

**Analysing External and Internal Environmental Influences on the Performance  
Management of National Sport Organisations in Botswana**

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*The performance of National Sport Organisations is often difficult to identify, measure and manage due to their non-profit characteristics (Winand, Zintz, Bayle & Robinson, 2010).*

## **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this PhD thesis was to investigate whether National Sport Organisations (NSOs) in Botswana were implementing performance management (PM) practices and if they did, how and why they did so. Three published articles are presented in this thesis to present empirical evidence and structure a position regarding the influence of external and internal environments on the implementation of PM practices among NSOs.

The study used qualitative methods in which thirty-one semi-structured interviews and five focus groups were conducted among 14 NSOs in Botswana and 10 of their stakeholder categories. In addition, NSO documents and websites were reviewed and analysed to corroborate the data collected from interviews and focus groups.

The results indicate that Botswana NSOs implemented PM practices that include goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback, and feedforward. PESTEL factors and stakeholders externally influenced the implementation of PM among NSOs. On the other hand, resources available, structural design characteristics and the roles played by board members and operational staff, internally influenced the implementation of PM. In addition, the external and internal environments of Botswana NSOs were linked in that changes in the external environment prompted internal responses by individuals within these organisations. They performed creation and maintenance work that led to the adoption and implementation of PM practices.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge around PM and can benefit sport managers, policy makers and stakeholders. Moreover, this study proposes avenues for further research on the PM of NSOs.

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## List of outputs

### Journal articles

Kasale, L. L. Winand, M. & Robinson, L. (2018). Performance Management of National Sport Organisations: A holistic theoretical model, *Sport Business Management: An International Journal*, 8(5), 469-491.

Kasale, L. L. Winand, M. & Morrow, S. (2019). A stakeholder approach to performance management in National Sport Organisations in Botswana, *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 24(4), 226-243.

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### Published conference proceedings

Kasale, L. L. (2018). Origins of institutional practice and institutional work perspectives on performance management among National Sport Organisations. In Carlsson, B., Breitbarth, T. Bjärsholm, D. *The 26<sup>th</sup> European Sport Management Conference, September 5 – 8, Malmö, Sweden, Managing Sport in a Changing Europe, Book of Abstracts*. Malmö University of Botswana (e-print), pp. 85-86.

### Conferences attended

Kasale, L. L. (2018). Origins of institutional practice and institutional work perspectives on performance management among National Sport Organisations. *Oral presentation at the 26<sup>th</sup> European Association for Sport Management (EASM) Conference, held in Malmö. Sweden.*

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Kasale, L. L. Winand, M. & Robinson, L. (2016). Performance Management of National Sport Organisations: A holistic theoretical model. *Oral presentation at the 24 European Association for Sport Management (EASM) Conference, held in Warsaw. Poland.*

#### Public engagement

Kasale, L. L. (2018). A holistic approach to performance management of National Sport Organisations. Public talk at the Department of Physical Education, Health and Recreation, University of Botswana.

Kasale, L. L. (2018). A holistic approach to performance management of National Sport Organisations. *Public talk to board members and operational staff members of National Sport Organisations in Botswana. Gaborone. University of Botswana.*

## **Abbreviations**

ANOCA - Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa

BNOC – Botswana National Olympic Committee

BNSC – Botswana National Sport Commission

COSAFA - Council of Southern Africa Football Associations

Ministry – Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sport and Culture Development

(Botswana)

NSO(s) – National Sport Organisation/s

PESTEL – Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Environmental, Legal

PM – Performance Management

PMS – Performance Management Systems

NCAA – National Collegiate Athletic Association

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### ***Dedication***

*This PhD is dedicated to the beautiful memories of Botlhoko Beata Geraldine Kasale-Kabango. In the words of Don Moore, your passing was a deadline too early.*

*Go ntse go ntse jalo, ke leboga bontle jotle jo o bontiretseng ga o le mo botshelong.*

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction and rationale of the study**

