevens season that was the envy of many Tier One, Two and Three nations. Although the senior clubs continued to be highly valued in past DA-2, the emergence of the USOC relationship pushed to third on the orientation hierarchy in DA-2 and DA-3. In DA-4, the creation of ODAs and pressure to mimic the success of the NCAA system for developing athletes forced senior clubs out of top three orientation groups. United States-Respondent-34 illustrated the emerging strategy to utilise the NCAA with the ODAs:

I think with the academies [ODAs] you have to remember that at the same time, and *really the important crux of the long-term growth of this* (Sevens high performance system) is high-level high school rugby and high-level collegiate rugby. That is how we develop athletes in the United States. That doesn't change. The academies parallel that, and should add to that. But if I'm a player right now at St Mary's (University) or Cal [University of California] or BYU [Brigham Young University] the list goes on - I mean if you're in that environment for a year, they're going to have a high performance pathway forming, and if I do well in that environment then I play for the Collegiate All-Americans. And then I either go directly to the national team after I graduate or I go to an academy. It's a place for those guys to go. The academies don't change the focus that we need robust development in the coaching ranks in the competitive systems that we have at the high school level and certainly make the collegiate game a very good product for TV.

The change in strategy towards the NCAA system highlights a shift away from the typical international rugby development systems (academies/professional teams) and towards the USA system. As USAR ventured into elite status, there were institutional pressures from the USOC, high schools, and universities to mimic the typical USA sports development system.

Criteria of Effectiveness of USAR Sevens The next organisational value to be examined is criteria of effectiveness, or how USAR measures its own success. This was divided into three main objectives in regards to the Sevens program: 1) utilise Sevens to develop Fifteens players; 2) win international competitions including Olympic qualifiers and medals; and, 3) attract sponsorship and media attention.

USAR Sevens objective to develop Fifteens. Similarly to most rugby unions prior to Olympic inclusion, Sevens was used by USAR to “blood” Fifteens players – just not to the same extent as the Tier One nations. United States-Respondent-37 stated, “In the past it was very clear that Sevens was the development tool for most countries. The money was very clearly for Fifteens.” However, there was much less pressure on the USA to compete in international Fifteens, so often the Sevens and Fifteens teams were selected independent of each other with no clear development agenda. This was deemed a medium level of importance to USAR when compared to other unions.

USAR’s criteria of effectiveness to develop Fifteens dropped steadily from 2011 to 2014. The medium level of importance in DA-1 continued through DA-2 (during reorientation), but became a low level of importance in DA-3. External (USOC) and internal pressure (Sevens athletes, coaches) pressured colonisation of this value. The Sevens residency athletes rarely played Fifteens for fear of injury and disruption to the training cycle. The focus was on Olympic qualification, and the USOC definitely pressured USAR to separate Sevens from Fifteens. The USAR CEO was quoted in a press conference after meeting with the USOC in 2011– “they are definitely not into Fifteens; they want to be certain the resources they provide go towards Sevens and Olympic qualification.”

The level of importance to develop Fifteens players eventually dropped to a very low level in DA-4, and may have begun to switch directions. There was evidence that Fifteens was now a preferred tool for developing Sevens players, at least at the university and senior club level. Fifteens could provide more rugby playing opportunities for the many crossover athletes now interested in Olympic Sevens. United States-Respondent-42’s statement illustrated this theme, “we just need these guys playing rugby, any rugby. We need them to pass, catch, ruck, tackle, act under pressure...they are great athletes in other sports, but just don’t have rugby IQ yet.”

USAR Sevens objective to win competitions and Olympic qualification. Because of its Tier Two and niche USA sport status, winning competitions was not expected from the USA. In DA-1 and DA-2, the main objective was to be competitive enough to remain a core team on the IRB World Sevens Series. The USOC placed critical importance on Olympic qualification, and the pressure was not only from the USOC. United States-Respondent-35 stated:

I hope the public's perception would be that they expect us to win gold. We should be a podium team. We're a country of 300 million-plus people and we produce athletes with a far-ranging base of skills. We just have to expose them to the sport.

The American perception of rugby had always been a “foreign” sport, a “crazy” sport, and a niche sport that did not always fit with American culture. The Olympic Games provided the opportunity to bring rugby into the mainstream, to get youth, high schools, and

universities playing it. But without a team in the Olympics, then all those other objectives would fall short. Olympic qualification went from a medium priority in DA-2 to high in DA-3 to a very high priority in DA-4. Almost everyone interviewed in America shared that viewpoint, encapsulated here by United States-Respondent-37:

It certainly legitimises it in the eyes of the non-rugby public, which is really important. That's huge in this country and the five rings stand for a lot of great things and that speaks volumes to athletic directors in high schools and universities, and it really does generalise the sport a long way.

The new priority of Olympic qualification pressured USAR to begin winning more international competitions. USAR was improving in 2012 (end of DA-2) when they were a top five team during the last four tournaments, beating every team except New Zealand. However, the colonisation from DA-2 to DA-3 added conflict and pressure. USAR were unwilling or unable to fully invest in a high-level HP system (coaching staff, development pathways, additional elite competition), almost resisting the pressure to win. The team dropped to fourteenth in the world at the end of DA-3. The major change in this criteria of effectiveness was USAR's value change to placing a very high priority on winning in 2014, and actually developing the structures required to achieve that objective (see specialisation section above).

USAR Sevens objective to attract sponsorship and media. USAR significantly shifted its approach in sponsorship and media coverage during 2011-2014. In DA-1 (2011), the focus was on Fifteens media coverage, but that was very minimal in comparison to other American sports. With Olympic momentum growing each year since inclusion, new media partners (e.g. NBC, CNN) have covered USA Sevens players and tournaments. By DA-4, attracting media for Sevens rose to a medium level compared to its very low level in DA-1.

Sponsorship (that typically follows media attention) for Sevens began to separate from Fifteens after 2012 (DA-2). The Olympic brand and consistent international presence on the IRB Sevens World Series rewards sponsors better than USAR Fifteens. The importance of using Sevens to gain sponsorship rose consistently from DA-1 (very low) to DA-4 (high), overtaking the value of Fifteens as a mechanism for sponsorship.

Domain of USAR Sevens Domain, or the areas which USAR choose to provide products and services, was broken into three main categories: 1) Elite versus mass participation; 2) Sevens versus Fifteens; and, 3) men versus women. The first two will be discussed in this section, and the third will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

USAR elites versus mass participation domain. One way to discover the priority of mass participation versus elite performance is to compare strategic plan key performance indicators (KPIs). The KPIs in Table 6.3 were taken directly from the USAR Strategic Plan 2013-2015. Only four mass participation KPIs were listed, compared to fourteen elite

performance KPIs. Five KPIs were determined to be related to both domains. Also, note that the Sevens KPIs were often listed above the Fifteens KPIs, emanating with a discourse hierarchy. This plan was developed in the DA-2 to DA-3 transition, and signified a shift from mass participation to elite performance preference.

Table 6.3 USAR KPIs from the 2013-2015 Strategic Plan.

Mass Participation KPIs	Elite Performance KPIs	Joint
1. Train 5,000 Rookie Rugby instructors	1. At least one male and one female on the IRB 7's circuit every year	1. Develop 25 High School State Championships for boys and girls in 7's and 15's
2. Recruit, train, and place 25 Pre High School Girls Rugby Development positions	2. Annual competition structure for fifteens and Sevens, men and women	2. Develop 10 State Cup Championships for club (non-high school) teams for boys and girls in 7's and 15's
3. Collegiate Coaches Association formed and functioning	3. Invest resources that support the development of elite pathways for men and women that drive achievement of sustained competitive excellence for all our national teams at World Cups, Pan American Games, and Olympic Games.	3. Every Collegiate team accounted for and properly governed under the conference structure
4. Club governance structure and administration formalized and functioning within the new structure agreed by Congress	4. 2012-13 IRB Women's Sevens World Series* - Finalists in one or more events, Top 4 Series Finish	4. NCAA Emerging Sports Initiative - Minimum of two Varsity programs committed per year
	5. 2013 IRB Sevens World Cup - Medal	5. USA's stop on the Women's Sevens World Series produces a commercially attractive event that increases the broadcast exposure of the women's game in the United States
	6. 2015 Olympic Games Qualification (Timeline – 2014/15) - Qualification	
	7. 2015 Pan American Games – Sevens Gold Medal	
	8. 2012 – 2013 HSBC Sevens World Series – Top 8 Finish (Tier One)	
	9. 2013 Rugby Sevens World Cup – Top 8 (Minimum: Quarter Final appearance)	
	10. 2013 – 2014 HSBC Sevens World Series – Tier One, Final Ranking 6-8	
	11. 2014 – 2015 – Achieve qualification for the 2016 Olympic Games	
	12. 2015 Pan American Games – Sevens Gold Medal	
	13. SPONSORSHIP: • Introduce \$500-\$1M worth of new, annual sponsorship deals annually and deliver unique, high profile sponsorship activation across high performance environments	
	14. Build individual athlete endorsements and product support	

Additional evidence of the shift in preference was financial statements. USAR's highest revenue stream in DA-1 and DA-2 was membership fees, so there was always a high regard for mass participation programs to increase that revenue. However, with the increased USOC funding, new Olympic-driven sponsors, and increased IRB high performance support, the domain began shifting to elite performance in DA-3 and DA-4. People outside USAR working in rugby noticed the change, albeit slight. United States-Respondent-40 stated:

Grassroots is driven by the people... there has just been dedicated people that love the game and inspiring youth for a love of rugby. It's really those people behind it have grown it nicely. USA Rugby obviously provides a great structure but it's those people that really drive it.

Of course, USAR employees stated numerous times that the largest benefit of the Olympics was to grow the sport of rugby (i.e. increase mass participation). This was a complex domain to establish a true preference between mass participation and elite performance, and it was determined from the data that USAR has maintained a high level of focus on the mass participation domain while increasing the elite domain from medium (DA-1) to very high (DA-4).

USAR Fifteens versus Sevens domain. If the order of listed strategies can relate to the preference of a strategy, then Sevens (possibly due to the influence of the USOC), has risen above Fifteens in the 2016 Strategic Outlook report:

- A. Invest resources that support the development of elite pathways for men and women that drive achievement of sustained competitive excellence for all our national teams at World Cups, Pan American Games, and Olympic Games.
- B. Develop elite pathways for men and women that support the development of future National Sevens and Fifteens team players.
- C. Agree with the United States Olympic Committee an Annual Performance Partnership Agreement that supports the Men's and Women's Eagles Sevens Teams.
- D. Agree with the International Rugby Board High Performance funding support for USA Rugby national development pathway teams.
- E. Develop globally competitive Men's and Women's international fifteens teams that represent USA Rugby on the international stage.
- F. Develop a professional men's fifteens Rugby competition.

The majority of research participants agreed with this statement from United States-Respondent-37, “Fifteens gets a lot more technical so I think that the future for the US is in Sevens.” Even the CEO agreed in 2011 that the Sevens domain *might* be the future:

After this year, the emphasis will change more to Sevens. There’s a growing momentum in that direction. There are more global opportunities for Sevens than Fifteens. The IRB Sevens circuit is year-round; we have to remain competitive in that. There has been a sea change in how unions approach the game. About 90%, probably more, are now looking at Sevens being more cost-efficient than Fifteens, and offering a better opportunity to compete with the top teams in the world. Things have to be different after the [2011 Fifteens] World Cup.

United States-Respondent-36 used the typical illustration of the effect of 20/20 cricket on cricket’s survival:

Sevens to me is more like 20/20 cricket. I think it’s a game that the US market will be more likely to pick up in the near term and I think it’s a gateway track. I do not think Sevens is going away and I do not think it needs to be marginalised. I don’t think it will be the little brother for much longer but at the same time I think it can only help the Fifteens game. I know a lot of traditionalists are worried about it but I think you have to embrace it and that pretty much summarises my thoughts on that.

This shift does not signify that USAR will ignore Fifteens, only that the resources that Sevens offers had overcome the resources that Fifteens offers. There was greater pressure on USAR from external actors to emphasise Sevens, forcing a colonisation route from DA-2 to DA-3. However, USAR began embracing the new values, and those employees that shared the values of Sevens over Fifteens caused evolutionary shift from DA-3 to DA-4.

6.4.3 USAR HP System Summary

Table 6.4 summarises each structure change from DA-1 to DA-4. Each design archetype mechanism (centralisation, formalisation, specialisation, criteria of effectiveness, and domain) have been scored on a scale of very low (VL), low (L), medium (M), high (H), and very high (VH), relative to the other three case studies. The significant changes in each design archetype of been distilled to a brief description based on the discourse in the United Stated HP Systems section. The top three external groups have been included for orientation.

Table 6.4 USAR Sevens HP design archetype changes.

	DA-1 Airport Meet & Greet	DA-2 Training Camp	DA-3 Central Residency	DA-4 Hub & Spoke
Centralisation: Overall	VH	VH	H	M-H
Centralisation: Locus of Decisions	CEO	CEO	CEO	Sevens Director
Centralisation: Levels of involvement	1-2	1-2	1-3	2-3
Centralisation: Number of decisions at each level	Concentrated at higher level	Concentrated at higher level	Concentrated at higher level	Concentrated at middle level
Formalisation	L Very little Sevens HP documentation or processes	L Same as DA-1	M Sevens strategy and ODA plans	H More Sevens strategy and ODA plans with athlete performance criteria
Specialisation: Overall	L	M-H	VH	VH
Specialisation: Facility	Various locations	Various locations and USOC	USOC	USOC and ODAs
Specialisation: Player Contracts	Tournament remuneration only	Same as DA-1	Most full-time	Most full-time
Specialisation: Sevens Specialists	Very few, only by choice	Same as DA-1	30-40 specialists	30-40 specialists, ODA formation
Specialisation: Coaches	Only national team Sevens-only coaches, no Sevens skills coaches	Same as DA-1	National team and very few Sevens skills coaches, increased Sevens coaching courses	Same as DA-3
Specialisation: Admin	Sevens managed by same people as Fifteens	Same as DA-1	New minor admin Sevens roles	New Sevens GM
Specialisation: Competition	One of highest number of domestic Sevens tournaments offered, international Sevens limited to national team	Same as DA-1	Increased university-based Sevens, increasing domestic Sevens, increasing international 'B' tours	Same as DA-3 with Elite domestic level added and increasing high school competitions
Orientation: Primary	IRB	USOC	USOC	USOC
Orientation: Secondary	Senior Clubs	IRB	IRB	IRB
Orientation: Tertiary	Sponsorship	Senior Clubs	Senior Clubs	ODAs/NCAA
Effectiveness: Fifteens	M	M	L	VL
Effectiveness: Winning	L	L	H	VH
Effectiveness: Olympics	N/A	M	H	VH
Effectiveness: Sponsor	L	M	H	H
Effectiveness: Media	VL	L	M	M
Domain: Elite	M	M	H	VH
Domain: Participate	H	H	H	H
Domain: Fifteens	H	H	M	M
Domain: Sevens	L	M	H	VH
Domain: Men	H	H	H	H
Domain: Women	M	H	H	H

6.5 Kenyan HP Systems

Kenya valued Sevens above Fifteens, often only lacking the resources to change its high performance system. Most rugby players and competitions were based in Nairobi. This made the Training Camp high performance model (DA-2) easy to implement from an Airport Meet and Greet-Training Camp hybrid model (DA-1). However, it has undergone changes to become almost a full Central Residency system (DA-3). The KRU's values have not changed enough to diagram them as new values; therefore, the shift in high performance systems has been predominately structural. This aligns with a reorientation process of change. It should be noted, that external experts were brought in to assist in making the changes. There was an attempt at colonisation of those external actors' values (that were made internal employees), but those attempts to change to the KRU's values were unsuccessful due to the highly inertial status of Kenyan culture entrenched within the KRU value system. This points to the notion that colonisation can be unsustainable, as was also the case with the changes discussed in USAR.

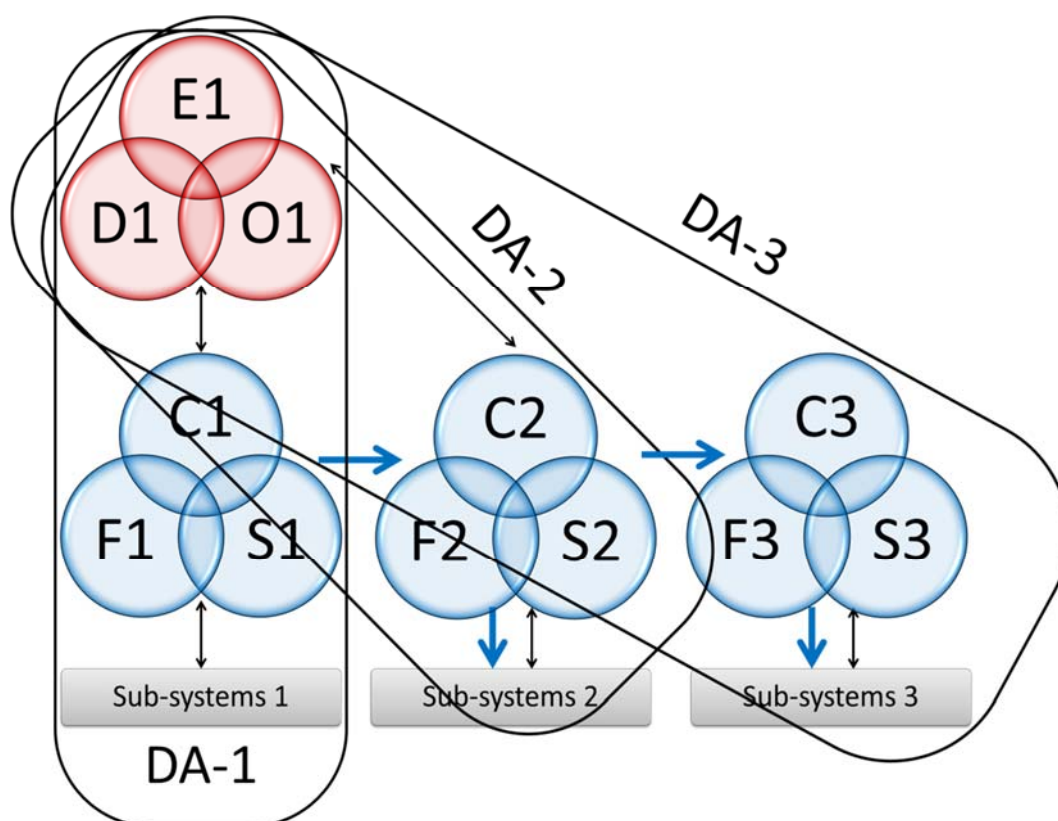


Figure 6.4 KRU process of changing design archetypes.

6.5.1 Changes to KRU Values

The discussion of values will be first in this KRU section because very few changes have occurred to the value system. The KRU's values are so deep-seated that even powerful external actors have been unable to overcome the inertia. Kenya's nationwide culture, as

with many East African countries, varies greatly from the United States, Australia, and even its continental neighbour South Africa. The differences were witnessed firsthand by the researcher while in Kenya. There were three critical differences observed: 1) As a developing economy; lower wages and limited job opportunities created greater dependency on financial power brokers and larger class gaps; 2) overwhelming lack of transparency in business relationships fostered distrust; and, 3) limited planning for the future as described by several Kenyans and outsiders as they “don’t see past the end of their nose” and “use and get as much as we can for today because nobody knows if you will have it tomorrow.” This outlook prevents strategic planning, and often results in haphazard decisions that can exclude important actors. Both Kenyans and outsiders involved with the KRU agreed that the values needed to change, but that it would be near impossible to change them without significant external (IRB, IOC) pressure.

Orientation of KRU Sevens. Orientation was likely the largest value area that research participants claimed required change. The KRU greatly relied on the money provided by its sponsors, and in return, allowed the sponsors to assist in making critical decisions regarding the Sevens HP program. Table 6.5 displays several prominent quotes from four different research participants regarding the primary orientation of the KRU towards sponsors, which existed in DA-1 to DA-3.

Table 6.5 KRU orientation towards sponsors.

Sponsors have to clear all major decisions in union since it affects them and they almost entirely fund the KRU.
Where there’s money there’s politics. Kenya Airways, [primary sponsor] until [external head coach] came on board were very, very unhappy with Kenya Rugby because they were very underperforming, and so much so that it was questionable whether they were going to renew their sponsorship unless the chairman acted.
The sponsor would want to see what the plans were, what’s their kind of phases, where do they think they’re going to get, what are their predicted outcomes, how do they think they’re going to get there, all of that.
The main finances come from Kenya Airways the main sponsor, but Kenyan Airways sometimes have too much say on things that can affect performance. It's a performance decision not a sponsor decision, but that whole part needs to evolve into a more professional stance. [Do] You blame them [KRU] to have agreeing to Kenya Airways having a voice? Probably not because you need the contract. It's a case of who needed who most.

The KRU chairman, who makes most of the decisions for the KRU, often refers to Kenya Airways in public addresses. He both praises them to the public (in the first quote), and publicly lobbies them for more resources (in the second quote):

I start by offering my sincere gratitude to Dr. Titus Naikuni, the Group Managing Director and Chief Executive of Kenya Airways for having, long ago, backed our dream to make our rugby Sevens team a professional outfit. It is through his support that Kenya Airways, in their capacity as official team sponsors, have availed the finances to employ a Head Coach, Mike Friday and a Strength & Conditioning Coach, Chris Brown. Georgina Ndawa from Kenya Airways also deserves special mention for her dedication. We shall be in a healthier financial position to negotiate with a suitable coach to replace [resigned coach]. With the promise of our team, we shall not lack top class coaches interested in the job. *But, again, finances may dictate the choice.*

However, the KRU also used Kenya Airways as a scapegoat, and the data did not offer an explanation of how or why Kenya Airways tolerated this behaviour. This behaviour was discussed by a number of research participants, with one telling quote from Kenya-Respondent-20 suggesting that Kenya Airways was not to blame:

There's loads of issues where the money got released to Kenya Rugby but it never found the players, and Kenya Rugby blamed Kenya Airways that they didn't release the money. Kenya Airways had proof that they had released it so that's not building a fruitful relationship with the sponsor.

The following quote from a press release from sportsnewsarena.com (2012) was one example of several instances of scapegoating Kenya Airways:

The delay in payment of the players could have been caused by unavailability of funds. Mutai [KRU Chairman] had earlier confirmed to Sportsnewsarena.com that the players had not been paid and attributed this to a delay in signing a sponsorship deal with Kenya Airways. Mutai was candid explaining KRU were using other resources to meet the daily expenses of the Union. Kenya Airways, *who have been jittery of other sponsorship partners to KRU*, could commit on Monday.

A portion of the quote was italicised as it highlights what may signal the power Kenya Airways had in preventing the KRU from engaging with other large sponsors. This forceful tightening of the relationship between the KRU and Kenya Airways was apparent from two informal conversations. To alleviate some of the financial pressure, the KRU was attempting to orientate towards the Kenyan NOC, but had little support aside from a verbal commendation. The KRU unsuccessfully lobbied the IRB to in-turn lobby the IOC to attain NOC resources, as Kenya-Respondent-19 pointed out:

There is a need for direction from the IOC and there has not been much coming from that direction but, yes, our National Olympic Committee, even though they are not very materially supported, there was not a lot of money they are putting in; they are very supportive of rugby as a sport. In fact, the president of the National Olympic Committee was a very important plank in the IRB drive to get rugby Sevens into the Olympics.