Sport management research supports the notion that performance management (PM) practices are prevalent among National Sport Organisations (NSOs) (Bayle & Madella, 2002; Ćingienė, 2019; Dias & Rossi, 2017; Frisby, 1986; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; Hulme et al., 2019; Omondi-Ochieng, 2018; Solntsev & Osokin, 2018). NSOs implement PM practices to track how they use their resources through their organisational systems and processes (Chelladurai et al., 1987; Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Frisby, 1986), and to improve their efficiency and effectiveness to attain goals (Bayle & Madella, 2002; Madella, Bayle & Tome 2005; Omondi-Ochieng, 2018; Winand, Zintz, Bayle & Robinson, 2010). PM practices have also been used by NSOs to ensure that they meet the demands and expectations of their stakeholders (Papadimitriou, 1998; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Shilbury & Moore, 2006).

However, much of prior research focusses on operationalising performance measurement and how sport and social outcomes are more important measures of performance than financial gains among these voluntary organisations (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; Winand et al., 2010). There has been less research focus on how NSOs manage their organisational performance and how they implement PM practices. Thus, the influence of their external and internal environments and how they affect the implementation of PM practices among these organisations remains largely unknown.

NSOs are non-profit organisations that facilitate and administer recreational and elite sport programs in their countries (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). They have demonstrated that they can achieve a wide range of marketing, corporate and social

objectives through their activities and programmes. Therefore, they have become attractive to a wide range of partners who wish to market their products and services or to achieve their corporate social responsibility objectives (Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos & van Eekeren, 2015) or even those who want to derive social benefits associated with sport (Toohey & Beaton, 2017). Consequently, NSOs have developed a network of stakeholders that include international federations, continental federations, governments, sponsors, the media, communities, clubs, teams, individual members, coaches, technical assistants, and players (Babiak, 2007; Bayle, 2005; Bayle & Madella, 2002).

The partnerships they form with these stakeholders are of mutual benefit where NSOs receive the resources they need to facilitate their operations, and stakeholders achieve their objectives through NSO programmes and activities (Babiak, 2007; Bayle & Madella, 2002). The resources that NSOs receive from stakeholders can be financial such as grants and sponsorships, or physical such as access to sport facilities and playing venues, or even technical such as access to professional services (Vos et al., 2011; Wicker et al., 2013). However, receiving these resources from stakeholders requires NSOs to be transparent and accountable (Parent, Naraine & Hoye, 2018; Winand, Vos, Claessens, Thibaut & Scheerder, 2014).

The use of performance management systems (PMS) by NSOs is known to foster transparency and accountability (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; 2015). Therefore, NSOs are encouraged to implement these practices to improve their capacity to meet obligations to their stakeholders. Using these practices will also ensure stakeholder confidence and this can safeguard the sustainability of their mutually beneficial relationship (Babiak, 2007; Parent, et al., 2018; Vos et al., 2011; Wicker et



al., 2013). However, details of how these organisations develop and use PM practices are still unknown as they are yet to be explored in research.

Some research endeavours have explored how environmental factors affect performance measurement among NSOs and how the dynamics of the external environment affect organisational effectiveness (Hulme et al., 2019; Papadimitriou, 1998; Papadimitriou, 2002; Papadimitriou & Taylor 2002). However, these studies focus less on the interplay between external and internal environmental influences and how they affect the implementation of PM practices among NSOs. Furthermore, none of the prior studies explore the roles played by stakeholders, board members and operational staff in the implementation of PM practices.

It is important to note that some aspects of board performance are studied in sport governance research (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2013; McLeod, Shilbury & Ferkins, 2019; Parent, et al., 2018; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011). However, these studies only focus on the performance of board members and whether they have the capacity to perform governance practices. These studies do not explore how board members influence the implementation of PM practices among NSOs. In addition, no research has yet investigated the roles played by individuals within NSOs including board members, operational staff, and stakeholders towards the implementation of PM practices in NSOs. Not knowing on how NSOs develop and use PM practices, and how external and internal environmental influences affect their implementation of these practices indicates a clear research gap that needs exploration.

Sport management research on NSOs should aim to establish ways to improve the capacity of these organisations to achieve their goals, meet their obligations to their stakeholders and sustain their operations over a long term. Hence, investigating how NSOs implement PM practices and the impact of external and internal

environmental influences is required in sport management literature because it offers insights into how these organisations can improve their capacity to achieve their purpose. It is also important to note that there is currently no research conducted on the organisational performance and the PM of NSOs in Sub-Saharan Africa, or among NSOs of developing countries with small populations. Therefore, this research offers a unique perspective on how NSOs in these contexts operate and their capacity to respond to external and internal influences.

### **1.2 Aim and objectives of the study**

This study aimed to investigate whether NSOs in Botswana implemented PM practices and if they did, how and why they did so. The study further explored how external and internal environmental influences affected the implementation of PM practices among these organisations.

To pursue these aims, the objectives that guided the study were to: (1) explore how external environmental influences affect the implementation of PM practices among NSOs; (2) investigate whether stakeholders influence the implementation of PM practices among NSOs and how and why they do so; (3) explore how the internal environment of NSOs influence the implementation of PM practices; (4) establish the roles that stakeholders, board members and operational staff play and how they influence the implementation of PM.

In this PhD by publication, three published articles were used to present empirical evidence that structures arguments and draws conclusions on the aims and objectives of the study. Each of the three articles presented had its own unique aims and objectives that played a central role towards achieving the overall purpose of this study. One article is based on a literature review process while two of the

presented articles are based on empirical data. Board members and operational staff from 14 Botswana NSOs participated in 21 semi-structured interviews and three focus group meetings. Furthermore, 10 NSOs stakeholder categories were interviewed, and 14 participated in two focus group meetings. In addition, organisational documents including the Affiliates Empowerment Policy, strategic plans of five NSOs and the BNSC annual reports for 2017 and 2018 were reviewed and evaluated. Therefore, the range of rich and complex empirical data collected and analysed enabled the development of two distinct articles that provide insights into specific elements of PM.

Perspectives on different types of stakeholders, their influence based on the resources they provide, and how they use influence strategies to affect the implementation of PM among NSOs was established and presented in article 2. Furthermore, insights on roles played by stakeholders, board members and operational staff and how they performed creation and maintenance work that led to the adoption and implementation of PM practices, were gained and presented in article 3.

A PhD by publication approach was considered appropriate for this study as it developed the researcher's writing experience. As a new researcher, a PhD by publication approach was considered relevant to this study to ensure that each of the articles presented in this thesis benefited from the scrutiny of the peer review process. This greatly honed the researcher's writing skills and skilled them in the publication process. In the next section, the geographical context is presented to offer a background on Botswana and how its environment plays a role in decisions and actions taken to affect the implementation of PM among NSOs.

### **1.3 Geographical context**

Botswana is a land locked country in Southern Africa that shares its borders with Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. It is roughly the size of France measuring about 581,730 km<sup>2</sup>. However, a large part of Botswana is the Kalahari Desert and most of its 2.03 million inhabitants live along the eastern margin of the country where conditions are less harsh (Botswana Population & Housing Census, 2011). Formerly a British protectorate, Botswana gained independence in 1966 and has since experienced a stable political environment and a remarkable socio-economic and infrastructural transformation (Toriola, Adetori, Toriola & Igbokwe, 2000). Chappell (2007) observed that through fiscal discipline and sound management, Botswana has transformed itself from one of the poorest countries in the world at independence, to become a middle-income country. The country has an economic performance that enables its government to provide resources for social services including education, health, food, housing, and sport (Chappell, 2007). However, it is important to point out that Botswana fights a high prevalence rate of HIV/Aids that threatens its economic fortunes (Chappell, 2004; 2007).

In sport, the Botswana National Sports Council was established in 1965 to serve as a link between the government and the NSOs, and to disburse government grants to its affiliates (BNSC Handbook, 2010). At the time of its formation, the Botswana National Sports Council had two NSOs affiliated to it and by 2017, there were 37 (BNSC website, 2019). Botswana National Olympic Committee (BNOC) was established in 1978 to facilitate elite sports programmes (BNOC website, 2019).