After sponsors, the KRU oriented themselves towards the IRB. The IRB provided GBP95,000 in funding in 2012 to assist with rugby development. There were certain stipulations on the KRU concerning the utilisation of that funding, including grassroots development, coaching development, international Fifteens competition, and women's development. The KRU must remain in good standing with the IRB to continue to compete on the IRB Sevens World Series, and that exposure generates the sponsorship income.

With the top two external groups remaining unchanged in the orientation hierarchy, only one minor shift in orientation occurred. During the DA-2 to DA-3 change, the Kenyan government began to offer some financial assistance directly to players as rewards for winning. The newly elected President of Kenya was a rugby fan and publically esteemed the team in 2013. With his election, the KRU now had an ally in government to help lobby for funding and facilities. This shifted the media out of the top three orientation groups by DA-3.

Regarding financial records as a mode to establish orientation of the KRU, the KRU denied every request and a typical response when asked where they are kept: "you wouldn't get your hands anywhere near them."

Criteria of Effectiveness of KRU Sevens.

KRU Sevens objective to develop Fifteens. The KRU had rarely used the Sevens program to develop Fifteens players. The opposite was true – that Fifteens was used to develop Sevens players. Sustained success in Sevens had brought attention to rugby in general in Kenya, so there was a strong argument that Sevens increased the competitive standing of the national Fifteens. Several KRU interviewees shared the view of Kenya-Respondent-18's quote:

Let us just say that what Sevens has done for the game of rugby as a whole, before you narrow down, is that it has created a great awareness about the sport. When I got into the Union, the game of rugby was hardly known in Kenya as a whole. But rugby Sevens is the best performing ball sport in the country. I've put it squarely in the public eye so you know the politicians come in; the President is involved and so on and so forth. In general, what has ended up happening is that there is big explosion of the game as a whole. There is now a bit more interest on the rugby Fifteens team and now just every single bit of rugby gets into the public eye.

There was also pressure building from the IRB on the KRU. The IRB simultaneously lobbied the KRU with constant Fifteens discussions while dangling financial incentives to the KRU. This led to some Sevens contracted players playing Fifteens in the Rugby World Cup qualifier matches, but has had little other effect. There were no significant changes in values throughout DA-1 to DA-3, with the IRB pressure increasing this criteria of effectiveness from very low to low in DA-3.

KRU Sevens objective to win competitions and Olympic qualification. Winning international competitions had always been high on the agenda due to sponsor demand. A successful program in international competition increased sponsorship funding. In DA-2, the new head coach did set the new standards, which could signal an increase from high to very high:

Realistically, the target at the start of the season was to get safe from relegations and I thought we may be able to break into the Top eight on the limited resource we have in relating to the majority of other countries. I originally set a highly aspirational points target of 100 points on the basis of a 10 tournament series (so 90 points in a 9 leg series) as my Holy Grail of consistency of performance was always to make at least a quarter final in every leg. We also set a target of trying to reach a cup final. It was clear the right working environment and the basics are still the key to an energised focused and hungry for success squad.

From the KRU perspective, the expectations of the team's performance were simple as stated by Kenya-Respondent-18, "consistency of performance whilst also retaining core team status and ultimately to build towards competing in and winning cup finals."

KRU Sevens objective to attract sponsorship and media. Contrary to each of the other case studies, the KRU has always placed a very high priority (if not the highest) on leveraging Sevens to attract sponsorship. The orientation of the KRU was firstly to its sponsors; therefore, it must also place the highest level of performance objectives on increasing sponsorship funding.

The KRU Sevens team was successful in gaining media attention, and resulting sponsorship, by being twice named team of the year in Kenya's national sporting awards. The team had the status of the best performing team sport in Kenya, even though football trumps rugby in terms of mass participation.

Domain of KRU Sevens.

KRU elites versus masses domain. With the orientation and criteria of effectiveness focused on sponsorship, which was reliant on winning international competitions, it was apparent that the KRU prefers elite performance to mass participation. This was supported by the data from several interview responses, including these two quotes from Kenya-Respondent-20 and Kenya-Respondent-17, respectively:

I've met with the head of development and a few other key people and kind of the responses I've got from them is we don't want them [rugby clubs] to grow too quickly because they'll expand too quickly without the proper structures. And whilst I understand that, the IRB gives a significant amount of money to Kenya every year to invest in development, but 90% of that money goes into elite teams and also lining the people's pockets before it gets here. They know that yet they still give them the money. So for me I kind of question their role in supporting a nation developing, if they're focused they're obviously focused at the top end but you build from the bottom and that was my take.

Therefore, the Olympics happening, yes, there should be some more money involved, again it's going straight into the top end.

There was desire from several Kenyan rugby personnel to increase mass participation programming, although there was a lack of leadership and motivation in the decision makers at the KRU to implement them. When discussing the challenges of changing the minds of the leaders, this response was provided by Kenya-Respondent-19:

Those are challenges, but if you put all your energy into the grassroots, you have a lot, maybe in five to 10 years, but then you would have that improved consistency. Looking at it on a global scale, looking at nations we replicate, Kenya needs to have a kind of island approach, a Fiji or Samoa, in changing the culture and that is their culture, that's their number one out there and also they really, really get into their grassroots early in a very small population but their love for the game has come about through their teams doing very well. Kenya, getting junior schools, getting little kids playing the game just throwing around having fun, Kenya Rugby Union there would be that.

That quote also signalled a difference in isomorphic processes. The KRU had always looked to Tier One nations for models of high performance, and to a smaller degree, mass participation. Part of this was the structures left by British colonialism and part was a desire to mimic the best rugby programs in the world. This presented itself in the data with the

hiring of the two foreign head coaches during the case study period (more will be discussed about this in the specialisation section). However, the KRU was so focused on elite performance of the Sevens team that they often ignored the cultural differences of the countries they were trying to copy. The coaches they hired were from England and South Africa where they have an extensive mass participation base, with a rugby culture in youth and high schools that was the envy of many Tier One nations.

KRU Fifteens versus Sevens domain.

The KRU heavily preferred the Sevens domain. This was the case from DA-1 through DA-3. A small increase in Fifteens priority was seen during the World Cup qualifiers in DA-3, but the data were very clear that Sevens was a much higher priority as discussed above.

6.5.2 Changes to KRU Structures

There were some distinct changes to the structures of the KRU despite little evidence of value changes. This meant a reorientation occurred in the DA-1 to DA-2 shift and again in the DA-2 to DA-3 shift. The major changes occurred in specialisation. Centralisation showed some changes with the hiring of foreign coaches and HP staff. Almost no changes occurred in formalisation, as strategic and development planning was rarely formalised.

Centralisation of KRU Sevens.

KRU Sevens locus of decisions. The locus of decision-making around most decisions at the KRU, and particularly the HP system, had been at the chairman/board level throughout DA-1 to DA-3. One significant piece of evidence for this occurred in DA-2 when the Director of HP fired the head coach, which was technically under his control according to the organisational structure. The Director of National Squads (whom was also a board member) stated in a press release found on several sport news websites in 2013:

My primary focus as per the KRU Board mandate is our players and the future of our Kenya Sevens program. As this is an institutional personnel issue, we shall announce a new structure for the 2013-2014 season, after the Rugby Sevens World Cup. I cannot comment further, and I trust you will all respect the position of the Kenya Rugby Union Board.

This statement suggests the Director of HP acted under the support of the KRU Board. However, the chairman immediately reinstated the head coach and fired the Director of HP. This type of power struggle often occurred within the KRU, with the chairman asserting his power and network to keep control.

KRU Sevens levels of involvement. While most decisions were made at the chairman level, it was not until the hiring of a foreign coach that a level below the Board was

involved in decision-making. A well-respected outsider was hired for the first time by the KRU to institute the “next level of elite performance” for Kenya Sevens. The influence of a Tier One rugby coach provided an edge to the foreigner to break through the Kenyan norms and have a voice in critical decisions regarding the HP system. However, this also created conflict as several KRU directors did not value input from non-Kenyans. The Englishman attempted to colonise new values of orientating away from sponsors, shifting the domain moderately to mass participation, and instilling new criteria of effectiveness around player performance and reward systems. This led to the director’s attempts to fire the coach, and eventually led to the coach resigning a month later. The colonisation attempt failed.

The next head coach (in DA-3) was also a foreigner, but he had more support from the directors being from the African continent (South Africa). He also negotiated for additional duties, including the role of Director of HP, which provided him more decision making influence. Observing the last foreign coach’s struggle with KRU politicking and decision-making, the new coach demanded an exclusive South African management team over the Sevens program. In a letter to the KRU, “What management staff do you wish to keep in place because I need to decide whether they are good enough or not.” Although this was a stronger attempt at colonisation, the entrenched Kenyan value system eventually forced the South African coach to resign after only three months. The chairman also resigned a few days after the head coach, citing Board conflict and raising concerns over the integrity of Board members. The new chairman, in an act of resistance to change, proclaimed a return to the “Kenyan way” and hired a Kenyan head coach.

KRU Sevens number of decisions at each level. In DA-1, almost all decisions were made at the chairman level. The foreign coach shifted some decision making to that level in DA-2, and it appeared the shift might have been even greater with the South African management team in DA-3. However, the chairman continued to provide input, even on player selection for the Central Residency squad as suggested by Kenya-Respondent-25:

I mean it’s not only the sponsor having a lot of input, it’s a lot of the other areas like the chairman having a lot of input into who gets picked and on what conditions. So it’s about roles and responsibilities.

Forcing input into every decision may come from fear of losing control or asserting power over every person in the organisation (Beyer, 1981). There could be trust issues developed over time in the KRU, and they reflect trust issues in the wider Kenyan culture. Speaking with ordinary Kenyans while visiting in 2012 provided this researcher an understanding of that culture. It was (is) a culture of do what is best for you and your family *today*. Trust no one, look after yourself. This was accepted within Kenya and transposed within the KRU.

Formalisation of KRU Sevens. Almost nothing was formalised in regards to the KRU Sevens program. There was some discussion of a KRU strategic plan, however, none of the participants had seen it nor knew where to find it. In DA-2, the foreign coach wrote a Sevens strategic outline, from which he expected the KRU to develop into a full strategic plan:

That Sevens plan I gave them was just the tip of the iceberg. It was very generic. I've given my insights and observations, but I'm not sure whose responsibility it is to take that forward. I've told them it's not my responsibility but it needs to happen and something needs to happen.

A Kenyan also spoke of developing an elite performance plan, but it had not been fully implemented by the KRU. He also spoke of the lack of formalisation:

I came up with the elite performance plan, and put in the program the kind of hierarchy in terms of domestic reach, the doctor, the nutritionist. I did all of that to each team to work with the under-19s, the Sevens, the men's Fifteens, the women's and going down to those teams to work with them. They don't have any medical records in terms of player profiles, injury rates, they don't have any standards. Then what the plan was, was to educate the clubs under that umbrella and have them understanding the need for the rest and recovery and conditioning as well as injury - they don't have any of that [formalised].

An observation from Kenya-Respondent-21 regarding the processes of change and formalisation of those processes within the KRU was:

I think there is a lot of motivation; I'm just questioning whether there is any application for doing going on. For the Olympics, in most countries you have that processes put in place beginning in 2013. In Kenya, they seem to be some way behind. This seems to be that cultural urgency missing from Kenya. I don't know what that is endemic of the African nations, not trying to be rude, it is a constructive observation.

Specialisation of KRU Sevens. Specialisation encompassed most of the reorientation occurring in Kenya from DA-1 to DA-2 and DA-2 to DA-3. It was primarily the specialisation of coaches, facilities, and administration that guided the shift in HP model from the Airport Meet and Greet/Training Camps hybrid to a version of the Central Residency model.

KRU Sevens player contracts. In DA-1, the players only received tournament remuneration and performance bonuses. With the foreign head coach in DA-2 came an income of USD6,000-9,000 per annum guaranteed with additional performance bonuses of USD1,000-5,000 per tournament (compared to the United Nations supplied median income

in Kenya of USD11,498). The pay was adequate to make a living in Kenya, but “below what they could earn with a university education,” as put by Kenya-Respondent-24.

A difference in the contracting of Kenyan players compared to the other case studies was the domineering value of winning and team performance. Each case study had KPIs the players needed to meet, however the KRU was much more fickle about enforcing contract status based on those KPIs. As Kenya-Respondent-17 stated:

There’s a constant interference with the playing environment and ‘you must do this, you must do that’ otherwise you’ll lose your contract which again is just so ridiculously stupid when you’re dealing with a performance environment. You don’t hold players to ransom with a bit of paper because that will not drive performance. Ultimately, that will suppress and inhibit performance. There is far too much stick in Kenya; there are very much the haves and the have-nots. There is a cultural issue in terms of the understanding of the four main tribes, and history attached to that. It’s still a big part of their history and their makeup and it is in the DNA so you can’t ignore it. You can try to understand it but sometimes common sense doesn’t seem to be there and it’s impossible to reason with unreasonableness.

Money was the key driver and influencer within the KRU, and the players’ main motivation was described by Kenya-Respondent-21 as financial:

I mean money means a lot to them. Some of them have not had a lot in the past; it seems to be in the Kenyan culture where money does matter. Finances do matter. I mean they are responsible to the other 30 players and the management and they all agreed to the fine system so having that in place has been really positive in the sense of instilling the discipline and respect for the other team members.

This culture led to the development of a very specific fine system over player conduct and performance. The players seemed to be more accountable to money than to the team. However, trust between the KRU and the players were rare, and players feared contracts could be voided for almost any reason. As Kenya-Respondent-25, “the players are waiting to be stabbed in the back about things the union contractually agreed to do, and that’s not motivating a performance environment, and that’s not just about money.”

In DA-2, Kenya started with sixteen contracted players, with additional players brought in for camps similar to the early USAR system. Eventually, the new South African head coach decided thirty was critical in contacting for DA-3: “We should have a minimum of thirty players that can be called upon any time to slot into the national side so that our performance does not fluctuate badly. It is not good to blow hot and cold like we did a few seasons ago.”

KRU Sevens specialists. Kenya allowed players to choose whether to play for the Fifteens national team, and most decided to focus on Sevens once they were chosen for the

Sevens national team. This was opposite to almost every other national rugby union where players use Sevens as a means to play Fifteens. This was the case in DA-1, but even more so in DA-2 and DA-3 when the full-time contracts were provided. Most players continued to play Fifteens for their local clubs, but would decline national Fifteens team invitations to prevent injuries.

KRU Sevens coaches. In DA-1, the Kenyan coach performed duties as the Sevens national team coach, a Fifteens club coach, and held a full-time job outside of rugby. Not having a fully professional coach was a weakness of the KRU. The problem was identified by Kenya-Respondent-16 as a lack of coach development processes:

During the time when I got into the Union, which was in 2001, we were so far from having a proper technical model that we were doing a bit of everything every time. So there hasn't been a really strong focus on developing coaches. I mean we were trying to get the sport accepted in the country before we can even go and do a big focus on the technical side of things. So, yes, that is a bit of a weakness but it's a bit of weakness of resource more than anything. Not financial, but technical resources to get people down and develop the deep sevens technical thinking so that you can produce a good enough crop to feed into Kenya Sevens.

The person in charge of developing coaches was often blamed for low effort, but some people came to his defence including Kenya-Respondent-19:

It's the development manager which we have, Kenya Rugby have, have had for many years. Unfortunately it all comes down to money is what I'm saying. He doesn't get paid enough. You are talking about coaches, educating coaches, it's all voluntary.

The most significant change in DA-2 was the hiring of a specialised Sevens coach from England. It was the first time Kenya had a professional coach, and the results were almost immediately seen on the field with Kenya improving from thirteenth to fifth in the world during the first year. However, there was a discrepancy in the expectations of the new coach. The Board, and many Kenyans, believed that the head coach had a responsibility to mentor and train Kenyan coaches. The head coach thought he was hired to only coach, thus only coming to Kenya for short stints to work with the players. This stems from the lack of formalisation, as the duties were not created in a formal job description. As Kenya-Respondent-20 stated:

So probably the reason why the model wasn't working exactly is because he's only in the country between six, seven or eight days, he's got too many things on his plate with the team itself to worry about the growth of the development.

This discrepancy in expectations caused the KRU to verbalise expectations around coaching development for the next head coach in DA-3, as illustrated by Kenya-Respondent-20:

And probably the reason why the union [KRU] is looking for an elite level coach who has the time or who will stay in and work with the local coaches to develop a proper model that you take from school, go on to clubs and then take it to the international game.

The DA-3 head coach agreed to take on these extra administration responsibilities. This was the catalyst for the changes in levels of decision-making discussed earlier.

KRU Sevens administration. The change in administration of the Sevens HP system that the KRU was unable to get in DA-2, was rectified in DA-3 with the South African management team. The DA-2 English head coach made a point from the Tier One perspective:

If you look at a typical Fifteens high performance plan, the coach does have input into some of the structures surrounding the actual team itself, and *may* have some input into creating pathways for players; however, there is almost always a full-time high performance manager or consultants that come in and develop those pathways and development courses. So why is it the Sevens is different? The main reason for this is resources availability.

However, Sevens was different from Fifteens in most nations. Most national team Sevens coaches also had HP responsibilities. It was only a recent trend to have Sevens HP Manager roles created (as in SARU, USAR, and ARU). The South African coach came from this type of system where he was part of SARU's DA-2 that controlled most of the Sevens HP. It was the creation of the SARU Sevens GM position that eventually created a power struggle with the head coach, leading to his contract not being renewed. That led to him taking the Kenya head coach job. The expectations were that he would mimic the South African DA-2, resulting in the KRU DA-3. This normative isomorphism was not fully carried out, as the underpinning values could not be changed prior to the DA-3 head coach resignation at the end of 2014.

KRU Sevens residency competitions. Due to Sevens' popularity in Kenya, a robust domestic Sevens competition has existed for a number of years. This continued throughout DA-2 and DA-3. The only change identified was with additional Kenya Sevens 'B' tours to provide additional international experience to the wider training squad.

KRU Sevens residency facilities. The Kenyan system in DA-2 would be difficult to label a full residency program. The players were based in Nairobi, and did train together on a regular basis - many times twice a day (early in the morning and again in the afternoon). The

problem with officially recognising it as a full Central Residency HP system was threefold: 1) overseas based coach; 2) improper facilities; and, 3) traffic.

First, with the DA-2 head coach only in Kenya for a few days prior to international competition, the strength coach handled the training sessions. The strength coach was able to run tactical and skill sessions, albeit not to the expertise of the head coach.

Second, although the English head coach demanded better facilities, there were not sufficient facilities available, nor the resources to develop them as Kenya-Respondent-22 illustrated:

Now he [head coach] has come in and he's demanded without even first setting foot in Kenya, he's demanded facilities to get enough time with these guys because coaches before were dealing with the work commitment [of players] and now he's saying we must have that. So that's changed a little bit at elite level, the elite level culture has changed there because he's done well to not become too African, and try and do it on their terms, but actually come in with a Western mentality and the right way of doing it and saying you've got to subscribe to this otherwise it's not going to happen.

These “non-African” demands pressured the KRU to contract the players full-time (as discussed earlier) and to find suitable facilities for strength training and practice. The result was an arrangement at a private high school owned by an Englishman. The facility was not to the standard of the USOTC or Stellenbosch Academy of Sport, but it was at a much higher standard than the current KRU facility – a rusty weight set in an old shipping container.

However, the third problem arose with the new location, traffic. As observed in person, and commented on by Kenya-Respondent-18, “The main problem here in Nairobi is the infrastructure is semi-reasonable, but the transport has massive issues.” This was supported by Kenya-Respondent-17,

The boys are based at Brook House School, but the traffic's so bad here it makes it hard to get to training. It would be ideal if we had a living location where they still have their university; they still have their whatever they can go to from there. We haven't had that yet so that's been very, very frustrating.

With DA-3, the new coach leveraged his South African connections and Kenya Airways to implement a quasi-Training Camp system based in South Africa. This head coach and his management team spent most of its time in Kenya. The team continued to train at the Brook House School and KRU facility full-time with the extended squad of thirty players, but then twelve players would travel to South Africa for one to two weeks before competition for intensive training in a controlled environment.

6.5.3 KRU HP System Summary

Table 6.6 summarises each factor change from DA-1 to DA-3. Each design archetype mechanism (centralisation, formalisation, specialisation, criteria of effectiveness, and domain) have been scored on a scale of very low (VL), low (L), medium (M), high (H), and very high (VH), relative to the other three case studies. The significant changes in each design archetype were distilled to a brief description based on the discourse in the Kenyan HP Systems section. The top three external groups have been included for orientation.

Table 6.6 KRU Sevens HP design archetype changes.

	DA-1 Airport Meet & Greet/Training Camps Hybrid	DA-2 Training Camps/Centralised Hybrid	DA-3 Centralised with external Training Camps
Centralisation: Overall	H	M	M-H
Centralisation: Locus of Decisions	Chairman/Board	Chairman/Board	Chairman/Board
Centralisation: Levels of involvement	1	1-2	1-2
Centralisation: Number of decisions at each level	Concentrated at higher level	Mixed	Mixed
Formalisation	VL Very little Sevens HP documentation or processes	L Minor Sevens strategic plan	L Same as DA-2
Specialisation: Overall	L	M-H	H
Specialisation: Facility	Training Camps NGB HQ	Training Camps at NGB HQ plus high school gym	Same as DA-2
Specialisation: Player Contracts	Tournament remuneration only	Most part-time, some full-time	Same as DA-2
Specialisation: Sevens Specialists	Most choose Sevens over Fifteens	Same as DA-1	Same as DA-2
Specialisation: Coaches	Part-time national team	Part-time external national team and full-time strength coach	Full-time national team and few specialty coaches
Specialisation: Admin	Sevens managed by same people as Fifteens	Head coach took some admin roles, many still managed by Fifteens staff	Head coach appointed as Sevens GM
Specialisation: Competition	Robust domestic Sevens tournaments offered, international Sevens limited to national team	Same as DA-1	Same as DA-2 with increasing 'B' tours
Orientation: Primary	Sponsors	Sponsors	Sponsors
Orientation: Secondary	IRB	IRB	IRB
Orientation: Tertiary	Media	Media	Government
Effectiveness: Fifteens	VL	VL	L
Effectiveness: Winning	H	VH	VH
Effectiveness: Olympics	N/A	VH	VH
Effectiveness: Sponsor	VH	VH	VH
Effectiveness: Media	H	H	H
Domain: Elite	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Participate	M	M	M
Domain: Fifteens	VL	VL	L
Domain: Sevens	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Men	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Women	VL	VL	L

6.6 Australian HP Systems

Australia was relatively slow to make significant changes; however, that may have worked in their favour as they had a less complex process of change. The simpler process of change may have used less financial and human resources than other NGBs that rushed into making large changes as soon as possible. Australia began with a reorientation from the hybrid Airport Meet and Greet/Training Camps model (DA-1) to a full Training Camps model (DA-2). The ARU underwent a strong colonisation pathway from the Training Camps model (DA-2) to the Centralised model (DA-3), mostly due to pressures from the other rugby NGBs, the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), and the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC). These pressures will be discussed throughout this section.