National teams in Botswana have competed at international events such as the Commonwealth Games since 1974 and the Olympic Games since 1980. However, disappointing performance of the country's national teams led the government of

Botswana to institute a commission of inquiry in 1997 (Kasale, Burnett & Hollander, 2003). The recommendations of the commission were presented as the Government White Paper Number 4 of 2002 and were implemented through the National Policy on Sports and Recreation (Shehu & Mokgwathi, 2007).

Implementing the National Policy on Sport and Recreation led to infrastructural developments, legislative reforms and financing initiatives that were intended to improve the country's international sporting performance (Bohutsana & Akpata, 2013; Shehu & Mokgwathi, 2007). By 2007, the Ministry of Youth Empowerment Sports and Culture Development had been created and four integrated sports facilities (multi-sport venues) had been constructed in villages that include Maun, Masunga, Serowe and Molepolole (Bohutsana & Akpata, 2013). By 2015 two stadiums had been built in Francistown and Lobatse and the national stadium in Gaborone (built in 1965) had been renovated. Government spending on sport increased from approximately \$2,200 in the 1975/76 financial year to approximately \$1.9m in 1997/98 (Toriola et al., 2000). By 2018 the government grant to NSOs and the BNSC had increased to over \$7m (BNSC Annual Report, 2017). Furthermore, the Botswana National Sports Council Act of 1983 was repealed and replaced with the Botswana National Sports Commission (BNSC) Act of 2014.

Other developments in Botswana's sporting landscape included the adoption of strategic planning following the implementation of the National Sports Vision 2012 and the BNSC 2028 strategic plan. In addition, the BNSC developed and implemented the Affiliates' Empowerment Policy in 2010 to facilitate the disbursement of government grants and to empower NSOs to meet the demands of their strategic plans.

While there have been infrastructural developments, improvements in funding and changes to sport laws in Botswana, there has been no concomitant research that establishes whether NSOs use PM to meet their obligation of improving the performance of their national teams and athletes at international competitions. Furthermore, whether NSOs are held accountable for the grants they receive from Botswana government through performance-based approaches is not known.

Therefore, the geographical context of Botswana provides an opportunity to explore the aims and objectives of this study. It is also important to note that prior research on organisational performance of NSOs was conducted in countries that have a context that is noticeably different from Botswana. Prior research was conducted in Australia (Shilbury & Moore, 2006), Belgium (Winand et al., 2010; Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, & Zintz, 2013), Brazil (Dias & Rossi, 2017), Canada (Chelladuari & Haggerty, 1991), France (Bayle & Robinson, 2007), Greece (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000), Portugal, Spain, Italy (Madella, Bayle & Tome, 2005), Lithuania (Čingienė, 2019; Čingienė, Laskien & Vyštarait, 2014), New Zealand (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015) and Russia (Solntsev & Osokin, 2018). The economies of these countries and their large populations allow for bigger NSOs with numerous and more lucrative resource streams. Hence NSOs in these countries may implement PM differently from those in small developing countries such as Botswana. Therefore, this study offers a distinct perspective into the PM of NSOs in a sparsely populated developing African country; one that has a markedly different social, economic, and cultural context than that experienced by NSOs in more developed countries.

This research contributes to the sport management body of knowledge around PM as it provides insights into how NSOs develop and implement PM

practices and the roles that different stakeholders, board members and the operational staff play in the process. Furthermore, as this study was conducted in Botswana, a geographical context where PM of NSOs has never been studied before, it enriches our understanding of how NSOs operate. This study can also benefit sport managers by providing them with information on external and internal influences that affect the implementation of PM. Sport managers can use this information to find ways to mitigate against these influences, thereby improving how they implement PM. This can help them to leverage for more resources from their stakeholders as they can demonstrate their efficiency and effectiveness. On the other hand, understanding how they influence the implementation of PM practices among NSOs, stakeholders can use the findings of this study to improve the quality of the feedback they receive regarding the resources they provide to these organisations. This may enhance the transparency and accountability of NSOs towards their stakeholders.