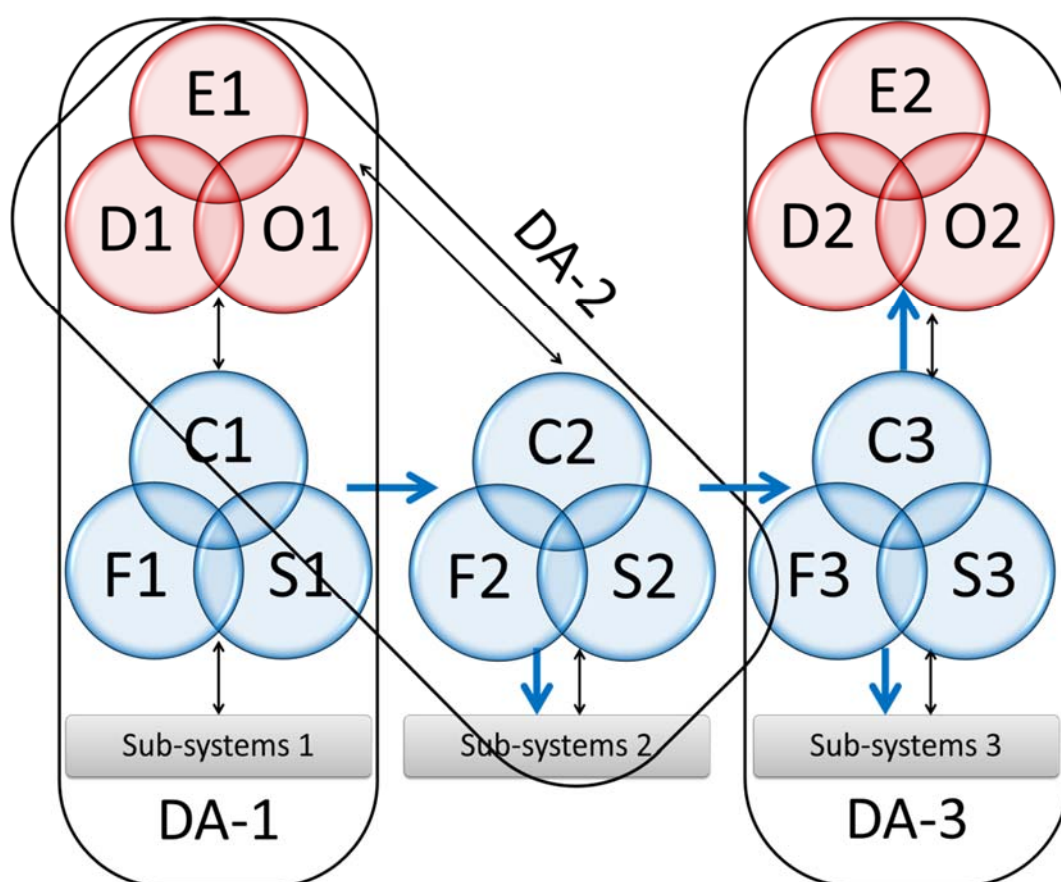


Figure 6.5 ARU process of changes in design archetypes.

6.6.1 Changes to ARU Structures

Structures were changed first in the ARU in both the initial reorientation and the following colonisation. There were significant changes in all mechanisms of centralisation, formalisation, and specialisation.

Centralisation of ARU Sevens. The ARU underwent significant restructuring in regards to centralisation with the addition of a new Sevens department under the leadership of a full-time Sevens General Manager position.

ARU Sevens locus of decisions. The majority of decisions in DA-1 were decided by the High Performance Director that presided over all of rugby with no specific tie to Sevens. One of the first changes in the Olympic era that indicated a shift to DA-2 (and continued in DA-3) was the creation of a Sevens General Manager who became the locus of decision making in regards to Sevens strategy. This GM guided many of the changes to the high performance system, including the decision to base the men's and women's teams near Sydney. This decision went against the recommendation of the long-standing head coach, and was the final program change that drove the head coach to resign in 2014. Unbeknownst to the GM, this decision to locate the team near Sydney was also the factor that caused the final shift in centralisation and the loss of the GM's job. The new men's head coach in 2014 negotiated to become the Director of Sevens, taking on both men's coaching duties and the responsibilities of the former GM, ending the GM's position. The locus of decision-making shifted to the men's head coach in DA-3.

ARU Sevens levels of involvement. Whereas the ARU CEO from 2009 to 2013 was not involved in most decisions regarding Sevens (often blatantly ignoring and marginalising Sevens), the new CEO in 2013 often discussed Sevens as a real opportunity to grow rugby in Australia. Australia-Respondent-3 stated the involvement of the new CEO:

Since February he's been promoting Sevens and women's as an area of the business that he wants to grow, and he wants to see that as one of our ways of driving participation in rugby in Australia. So I would say he'll be heavily involved.

One of the new CEO's first actions in 2013 was to separate Sevens from the ARU high performance unit (DA-1 locus) and hire the Sevens GM (DA-2 locus). This heavy involvement from the new CEO increased the levels of involvement in Sevens decision making from one to three levels in DA-1 (ARU HP unit, head coaches, some professional staff) to two to six levels in DA-2, (CEO, ARU HP unit, Sevens GM, head coaches, professional staff, state unions) . During the major strategic decision making and formalisation process, the new Sevens GM often consulted with various levels including state union staff and rugby clubs. Australia-Respondent-1 described it as:

There is going to be a strategy group put together, like a Sevens group that will be put together, and we'll meet fairly regularly in order to sign off what we're doing but also to keep on track. So that'll involve obviously myself and a couple of other people here at the ARU but even people through the states and also people from the clubs.

However, the merging of roles of the new men's head coach with Director of Sevens titles reduced the levels of involvement back to one level to three levels (CEO, Director of Sevens/head coach, some professional staff) in DA-3, which reduced the centralisation to a medium level.

ARU Sevens number of decisions at each level. In DA-1, the majority of decisions came from the ARU HP unit with some input from the head coach, although there were not many decisions to make around Sevens. With no formalised strategic plan, no domestic competitions, no Sevens specialists, and no residency program, the decisions centred around training camp locations, player selections, and international competition entry. With DA-2 came many more decisions as the women's program was developing and Training Camps were occurring more regularly. It was during the DA-2 period that the strategic plan was formalised and the decisions around centralised training were made. This required more decisions at various levels from the CEO to professional staff. In DA-3, many of the changes to structures were completed, reducing the quantity of decision making, which made it easier to concentrate decisions in the middle management level.

Formalisation of ARU Sevens. The Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) pressured most of the formalisation at the ARU, with the vast majority of formalisation occurring from the DA-2 to DA-3 shift. Almost nothing in Sevens had been formalised prior to 2012, with most of the formalisation occurring in 2013 and 2014. In 2012, the ARU began updating the website with Sevens competitions and player pathways information. The next stage included formalising Sevens coaching handbooks, as discussed by Australia-Respondent-7:

We are developing a coaching program and rolling it out to get more Sevens coaches and current coaches coaching at a higher level. It is taking time to roll that out. It's a booklet going to school teachers, players, all sorts of club constituents.

In 2013, at the beginning of the shift to DA-3, the AIS required the ARU to provide a Sevens strategic plan that detailed formalised plans for spending AIS funding. The AIS required this formalisation from all Olympic sports as a means of accountability. The strategic plan included the new Sevens organisational chart, position descriptions, annual team training plans, program budget, player lists, individual player plans, and key performance indicators for relevant objectives to track success of the Sevens program over six criteria. A total of 118 measures over 37 performance objectives were spread across the six criteria, with the breakdown (measure/objective) follows: 1) Athletes – 24/6; 2) Coaching – 21/7; 3) Leadership – 18/5; 4) Daily Training Environment – 17/5; 5) Competitions – 21/6; and, 6) Research and Innovation – 17/8. Those criteria included a formalised method and critical action plan for each.

The formalisation process was conducted by normative isomorphic mechanisms guided by the AIS from what it deemed institutionally successful and legitimate as used by other Olympic sports. AIS personnel met with ARU managers, most often the new Sevens General Manager and Head Coach, to discuss typical objectives of Olympic sports. These formalised objectives assisted in transferring AIS norms to the ARU through a collaborative, information sharing approach that is typical in normative isomorphism (O'Brien & Slack, 2004). Formalisation of Sevens within the ARU was a structural change, although the normative isomorphic process also transferred values from the AIS to the ARU in the form of changes to criteria of effectiveness and domain.

Specialisation of ARU Sevens.

ARU Sevens Residency Facilities. The first signal of a full-time residency facility for the ARU Sevens teams came from the ASC one-time grant of AUD500,000 for relocation to the AIS facility in Canberra. This facility hosts many Olympic sports, and were the centre of Australia's sport central residency era in the 1970s-2000s. Many sports have since decentralised training bases, but continue to use the Canberra facilities for extended camps. The ARU's use of the AIS facility occurred during the DA-1 to DA-2 reorientation, and did not signify a switch to residency. The AIS facility was only used for extended Training Camps.

The shift from DA-2 to DA-3 was signalled by the Sevens teams locating to Sydney full-time. The long-term plan was to build a new facility for the Sevens teams that would also be used for national Fifteens Training Camps. The Federal Coalition government pledged to provide AUD10 million in funding towards the training centre, and the New South Wales Government pledged to match the AUD10 million. The ARU pledged to provide AUD5 million. The team planned to use the Sydney Academy of Sport facilities in the northern Sydney suburb of Narrabeen while the new facility was constructed. At the time of data collection, none of the pledged amounts had been awarded, therefore construction had not begun.

The temporary residency facilities at Narrabeen were modest by international standards. The ARU budget for Sevens was too small to upgrade those facilities or to rent more modern facilities – which may signal that the ARU continued to under-value the Sevens domain. The ARU relied on the government grants as a primary source of funding, but as discussed in the formalisation section, the reliance on those resources pressured new values within the ARU.

Other facilities were available to the ARU, including the AIS in Canberra and the state of the art Bond University Institute of Health and Sport that had a formal partnership as the official education partner of the ARU. Several reasons were provided for not using those more modern facilities (e.g. Canberra weather, Bond University's feud with the professional NRL team currently leasing facilities). A chief reason was the relocation of the Sevens teams

prior to the pledged AUD25 million facility construction – the ARU did not want to uproot the players more than once before the 2016 Olympic Games. Another agenda emerged from the data that signified the ARU’s position to have better monitoring of the Sevens residency program by locating near the ARU headquarters as illustrated by Australia-Respondent-1, “it’s important to have the Sevens nearby [ARU headquarters] so we can drive over and see how things are going.” The proximity also helped to build legitimacy of the Sevens program with the ARU staff. As Australia-Respondent-1 continued, “it’s good to have them so close to our staff, to get the players and coaches involved, it makes them a bit more recognisable.”

ARU Sevens player contracts. In DA-1, players had casual contracts to receive remuneration for time away at Training Camps and international competitions. Since DA-1 was an Airport Meet and Greet/Training Camps hybrid model, the period of remuneration was limited to one to two weeks for each international competition. DA-2 saw an increase in Training Camp time, increasing the pay period to two to four weeks for each international competition. In DA-3, the ARU began contracting full-time Sevens players, and relocating them to the Sydney Academy of Sport in 2014. About 20-25 men and 18-20 women were on contract at any given time. Non-resident players would continue to be remunerated for trial camps and international competitions.

The ARU had not offered a competitive wage for Sevens as of the end of data collection. The highest contract amounts were near AUD70,000 per annum for men and AUD45,000 for women. But many others were still being paid smaller stipends of less than AUD20,000. This prevented many men from choosing Sevens over Fifteens, with minimum contracts available in Super Rugby or overseas professional competitions above the maximum Sevens deals, as illustrated by Australia-Respondent-9:

It’s not just competing with five Super Rugby teams, it’s rugby internationally. As I’m sure you’re aware, contracts are in Japan and France and wherever else, and there’s also NRL [rugby league] as well for exceptional athletes so it’s not as if we’re just competing domestically around five Super Rugby teams. To be able to hold on to these blokes for the next three years is not going to be easy.

The women were paid much less than the men were, but also did not have the same professional opportunities. More information on gender remuneration variations will be provided in Chapter Seven.

The ARU also dealt with a large geographic region, with players scattered across the country and having a move to Sydney on a short-term contract. Contract lengths varied from one month to one year. This was another barrier to securing the best squad, as some players did not want to risk financial insecurity or disrupt family life to take a short-term contract.

ARU Sevens specialists. There were some issues with the residency program in regards to Sevens specialists. Sevens had not captured the mainstream football appetite in Australia, competing with Super Rugby, National Rugby League, A-League (soccer), and Australian Rules Football. Football athletes, especially in rugby circles, were often pressured to ignore Sevens as a career route as it was not a revered football code. Sevens was seen only as a developmental tool for Fifteens through DA-1 and DA-2. When asked in 2012 (DA-1) about the chance of Sevens becoming specialised, Australia-Respondent-2 responded, “I think some people could choose that track and I don’t see anything wrong with that. Of course we don't want to see that as a detriment to Fifteen aside rugby.”

However, by 2014 in DA-3, Sevens had started to separate from Fifteens with the ARU beginning to realise the divergent fitness and skill demands. There was some signal of the ARU wanting Sevens players to specialise, as illustrated by Australia-Respondent-1:

When it comes to specialising, it might come to making a decision to which one you want to play. Similar to swimming and water polo in the Olympic Games, it’s somewhat of the same sort of sport. It's difficult to specialise in both at the elite, professional level because they are slightly different sports and require specific skills to be good at each.

The pathway to become a Sevens specialist was yet to be clearly defined in DA-1 or DA-2 as illustrated by a prominent rugby blogger for greenandgoldrugby.com in 2013:

Everyone clearly knows that the inclusion into the Olympic program means that there is a new genuine career pathway in Sevens rugby now available, but quite how you get there is not so well known.

Typically in Australian rugby, the pathway for Fifteens selection has been clear: club – regional selection – state selection – national under-20s selection – Super Rugby selection – Wallabies national team selection. The states have a very specific role in selection and development of players. However, the aforementioned blogger also highlighted the shortcomings of the ARU and state unions with Sevens:

The state websites carry snippets of news from local Sevens carnivals and events too, but no documented pathways as such. Certainly, the pathways are there around the country, and the states are rightly proud of what they’re doing to introduce kids to the game via Sevens, but perhaps more needs to be done to make these pathways more widely recognised and accessible. For the moment at least, it would seem our kids just need to be playing the game in some shape or form, and to then participate in the various school and age-group carnival and tournaments that are held. And if they show some promise, the Sevens people will spot them and introduce them to the HP programs.

The number of youth Sevens tournaments increased throughout Australia after 2009, and especially after 2012 with the introduction of the ARU National Schools Sevens Championships. The player pathway seemed to be through playing in these schools tournaments (under 12s to under 18s). The “Pathway to Gold” program was less a pathway than a series of trial camps for potential Sevens specialists. The program was introduced to women first in 2012, and subsequently included men in 2014. In 2013, as part of the colonisation shift to DA-3, the ARU finally released pathway to Sevens specialisation criteria. The selection criteria included the Pathway to Gold and “Search for a Sevens Star” trials, additional youth Sevens tournaments, state-based Training Camps and squads, and a National Sevens Championship tournament with under 18 boys and girls, women, and men to be used as the primary selection device. The colonisation of AIS values for both high performance and mass participation pressured the development of the Sevens specialist pathway, but lagging behind many international unions.

ARU Sevens coaches. The DA-1 to DA-2 head coach of the women’s and men’s Sevens team was never full-time. The men’s coach had other duties within the ARU, such as Fifteens youth development and scouting. The women’s coach had another job outside the ARU. The transition to DA-3 brought a full-time Sevens coach for both teams. However, the men’s coach did not want to relocate his family interstate, so a full-time men’s coach was hired from abroad (whom also took over the Sevens GM duties). The lack of qualified domestic Sevens coaches became apparent during the search. The ARU had started a Sevens coaching course in DA-2, but began increasing offerings following the criticism of not hiring a domestic coach. Australia-Respondent-3 exuded enthusiasm about the new Sevens coaching development program:

The course and the resources are being developed to support that program. Were pretty excited to have that roll out into the schools [for current Fifteens school coaches and regular physical education teachers]. We rolled the course out a couple of times... There is no fee currently. We are just trying to develop coaches as fast as we can.

ARU Sevens administration. Several new roles around Sevens were created in the transitions from DA-1 to DA-2 and DA-2 to DA-3. In DA-1, there were no Sevens-specific roles anywhere in the ARU. Even the head coaches had other responsibilities outside of Sevens. For example, the men’s head coach was also a development and pathway manager for youth rugby. DA-2 saw the first Sevens only administrators, most notably the Sevens GM. Another new role was developed to capture the expected increase in participation due to Sevens’ Olympic status, with reporting lines in both mass participation and high performance, as explained by the person in the new role:

My role is to build the base of participation of Sevens across the country, so more kids can sample Sevens, and develop the pathway so they can represent the nation with a region first. More people are being exposed to it and asked to coach it. In addition, the skill set is unique, so development is needed. I am also called on to market Sevens. I work in the community rugby department but I also liaise with the high performance department.

However, all these roles were only developed because of outside influence from the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), AIS, and AOC, as highlighted by Australia-Respondent-2:

Two pronged there. On my side we deal with the Australian Sports Commission was trying to grow the game and build participation sport. The high performance deal with the AOC. We did not have funding prior to Sevens announcement and obviously my role and a lot of initiatives I perform.

In DA-3, a new media manager role was created to focus on Sevens. However, the Sevens GM position was absorbed by the new men's head coach, who became the Director of Sevens.

ARU Sevens residency competitions. Australia lacked a competitive domestic Sevens competition despite the need documented by several ARU employees, highlighted by Australia-Respondent-6:

We definitely need a domestic Sevens-based competition that feeds into a national tournament they can help with national selection. Right now, we have a few Sevens comps, but none of them are being run in a consistent manner. There is still room for those social or non-traditional Sevens tournaments but we need a national structure that feeds more elite players playing the game.

And, from Australia-Respondent-1,

We can see a Sevens season running from October to March. There is a bit of a push there to have a summer season.

In addition, from the CEO in a public forum in Sydney in 2013:

We need to put Sevens competition structure all the way down through the age groups from juniors to seniors, to schools to a national competition. I would like to see Super Rugby Sevens. I'm already talking to Super Rugby chief executives about Super Rugby competitions, topping and tailing the current Fifteens. So you're going to see an infrastructure put in place....A two day tournament is something that can certainly have some commercial value but even from a participation point of view or something that can be done more regularly over four or five weeks on a Friday night

or something like that is another opportunity for us. It's just the way we structure our own competitions.

As little emphasis was placed on creating a competitive domestic Sevens series to develop Sevens players, the ARU was also sceptical on international Sevens competitions outside the IRB Sevens World Series. The IRB's limitations on national team player release was a common theme in all case studies, and highlighted by Australia-Respondent-3:

It's [international competition] something that we always look at. It's something that's been on the agenda of the ARU, but at the moment the direction of what the IRB do around the game is pretty important. It's not a massive window where you have your best players outside of the IRB tournaments - and that continues to possibly grow. At the moment we're at nine [IRB Sevens tournaments] and we're talking of 10 and where it gets to over the next couple of years, if it grows to more than that it's going to be a pretty demanding program anyway...But I think after Rio we will see rapid growth similar to what we saw with water polo after Sydney. We want to have organisations and competitions with pathways to the level of growth. That way when a kid says "I want to play Sevens" we have a place for them to play and a goal for them to achieve. We need to have the competitions set in place so when a kid sees Sevens on the Olympics, he's curious and wants to play then there is a place for him to do that.

In terms of funding a domestic competition, the ARU did not have budget to launch and manage an Australia-wide competition. The ARU struggled with a domestic national Fifteens competition relying on the Super Rugby and state-based competitions until 2014 with the launch of the National Rugby Championship (NRC). The NRC was a priority over Sevens due to the value of the domain of Fifteens over Sevens. The financial restraints were also pressured from government resources under direction for specific use, as Australia-Respondent-1 discussed:

Again, you still get some Sports Commission funding for participation but that necessarily can't be specific to high performance competition. It's more around grassroots participation. You might talk about that Olympic funding and how that gets put to use so that's maybe, maybe not.

That Olympic funding from the AIS was earmarked for establishing and maintaining the Central Residency program in accordance with the objectives. Those objectives did include "competitions," but leaned towards international competition. Some AIS funding was used for introducing The National Women's Rugby Sevens Championships in 2013 as a way to further develop the player pathway for women's rugby in Australia. Men would not have the similar tournament until 2015 because the ARU deemed the Fifteens competitions

enough to develop rugby players. The ARU was considering allowing privatisation of a Sevens competition, as Australia-Respondent-3 stated:

We are looking at private provider models similar to the way touch rolls out currently. We will take you on as a contract and you roll it out as a sport. You organise the referees, the teams, you deal with the competition management, the website, although such of things.

This statement was a reflection of the either a shifting value within the ARU, or a continuance of the neglect for Sevens that the ARU carried prior to DA-2. The shift in value argument stems from the control mechanisms the ARU normally instilled around rugby. The ARU rarely allowed external institutions to operate or control rugby related products or services within Australia. This was evident by informal discussion with several research participants, the strict and rigorous sanctioning process on external groups. This was encapsulated in this statement from an Australia-Respondent-5 regarding an offshore rugby company's request to host camps in Australia; "what can they really offer that the ARU isn't doing already? We really don't want or need outsider coming in and taking money from our clubs, players, or coaches." Everything 'rugby' had to be operated via sanctioning by the ARU or the state unions. Allowing a third party to develop and operate the domestic Sevens series would be a relaxation of that control.

6.6.2 Changes to ARU Values

The above structural changes were primarily introduced to satisfy new field-level actors, resources, and relationships. Due to the unbalancing of the ARU Sevens design archetype, new values were adopted in a colonisation process. Many of the newly adopted values were pressured from the Australian government agencies of the AIS, AOC, and ASC. This section will discuss how the orientation, criteria of effectiveness, and domain were changed.

Orientation of ARU Sevens. In DA-1, the Sevens program was almost entirely oriented towards Fifteens stakeholders, including the Wallabies and Super Rugby. There was an orientation towards the IRB to satisfy criteria to remain as a team on the IRB Sevens World Series, as well as continuing to host one of the series' tournaments. It was hard to identify a third group that the ARU was orientated towards. In DA-2, with the funding cycle for the 2016 Olympic Games beginning, the orientation was forced towards the government agencies of the AIS, AOC, and ASC. The majority of funding for Sevens was coming from those agencies.

This orientation value was definitely colonised in the shift from DA-2 to DA-3 with the specialisation of Sevens forced by the AIS formalising parts of the Sevens HP program to match AIS requirements. The AIS (and to a lesser extent the ASC) tied funding to those formalised plans and KPIs. Fifteens stakeholders moved out of the top three orientation

groups, with media entering in DA-3. Media were now an important ally to build awareness of Sevens – particularly in attracting athletes.

Criteria of Effectiveness of ARU Sevens.

ARU Sevens objective to develop Fifteens. Sevens in Australia was always a development tool for Fifteens. The ARU men's Sevens team competed as the youngest team on the IRB Sevens World Series during 2008-2012, utilising the international experience to develop young players. The Olympic opportunity of Sevens in Australia continued this role, and expanded it as an introductory tool for rugby. The ARU wanted to leverage Sevens to allow youth to experience rugby, but then push them into Fifteens, as discussed by Australia-Respondent-3:

We see rugby Sevens as the introductory game for new players now, so we go into a primary school or secondary school and offer a rugby Sevens as the means for them to experience the game. This is all based around research that shows that Sevens has higher participation of the individuals on the field compared to Fifteens. In Fifteens, a certain player may not touch the ball very often as they get isolated, like on the wing. In Sevens, it is more likely that all players will be involved more often during the game. In Sevens, there is high involvement for all players while on the field.

This illustrates the criteria of effectiveness of Sevens to be used as a tool to grow rugby Fifteens, which feeds into the domain of Sevens versus Fifteens. The value manifests itself in the competition structures (see specialisation) with the ARU generating more opportunities in youth Sevens events than in adult Sevens events.

The value that changed, primarily from AIS and AOC pressure to succeed at the Olympic Games by centralising training, was the expectation that Sevens players would elevate to the Fifteens national team. By DA-3, Sevens players were now specialists. They could still choose to follow a Fifteens pathway, however, the ARU reduced pressure on them to do so. One ARU manager stated Sevens key performance indicator for Fifteens development was now 'to grow the base participation for the game.' The ARU took a different approach with women. Contrary to men, Sevens was now the pinnacle national team. More on that change will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

ARU Sevens objective to win and Olympic qualification. Olympic success created the Sevens program as it stands in DA-3. It was the AIS and AOC pressuring those changes, and in return, the national pressure on any sport to medal. As one coach state, "Aussies have always punched above their weight at the Olympics [referring to the medal count per capita], and they expect a medal, especially from a sport we excel at already [international test rugby]." The stature of the Fifteens national team, ranked third globally at the time of data collection, compounded the Olympic expectations. The top objective for the ARU Sevens

program definitively shifted from developing Fifteens players in DA-1 to Olympic qualification in DA-3. The Central Residency model was the manifestation of this change in values.

However, due to the lingering dominate preference of the Fifteens domain, there were significant doubts that the men's Sevens team could qualify for the 2016 Olympic Games, let alone win a medal. [Women are expected to win a medal as Sevens became preferred over Fifteens within the ARU.] Creating the specialist Sevens environment may increase the competitiveness of those resident athletes; however, the low respect for Sevens by the ARU created a void in selecting the best athletes overall. The system did not change from DA-1 to DA-3, showing high inertia for protecting Fifteens players from Sevens. Professional clubs have protection clauses for selecting Sevens players for events outside of the Olympic qualifiers and Games, but those clauses were rarely challenged as many players did not see Sevens as a source of esteem. The problem escalated with the low remuneration and poor facilities offered by the Sevens program compared to professional Fifteens.

This athlete void sparked a debate that existed in most rugby unions – should rugby stars be used in the Olympics? If so, how should they be included? The debate centred on the widening gap in Sevens fitness demands and tactical awareness. The Sevens GM even devised a policy that Fifteens players would have to miss the 2015 Rugby World Cup to prepare for the 2016 Olympic Games. This proposed policy change was later rejected by the new head coach. World class Sevens coaches, including the new ARU men's head coach, stated the amount of time it would take a Fifteens player to become 'Sevens fit' was individualistic, but could take four to eight weeks depending on physical and mental attributes of each player. The pressure of Olympic success drove the ARU CEO to declare in a press release in 2014:

Winning an Olympic gold medal is an even greater priority for 2016 than Test match rugby, and I will support Wallabies stars being made available to play Sevens in Brazil. Australia will throw everything at winning the 2015 World Cup, but after that, the number one focus will switch from Tests to Sevens and giving the best possible players and preparation for Rio.

This statement was followed up with media sentiment around the Fifteens domain. One journalist wrote, "Despite the prestige of an Olympics and the valuable exposure Australian rugby could gain by winning gold, it's an approach which could raise eyebrows amongst the game's traditionalists." This debate continues, and merits further research.

ARU Sevens objective to attract sponsorship and media. The new CEO began evaluating the status of Sevens, and found "Sevens rugby at the international level is now 8% of the IRB's revenue, and in Australia it's 2%. And half of that comes from government funding." In addition, to the growth in mass participation from Sevens appeal to youth,

global companies have identified Sevens as a vehicle to reach both the international rugby market and the Olympic market. Despite the CEO's statements around the "economic engine behind Sevens" the ARU had done very little to attract new sponsorship. The Sevens program continued to be a "line item" within the national Fifteens sponsorship deals in all design archetypes. This was another signal that the ARU relied heavily on government resources, allowing those government agencies to colonise values and structure related to national team performance and youth participation growth.

The ARU failed to generate substantial media attention on the Sevens teams. Again, this could be traced to the limited value of the domain of Sevens, and the resulting structures were not put into place to push media messages until 2014. In 2014, as part of the shift to DA-3, a Sevens media manager position was created. Previously, Sevens media relations was completed by the same media staff in charge of Fifteens and/or community rugby. The new position allowed focus on the issues that Sevens faced as it emerged in a crowded Australian sport landscape. The Australia-Respondent-6 stated,

With Fifteens you had established audiences, journalists, and storylines. And those were often different than Sevens, and the Fifteens journalists rarely wanted to cover Sevens. With Sevens, you needed to be proactive in gaining media. You needed to create stories and sell them to the media. You needed to find new media outlets, like fitness and lifestyle publications, that were starving for fresh content. Fifteens has been reactive – we reported on stories as they unfolded. It is a totally different skill set.

To overcome these differences, the ARU went outside the normal rugby media to hire a corporate public relations professional. The objective was to treat Sevens like a new product in the market, and they needed someone that had that type of experience. This signalled that Sevens was becoming separate from Fifteens, and elevated the criteria of effectiveness for Sevens media attention from very low in DA-1 to medium in DA-3.

Domain of ARU Sevens.

ARU Sevens elites versus masses domain. The ARU Sevens teams aligned with elite competition and could be rated as very high importance in DA-2 and DA-3, with DA-1 only rated high due to Sevens relevant use as a developmental tool. Sevens was not a serious vehicle for mass participation in DA-1, with slight elevation in DA-2 with the introduction to high schools. DA-3 brought another elevation in priority to the mass participation domain when the new CEO and GM began lobbying for all youth to be introduced to rugby via Sevens, but again this was more of a push for creating mass participation of rugby in general – not just Sevens.

ARU Fifteens versus Sevens domain. It has been clearly established that Fifteens was the preferred domain in every design archetype. This does not appear likely to change anytime soon. Although the domain preference for women shifted to Sevens, the overarching value in the ARU has been for men and Fifteens, and those priorities strongly outweighed the domains for women and Sevens.

6.6.3 ARU HP System Summary

Table 6.7 summarises the ARU's three design archetypes. ARU underwent two changes in the research period of 2009-2014. The first change was a basic reorientation of some structures, as Sevens was not highly valued in Australia nor the ARU. The beginning of the Olympic funding cycle in 2013 began the colonisation of values from the AIS and AOC into the ARU's design archetype. Those government groups pressured the ARU to adopt the Central Residency approach (coercive isomorphism) and restructure the Sevens HP system. The values began to change after the structures were changed in order to balance the organisation. Despite colonisation not being the ideal process of change, it appeared that the ARU underwent a successful colonisation as the structures and values appeared to be in balance for the short term. However, more research should be conducted on the long-term effects of this colonisation. Resistance within the ARU to adequately change the values of domain and criteria of effectiveness have prevented some specialisation aspects (e.g. competition structures, athlete remuneration, training facilities) to remain below Fifteens and international Sevens standards, which could potentially lead to organisational strife.

Table 6.7 ARU Sevens HP design archetype changes.

	DA-1 Airport Meet & Greet/Training Camps Hybrid	DA-2 Training Camps	DA-3 Central Residency
Centralisation: Overall	H	M-H	M
Centralisation: Locus of Decisions	ARU HP GM	Sevens GM	Men's Head Coach – Director of Sevens
Centralisation: Levels of involvement	1-3	2-4	1-3
Centralisation: Number of decisions at each level	Concentrated at middle level	Mixed	Concentrated at middle level
Formalisation	L Very little Sevens HP documentation or processes	M-H Sevens strategic plan and AIS KPIs	M-H Continuation of DA-2
Specialisation: Overall	VL	M	H
Specialisation: Facility	Misc. camps around the country	AIS Canberra Training Camps, with other misc. locations	Sydney Academy of Sport
Specialisation: Player Contracts	Tournament remuneration only	Most part-time	Most full-time
Specialisation: Sevens Specialists	Very few, only by choice	5-10 specialists	30-40 specialists
Specialisation: Coaches	Only national team Sevens-only coaches, no Sevens skills coaches	Women's coach and conditioning coach hired full-time	Ex-head coach become coaching advisor
Specialisation: Admin	Sevens managed by same people as Fifteens	New Sevens GM and department	Sevens GM and head coach role merger, Sevens media manager added
Specialisation: Competition	Very few domestic Sevens tournaments offered, international Sevens limited to national team	Same as DA-1 with one national championship added	Same as DA-2
Orientation: Primary	Fifteens (Wallabies, Super Rugby)	Fifteens	AIS/AOC/ASC
Orientation: Secondary	IRB	AIS/AOC/ASC	IRB
Orientation: Tertiary	?	IRB	Media
Effectiveness: Fifteens	VH	H	H
Effectiveness: Winning	L	M	H
Effectiveness: Olympics	N/A	VH	VH
Effectiveness: Sponsor	VL	L	L
Effectiveness: Media	VL	L	M
Domain: Elite	H	VH	VH
Domain: Participate	VL	M	H
Domain: Fifteens	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Sevens	VL	L	L
Domain: Men	VH	VH	VH
Domain: Women	VL	L	M

6.7 Summary of Case Study Design Archetype Differences

Although each case study has progressed to some form of Central Residency, there were significant variations in the field-level pressures and NGB inertia. This resulted in variations in the process of change and the resulting high performance model. Figure 6.6 displays each case study's process of change. The one similarity was that each case study initially had a reorientation reaction to Olympic inclusion. This indicates significant inertia within the NGBs' values towards Sevens. These inertial values were overcome in each case

study except Kenya, where broader cultural norms were entrenched in the KRU thus preventing any significant value changes. Aside from Kenya, each case study followed the reorientation with a colonisation response, where the changes to structures forced changes to values in order to create balance within the NGBs. Only the United States showed an evolutionary approach in changing to a fourth design archetype. USAR's infancy in competitive rugby along with isomorphic mechanisms from other professional and Olympic sport organisations assisted them to change their own values prior to shifting to the Hub and Spoke high performance model.

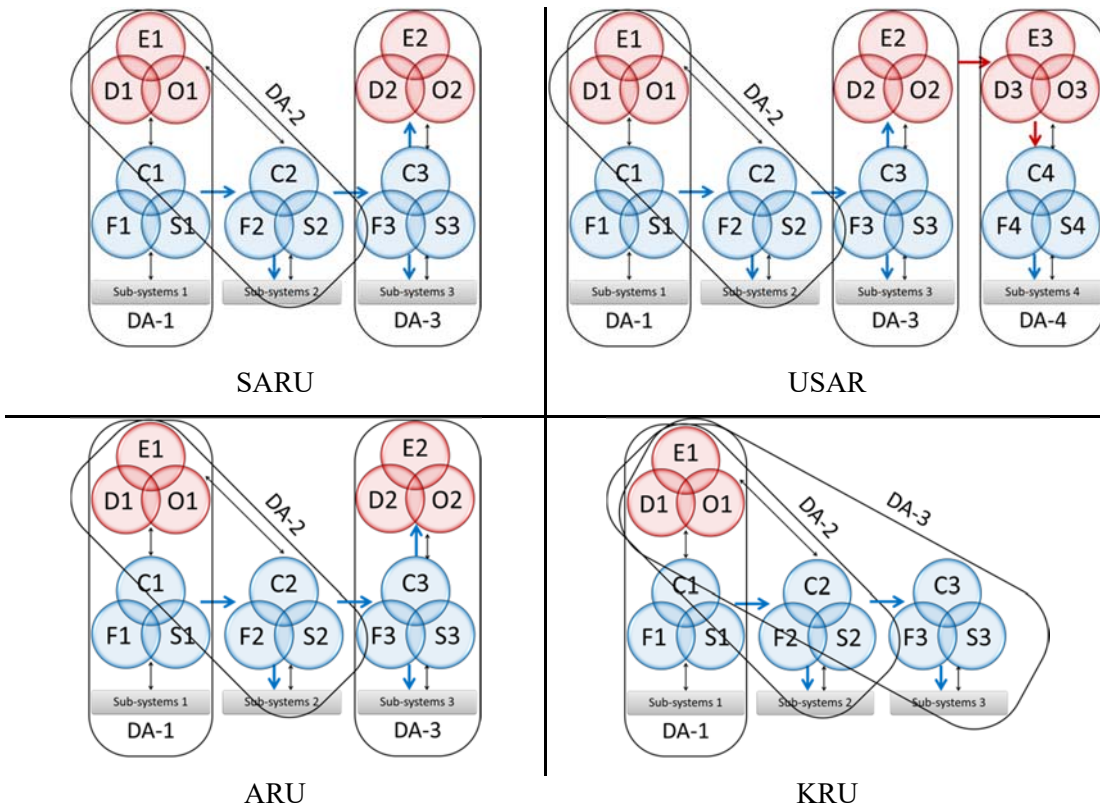


Figure 6.6 Case studies' HP model process of change.

It was telling that both Tier One nations followed exactly the same route of change: initial reorientation followed by colonisation. However, the data showed significant differences in why each of them followed that process. In SARU, it was pressure from ex-players and a privatised academy that pressured changes from within the lower ranks of the SARU administration; in the ARU, it was pressure from government sporting agencies aimed at the upper ranks of ARU administration.

6.8 Conclusion

The process of exploring and describing changes in design archetypes in this study has led to the conclusion that the design archetype analysis as first developed by the

Canadian NSO research (Amis et al., 2002; Hinings et al., 1996; Kikulis et al., 1992, 1995a, 1995b) is not limited to an overall organisational archetype, but that individual processes, policies, or tasks can be singularly investigated. This creates a divisional “intra-design archetype” within an overarching organisational design archetype (i.e. Sevens division within NGB organisation), allowing deeper exploration into the value and structural changes an organisation enacts as it responds to environmental jolts. In these cases, only the values and structures related to preparing national teams for competition were singled out and then analysed, resulting in intra-design archetypes for Sevens high performance systems that were compared across case studies.

The next chapter offers another variation of design archetype analysis – comparing intra-design archetypes within the same organisation. Chapter Seven delves into gender differences, and explores what changes occurred in men’s versus women’s Sevens due to Olympic inclusion. The chapter also compares these changes across cases, highlighting similarities and contrasts in the way rugby union NGBs strategically responded to the Olympic values of anti-discrimination and sport for all.

CHAPTER 7: THE RISE OF WOMEN'S RUGBY

7.1 Introduction

The participation boom discussed in Chapter Five was augmented by women's rugby rapid growth, as the IRB touted rugby as the fastest growing women's sport in the world during 2012-2014. The IRB Development Department stated 23% of rugby participants were female in 2014 compared to 7% in 2009. Prior to Olympic inclusion, women's rugby had become stagnant while continuing to fight three perceptions. First, "rugby is a man's game" was often heard during observations and casual conversations. The 'old boys club' of rugby has persisted for over 100 years and this quote from South Africa-Respondent-27 highlights this fact:

Women's rugby is struggling to establish itself. Women's rugby is quite strong in the Eastern Cape among the black girls. We really need that combination, and some of the Afrikaner girls are very athletic, very strong, big. They play netball, their parents don't want them to play rugby. Rugby is a man's game. Rugby for the Afrikaner is a very special game and it's played by men so it's a perception, a cultural thing.

Second, a carry-over from the early days of sport was a judgment that women were not physically able to handle the rigours of full contact sports, nor have the temperament to attempt it. Australia-Respondent-3 stated that perception still occurs today, but is dissipating:

We struggle with the parents of these young girls who still believe it [rugby] is too dangerous. Parents want their girls to play touch or netball, to stay away from contact. But now we are armed with an Olympic pathway that those sports don't have, and girls are choosing to make the switch.

Third, women's rugby became known as a lesbian sport, which often discouraged heterosexual women from competing. This was the sentiment in several informal interviews with amateur and Olympic aspiring heterosexual women during 2012 and 2013. When asked, "Why didn't you try rugby before?" responses often included phrases "too butch" and "gay sport." Several online blogs have highlighted this perception, and many of them attempt to change this perception (e.g. inthecac.com, scrumqueens.com, divamag.co.uk). A report from Sport Wales (McAllister, 2012) found the similar results:

Girls are mocked for playing rugby or other 'male sports', because it betrays ideas of appropriate femininity. Participants told us that they feel sport reinforces rigid ideas of both gender and sexual orientation...People's image of a lesbian is that they're butch and sport is reinforcing that.

The irony was that women Fifteens rugby players often criticise Sevens as a form of rugby that challenges the value that "rugby is a game for all - all people, all shapes, all sizes,

all abilities.” The traditional Fifteens women assert that the Sevens athlete is becoming homogenous in body type and physical skill, and that the larger body types used in the forwards in Fifteens were being “systematically removed from the game due to Sevens,” as declared by United States-Respondent-44. However, Sevens helped abate the perception of rugby as a lesbian-majority sport by attracting *any* women, regardless of sexual orientation, interested in playing an Olympic sport in a high performance environment.

Olympic inclusion accelerated rugby’s break from these three perceptions, although they persist. The rugby gender battle was a recurring major theme across many facets of Sevens and rugby in general. In 2011, the IRB released its first Women’s Rugby Strategic Plan. Its formalisation was attributed to Olympic status as detailed in the IRB’s 2011 Year in Review (p. 49):

The IRB Women’s Rugby Plan will harness the collaborative commitment from the IRB and its Member Unions to optimise the sport’s Olympic Games inclusion and provide a sustainable blueprint for participation to grow across all continents beyond the 200,000 registered players currently regularly competing. The first program of its kind, the Plan will focus on delivering three key goals to enhance the position of Women’s Rugby as one of the world’s fastest-growing team sports and an accessible sport for all ages and abilities: Sustainably increase global participation, provide greater competition opportunities on the world stage in Sevens and Fifteens, and optimise the Olympic Games opportunity and deliver an exceptional tournament at Rio 2016.

Olympic inclusion brings a new source of rugby participation from elite athlete crossovers, differentiating the type of woman that was previously attracted to rugby. Australia-Respondent-7 illustrated this point:

There is a stereotype about girls playing rugby, and we need to break it down. We are slowly getting there; the type of athletes that favour Sevens in the females is quite good. We are attracting very athletic girls from netball, touch, etcetera that want to play in the Olympics.

The inclusion of Sevens in the Olympic Games provided the impetus for substantial changes in women’s rugby and its importance to rugby NGBs. Data from this study’s online questionnaire highlights this point (see Figure 7.1).

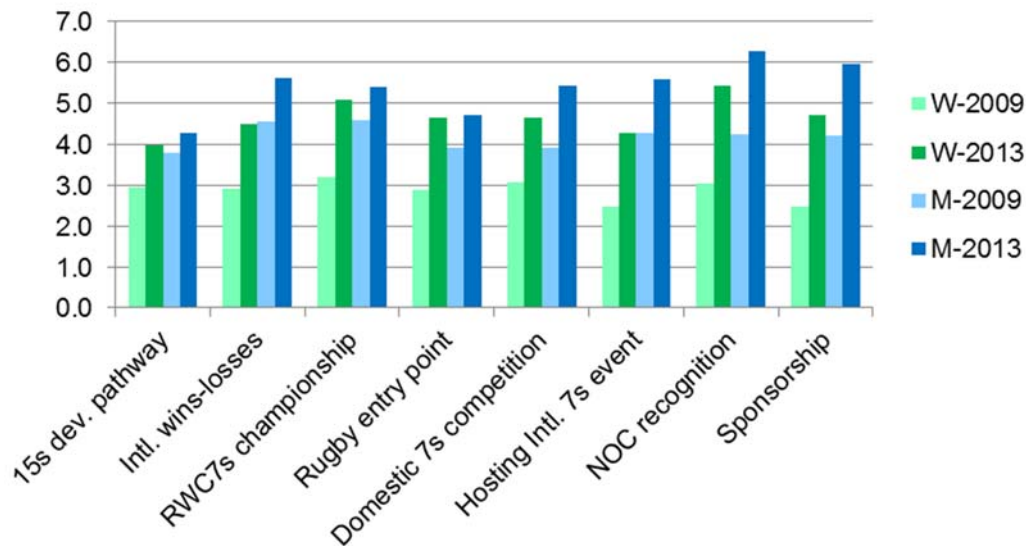


Figure 7.1 Importance of Sevens to overall NGB strategies.

Evidence of the increasing importance of women's rugby, especially that of Sevens, was found in the changing employment standards of national Sevens head coaches. The position was trending towards a full-time, paid position as illustrated in Figure 7.2. The trend was similar between men and women. Similarly, the number of staff employed to service the Sevens teams increased. In 2009, an average of 3.7 and 2.3 staff worked with the men's and women's Sevens programs, respectively. In 2013, that expanded to 5.6 and 4.2.

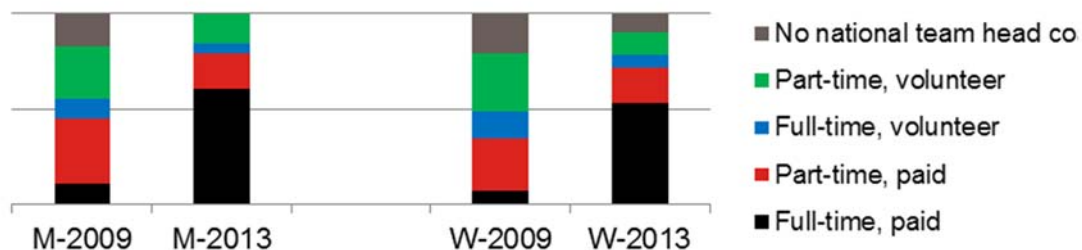


Figure 7.2 Sevens head coach status.

In addition, women were increasingly employed in NGBs between 2009 and 2013. There was evidence that the increase in female employment was somewhat related to Sevens, highlighted by an ARU long standing board member welcoming the first female board member with, "the ARU needs a woman's perspective to adequately position itself to deal with rapidly developing women's rugby." Figure 7.3 highlights the increases in the number of women employed at various levels of the NGB. For example in 2009, only about 20% of all NGBs surveyed reported having females employed in upper-level management positions. This increased to almost 40% in 2013. Although an encouraging trend, the reality was that more than half of all rugby NGBs did not have females in upper managerial roles by

2013. Moreover, about one third of all NGBs did not have any professional female staff members at any level.

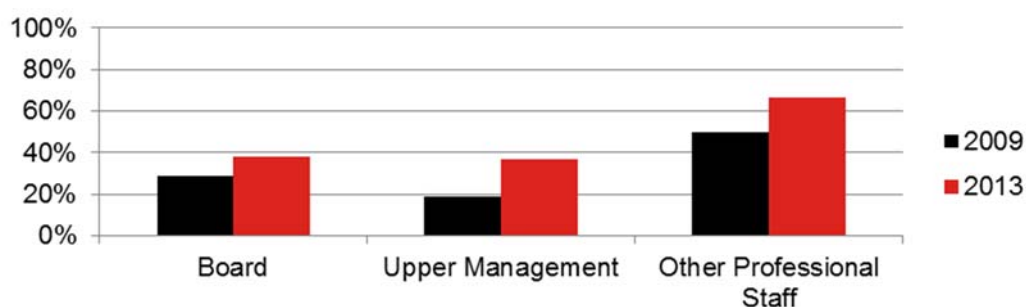


Figure 7.3 Percent of unions that report employing a woman.

Figure 7.4 depicts the average number of female workers at each level in those NGBs that have hired women.

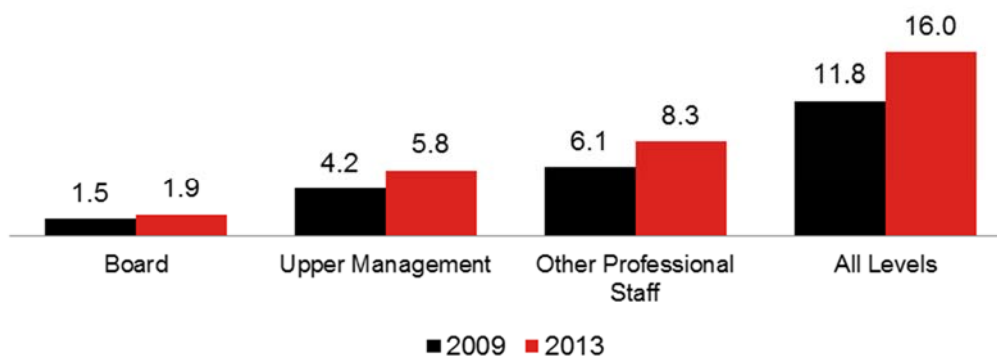


Figure 7.4 Average number of female employees in NGBs.