#### **1.4 Definition of operational terms**

Although the concepts of organisational performance and PM have been described in detail in chapter 2, it is important to define these and other operational terms at this early stage to clarify how they have been used and how they are interpreted in this study. Additionally, governance and sport governance were defined because they are linked to PM. Governance is about monitoring and controlling an organisation's performance therefore, good governance in NSOs can be achieved through the implementation of PM systems.

Organisational performance is “the ability to acquire and process properly human, financial and physical resources to achieve the goals of an organisation” (Madella et

al., 2005: 209). This definition is used because it places emphasis on the acquisition of resources and how they are used through organisational processes and activities to achieve targeted outputs and goals. The description of organisational performance is appropriate in this study to enable our understanding of performance as a process made up of practices or phases.

PM is defined as a process that provides a proactive closed loop control system, where strategies are deployed to all business processes and feedback is obtained through a performance measurement system to enable appropriate management decisions (Bititci, Carrie, & McDevitt, 1997). This definition describes how strategies are implemented through organisational processes and activities and how these are evaluated to determine their efficiency and effectiveness. The definition emphasises that the information obtained from the evaluation enables prudent decision making. In addition, describing PM as a proactive closed loop control system means that the process is cyclic and dependent on feedback and feedforward to allow for improvements. Thus, because this definition describes plans, process, activities, evaluation, and improvements, it lists and describes the practices that form part of the PM process. For the purposes of this thesis, PM is thus considered from a process perspective consistent with Bititci et al. (1997).

In this thesis, PM practices are considered as formal mechanisms that organisations use to manage performance in line with their corporate and functional strategies (Bititci et al., 1997; Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Pavlov, Mura, Franco-Santos, & Bourne, 2017). These practices communicate direction and provide feedback on current performance to influence organisational behavior and to stimulate improvement action (Pavlov et al., 2017). PM practices are goals and objectives setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback, and



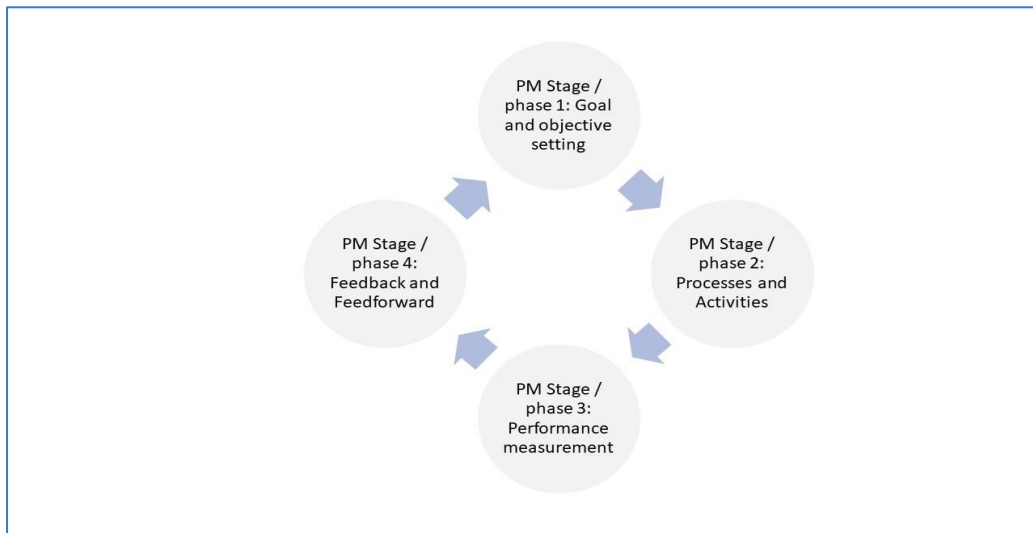
feedforward (Bititci, Cocca, & Ates, 2016; Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Pavlov et al., 2017).

Goal and objective setting entails formulating performance objectives, key performance indicators and targets from an organisation's vision, mission, and values (Ferreira & Otley, 2009). Organisational processes include effective leadership (Arnold et al., 2012; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011), communication (Ferreira & Otley, 2009) and fostering an organisational climate and culture that facilitates performance (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). And activities include mass participation and elite sport programs (Winand, et al., 2010).

Performance measurement entails establishing the efficiency and effectiveness of attaining organisational goals by comparing actual performance against performance targets (Bititci et al., 1997; Bititci, Cocca, & Ates, 2016). Feedback is the information obtained from performance measurement, used to inform the organisation on the extent to which performance goals and objectives were achieved, Furthermore, feedback also informs stakeholders on how their expectations were met. Feedforward is the information obtained from performance measurement, used for learning on ways to improve future performance cycles. Feedback and feedforward provide a learning curve that facilitates changes to the organisation's structural designs, and improvements to the vision and mission of the NSO. The learning curve also provides information on the amount and type of resources required for future performance cycles.

In this study, PM practices defined above have also been described as stages or phases of the PM process. This perspective helped to describes how organisations

implement PM. The various stages / phases of the PM process are illustrated in Figure 1.1. In addition, this figure also demonstrates the cyclic nature of the PM process.



**Figure 1.1: Stages/phases of the performance management process** (Own illustration developed from literature)

The stages of the PM process are PM stage/phase 1 – The first stage of the PM process that entails setting PM goals and objectives. PM stage/phase 2 - Organisational processes (leadership, communication and creating an environment that supports PM) and activities (mass participation/recreational and elite sport programmes). PM stage/phase 3 - Performance measurement and PM stage/phase 4 - Feedback and feedforward.

Defining PM, PM practices, and stages of the PM process helps to provide clarity on the relationship between PM and performance measurement. It is important to note the distinction between these two concepts because sometimes they are used interchangeably in literature to mean organisational performance. In

this study, these concepts are regarded as separate with performance measurement considered as a component of PM or a stage/phase of the PM process.

It is important to situate PM within the wider context of sport governance and management. In this research governance is considered as “the activities of social, political and administrative actors that can be seen as purposeful efforts to guide, steer, control or manage sectors of society” (Kooiman, 1993: 2). According to Hoye (2017) governance involves activities that ensure the proper running of organisations. On the other hand, sport governance has been defined as the responsibility for the functioning and overall direction of the organisation and is a necessary and institutionalised component of all sport codes from club level to national bodies, government agencies, sport service organisations and professional teams around the world (Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010: 235).

According to Parent, Narraine and Hoye (2018) governance is necessary because it facilitates transparency and accountability to all stakeholders within an organisation. Accountability can be described from political, hierarchical, bureaucratic, financial, performance and legal perspectives (Considine, & Afzal, 2011; Parent, Narraine & Hoye, 2018). Transparency is the “timely disclosure of information” (Parent Narraine & Hoye 2018: 556). Transparency and accountability help to build trust thereby, enhancing stakeholder confidence.

From governance perspective, sport organisations should adopt acceptable practices and demonstrate organisational and corporate best practice (Hoye, et al., 2019; Ferkins & Shilbury, 2010; Taks, et al., 2020). For the purposes of this thesis, PM is situated within the wider context of sport governance because NSOs can use

organisational performance to achieve transparency and accountability thereby, demonstrating good governance.

### **1.5 Structure of the thesis**

This thesis comprises of 9 chapters. Chapter 1 and 2 explain the concept of organisational performance, placing PM in the context of organisational studies and theory. These chapters describe the organisational environments and their influence on PM. Chapter 3 provides the theoretical framework that underpins this study. This chapter presents a discussion around how stakeholder, resource dependence, institutional, contingency theories and the institutional work perspective were used to complement each other in providing lenses through which to explore and investigate the PM of NSOs in Botswana.