Given these data, this chapter will examine these changes in rugby NGBs after their response to Olympic inclusion. To aid this discussion, design archetypes were assessed for four case studies, but in a new way – examining the men’s and women’s Sevens programs as separate intra-design archetypes. This would be the first study to utilise design archetypes in this manner. The Canadian NSO research conducted from 1992 to 2004 by Kikulis, Slack, Hinings, Amis, Cousens, and Thibault often examined the design archetypes of NSOs, but never dissected each NSO into distinct intra-design archetypes. This current study contributes to the academic literature by using the Canadian NSO framework in this new way. This study’s full conceptual framework will not be utilised in the discussion, only the organisational design (what) and institutionalism (why) constituents. The process of change (how) was left out of the discussion as only the final design archetype (as of 2014) will be compared across genders.

7.2 Gender Comparison of Organisational Structures

Specialisation, formalisation, and centralisation all showed differences between men and women among all the NGBs, but there were also similarities.

7.2.1 Gender and Specialisation

Specialisation involves the differentiation of roles and tasks in an organisation (Kikulis et al., 1992). The case study NGBs all showed significant changes in specialisation as they responded to Olympic inclusion. Upon further examination, it was determined that variances in specialisation occurred between the men's and women's Sevens programs.

Table 7.1 summarises the specialisation factors identified for men and women in each NGB. The same six specialisation factors that emerged from the data in Chapter Six were examined, and each factor is explained.

Table 7.1 NGB gender-specific specialisation.

	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Residency facility	SASR	SASR	USOC	USOC	SAS	ECU	BHHS	N/A
Administration	Joint		Joint		Separate		Separate	
Coaches	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Vols.
Player contracts	24	16	22	18	30	18	25	0
Sevens specialists	M	VH	H	H	M	VH	H	VH
Competitions	L	M	H	M	H	L	VH	VL
OVERALL SPECIALISATION	H	VH	H	H	VH	M	VH	L

Residency facility. In both USAR and ARU, the men and women utilised the same facilities for Sevens training. Moreover, both organisations evidently shared ideas, coaching, and athlete support services. In SARU, most of the contracted women resided in the Eastern Cape Province; therefore, it was “logistically” better to continue the relationship with Eastern Cape University (ECU) that had offered training facilities to the women before the contract era in 2014. The men's coaching staff occasionally invited the women's team to training camps at the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport (SAS). Kenya did not have a full-time facility for women, nor did the women train at the Brook House High School (BHHS) with the men.

Administration. Sevens specific high performance managers or general managers never existed prior to 2011, when South Africa created the position of Sevens General Manager, who also had responsibility for the high performance of Sevens. Australia followed in 2012 with a Sevens General Manager, and the USA created a Sevens HP Director role in 2014. It was only in Australia and the USA that those roles managed both the men's and women's teams. In South Africa, the women's Sevens team continued to be managed by the Women's

Rugby Manager. With the increasing responsibilities of the contracting of women's Sevens players in 2014, the SARU's Women's Rugby Manager was able to hire an additional employee specifically for women's Sevens logistics. Kenya could be considered to have always employed a Sevens high performance manager, as Sevens is considered a higher priority than Fifteens in Kenya. However, the high performance manager covered both codes for men, but there was no evidence of that role managing women's Sevens. The women's Sevens was administered separately with the volunteer role of the Women's Rugby Manager.

Coaches. South Africa was the only country prior to 2009 with a full-time men's Sevens coach. The other NGBs had part-time coaches. Olympic inclusion created full-time opportunities for both men's and women's coaches. However, the South Africa women's coach was part-time, and the Kenyan women's coach was still a volunteer position at the end of data collection in 2014.

Player contracts. There were no professionally contracted, full-time Sevens specialists in any case study prior to the Olympic inclusion, except South Africa which had less than 10 men contracted in 2008. No women were contracted prior to 2012, with the USA leading the world by offering stipends funded by the USOC and USAR. Australia contracted women in 2013 due to AIS funding, followed by South Africa in 2014. Kenya had not contracted women's players, and there was no evidence they were attempting to contract women by the end of data collection. As Table 7.1 shows, all of the NGBs contract more men than women. This, and the large wage gap, will be discussed for each case study later in this chapter.

Sevens specialists. Sevens specialists emerged as a controversial theme. Although the IRB and national unions have stated that Sevens should be used as a gateway to rugby, most NGBs contracted and attempted to protect Sevens players from Fifteens clubs. This was the case with the women's teams, and was causing a rift with many long-standing women's rugby players, managers, and coaches. They viewed Sevens as a threat to the sustainability of women's Fifteens. Several managers and journalists interviewed shared the sentiment of this quote by Kenya-Respondent-19:

I have been speaking to administrators and players from a number of African countries and the message is the same – why spend money running Fifteens programs when there is no chance of ever qualifying for a [Fifteens] World Cup, and when even regional [Fifteens] tournaments are few and far between. Better to put all the effort into Sevens as there is at least a chance of qualifying for a [Sevens] World Cup or even the Olympics. That, after all, has been the trend in the Caribbean, Asia and Europe – countries that used to have Fifteens rugby now only playing Sevens.

The limited resources NGBs invest in women's rugby were being diverted to Sevens specialists, coaches, and training. Each of the case studies shifted most resources from

women's Fifteens to women's Sevens, much more so than men's rugby. Sevens was the only opportunity for women to play professional rugby in those countries, and therefore, many players were deciding to focus only on Sevens. The limited number of elite female rugby players in each NGB forced some Sevens players to continue to play in international Fifteens competitions (as well as pressure from the traditional women's rugby community); however, there was a trend towards specialisation in Sevens that could be further investigated over the next decade.

Competitions. One of the rare occurrences of women rating higher than men was in competitions for the ARU. It was evident that Sevens competitions in Australia was a low priority, but the women were provided more opportunities to play domestic and international non-IRB Sevens World Series events than the men. Each of the other case study organisations had more opportunities for the men. The USA's gap of elite completion offerings between men and women was closing, but the established men's domestic competition and male-centric ODAs provided more competitions as of 2014. South Africa and Kenya increased women's opportunities for competitions, but not at the same rate as for the men, and therefore, the opportunities for competition gap was widening in those nations.

Overall Specialisation. The final row in Table 7.1 depicts the overall specialisation of each NGB and associated genders. This was determined by comparing the six factors against each other and against the pre-Olympic inclusion status of each factor. The USA proved to be the most similar in terms of specialisation, even with slight discrepancies in player contracts and competitions available to each gender. Like the USA, Australia had similar degrees of specialisation between genders, with each gender rating at high or very high. SARU men rated very high in specialisation. SARU women were rated at medium due to relative contract size, low number of competitions, part-time and volunteer staff, and little integration with the more professional men system. The largest gender gap was seen in Kenya, with the men at very high and the women rated low.

7.2.2 Gender and Formalisation

Table 7.2 details the level of formalisation in selection, development, and evaluation of coaches and athletes. Those areas were evaluated using this scale developed by assessing the formalisation of each case study against each other and against the internal formalisation present within each case study:

VL – very informal, nothing documented;

L – informal, little written or documented;

M – somewhat formal, some written documents and overall agreement;

H – mostly formalised, detailed written plans and policies are in process;

VH – almost every detail is formalised and followed

Table 7.2 NGB gender-specific formalisation.

	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Selection and recruitment of athletes	H	H	H	H	VH	L	L	VL
Selection and recruitment of coaches	M	M	M	M	M	L	L	VL
Developing athletes	VH	VH	VH	VH	VH	M	L	VL
Developing coaches	M	M	H	H	M	L	L	VL
Evaluating athletes	VH	VH	VH	VH	VH	M	M	VL
Evaluating coaches	L	L	L	L	M	M	L	VL
OVERALL FORMALISATION	M-H	M-H	M-H	M-H	H	L-M	L	VL

Formal selection and recruitment. Formalisation in the selection and recruitment of coaches or athletes was evidenced by published materials such as player pathways, job descriptions, and recruiting guides. The ARU and USAR had few differences between the women and men, as it emerged that either this type of information was formalised to include both genders, or that equal effort was made into creating similar materials for each gender. The largest difference was associated with South Africa. The men's Sevens player recruitment program had become much formalised, with little effort in formalising the women's program. Kenya showed little formalisation for either gender, however, no women's only documents were uncovered during the research period.

Formal development and evaluation. Formalisation in the development of coaches or athletes was seen by published materials such as coach education literature and development pathways. Formalisation in the evaluation of coaches or athletes was seen in published materials such as key performance indicators, annual evaluation forms, and testing forms. The ARU, USAR, and KRU each continued the trend to more formalisation in selection and recruitment. SARU women had less formalisation in this area (rated at M versus VH), reducing the gender gap.

Overall formalisation. Overall, the formalisation of USA and Australia were identical, with both scoring a medium to high rating of both men and women. The largest difference was in South Africa, with the men scoring a high overall rating, and the women only a low to medium rating. Kenya's lags all other case studies in formalisation, and the women particularly had no data to support any evidence of formalisation, resulting in a very low overall rating.

7.2.3 Gender and Centralisation

Centralisation had the smallest variation between the men's and women's Sevens programs. The small differences related not to the chain of command, but rather the amount

of power or control the head coach of each program had in overall Sevens decision-making. Australia hired a new men's Sevens coach, and his duties included overseeing the high performance for *both* the men's and women's teams. Those responsibilities were provided by the Sevens general manager, who was released after the coaching hire.

Table 7.3 shows data from the online questionnaire regarding the overall centralisation for each case study with men and women grouped together as no discernible differences occurred. Each administrative level was numbered as the following: 1) Board; 2) CEO; 3) First level professional staff (e.g. GM, VP); 4) Coach/other professional staff; and, 5) Volunteer staff. Program components that required major decisions are listed in column one, with the difference in the number of administrative levels involved in the decision calculated under each case study. For example, the USAR CEO made all decisions on selection of coaches, therefore a '0' score was calculated (i.e. Level 2 minus Level 2). In the table, '0' is highly centralised, '4' is non-centralised.

Table 7.3 NGB centralisation.

	Australia	United States	South Africa	Kenya
Selection of coaches	2	0	2	0
Selection of athletes	2	3	2	2
National competitions	2	2	1	0
International competitions	2	1	2	0
Grassroots development	3	1	2	0
High performance programming	1	1	2	0
OVERALL CENTRALISATION	M	H	M	VH

7.3 Gender Comparison of Organisational Values

7.3.1 Gender and Orientation

It was found that each NGB orientated towards each of these groups at varying levels; National Olympic Committee (NOC), a National Sport Commission (NSC), sponsors, media, union members/participants/clubs, IRB, government agencies, other rugby unions, fans, universities, and professional competitions. Table 7.4 ranks the top five key groups for each NGB in relation to men and women. This was determined by a qualitative process to speculate the amount of resources and attention provided or exchanged with each external group. The process involved assigning codes related to each external group and deciphering orientation by the number and especially the quality of mentions in the data.

Table 7.4 NGB gender-specific orientation.

Rank	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1	IRB	IRB	IRB	IRB	IRB	IRB	IRB	IRB
2	NOC	NSC	NOC	NOC	SAS	University	Sponsors	One Club
3	NSC	NOC	Members	Members	Sponsors	NOC	Clubs	CAR
4	Sponsors	Media	Media	Media	NOC	Members	Media	GOV/NOC
5	Members	Members	Sponsors	Sponsors	Members	Sponsors	GOV/NOC	N/A

The IRB could be the primary body the NGBs oriented themselves towards because without sanctioning from the IRB, the NGBs would cease to exist in international rugby. Each NGB must conform to competitive and participative guidelines to maintain its status with the IRB, which included fielding an international Fifteens team. A manager at the IRB acknowledged that regulation might change as Sevens becomes more popular, especially for nations like Kenya that struggle to finance or recruit a female Fifteens team. The differences in orientation will be discussed later in this chapter while examining each case study.

7.3.2 Gender and Domain

NGBs develop products and services in relation to specific domains. The NGBs had gender domains as they developed separate products and services for the each gender. The two original domains will be used to discuss the gender domain: (1) support for participation in all skill and age levels; and, (2) support of elite competition – either international or professional. Table 7.5 and Table 7.6 illustrate these two domains, and how they differ between genders and the case studies.

Table 7.5 NGB gender-specific elite performance domain.

	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Professional Sevens Competition	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
Host IRB Sevens Tournament	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Player Payments	M	M	L	M	M	L	H	-
International Competitions	H	H	H	H	H	L	H	L
OVERALL RATING	H	M	H	H	H	L	H	L

In Table 7.5, four categories of products or services of elite performance were established and evaluated. Professional Sevens competition included the existence of any tournament within that country that remunerates players or teams with a total payout of over AUD10,000. Every case study had multiple men's competitions that fit that definition, and only Australia offered a single women's tournament.

The second category was hosting an IRB Sevens World Series (SWS) tournament. Australia, South Africa, and the USA all host men's SWS tournaments, and Kenya have bid for one for several years without award. Again, only one case study (USA) hosted a women's SWS.

Third, the case studies remuneration of Sevens players was given a low, medium, or high rating based on the contract amount compared to normal wages within the country's context and in relation to other sports via which each gender could earn a living. Although the wages for men were higher than for women in Australia and South Africa, the women's wages were in alignment with other similar Olympic sports in those countries (except tennis). The USA was the only case study to pay equal wages to both genders; however, the number of contracts favoured the men. Kenya had no equality, with the women not earning anything for playing Sevens.

The fourth category was international competitions, where the case studies were rated low, medium, or high on the number of international Sevens competitions they participate in annually. Only the USA and Australia had both genders as core teams on the IRB Sevens World Series (although South African women won a place in the 2014/15 series after data collection ended). Core status meant the team competed in all tournaments of the series. Because of the core status, and the rate of sending developmental squads overseas, the USA men and women, Australia men and women, South Africa men, and Kenya men scored a high in that category. The South Africa and Kenya women both scored a low rating, mostly due to non-core status, but also did not reach a medium rating due to rare non-SWS appearances.

Table 7.6 NGB gender-specific mass participation domain.

	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Amateur Domestic Sevens Competition	N	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N
Rating Youth Sevens Programs	M	M	L	L	M	M	L	VL
Rating Adult Participation Sevens Programs	L	M	H	M	L	L	H	VL
OVERALL RATING	L	M	M	M	M	L	M	L

For mass participation (Table 7.6), three categories were established. First, it was noted if the NGB operated a national domestic Sevens competition. Only the USA had a domestic competition for both genders at the time of write-up (Australia had a men's competition under development). South Africa continued to have localised Sevens carnivals, but no national structure nor season in place. Kenya had a robust domestic Sevens season for men, but few competitions in place for women.

Second and third was the rating of Sevens participation programs - including the aforementioned domestic competitions, but also Sevens introductory sessions, public schools physical education inclusion, and the development of adult Sevens programs. This was done

for youth (second category) and adults (third category). The youth program ratings showed no difference between male and female programs in Australia, USA, or South Africa, with each of those case studies foreseeing potential for leveraging the Olympic Games to drive youth participation. Kenya had a slight difference in genders, but rated low for men and very low for women due to a lack of resources available.

Only South Africa showed a similar low rating in senior programs for men and women. Interestingly, Australia was increasing women's senior Sevens programs faster than men's. The ARU continued to pressure men into Fifteens as adults. The largest difference was in Kenya, with the men's adult programs highly favoured, with almost no resources going towards women.

Considering the combined domains of high performance and mass participation, it was apparent there were differences among NGBs and between men and women. Table 7.7 summarises the two domains, and includes a row on budget weighting identified from financial reports and interview responses. USAR, SARU, and KRU preferred the high performance domain, with the ARU spending similar amounts on mass participation and high performance for women, although this was dictated by the government funding allocation from the AIS and ASC.

Table 7.7 NGB gender-specific domain.

	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Overall Rating: Participation	L	M	M	M	M	L	M	-
Overall Rating: High Performance	H	M	H	H	H	L	H	L
Budget	HP	E	HP	HP	HP	HP	HP	HP
OVERALL	HP	E	HP	HP	HP	HP	HP	HP

7.3.3 Gender and Criteria of Effectiveness

Kikulis et al. (1992) found national sport organisations developed criteria of effectiveness for membership satisfaction and participation rates, success in local or international competitions, increased private and/or public support, and quality of participation programs. Each of these factors was found in the current study, along with several iterations of them. Table 7.8 depicts how important each criterion was to the overall NGB strategy, as illustrated with low, medium, and high ratings. Each NGB places more importance on men than women as illustrated in the overall criteria of effectiveness row, with Kenya providing the largest gender difference.

Table 7.8 NGB gender-specific criteria of effectiveness.

	Australia		United States		South Africa		Kenya	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Development pathway for Fifteens	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	L
International wins-losses	M	M	H	M	H	M	H	M
Sevens World Cup Championship	H	H	H	H	H	M	H	M
Entry point for new rugby players	H	H	M	M	M	M	M	M
Domestic Sevens competition	M	M	H	H	M	L	H	L
Hosting an international Sevens	H	M	H	M	H	L	H	L
NOC recognition	H	H	H	H	H	M	H	L
Avenue to attract sponsorship	M	M	H	M	H	M	H	M
Qualifying for the Olympics	H	H	H	H	H	M	H	M
Winning an Olympic medal	H	H	H	H	H	M	H	H
OVERALL CRITERIA OF EFFECTIVENESS	H	M-H	H	M-H	H	M	H	L-M

7.4 Case Specific Gender Intra-Design Archetypes

This section examines each of the case studies separately to discuss why the design archetypes may differ. The section progresses through the case studies in order of increasing variation, beginning with the least varied case study USAR, to ARU, to SARU, and ending with the most varied case study of KRU.

7.4.1 USAR Sevens Gender Specific Design Archetypes

USAR showed the least difference between the men and women intra-design archetypes (see Table 7.9). Minor differences were found in the criteria of effectiveness (3rd priority only), domain, and specialisation. This section discusses the reasons behind those differences, and discusses why the intra-design archetypes were similar in 2014.

Table 7.9 Gender-specific design archetypes of USAR Sevens.

	Men	Women
Orientation	1. IRB 2. USOC 3. Members	1. IRB 2. USOC 3. Members
Criteria of Effectiveness	1. Olympics 2. Grow Participation 3. Generate Revenue	1. Olympics 2. Grow Participation 3. Win
Domain	High Performance	Mix
Specialisation	Very High	High
Formalisation	Medium to High	Medium to High
Centralisation	High	High

Why the USAR men and women Sevens have the least variation. The United States, although not perfect, has been at the forefront of progressing gender equality for decades as evidenced by anti-discrimination laws, Title IX's quota system in the NCAA, and offering a higher number of professional sports for women than most of the world (e.g. volleyball, basketball, soccer, softball, tennis, golf). Although rugby followed a similar gender equality pathway, there have been some minor differences in the gender specific intra-design archetypes.

The orientation of each gender was identical, with the IRB, then USOC, and then registered members as the order of preference. Each team plays on the IRB Sevens World Series and must be accountable to the IRB's policies and procedures to even attempt to qualify for the Olympic Games. The USOC offers the facilities, some high performance expertise, and funding, and USAR must satisfy their policies and procedures to represent the USA at the Olympic Games. Finally, the members provide the highest source of revenue through registration fees, therefore USAR must continually satisfy their needs as long as they can continue to meet the IRB and USOC requirements.

The criteria of effectiveness had a slight variation in the third prioritised objective. The first two were in agreement, with qualifying for the Olympics as top priority followed by growing participation. Outside of the increase in registration revenue from growing participation, the women's Sevens had little pressure nor expectation to generate revenue from other sources (e.g. sponsorship, TV broadcast). United States-Respondent-44 highlighted this:

At one point, I'm told, NBC, who televises the CRC Sevens, haughtily dismissed any notion of televising any of the women's games at the event: "Do they televise the NBA and WNBA games together?" was one of the ridiculous comments they apparently made. Well, no, but those games aren't less than 20 minutes long nor played in strings of several unrelated games at a time in packed stadiums. Most major sports have events that are two hours long, or longer. In Sevens rugby we can fit six games into a two hour time period; why not mix men and women's games?

While this statement was in support of broadcasting women's Sevens, it illustrated the lack of interest from major television broadcasters. The lack of interest was most likely tied to the commercial value. Instead of revenue generation, winning international competitions was third for the women. It was fourth for the men, and the following quote from United States-Respondent-37 providing rationale for a higher expectation on the women than the men were:

Like many rugby nations, the USA sees a quicker path to international success through Sevens. The women's Sevens team was third in the world in 2009, while the men's team has beaten every major rugby nation in Sevens except New Zealand and

South Africa [the USA later beat South Africa]. The women's Fifteens team of course has had some remarkable international success [winning one Rugby World Cup, runner-up in two more], but the men's Fifteens team has only ever beaten one team in the current IRB Top 10, #10 Fiji in 1999.

The sentiment among USAR interviewees was that the women should be a top five team on the IRB Sevens World Series and Olympic medal contenders, while the men should be a top twelve team (with a long term goal of top eight) and might struggle to qualify for the Olympic Games in 2016.

In terms of specialisation, the men were found to be more specialised due to more competition opportunities and due to the Olympic Development Academy (ODA) system. Men had a more robust domestic Sevens competition in the USA. The men have domestic professional opportunities, albeit small prize money, that the women do not have. There were significantly more men's amateur Sevens competitions, and 70% of rugby players in the USA were male. However, women's opportunities to play were increasing. For example, the NCAA labelled women's rugby as an emerging sport, granting it full access to university athletic departments that chose to include it. This meant scholarships, better facilities, and coaching that have the potential to attract better athletes to play rugby. As women's rugby grew in the universities, so did the number and quality of competitions.

The largest discrepancy of specialisation was evident in the development of the ODAs. The ODAs were privately owned and operated, but sanctioned by USAR. Due to the privatisation, the ODAs were not governed by USAR and subsequently USAR did not require the ODAs to include a women's program. The first five ODAs in 2013 did not include a formal women's program. When asked about the creation of a women's program, United States-Respondent-40 responded, "Quite frankly, neither of us have a real strong background on women's rugby in America so I wouldn't even know where to start as far as which athletes to select, etcetera." However, in 2014, the first women's ODA program was announced (it had not begun at the time of data collection) as described by United States-Respondent-36:

It's brand new out of the gates. We have the services of two folks that were heavily involved in the women's game in America. They are taking up that program, that is the view right now, looking to which tournament to take the ladies, but it's very early in that at this stage but they will be emulating what the men have done.

This announcement was shortly followed by another ODA developing a women's program (no details were released by the end of data collection). There was evidence that USAR was pressuring the ODAs to include women. At the national team level, the men's and women's programs work together and share facilities and intelligence. One coach described the relationship between the men's and women's programs as very close with an

“abundance of knowledge sharing.” USAR wanted to mimic this relationship at the ODA level.

7.4.2 ARU Sevens Gender Specific Design Archetypes

As with the USAR, ARU gender intra-design archetypes were found to be very similar, as seen in Table 7.10. Orientation, criteria of effectiveness, domain, and specialisation all showed minor differences, with identical formalisation and centralisation. This section explains the differences and similarities, and why the Australian context produced more similarities than differences.