In Chapter 4, article 1 entitled "*Performance Management of National Sport Organisations: A Holistic Theoretical Model*" published in the Sport Business Management: An International Journal is presented. This article provides a review of related literature that was conducted to identify key elements that play a role in the implementation of PM among NSOs, and to identify components of a PM model. Based on the literature review, a holistic theoretical model for the PM of NSOs that reflects the distinctiveness of these organisations, the interdependence of their operating systems and their relationship with their environments was proposed.

In chapter 5, the methodology and methods used in this study are presented and discussed. This chapter provides details of the ontological and epistemological positions of the researcher and how these influenced the choice of the methods adopted in this study. While the methods used in this study are explained in detail in

the articles presented for this PhD, this chapter is essential because it elaborates the overarching rationale for the choice of methods.

In chapter 6, article 2 entitled “*A Stakeholder Approach to Performance Management of Botswana National Sport Organisations*” published in *Managing Sport and Leisure* journal, is presented. In this article, empirical evidence that supports the position that stakeholders are an external environmental influence that affect the implementation of PM in NSOs is discussed. Details of how different stakeholders differently use influence strategies to affect the various stages of the PM process are discussed in this article.

In chapter 7, article 3 entitled “*An Institutional Work Perspective to Performance Management: A case of Botswana National Sport Organisations*” accepted for publication in the *Journal of Global Sport Management* is presented. This article provides empirical evidence to support the position that stakeholders, board members and operational staff influence the adoption and implementation of PM practices. In addition, this study analyses and presents a discussion on the roles that stakeholders, board members and operational staff play and how they create and maintain PM practices in their NSOs.

Chapter 8 presents a discussion structured around the aims and objectives of this study. In this chapter, external and internal environmental influences and how and why they affect the implementation of PM among NSOs is discussed. External influences are PESTEL factors and the influence of external stakeholders while internal influences are resources, structural design characteristics, processes and activities. Chapter 8 presents an argument that external and internal environmental influences affect how Botswana NSOs implement PM. In addition, this chapter demonstrates the intricate link and interplay between external and internal

environments, in that changes in one prompt responses in the other, affecting how these organisations implement PM practices.

Chapter 9 presents and discusses the conclusions drawn, theoretical contribution, practical implications, limitations of the study and avenues for further research. In addition, recommendations for the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development, the BNSC, and Botswana NSOs are presented to close this chapter.

## **Chapter 2: Organisational performance and National Sport Organisations**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the concepts of organisational performance and PM. Both concepts are ambiguous because they do not have commonly agreed definitions. In this chapter, how the different descriptions of these concepts can lead to different ways of perceiving them is discussed. Furthermore, how the external and internal environments are linked and how they affect the implementation of PM in NSOs is also discussed in this chapter.

### **2.2 Organisational performance**

The concept of organisational performance is at the core of management and organisational theory and has been considered as the ultimate variable in empirical studies (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006; Nowy, Wicker, Feiler & Breuer, 2015). However, researchers have noted the lack of conceptual consistency in defining organisational performance (Balduck, 2009; Nowy et al., 2015; Rojas 2000; Winand, et al., 2014). According to Baruch and Ramalho (2006), the lack of clarity in defining organisational performance has in some cases led to the use of organisational effectiveness and organisational performance interchangeably in literature to mean organisational outcomes. Similarly, in sport management literature, organisational effectiveness, organisational performance and performance measurement have been used by researchers to describe organisational outcomes (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Frisby, 1986; Hulme et al., 2019; Solntsev & Osokin, 2018; Winand et al., 2010).

Organisational outcomes could be defined in terms of goals and objectives, or the use of resources through organisational systems, or even the extent of stakeholder

satisfaction in sport organisations. However, Baruch and Ramalho (2006) noted that the constructs of organisational effectiveness and organisational performance can be distinguished when effectiveness is viewed more perceptively and performance more objectively. Nevertheless, these distinctions become blurred when dealing with NSOs because as much as they need to consider their organisational performance objectively, subjective considerations are also relevant for these organisations (Bayle & Madella, 2002).