Table 7.10 Gender-specific design archetypes of ARU Sevens.

	Men	Women
Orientation	1. IRB 2. AOC/AIS 3. ASC	1. IRB 2. ASC 3. AOC/AIS
Criteria of Effectiveness	1. Olympics 2. Win 3. Grow Rugby	1. Olympics 2. Grow Rugby 3. Win
Domain	High Performance	Mix
Specialisation	High	Very High
Formalisation	Medium to High	Medium to High
Centralisation	Medium	Medium

Why the ARU men and women Sevens have minor variation. The stereotype of rugby being a man’s game was strong in Australia; there were a few interviewees that still believed the female body could not handle the rigours of full contact sport. Nevertheless, as Australia-Respondent-7 stated, “there is a stereotype about girls playing rugby, and we need to break it down. We are slowly getting there.”

The ARU CEO continually justified ARU resources being redirected towards women’s rugby in response to “off the record” interviewee statements and several blogs from constituents pressuring the ARU to focus on its core competency of men’s rugby. It was true that women’s rugby had yet to see any significant revenue streams in Australia (and most of the world), but as the ARU CEO stated in a public forum in 2013:

Another key economic driver is women in rugby. A fascinating statistic, about 5.5 million people play rugby worldwide, and 20% of the global playing population is female; in Australia it is about 3%. Women pay the same entry price as men. They determine the sports their kids play. The elite athletes among them go on to have the potential of winning Olympic medals. So there’s another economic engine.

This direction from the CEO coupled with the pressure from the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), a government organisation tasked with increasing sport participation,

created some of the differences between the gender intra-design archetypes. In the ARU, the differences were mostly with the values of criteria of effectiveness, orientation, and domain. The structures of the Sevens programs were similar, with the main differences in specialisation. Those four differences will be discussed below.

The orientation of the women's program had a slight preference from the ARU towards the ASC over the AOC or AIS. The ASC funds the ARU to drive mass participation, whereas the AOC and AIS fund elite performance. The orientation caused the differences in criteria of effectiveness, and was related to the ASC's mass participation agenda. Winning international competitions and qualifying for the Olympics was seen as critical for the women, but growing the playing base in Australia was a higher KPI for the women than for the men. This also affected the third difference; the domain for the men was heavily tilted towards high performance, while the women's domain could be identified as a mix between mass participation and high performance.

The ARU preferred the domain of Sevens for women's rugby, and the domain of Fifteens for men's rugby. A critical identifier of this was the justification of the additional role of Sevens participation manager added onto his new role as the Women's participation manager: "women's is separate to Sevens; however, Sevens is the vehicle to develop and grow women's rugby." This was a clear strategic initiative to leverage resources to grow women's participation, but possibly at the detriment to women's Fifteens. The men's priority code was Fifteens, and the women's priority code was to be Sevens. There was a push to use Sevens to grow both men's and women's rugby, as Australia-Respondent-1 discussed:

We try 50-50 in terms of growing the game. We see women's potentially percentage-wise growing more significantly. If you start from zero it's a lot easier to increase by 100, 200%.

Another indicator of women's preference to the ASC and mass participation was funding from the ASC. In 2012, when the ASC began funding Sevens, it required that the entire AUD\$350,000 grant be directed towards women's rugby. The ASC identified the large gap between men's and women's participation rates as the objective of the funding (as the CEO stated women made up merely 3% of all rugby players in Australia).

The specialisation difference distilled down to two main factors: domestic competitions and women's preference for Sevens over Fifteens. The ARU launched the domestic women's national championships in 2012 without a male counterpart (though set to begin in 2015). There was evidence that Australian women preferred Sevens to Fifteens, with many new women's rugby players deciding to focus on Sevens, even if they were not contracted to the ARU national squad. The "butch" stereotype of rugby still existed in Fifteens, however, the Sevens was losing that stigma as more women viewed it as a legitimate pathway to the Olympic Games. Moreover, new women's teams were founded (e.g. Tribe 7s, Iconz) that only played Sevens.

7.4.3 SARU Sevens Gender Specific Design Archetypes

Table 7.11 summarises the differences between SARU's gender intra-design archetypes. The differences outnumber the similarities in South Africa, with only domain and centralisation found to be the same. This section highlights the reasons for the differences.

Table 7.11 Gender-specific design archetypes of SARU Sevens.

	Men	Women
Orientation	1. IRB 2. SAS 3. Sponsors	1. IRB 2. University 3. NOC
Criteria of Effectiveness	1. Olympics 2. Win 3. Revenue	1. Develop 2. Olympics 3. Win
Domain	High Performance	High Performance
Specialisation	Very High	High
Formalisation	High	Low to Medium
Centralisation	Medium	Medium

Why the SARU men and women Sevens have major variations. This quote from South Africa-Respondent-27 highlighted many of the reasons why there was a major difference in the gender specific intra-design archetypes:

Women's rugby is struggling to establish itself. Women's rugby is quite strong in the Eastern Cape among the black girls. We really need that combination and some of the Afrikaner girls are very athletic, very strong, big. They [Afrikaners] play netball, their parents don't want them to play rugby. "Rugby is a man's game." Rugby for the Afrikaner is a very special game and it is played by men. So it's a perception, cultural thing.

SARU was not only feeling pressure from traditional gender stereotypes, it was also under pressure from its history of apartheid. This caused both a separation of women's Sevens from the men's, but also an opportunity to further develop rugby in the black demographic. South African rugby displayed the overarching cultural hierarchy of race that continued to exist: white Afrikaner (Dutch descent), other white (mainly British decent), coloured (any non-white, non-endemic black), and blacks (native Africans). South Africa-Respondent-28 saw the opportunity:

From a strategic point of view, from the South African context, our next big challenge is to expand the game, to move it and stretch it beyond the traditional white supporter player base. That's the one thing, and then the other thing would be really to up the game in terms of women's participation. Like I said, we haven't

scratched the surface, not by any stretch of the imagination. There's a lot more we can do in terms of women's rugby but it's a perception thing.

South Africa-Respondent-31 also saw the opportunity:

With the Sevens program, the key area that we are focusing on is to create a culture of Sevens rugby in the country. This can begin with the men's but the women's has a role in it. Look at those teams...they embrace diversity.

The Sevens program appeared to embrace diversity, with the men's and especially the women's rosters showing a much greater proportion of non-whites than the Fifteens teams. Often the starting teams would have more non-whites than whites.

South Africa's unique context can explain some of the differences in gender intra-design archetypes. South Africa women were trying to mimic what the men did, but without the resources (funding/facilities/pathways). In order to copy the men, the women had to orient themselves with a similar partner as the Stellenbosch Academy of Sport (SAS), and did so with the Eastern Cape University. Further, the women's team looked to the NOC (SASCOC) for resources, and began to align with that organisation. The men were not as interested in aligning with SASCOC as that may jeopardise the program's self-sufficiency through unwanted guidance from that "political" and "useless" organisation, as stated by a coach.

The criteria of effectiveness for mass participation was different between men's and women's programs. The men continued to select elite athletes from the large Fifteens playing base, using the formalised player identification handbook. The women had a much smaller playing base to select from, therefore had to drive additional mass participation in order to compete at an elite level. This priority difference in organisational effectiveness also related to the domain of elite performance versus mass participation. Both focused on high performance, however, the women's needed more focus on mass participation. As South Africa-Respondent-28 explained:

There is not very many [women] that have grown up playing rugby. My role is to get kids growing up playing Sevens with the hopes that they can play in the Rio Olympics and in 2020. Because there is a big goal to compete, what we aim to achieve then is to increase the participation numbers and we believe that if we've got a large pool of players, we'll be able to choose quality out of that quantity and put it on a high performance channel so that our teams can be competitive at international level moving forward to the Olympics.

The specialisation of facilities was a key difference, with the men training at the world class Stellenbosch Academy of Sport that opened in 2008, and the women training at the University of Eastern Cape that had lower quality facilities. South Africa-Respondent-32 tried to claim this was still equal: "It's separate from the Stellenbosch facility although the

plan and the whole modus operandi is almost the same but it's based in the Eastern Cape." Upon observing both facilities, this researcher can attest that the SAS was a better facility.

The women's program attempted to mimic the men's by introducing a similar academy level just below the national team. The squads would be paid a "stipend," but nothing near the funding levels of the fully professional men's team. As South Africa-Respondent-28 explained:

We do not call it a salary, but it is a stipend. This stipend is in such a way that they can forget about their minds could focus on the job at hand to strive towards becoming the best rugby players, to being the most fit athletes whilst not worrying about where their next meal is going to come from or where do they get money to maintain their lives. So we've got that stipend as a support. The stipend is over and above the basic services that are offered to them like the meals, the accommodation, the transport, the medical attention. They don't have to worry about that. SARU is also making an input here so SARU is covering the stipends. Eastern Cape University is covering all the accommodation, the meals, the medical support and the life skills support, the life skills support program that they participate in.

The women also specialise in Sevens with the full support of SARU. A significant difference was the lack of pressure for women to choose between a Sevens or Fifteens career, the latter was not possible for women in South Africa. Sevens rose above Fifteens as not only a source of income, but esteem as South Africa-Respondent-27 discussed:

The advent of the Olympics has elevated Sevens in a very big way in that the girls that play Fifteens got to show their mettle in order to get to the Sevens. It is the other way round for the men. In the past, you had players where Fifteens was the main program, the Fifteens was the main reflection of our program, and we took girls from there that could play Sevens. Now, we have separated the two. We've got players that are just focusing on Sevens moving forward to 2016 and those that will focus on Fifteens.

Whereas the men can choose to specialise in Sevens, Fifteens were still held in a much higher regard. Sevens were separate from Fifteens, but the Sevens players were still heavily recruited by both professional and national team Fifteens recruiters. The elevated stature of Sevens continued to gain legitimacy within SARU, especially for the women's programs. Nevertheless, progress was being made as South Africa-Respondent-29 alluded:

Sevens is moving from a very low support base compared to Fifteens. In the whole organisation, there is acceptance and support for the Sevens but it's something we'll never dream of where Sevens are elevated to above Fifteens in the whole

organisation. But we're getting the support that Sevens are *supposed* to get. But we're hoping for more because the resources are not enough.

With the low levels of support available from SARU for women's Sevens, the management team looked to the NOC (SASCOC) for additional support. However, South Africa-Respondent-28 discussed the difficult process and limited resources:

You remember that the Olympics has always been taking care of codes like athletics, boxing, individual sports so SASCOC systems are designed as such. It's now that they are moving to a system that is going to cater for teams also. They have asked us to nominate players that we think should be supported through a program like that. So in a team of a squad of about 18 maybe, they'll only take care of three or four. But we have to put forward motivation as to why we think these players should be supported by SASCOC, what value will they add in achieving the medals in 2016 and so on. It is selective, it won't be a blanket support that will cater for the whole team.

The competitions aspect of specialisation was also very different between genders. SARU hosted a men's IRB Sevens World Series tournament, but had not bid on a women's tournament. There were even fewer domestic Sevens opportunities for girls and women than the limited number for boys and men, as South Africa-Respondent-28 explained:

The under-18 is the main competition for the girls. That competition takes place as part of the national youth week. It takes place once a year and then for seniors also we have an inter-provincial competition for provinces, also takes place once a year. As I indicated, we want to extend that to be a series where we will give the players more opportunities to participate in competitive Sevens. That does not happen now but it's something that we're looking to move towards as we are building up to the Olympics.

A significant difference was the administrator and coaching status. The men's program had a full-time staff of 8-10 full coaches, high performance staff, and administrators. The women had zero full-time staff, as discussed by South Africa-Respondent-32:

At the moment we don't have full-time people. We've got contractors, independent contractors. So we've got people who dedicate their time over a period. We ask them to commit for however long a period but working on a contract basis. They have got full-time jobs somewhere but they have got a service to render to us. We are starting next year [2015] to have full-time personnel for Sevens mainly. We'll start with three. The coach will be full-time, the physiotherapist will be full-time, and the fitness trainer will be full-time leading up to 2016.

Formalisation was the last area that had a significant gap between genders. As detailed in Chapter Six, the men's program was highly formalised. The women's program seemed to have very little documentation or formalised processes by the end of data collection. A strategic plan was on the cusp of being formalised with the help of a female professor at Eastern Cape University, but had not come to fruition as of 2014 according to South Africa-Respondent-28, "that strategy is a working document and we're developing it as we're moving along. It's something that is evolving and there are a number of hands that are involved."

Given the South African environment, SARU made significant progress with its women's program. Critical signposts included the contracting of women's rugby players for the first time in South Africa, qualifying as a core team on the IRB Sevens World Series beginning in 2014/15 season, hiring of three full-time staff beginning in 2015, and recognition from SASCOC for Olympic medal potential. As SARU continued to trail the equality seen in the developed countries of USA and Australia (South Africa was considered a BRICS emerging economy), it was far better than its African neighbour and developing country of Kenya.

7.4.4 KRU Sevens Gender Specific Design Archetypes

The day this section was being finalised in 2014, a media statement was released from the KRU to several online news agencies:

The Kenya women's rugby teams have been disbanded to pave way for the start of a serious girls' league. Director of Women's Rugby said they are in the process of creating clubs where Kenya Cup teams will be required to have women's sides. This would boost the playing ranks of both the Sevens and Fifteens games in the country.

The disbanding of the Kenyan women's rugby teams at the end of 2014 was a significant development to consider for future research. This was a critical moment for the KRU and its rationale is captured in the outcomes of the data presented in this section. Table 7.12 summarises the differences in gender intra-design archetypes, displaying that Kenya had significant differences in its organisational constructs.

Table 7.12 Gender-specific design archetypes of KRU Sevens.

	Men	Women
Orientation	1. IRB 2. Sponsors 3. Clubs	1. Minimum Satisfaction to IRB 2. One Club
Criteria of Effectiveness	1. Create Revenue 2. Olympics 3. Win	1. Satisfy IRB 2. Olympics
Domain	High Performance	High Performance
Specialisation	High	Low
Formalisation	Medium	Low
Centralisation	Very High	Very High

Why the KRU men and women Sevens have the most variation. Kenya had few similarities between genders. The only similarity established was centralisation, as the board made most decisions for all of Kenyan rugby. Another slight similarity was with domain. Both genders favoured high performance over mass participation and Sevens was valued over Fifteens. There were very little value for the women's rugby domain at the NGB level, therefore few structures have been put in place as illustrated by Kenya-Respondent-19's comment, "the women's game has really been carried along, in general. Though it suffers unique problems because of the structure feeding up to the national side hasn't been very strong." There were no formalised processes or documents that were discovered during data collection for women in the KRU, however very little was formalised for the men either.

For specialisation, the women's coaches were part-time volunteers, while the men had three full-time staff in 2014. There were no centralised training facilities for the women's national team, and the men did not share their facilities. There were few women domestic competitions, with only three clubs fielding a women's team. The women's national team only competed at the minimum number of tournaments that the IRB would assist in funding. There were no player contracts for the women, and the women did not necessarily become Sevens specialists - although Sevens was valued over Fifteens.

The orientation of the women's program could be distilled down to two groups: the IRB and one senior club. The orientation to the IRB was the most critical to the KRU because all of the funding for the women's Sevens national team came from the IRB. The men's Sevens primary funder was Kenya Airways, and the lack of funding was blamed for the lack of women's structures by all interviewees, including Kenya-Respondent-20:

We need a Kenya Airways sort of investment on the Kenya Sevens, in the women's game, in that development game. And yet you must realise that right now that the international game is very expensive for the union [KRU], yet the international game should only be 10% of what the union spends on the game. So you can imagine what

needs to be spent properly for it to form such a big, big infrastructure. We're getting government slowly involved because in developing countries government influence is very strong in all sectors including sports.

This statement referred to the KRU attempting to orient towards the government in order to increase resources. However, other conversations (including those covered in Chapter Six) mentioned the orientation towards government was mainly for the men's program. Alternatively, at least the men would benefit from government support (financial) first, with women getting secondary assistance with lobbying for female rugby programs in schools as Kenya-Respondent-16 highlights, "we have something like 40 schools playing the game, but it also isn't a formal sport per se in the school competition system. We tried to get it in, and even now, I'm sure the union is trying to get it in, but it still has not happened. The men's program was heavily oriented towards sponsors, including allowing sponsors involvement in the decision making process. This swayed the criteria of effectiveness for men to generate revenue. The lack of revenue generation was the most significant reason why women's rugby was devalued in the KRU.

The top objective to satisfy the KRU's criteria of effectiveness for women was to satisfy the IRB. The IRB set minimum standards on entering women's teams in international competition and developing mass participation. The IRB's small investment and lack of other resources caused the KRU women's program to depend on a few club teams, with one club basically doubling as the national team, as explained by Kenya-Respondent-19:

We don't exactly have a league for the women, so they're mostly just from one very strong team, the team from a club called Mwamba. Mwamba has a very strong women's team because the current president of Kenya Rugby Union is very involved in instituting the women's team. But it hasn't really caught on as much as it should, primarily because of the funding factor and I think that isn't really a problem you really find in Kenya, it's a bit of a general problem in global rugby.

The last statement was a concern, as most interviewees within Kenya had the same viewpoint – that underfunding women's rugby was justified due to the perception that it was underfunded in all of global rugby. Instead of going through a learning process regarding international women's rugby, the KRU displayed bandwagon isomorphism by following their perceived global trend to underfund women's rugby. Nevertheless, as been illustrated in the other case studies, women's rugby was funded less than men's rugby, but the funding was increasing dramatically since Olympic inclusion. Even the nation that Kenya admired the most in global rugby – South Africa – was showing an increased value for women's rugby (although SARU had many times more resources to invest).

The KRU section will end on a quote that was very telling of the dilemma of pursuing women's rugby in the Olympic era. The KRU feels pressure, especially from the

IRB, to increase focus on women's rugby. If it were not for the Olympic Games, then there may be a strong argument that the KRU would not be discussing women's rugby.

Nevertheless, it always came back to the financial argument, as highlighted Kenya-Respondent-19:

There is a strong argument just because of rugby Sevens being an Olympic sport that we must put behind the whole thing. Because Olympic sports require that you have a strong, [pause] *not a strong*, that you have *effort* in both men's and women's sports, whichever sport it is that is in the Olympics. That is another argument, but for Kenya, the main argument is financial.

The KRU struggled with financial resources, as one could expect from a sport in a developing nation. However, the men's program was able to fully professionalise, hire expensive foreign coaches, and provide a robust domestic competition. There could be more value of women and women's rugby within the KRU to shift a fraction of the men's resources to the women.

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter examined the gender intra-design archetypes in four rugby NGBs. The data highlight a need to hire managers who personally value gender equity in order to respond to Olympic institutional pressure for equality in sport. The number of women involved in NGB management is still significantly disproportionate to men, though opportunities have increased since Olympic inclusion. As documented, the USA and Australia have begun to hire women in upper-level managerial positions. This is contrary to South Africa and Kenya, where the staffing profile remained the same during the period of 2009-2014. In the developed nations, women's rugby was starting to gain equal NGB support with the men's programs. In fact, Australian funding for women's domestic Sevens participation and competitions outweighed the men, although the high performance men's Sevens budget still exceeds the women's primarily due to the volume of international competition. South Africa has demonstrated steps towards a more comprehensive women's strategy for the future, but continued to provide more resources for the men. In contrast, Kenya focused the majority of resources on men's Sevens, almost neglecting the women.

The most common motive provided from the developing countries for the disparity in women's rugby development was negative return on investment. The potential cash inflow from increasing female participant membership dues, hosting competitions, and sponsorship could not negate the expenses for the women's program. This deficit would also occur in the developed countries if it were not for national Olympic committee and/or government funding. The IRB was one of the largest contributors to women's Sevens, especially in Kenya where it provide most (if not all) of the funding. This highlights the need for government support of gender equality in developing countries.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION: AN INTEGRATED CHANGE MODEL

8.1 Introduction

The principal result of this thesis is the Integrated Change Model to provide a research tool for deeper exploration and understanding of organisational change in response to environmental jolts. Chapter Two set forth a conceptual framework that borrowed elements from empirical studies and models based in organisational design, institutionalism, and organisational change. As Chapter Two illustrated, organisational change researchers have often leveraged multiple theories and models within the same study to understand the complexities of change, or have often extended one model with a another model or theory. This trend points to the need for a single Integrated Change Model.

The ICM utility extends into the general organisational change literature. However, it should be noted that a significant underlying agenda of the researcher was to progress the discipline of sport management. There are now over one thousand sport management programs at academic institutions worldwide (Burton & O'Reilly, 2013). However, is sport management a distinctive and legitimate academic discipline? The answer varies significantly depending on the department or conference one might visit. Chalip stated in his 2006 paper "Toward a Distinctive Sport Management Discipline:"

Sport management is relatively young as an academic discipline. There are advantages and disadvantages to being young. The most potent advantage is that those of us who study sport management have an opportunity to build the discipline's foundation and shape its future. (p.1)

Chalip continued to argue that legitimization of sport management academics was, at that stage, provided by publication in the "home disciplines" (e.g. management, marketing, economics). As the sport management discipline continues to mature, there is a call to sport management academics to increase sport-driven theoretical development (Fink, 2013). Theory and model development is the foundation of knowledge, as theory offers understanding or explanation of relationships in the observed world (Bacharach, 1989). Development of theory, as opposed to the use of theory in research, expands and deepens the understanding of these relationships. Cunningham (2013) argues that an academic discipline advances primarily through the use and development of theory; therefore, sport management academics need to further develop sport-driven theory.

In response to this call, this thesis contributes to the sport management discipline, and the larger organisational studies literature, by introducing a new theoretical model – the Integrated Change Model (ICM). The ICM evolved from a conceptual framework, derived from previous organisational change research, and was informed by the present research. It has been argued that no single model can adequately explore, identify, and compare changes in sport organisations. In addition, the present study required the ability to compartmentalise

concepts in order to systematically analyse variations in strategic response among sport organisations within the same sector.

The review of literature provided three major antecedents for developing the ICM. Table 8.1 displays the rationale of each antecedent, highlighting reasons for integrating each into a single model. Distilling previous works into a single conceptual framework enabled exploration of the ‘what,’ ‘how,’ and ‘why’ of changes within sporting organisations when confronted with an environmental jolt. The data from the present study informed that conceptual framework, resulting in the ICM.

Table 8.1 Rationale of antecedents for the new exploratory model.

	Design Archetype Assessment ^a	Organisational Responses to Jolts ^b	Institutional Field-Level Characteristics ^c
Analyses	1. Values and structures of an organisation 2. ‘What’ changed or remained	1. Process or route change took within organisation 2. How’ changes occurred	1. Factors and entities pressuring change 2. ‘Why’ changes occurred
Limitations	1. Cannot describe ‘how’ or ‘why’	1. Offers some description of ‘what,’ but no method for assessing ‘what’ 2. Cannot explain ‘why’	1. Cannot detail all values and structures (what) 2. Cannot fully describe the change process (how)
Facilitates	1. Identification of a change 2. Comparisons across organisations and across time	1. Understanding of intra-organisational change processes and resistances 2. Comparisons across organisations and across time	1. Understanding of inter-organisational relationships 2. Identification of forces causing change

^a Amis et al. (2002, 2004a), Greenwood & Hinings (1993), Hinings et al. (1996), Kikulis et al. (1992, 1995a, 1995b)

^b Laughlin (1991)

^c O’Brien and Slack (2003, 2004, 2005)

To understand the development and evolution of the model, Chapter Eight returns to the research objective, questions, and aims identified in Chapter One. The chapter then revisits the study’s original conceptual framework, which underpins the new model. The chapter proceeds with a description of the new model and its constituent parts, followed by a discussion of how to use the model. Chapter Eight then offers theoretical and managerial contributions as well as future areas for research.

8.2 The Research Objective

Develop an Integrated Exploratory Model for Organisational Change

This dissertation's main contribution was the construction of the ICM to enhance our understanding of organisational change... The model's foundation was established through reference to the literature on organisational design, institutionalism, and organisational change. Empirical data from four case studies on rugby NGB responses to the inclusion of Sevens in the Olympic Games further informed the construction of the model. The data originated from the following research questions, that led to the three research aims to explore 'what,' 'how,' and 'why,' organisations change in response to environmental jolts.

8.3 The Research Question

To what extent do organisations within the same sector vary in their response to the same environmental jolt?

In order to answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were addressed:

- (1) Which field-level characteristics facilitated or constrained pressures for change?
- (2) What was the process of response within each organisation to the environmental jolt?
- (3) How were the outcomes of the response manifest in design archetype shifts?

8.4 The Research Aims

8.4.1 Determine 'What' Changed in each NGB

Due to the nature of the research, determining 'what' changed within each NGB occurred first. It was pragmatic to initially discover the structural and/or value changes within the organisation prior to then establishing the process of change ('how') and 'why' those specific changes occurred. The changes were identified with the assistance of design archetype mapping underpinned by the longitudinal studies of Canadian NSOs.

The most considerable changes to 'what' were in the specialisation of Sevens high performance programs. Four types of high performance systems were discovered and the NGBs progressed from the Airport Meet and Greet to Training Camps to Central Residency, with USAR further progressing to the Hub and Spoke model. Other significant organisational design changes included value shifts from Fifteens to Sevens and towards women's rugby, and the expansion of Sevens competitions.

8.4.2 Examine 'How' each NGB Responded to the Environmental Jolt

After the changes in organisational design ('what') were uncovered, the evaluation of 'how' those changes occurred was undertaken. The process of change was guided by Laughlin's (1991) model of organisational transitions and transformations to discuss how the NGBs' implemented the new design archetypes. It was discovered that each NGB first underwent a reorientation process. Subsequently, each NGB changed again, although differences were discovered. Kenya's highly inertial values prevented any second order changes to occur, and it only reoriented again. The Tier One NGBs of Australia and South

Africa both underwent colonisation changes – forcing a dysfunctional second order change that will likely lead to organisational strife (Zakus & Skinner, 2008). The USA was the only NGB to experience an evolution (second order) change process, but only after a reorientation and a colonisation took place.

8.4.3 Investigate ‘Why’ the NGBs Changed

Finally, the data were examined to discover ‘why’ those changes took place. Underpinned by institutional theory, the discussion centred on isomorphism and external pressures for change. It was found that the Central Residency high performance model, first enacted by South Africa, spread to each NGB. Due to differing broad and task environments (and the actors and resources within each respective field), each NGB showed varying forms of that high performance model. There were also considerable differences and similarities in the treatment of women’s rugby by each NGB that could be explained by those same institutional pressures.

8.5 The Integrated Change Model

As detailed in Chapter Two, a conceptual framework was created that guided the researcher in collecting, analysing, interpreting, and illustrating data in the case studies. Figure 8.1 illustrates the conceptual framework as first introduced in Chapter Two.

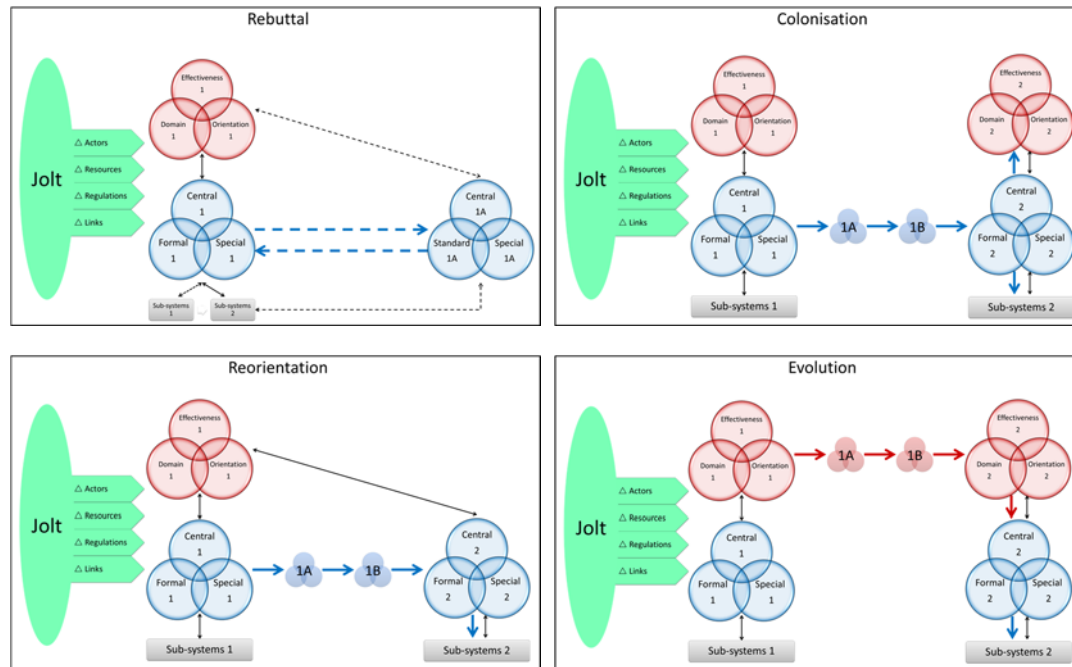


Figure 8.1 The conceptual framework for the study.

As the data informed the framework, the researcher simplified and refined the framework into the ICM for exploring organisational change as seen in Figure 8.2.

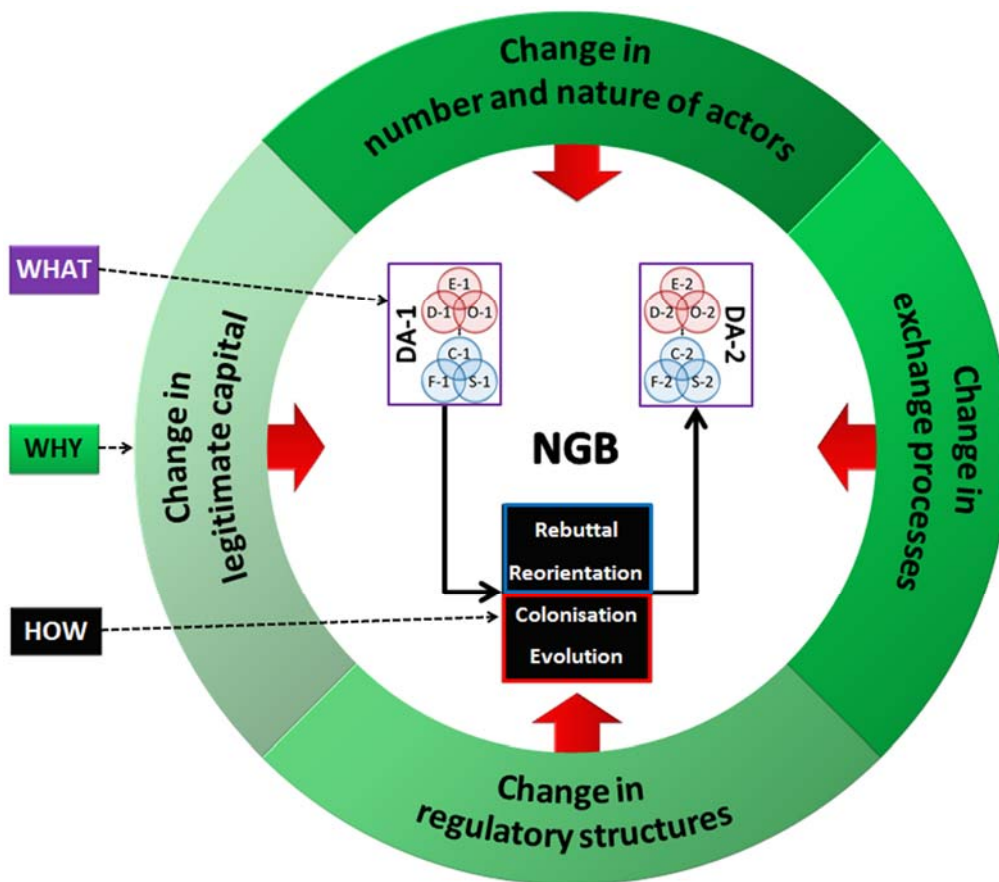


Figure 8.2 Integrated Change Model.

The centre area represents the organisation, or a rugby national governing body in this study. The organisation's design archetypes, or 'what' components, are illustrated as purple-outlined boxes, and are carried over from the conceptual map as seen in Figure 8.1. They retain each of the three organisational values (in red) and three organisational structures (in blue) from that original conceptual map.

These six concepts of organisational design were based on the original work of Kikulis, Slack, and Hinings in 1992, and refined with the further works of Kikulis, Slack, Hinings, Amis, Greenwood, Cousens, and Thibault through 2004. However, slight variations in the definitions and use of the concepts were apparent in other research works, and adapted through the analysis of the data for this current research. Those deviations are now included in the current ICM, and are as follows in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2 Variations in definition and use of design archetype concepts.

Original Concept	Researcher's interpretation of the Kikulis et al. meaning and use	Variation of meaning and use for the ICM
Standardisation	the existence of rules, policies, and procedures within an organisation	Change to 'Formalisation' – the level of documented (or not) evidence of rules, policies, and procedures
Centralisation	Hierarchy of control, including locus of decision-making, levels of involvement, and the number of decisions made at each level.	No changes on meaning, special consideration was made to identifying changes in the number of levels of involvement and what level important decisions were made at
Specialisation	the degree to which roles and tasks are differentiated	No changes in meaning, special consideration was given to the discovery of new positions or the increasing/decreasing specificity of roles in current positions
Criteria of Effectiveness	refers to how the performance of the organisation is evaluated	No changes in meaning, special consideration was given to comparing how important key performance indicators or outputs where to the organisation before and after the change process occurred
Orientation	the level of support from public or private interests that the organisation seeks to attain.	Modify to the level of support from external interests that the organisation seeks to attain. This includes both public and private interests; however is not a rigid separation of the two.
Domain	refers to the services and market that the organisation targets, with mass participation and elite performance identified as the two major domains for national sport organisations	No changes to meaning, however each industry could have multiple domains, and these domains could have crossover or inter-connections, which is more complex than Kikulis et al. For example, it was found that rugby NGBs had three areas of domains: 1. mass participation vs elite performance; 2. Sevens vs Fifteens; and, 3. male vs female.

In addition, the concept of intra-design archetypes were introduced in this thesis and it is conceivable that the ICM could be three dimensional, with several layers and intersections of intra-design archetypes. Previous research, particularly Kikulis, et al., has not clarified or discussed whether an organisation could be understood as having multiple design archetypes. A three-dimensional ICM would illustrate that while some organisational structures and values are shared by various divisions within an organisation; other structures and values are not shared and could undergo unique change processes.

For example, the Kenyan women's rugby design archetype could be almost isolated from the men's rugby design archetype, with many distinct structures and values as was described in Chapter Seven. The women's design archetype may also respond significantly different to field-level changes than the men's due to its segregated design. Alternatively, in the case of the USA, the women's rugby design archetype was shown to have a greater level of inter-connectedness with the men's. While the women could be isolated and examined individually (as this thesis has done), the inter-connectivity meant that field-level changes affected both men and women, albeit not necessarily in the exact ways or magnitude. The concept of a three-dimensional ICM, and its relevance to organisational change research should be further investigated.

The green outer ring represents the 'why' component – the sport organisation's field-level characteristics that may pressure change as originally informed by O'Brien and Slack (2003, 2004, 2005), and include a change in; 1) regulatory structures, 2) exchange processes among organisations in the environment, 3) legitimate capital, and, 4) number and nature of actors. Changes to the field-level characteristics often follow an environmental jolt, as evidenced in this study. The red arrows signify field-level pressure on a NGB to respond and adapt, and illustrates that even after a shift in design archetype, the organisation is still under field-level pressure, and therefore, further changes may occur.

An environmental jolt rattles the field, resulting in pressure for change in the four field-level characteristics and the overall dominant logic. These changes cause longer-term turbulence in the field, and the re-institutionalisation process can continue to pressure changes within the focal organisation by offsetting the internal balance between values and structures (Cousens & Slack, 2005; Greenwood et al., 2002; Powell & DiMaggio, 1991; Washington & Ventresca, 2004). This epidemic was witnessed within each case study, and some evidence pointed towards a continuance that would extend beyond the 2016 Olympic Games in most, if not all, cases.

Finally, Laughlin's (1991) models of environmental disturbances and organisational transitions and transformations greatly underpinned the four processes by which the design archetypes may change, and constitutes the black square, or 'how' component. Laughlin's models of rebuttal, reorientation, colonisation, and evolution are better illustrated in the study's conceptual framework (Figure 8.1) than in the ICM. The significant difference being that the field-level pressures encompass the models in the ICM, rather than point directionally at the organisation as Laughlin originally exemplified. As previously discussed, the pressure for change from the initial jolt is often not the final pressure for change. More often, the organisation bears shockwaves of field-level turbulence as the field continues to re-institutionalise. The ICM also differs from Laughlin's original model by the division of the general concepts into definitive concept. 'Interpretive schemes' became the specific concepts (values) of domain, orientation, and criteria of effectiveness, and 'design archetype'

became specific concepts (structures) of formalisation, specialisation, and centralisation. These changes were necessitated to succinctly align with the identification and understanding of ‘what’ changed. In the ICM, the blue outline depicts first order change (to structures only), and a red outline depicts second order change (inclusive of values and structures).

8.6 Applying the Integrated Change Model

The model lends itself well for empirical analysis because its components can be separated into basic mechanisms during data collection, and then can be analysed individually and as a collective to guide an all-encompassing discussion. For example, the mechanism of domain was individually identified and compared across the cases in this study. Further examination and regrouping of the mechanisms led to identification and comparison of change or continuance in design archetypes, or the ‘what’ component. Additionally, the order in which those changes or continuances occurred was investigated to establish the ‘how’ component, since these four change processes utilise the same mechanisms of design archetypes as the ‘what’ component.

A contextual examination to identify changes in the field-level characteristics surrounding rugby NGBs was then carried out. These field-level changes may affect each sport organisation in a specific sector, but the researcher was tasked with determining to what extent each organisation was affected by each field-level change. Corresponding the changes or continuances of the ‘what’ and ‘how’ components assisted in recognising the extent each organisation was affected. The case was then built for discussing ‘why’ each field-level characteristic pressured changes or continuances.

Moreover, depending on the scope of the study, sport organisations in the same sector may be affected by vastly different field-level characteristics. For example, in the present study, rugby NGBs formed an ‘international rugby sector’ and shared some field-level characteristics. However, each NGB also faced different pressures for change depending on its domestic sport context. Identifying the differences in international and domestic field-levels also contributed to understanding ‘why’ organisations may change differently.

8.7 Theoretical Contribution

The theoretical contribution of the thesis primarily falls on the development of the Integrated Change Model. The ICM model extends each of its three theoretical components (see Table 8.1), facilitating broader and deeper understanding with a methodical approach for exploring organisational change. However, empirical evidence is still needed to further evolve this model to engage the *why*, *how*, and *what* of change in sport organisations. It will be the additional contributions past the original study that will progress this model into a

workable, generalisable research tool, and consequently offer assistance to a wide range of studies in organisational change in response to environmental jolts.

The ICM model is the main theoretical contribution from this thesis; however, the study offers another theoretical contribution. This study extended the work of the Canadian NSO research conducted from 1992 to 2004 by Kikulis, Slack, Hinings, Amis, Cousens, and Thibault. Their research often categorised and examined the overarching design archetype of NSOs, but never dissected each NSO into intra-design archetypes. This current study contributes to the academic literature by introducing “intra-design archetypes” as a way to examine competing divisions within a single organisation. It is proposed, and empirically supported by the present study, that those divisions have their own design archetype. Furthermore, identifying the intra-design archetypes and the underlying mechanisms allows for cross-case comparisons.

8.8 Implications for Sport Managers

In an ever-changing sport landscape, a research tool that can assist in succinctly identifying what changes are happening, how those changes progress, and why those changes occur may help to determine best practices in strategic management. One aspect in particular, exploration of changes in high performance systems, intrigued the IRB. The IRB commissioned the researcher to conduct a deeper and broader investigation of the Central Residency high performance system beginning in 2015. The results from that study will assist the IRB in setting high performance system standards in nations wishing to implement Central Residency. This is an act of normative isomorphism that came about from this research. The researchers will actively play a role in institutionalising an “ideal” Central Residency model after a process of organisational learning.

The ICM can be applied across numerous situations where changes in the environment pressure organisational responses. This model can be applied to many contemporary issues in sport, from commercialisation (e.g. television rights deals in the USA causing collegiate conference realignment), to the vast array of entertainment options (e.g. cricket’s addition of international one-day games in the early 1980s and, more recently, Twenty20, a shortened version, to stay competitive and reach new markets), to technological advances (e.g. second screen/interface while watching sport), to doping (e.g. introduction of athlete biological passports), among others. For example, a study on television rights deals (environmental jolt) in the USA causing collegiate (sector) conference realignment may be pressuring universities (sport organisations) to respond, resulting in design archetype shifts. The ICM may assist in exploring those changes in various universities, and in turn, establish response processes and design archetypes best suited to for a successful and sustainable response to the jolt. Then, through normative isomorphism, the ‘ideal’ responses could be communicated to universities in other conferences.

This research also draws attention to gender differences within the same NGB and across different NGBs. The gender debate in sports is not new. It is, however, important to continue gathering empirical data that highlights lingering male-centric inertia in sport organisations, the progression of gender equity, and the organisational changes required to tighten the gender gap. This research demonstrated that injection of Olympism values of equality and ‘sport for all’ into the rugby sector have positively influenced NGB values and structures in regards to the rise of women’s rugby. However, more changes are required to fully entrench gender equality in rugby. This in turn provides rugby organisations insights to develop new revenue streams through increasing participation and adding products and services.

8.9 Further Research

The ICM is an infant. Further empirical data beyond the present study should be conducted utilising the model to shape it into a mainstream research tool. The present study uncovered several trends in rugby’s responses to Olympic Games inclusion that merit further investigation. Chapters Five, Six and Seven offered many of these themes, including the potential split of rugby codes (Sevens separating from Fifteens), the globalisation of rugby into new geographic regions (particularly the Americas and Asia), and the development of international competitions. There were also several turbulent signs that signalled considerable change on the horizon. For example, the recent disbanding of women’s clubs in Kenya was one critical area that emerged after data collection. Table 8.3 offers additional trends that may be worth future examination.

Table 8.3 Trends in rugby worth future examination.

What new regions, markets, and actors will develop because of Sevens in the Olympic Games? What impacts will that have on globalisation of rugby, the power and control of the Foundation nations, and the resource competition of Sevens versus Fifteens?
To what extent will the Olympic Games inspire rugby participation?
How will competition structures be developed to capture Sevens’ domestic and international appeal? Who will develop those structures? What effect will those structures have on Fifteens, professional clubs, national teams, globalisation, and mass participation? When and how will professional opportunities for Sevens specialists be developed?
What is the impact of the new regulation allowing athletes to switch national allegiance to compete in the Olympic Games?
How can rugby continue to foster gender equality? Who will be responsible for driving those values?
Will Sevens separate from Fifteens to become a distinct code? How will that occur, and what could be the governance structure?

8.10 Conclusion

This research set out to develop a new exploratory model to examine organisational change. The result was a model that integrated organisational design (the what), institutionalism (the why), and process of change (the how), penned the Integrated Change Model (ICM). Rugby's inclusion in the Olympic Games, and the ensuing rapid and dynamic change environment, provided an interesting and colourful context to develop the ICM from its theoretical underpinnings. It was discovered that organisations (NGBs) in the same sector (international rugby) do vary their responses to an environmental jolt (Olympic Games inclusion). However, as the route of change and field-level pressures did vary, isomorphic mechanisms institutionalised the organisations within the sector, resulting in quite similar design archetypes on the macro level. This was evidenced by each case study implementing a form of the Central Residency high performance model. It is the deeper investigation of intra-design archetypes on the micro level that identified variations and enabled deeper comparison within and across cases.

APPENDIX 1: INTERNATIONAL RUGBY GOVERNING BODIES

Nation	Founded	Member Type	Association	Total Rugby Players
Afghanistan	2010	Regional	ARFU	NA
Algeria	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
American Samoa	NA	Member	FORU	NA
Andorra	1986	Member	FIRA-AER	192
Argentina	1899	Member	CONSUR	NA
Armenia	2000	Regional	FIRA-AER	200
Australia	NA	Member	FORU	297,389
Austria	1990	Member	FIRA-AER	1,420
Azerbaijan	2004	Associate	FIRA-AER	220
Bahamas	NA	Member	NACRA	635
Barbados	1964	Member	NACRA	320
Belarus	2013	Regional	FIRA-AER	65
Belgium	1931	Member	FIRA-AER	10,624
Benin	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Bermuda	NA	Member	NACRA	701
Bosnia & Herzegovina	1962	Member	FIRA-AER	911
Botswana	1992	Member	CAR	6,805
Brazil	1972	Member	CONSUR	13,300
British Virgin Islands	NA	Associate	NACRA	670
Brunei	1977	Associate	ARFU	NA
Bulgaria	1992	Member	FIRA-AER	3,120
Burkina Faso	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Burundi	NA	Associate	CAR	NA
Cambodia	1998	Associate	ARFU	NA
Cameroon	NA	Regional	CAR	3,517
Canada	1929	Member	NACRA	72,572
Cayman Islands	1971	Member	NACRA	1,616
Central Africa	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Chile	NA	Member	CONSUR	18,755
China	NA	Member	ARFU	NA
Chinese Taipei	NA	Member	ARFU	5,516
Colombia	2010	Member	CONSUR	8,364
Congo	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Cook Islands	NA	Member	FORU	2,258
Costa Rica	NA	Regional	CONSUR	NA
Croatia	1962	Member	FIRA-AER	1,084
Curacao	2010	Regional	NACRA	70
Cyprus	2006	Regional	FIRA-AER	160
Czech Republic	1926	Member	FIRA-AER	5,382
Denmark	1950	Member	FIRA-AER	2,606
DR Congo	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Ecuador	NA	Regional	CONSUR	NA
Egypt	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
El Salvador	NA	Regional	CONSUR	NA
England	1871	Member	FIRA-AER	1,990,988
Estonia	2007	Regional	FIRA-AER	96
Fiji	1913	Member	FORU	37,570
Finland	1968	Member	FIRA-AER	490
France	1906	Member	FIRA-AER	360,847
Gabon	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Georgia	1964	Member	FIRA-AER	6,707
Germany	1900	Member	FIRA-AER	12,922
Ghana	NA	Associate	CAR	NA
Greece	2004	Member	FIRA-AER	1,285
Guam	NA	Member	ARFU	1,027
Guatemala	NA	Regional	CONSUR	NA
Guyana	NA	Member	NACRA	1,032
Hong Kong	1952	Member	ARFU	18,557
Hungary	1990	Member	FIRA-AER	2,147
Iceland	2010	Regional	FIRA-AER	25
India	1968	Member	ARFU	24,010
Indonesia	2004	Member	ARFU	NA
Iran	NA	Associate	ARFU	NA
Ireland	1879	Member	FIRA-AER	153,823
Israel	1971	Member	FIRA-AER	510
Italy	1928	Member	FIRA-AER	89,835
Ivory Coast	NA	Member	CAR	NA
Jamaica	1958	Member	NACRA	2,242
Japan	NA	Member	ARFU	122,368
Jordan	NA	Regional	ARFU	NA

Kazakhstan	1998	Member	ARFU	NA
Kenya	1923	Member	CAR	43,291
Korea	NA	Member	ARFU	2,803
Kyrgyzstan	NA	Associate	ARFU	NA
Lao	2001	Associate	ARFU	NA
Latvia	1991	Member	FIRA-AER	1,560
Lebanon	2006	Regional	ARFU	NA
Libya	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Liechtenstein	2010	Regional	FIRA-AER	27
Lithuania	1961	Member	FIRA-AER	1,852
Luxembourg	1973	Member	FIRA-AER	800
Macau	NA	Regional	ARFU	NA
Madagascar	NA	Member	CAR	25,665
Malaysia	NA	Member	ARFU	75,400
Mali	NA	Associate	CAR	NA
Malta	1991	Member	FIRA-AER	542
Mauritania	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Mauritius	2001	Member	CAR	477
Mexico	2003	Member	NACRA	4,379
Moldova	1967	Member	FIRA-AER	3,060
Monaco	1996	Member	FIRA-AER	120
Mongolia	2003	Associate	ARFU	NA
Morocco	NA	Member	CAR	8,800
Namibia	NA	Member	CAR	14,226
Netherlands	1932	Member	FIRA-AER	8,001
New Caledonia	NA	Regional	FORU	NA
New Zealand	1892	Member	FORU	146,893
Niger	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Nigeria	NA	Member	CAR	NA
Niue	NA	Member	FORU	440
Norway	1964	Member	FIRA-AER	2,686
Pakistan	2000	Member	ARFU	3,149
Papua New Guinea	1962	Member	FORU	NA
Paraguay	NA	Member	CONSUR	3,602
Peru	1997	Member	CONSUR	1,412
Philippines	1999	Member	ARFU	1,430
Poland	1957	Member	FIRA-AER	5,199
Portugal	1927	Member	FIRA-AER	6,497
Qatar	NA	Regional	ARFU	NA
Romania	1931	Member	FIRA-AER	8,655
Russia	1967	Member	FIRA-AER	21,670
Rwanda	2009	Associate	CAR	NA
Samoa	1924	Member	FORU	22,617
San Marino	2005	Regional	FIRA-AER	130
Scotland	1871	Member	FIRA-AER	216,657
Senegal	NA	Member	CAR	3,990
Serbia	1954	Member	FIRA-AER	1,674
Seychelles	NA	Regional	CAR	NA
Singapore	NA	Member	ARFU	12,822
Slovakia	2004	Regional	FIRA-AER	3,962
Slovenia	1988	Member	FIRA-AER	145
Solomon Islands	NA	Member	FORU	6,104
South Africa	1889	Member	CAR	651,146
Spain	1923	Member	FIRA-AER	21,386
Sri Lanka	NA	Member	ARFU	NA
St. Lucia	NA	Associate	NACRA	169
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	NA	Member	NACRA	192
Swaziland	NA	Member	CAR	22,491
Sweden	1958	Member	FIRA-AER	4,060
Switzerland	1972	Member	FIRA-AER	2,333
Tahiti	NA	Member	FORU	2,293
Tanzania	NA	Associate	CAR	NA
Thailand	1937	Member	ARFU	22,140
Togo	2001	Associate	CAR	NA
Tonga	NA	Member	FORU	6,560
Trinidad & Tobago	1928	Member	NACRA	5,539
Tunisia	NA	Member	CAR	19,458
Turkey	2011	Regional	FIRA-AER	NA
Turks & Caicos	2001	Regional	NACRA	125
Tuvalu	NA	Regional	FORU	NA
Uganda	NA	Member	CAR	19,105
Ukraine	1991	Member	FIRA-AER	2,800
United Arab Emirates	2011	Member	ARFU	NA
United States	1975	Member	NACRA	457,983
Uruguay	1951	Member	CONSUR	7,463

Uzbekistan	NA	Associate	ARFU	NA
Vanuatu	NA	Member	FORU	NA
Venezuela	NA	Member	CONSUR	2,320
Wales	1881	Member	FIRA-AER	79,800
Wallis & Futuna	NA	Regional	FORU	NA
Zambia	NA	Member	CAR	11,940
Zimbabwe	NA	Member	CAR	26,016

APPENDIX 2: STUDY INFORMATION LETTER



Griffith Business School
Department of Tourism, Leisure, Hotel and Sport Management
PO Box 30
Gold Coast, QLD 4222, Australia

“Strategic change in response to an environmental jolt: Rugby union national governing bodies and the Olympic inclusion of Rugby Sevens.”

This research project conducted by Griffith University investigates changes occurring in rugby union national governing bodies (RNGBs) following the inclusion of Sevens in the Olympic Games.

Aim of the Research Project

The research project will examine the changes in organisational structures and processes linked to development of men’s and women’s Sevens. The aim is to identify possible similarities and variations in strategic change, as RNGBs have both common and unique circumstances surrounding decision-making.

What will you be asked to do?

Two stages of data collection will be undertaken. The first will be a voluntary, self-administered online questionnaire for all levels of the RNGB, from the board to volunteers. This questionnaire will take about 20 minutes to complete and cover aspects of changes in values, structure, and processes in relation to Sevens development. We will require the questionnaire to be emailed to the RNGB, and can be delivered directly from the research team or from a manager within your RNGB. All responses will be coded to ensure confidentiality and contact details, if provided, will be destroyed once the data collection process is completed.

The second stage will involve a 20-60 minute interview with key personnel within the RNGB and outside stakeholders. The interview will follow-up on the responses to the online questionnaire to clarify responses, seek deeper meaning, and add additional context. A member of the research team will travel to the RNGB during a convenient time for all parties. For those unavailable during the travel period, Skype or telephone interviews can be arranged.

What benefits will your organisation receive?

Each organisation will receive a summary report of how its strategic decisions compares with the results from the total sample of RNGBs. This will include information on structures, processes and other issues that relate to incorporation of Sevens strategies.

Confidentiality

All data collected will be confidential and no individual or organisation will be identified in any published material. No other organisation will receive data other than summary information for the entire sample of RNGBs.

Do you have any questions?

If you require any clarification of these details please do not hesitate to contact Ben Corbett on +61415493232 or on email b.corbett@griffith.edu.au.

We appreciate your time commitment for this project which we are sure will be a worthwhile exercise for the sport industry and your organisation.

Yours sincerely,

Professor James Skinner
Head of Department
Griffith University

Ben Corbett
PhD Student
Griffith University

APPENDIX 3: ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE INFORMED CONSENT



English ▼

Thank you for taking 15-20 minutes to complete this survey.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All data collected will be confidential and no individual or organisation will be identified in any published material. No other organisation will receive data other than summary information for the entire sample of rugby national governing bodies.

AIM OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

The research project will examine the changes in organisational structures and processes linked to development of men's and women's Sevens.

INFORMED CONSENT

Your participation in this research is voluntary, and by proceeding to the questionnaire you are indicating your consent to participate. If you are willing to participate, please proceed to questionnaire on the next page.

INFORMATION SHEET

“Strategic change in response to an environmental jolt: Rugby union national governing bodies and the Olympic inclusion of Rugby Sevens.”

Project Leader: Ben Corbett

Griffith Business School

Griffith University

Gold Coast, Australia

Phone: 61 (4) 1549 3232

b.corbett@griffith.edu.au

The purpose of the research is to explore strategy change in rugby national governing bodies in response to rugby sevens inclusion in the Olympic Games. Strategy change can result in a shift in organisational values, structures, and processes, and this survey seeks to identify those changes within rugby national governing bodies. National governing bodies can utilise this research to assist in making informed strategic decisions. Griffith University conducts research in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans. Further information on the study, or any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project can be made directly to the Project Leader, or to the Manager, Research Ethics on 61 (7) 3875 5585 or research-ethics@griffith.edu.au.

The reporting outcomes from this project will be in the form of future conference proceedings and academic journal articles. All participants will have timely access to an aggregated report prior to the publication of any articles. Should you wish to receive a summary of the results from this research, please contact the Project Leader.

APPENDIX 4: ONLINE QUESTIONNAIRE QUESTIONS

Q2.1 These questions will help to establish the context for each NGB. Please remember that only aggregate results will be published, and no identifying information will be released.

Q2.2 Please select your Rugby National Governing Body (NGB)

Please Select (1)

Q2.3 What is your current role in the NGB?

- Please Select (1)
- Board (2)
- CEO Level / Executive Committee (3)
- VP Level / Committee (4)
- First Level Professional Staff (5)
- Other Professional Staff (6)
- Coach (7)
- Volunteer (8)
- Outside the NGB (9)
- Player (10)

Q2.4 What is the total number of professional staff employed by your NGB?

Q2.5 What is the total number of volunteers working for your NGB? Please do not include volunteers who only work events.

Q2.6 How many FEMALE professional staff were/are employed by your NGB?

In 2009 (1) Current (2)

- Board (1)
- CEO / Executive Committee (2)
- VP Level / Committee (3)
- First Level Professional Staff (4)
- Other Professional Staff (5)
- Coach (6)

Q2.7 How many members (rugby players) were/are in your NGB?

- Registered Men (1) Unregistered Men (2) Registered Women (3) Unregistered Women (4)
- In 2009 (1)
- Current (2)

Q2.8 As accurately as possible, please estimate your NGB's income in USD.

- Government income (1) Membership Income (2) Other income (3)
- In the fiscal year previous to October 2009 (1)
- Latest fiscal year (2)

Q3.1 Does your NGB have formalised or written criteria for selection and recruitment of 7s athletes at any level (age grade, developmental, national team, etc.)?

- A little (1) Some (2) Considerable (3) More than considerable (4)
- Before 2009 (1)
- Current (2)
- In development (3)

Q3.2 Does your NGB have formalised or written criteria for selection and recruitment of 7s coaches at any level (age grade, developmental, national team, etc.)?

- A little (1) Some (2) Considerable (3) More than considerable (4)
- Before 2009 (1)
- Current (2)

In development (3)

Q3.3 Does your NGB have a formal process for developing 7s coaches at any level (age grade, developmental, national team, etc.)?

A little (1) Some (2) Considerable (3) More than considerable (4)

Before 2009 (1)

Since 2009 (2)

In development (3)

Q3.4 Does your NGB have a formal process and/or criteria for evaluating 7s coaches at any level (age grade, developmental, national team, etc.)?

A little (1) Some (2) Considerable (3) More than considerable (4)

Before 2009 (1)

Since 2009 (2)

In development (3)

Q4.1 Please enter the typical number of coaches and training staff who work with the 7s national team. This can include people who also work with 15s, full/part-time, & paid/volunteer.

Men's Team (1) Women's Team (2)

In 2009 (1)

Current (2)

Q4.2 Please enter the maximum number of NGB contracted 7s players for a given time.

Men Full-time (1) Women Full-time (2) Men Part-time (3) Women Part-time (4)

In 2009 (1)

Current (2)

Q4.3 Is the men's 7s national team head coach a full-time or part-time position?

In 2009 (1) Current (2)

Full-time paid (1)

Part-time, paid (2)

Full-time, volunteer (3)

Part-time, volunteer (4)

No national team head coach (5)

Q4.4 Is the women's 7s national team head coach a full-time or part-time position?

In 2009 (1) Current (2)

Full-time paid (1)

Part-time, paid (2)

Full-time, volunteer (3)

Part-time, volunteer (4)

No national team head coach (5)

Q4.5 Does your 7s national team have a residency program, where the athletes live and practice near each other for most of the year?

Prior to 2009 (1)

Current (2)

In development (3)

Q5.1 Thinking back to BEFORE the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement, how important was WOMEN'S 7s to your overall NGB strategy and goals on each of these items? Please rate on a scale of 1 (not important) to 7 (very important).

Development pathway for 15s (1)

International wins-losses (2)

7s World Cup Championship (3)

Entry point for new rugby players (4)
 Domestic 7s competition or national championships (5)
 Hosting an international 7s event (6)
 National Olympic Committee recognition (7)
 Avenue to attract sponsorship (8)

Q5.2 Currently, how important is WOMEN'S 7s to your overall NGB strategy and goals on each of these items? Please rate on a scale of 1 (not important) to 7 (very important).

Development pathway for 15s (1)
 International wins-losses (2)
 7s World Cup Championship (3)
 Entry point for new rugby players (4)
 Domestic 7s competition or national championships (5)
 Hosting an international 7s event (6)
 National Olympic Committee recognition (7)
 Avenue to attract sponsorship (8)
 Qualifying for the Olympics (9)
 Winning an Olympic medal (10)

Q5.3 Thinking back to BEFORE the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement, how important was MEN'S 7s to your overall NGB strategy and goals on each of these items? Please rate on a scale of 1 (not important) to 7 (very important).

Development pathway for 15s (1)
 International wins-losses (2)
 7s World Cup Championship (3)
 Entry point for new rugby players (4)
 Domestic 7s competition or national championships (5)
 Hosting an international 7s event (6)
 National Olympic Committee recognition (7)
 Avenue to attract sponsorship (8)

Q5.4 Currently, how important is MEN'S 7s to your overall NGB strategy and goals on each of these items? Please rate on a scale of 1 (not important) to 7 (very important).

Development pathway for 15s (1)
 International wins-losses (2)
 7s World Cup Championship (3)
 Entry point for new rugby players (4)
 Domestic 7s competition or national championships (5)
 Hosting an international 7s event (6)
 National Olympic Committee recognition (7)
 Avenue to attract sponsorship (8)
 Qualifying for the Olympics (9)
 Winning an Olympic medal (10)

Q6.1 How would you rate your NGB's level of providing information on 7s strategy, events, coaching development, and athlete selection/development to other organisations?

Low (1) Medium (2) High (3)

Men in 2009 (1)
 Men Currently (2)
 Women in 2009 (3)
 Women Currently (4)

Q6.2 How would you rate your NGB's reliance on outside consultants and information sharing in regards to 7s strategy, events, coaching development, and athlete selection/development?

Low (1) Medium (2) High (3)

Men in 2009 (1)
 Men Currently (2)
 Women in 2009 (3)
 Women Currently (4)

Q6.3 Thinking back to BEFORE the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement, please compare 7s' and 15s' level of importance/resources allocated from the NGB. A selection to the left is a sole focus on 7s, and to the right is a sole focus on 15s. The middle selection is an equal importance/resources allocated.

Winning Intl. Men's Competition: 7s:15s (1)
 Winning Intl. Women's Competition: 7s:15s (2)
 Funding youth programs: 7s:15s (3)
 Identifying coaches and athletes: 7s:15s (4)
 Attracting sponsorship: 7s:15s (5)
 Attracting media attention: 7s:15s (6)
 National Olympic committee support: 7s:15s (7)
 Domestic Men's competitions: 7s:15s (8)
 Domestic Women's competitions: 7s:15s (9)

Q6.4 Currently, please compare 7s' and 15s' level of importance/resources allocated from the NGB. A selection to the left is a sole focus on 7s, and to the right is a sole focus on 15s. The middle selection is an equal importance/resources allocated.

Winning Intl. Men's Competition: 7s:15s (1)
 Winning Intl. Women's Competition: 7s:15s (2)
 Funding youth programs: 7s:15s (3)
 Identifying coaches and athletes: 7s:15s (4)
 Attracting sponsorship: 7s:15s (5)
 Attracting media attention: 7s:15s (6)
 National Olympic committee support: 7s:15s (7)
 Domestic Men's competitions: 7s:15s (8)
 Domestic Women's competitions: 7s:15s (9)

Q7.1 Does your NGB or other organisation have a national 7s club level competition (either championship or series)? Please do not include regional series or one-off tournaments.

Professional Men's (i.e. prize money or pro clubs) (1) Professional Women's (2)
 Amateur Men's (3) Amateur Women's (4)
 Started prior to 2009 (1)
 Started after 2009 (2)
 In development (3)

Q7.2 How would you rate your NGB's level of rugby programs in grade schools?

Rugby in general 7s Specific
 Men in 2009 (1)
 Men Currently (2)
 Women in 2009 (3)
 Women Currently (4)

Q7.3 How would you rate your NGB's level of rugby programs in adult clubs?

Rugby in general 7s Specific
 Men in 2009 (1)
 Men Currently (2)
 Women in 2009 (3)
 Women Currently (4)

Q7.4 How would you rate your NGB's ability to attract media coverage?

Rugby in general 7s Specific

Men in 2009 (1)
 Men Currently (2)
 Women in 2009 (3)
 Women Currently (4)

Q7.5 How would you rate your NGB's ability to secure sponsorship?

Rugby in general 7s Specific

Men in 2009 (1)
 Men Currently (2)
 Women in 2009 (3)
 Women Currently (4)

Q8.1 Thinking back to BEFORE the 2009 Olympic inclusion announcement, what level(s) in the NGB made the decisions for the following items in regards to 7s? Please select all that apply.

Not applicable (1) Outside the NGB (2) Board (3) CEO level/
 Executive committee (4) VP level/ Committees (5) First level professional
 staff (6) Other professional staff (7) Other volunteer staff (8) Coach (9)
 Selection of national team athletes (1)
 Selection of coaches (2)
 Selection of national team training program (3)
 Coaching development (4)
 National competitions (5)
 International competitions (6)
 Grassroots development (7)

Q8.2 Currently, what level(s) in the NGB makes the decisions for the following items in regards to 7s? Please select all that apply.

Not applicable (1) Outside the NGB (2) Board (3) CEO level/
 Executive committee (4) VP level/ Committees (5) First level professional
 staff (6) Other professional staff (7) Other volunteer staff (8) Coach (9)
 Selection of national team athletes (1)
 Selection of coaches (2)
 Selection of national team training program (3)
 Coaching development (4)
 National competitions (5)
 International competitions (6)
 Grassroots development (7)

Q9.1 OPTIONAL: Please provide your thoughts on the development of 7s and rugby since Olympic inclusion. I.E. How will it affect rugby in general? What new opportunities and/or threats have come about? Are there new initiatives in your NGB that you can share? Feel free to discuss anything as your comments will not be identifiable.

Q9.2 Would you and/or others in your NGB be willing to be interviewed to gain deeper insights for the study? This could be 20-60 minutes, preferably in-person at your convenience with the researcher traveling to you. Phone or video chat could also be arranged. If yes, then please fill out this contact information. Remember, your answers will remain anonymous.

Name (1)
 Email (2)
 Phone (3)

APPENDIX 5: ONLINE SURVEY INVITE EMAIL



Griffith University is researching the Olympic inclusion effect on rugby; specifically, the general structural and process changes occurring in national governing bodies in regards to 7s, and the development of women's rugby.

If you wish to participate, the online survey consists of 32 questions and has taken past respondents 14-22 minutes to complete. All questions are optional and you may skip questions you are uncertain about. Please fill in as much as you can.

Kindly forward this survey to others in your rugby union with knowledge of changes occurring due to Olympic inclusion. This may be anyone at any level (board members, coaches, high performance managers, etc.). Increasing respondents from each rugby union will validate the overall results.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Only aggregate results will be published; no identifying information for each respondent will be released.

Follow this link to the Survey:

[Take the Survey](#)

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:

https://griffithsbr.us.qualtrics.com/WRQualtricsSurveyEngine/?Q_SS=9pHOKm2ato5UGr3_ahpSm95f5ctS9ik&=1

The language may be changed using the drop down menu on the upper right corner of the welcome page.

Sincerely,
Ben Corbett
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Follow the link to opt out of future emails:

[Click here to unsubscribe](#)

APPENDIX 6: INITIAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What new partnerships or changes to existing relationships has the Olympic decision created?
 - a. What is the relationship with the OC like?
 - i. What incentives and/or benefits has the OC provided rugby?
 - ii. has the OC requested in exchange for these benefits? (Gets to coercive isomorphic processes).
 - iii. What other new resource acquisition opportunities has OG inclusion presented, and what do these actors expect in return? (Again, speaks to coercive isomorphism).
 - b. What other opportunities have opened since Olympic inclusion (e.g. school curriculums, media, sponsorship, etc.)
 - i. Have each of these increased or decreased resources?
2. Can or has Sevens become a profit centre in the NGB? In what ways?
 - a. How is this different to pre-OG inclusion?
3. How have policies/regulations changed, for example the allowing rugby in public schools, gender equality, selection of national team?
 - a. Please elaborate on the effect these policy and regulation changes have had on the NGB.
4. What other people in your field do you look to for direction/inspiration? (e.g. in times of uncertainty, where do you look to for guidance – perceived leaders in the field, other pro sports, corporate sector, somewhere else? This question gets to mimetic isomorphism).
5. In general terms, how has the strategy of Sevens changed within the organisation?
 - a. Has there been a written Sevens-specific strategic plan since 2009, or is there one in development? Was there one prior?
 - i. Does the new strategy complement the existing strategy, or call for significant changes (new departments, processes, people, etc)?
 - ii. What are the key tenets of that plan?
 - iii. Have you noticed any resistance to the implementation of the Sevens strategy within the NGB? Outside the NGB?
6. What is the effect of these changes on the overall strategy of the NGB?
 - a. To what extent does the new plan shift resources away from other areas, such as Fifteens development? Or, does the new plan require mostly new resources?
7. Have there been many new hires since the Olympic inclusion announcement?
 - a. Are many of these new hires specialists in their fields, and coming in from outside of the “rugby sphere” (e.g. marketing, relationship management, sponsorship, exercise physiologists, etc.)? This question gets to normative processes.
8. Who is responsible for guiding changes?
 - a. How involved is the board and CEO in formulating and implementing the new strategy? Or is it left to lower-levels in the NGB?
 - i. Overall, how has Olympic inclusion changed decision-making processes in the NGB?
 - ii. More/less inclusive (centralisation/decentralisation)?
 - iii. Who is involved now that would not have been pre-Olympic inclusion? (e.g. women?)
 - iv. How has the subject matter of decisions changed? (e.g. is it now more oriented towards resource acquisition/allocation perhaps?).

- v. Are there more “specialists” or “outsiders” involved now than in past (speaks to normative isomorphism)?
9. What new roles and tasks have been created to initiate Sevens development?
 - a. How many staff has been hired specifically for Sevens?
 - b. What are some of the types of positions and duties that have been created?
10. What are the new standards for achievement for the Sevens program?
 - a. Has there been a noticeable shift in importance to winning international Sevens competitions, driving mass participation, creating pathways for Fifteens, or any other shift in success criteria?
 - b. Have there been KPIs established for the Sevens program, and can you share those with me?
 - c. How important is it to qualify for the Olympics? To medal?
11. Is there/will there be a specific high performance unit for Sevens?
 - a. If so, how will this differ from the Fifteens HP?
 - b. If not, how will this integrate with the Fifteens HP?
 - c. Does/will the Sevens team have a residency program, or is it a camp system? Why is it this way?
 - d. Is it the same for men and women?
12. Please elaborate on the current and potential contract status of Sevens players?
 - a. How many men and women are paid, full-time vs part-time?
 - b. Compensation amounts?
 - c. Gender differences?
13. Do you foresee Sevens becoming specialised in your country, with players main focus on Sevens?
 - a. Gender differences?
 - b. Athlete choice or NGB decision to specialise?
14. Is there a professional or semi-pro Sevens competition in development in your country or region?
 - a. What effect would that have on player development?
 - b. What effect could that have on the Fifteens competitions?
15. How important is it to host international Sevens competitions?
 - a. Why?
 - b. Gender differences?

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