According to Winand et al. (2014) there are three reasons that may explain the lack of precision in defining organisational performance: (1) previously it has been considered from different perspectives (stakeholder, goal or system resource perspectives), with each perspective leading to various conceptual approaches; (2) how organisations define success has different meanings for organisational performance because missions, goals and objectives are unique to different organisations; (3) the multiple constituents of organisations have different views of organisational performance which might be different from the organisation's view (Winand et al., 2014). Winand et al. (2014) further note that these reasons lead to diversity in research and different approaches to organisational performance.

Defining organisational performance can also be affected by the lack of a uniform perspective for defining an organisation. According to Scott and Davis (2015) different perspectives to defining an organisation include rational, natural and open system perspectives. From a rational system perspective, organisations have been described as “collectives, orientated to the pursuit of relatively specific goals and exhibiting highly formalised social structures” (Scott & Davis, 2015: 29). From this perspective an organisation is a mechanistic entity that exists purposively to attain goals (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006). Therefore, organisational performance can be



described from goal (Price, 1968; Scott, 1977), process (Pfeffer, 1977; Steers, 1977) and system resource perspectives (Yutchman & Seashore, 1967) because of their focus on how organisations use resources at their disposal and how they employ their internal systems to attain their goals and objectives.

From a natural systems perspective, organisations have been described as “collectives whose participants are pursuing multiple interests both disparate and common but who recognise the value of perpetuating the organisation as an important resource” (Scott & Davis, 2015; 30). From this perspective, the interests of stakeholders are important, and the organisation continually demonstrates its capacity to meet their needs and expectations. Defining an organisation from a natural system perspective may lead to multiple constituency (Connolly, Conlon & Deutsch, 1980) and competing values approaches (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) to organisational performance. These perspectives account for stakeholders and how they influence organisational performance.

The open systems perspective views organisations as “congeries of interdependent flows and activities linking shifting coalitions of participants embedded in wider material-resource and institutional environments” (Scott & Davis, 2015: 32). According to the open systems perspective, an organisation is regarded as a combination of parts whose relations make them interdependent on one another (Scott, 2003). Scott and Davies’ (2015) open systems perspective of defining an organisation recognises participants, resources and the dynamic environments in which the organisation exists. Therefore, this description may lead to multi-dimensional and system resources approaches to organisational performance (Yutchman & Seashore, 1967). As this perspective accounts for the environment in which the organisation exists and how participants are linked to resources and

organisational processes and activities, it is a suitable description of an organisation for this research.

While the different ways of defining an organisation can lead to differing perspectives of organisational performance, defining performance may also play a role in how the concept of organisational performance is perceived. Bayle and Madella (2002), Hulme et al. (2019), Nowy et al. (2015) and Winand et al. (2014) share a consensus in describing performance as a combination of efficiency and effectiveness. In this description, effectiveness refers to the relationship between the initial goals set by an organisation and the extent to which they have been achieved (Winand et al., 2014) or the capacity of an organisation to achieve goals (Madella et al., 2005; Nowy et al., 2015). Efficiency on the other hand establishes the relationship between the resources used (system inputs) and what was achieved (outputs produced) (Madella et al., 2005). Nowy et al. (2015) further observe that efficiency deals with financial implications of performance, while effectiveness considers non-financial implications.

According to Madella et al. (2005) the relationship between efficiency and effectiveness has a variable nature that impacts on the organisational performance of NSOs. They further proposed a definition of organisational performance as “the ability to acquire and process properly human, financial and physical resources to achieve the goals of an organisation” (Madella et al., 2005: p. 209). This perspective implies a multi-dimensional approach to organisational performance (Madella et al., 2005). Winand et al. (2014) pointed out that while this definition of organisational performance does not put enough emphasis on efficiency, it highlights what an organisation should do to achieve high performance. According to Winand et al. (2014), this includes (1) attracting necessary inputs; (2) using and transforming the

resources efficiently during the throughput to; (3) achieve relevant and targeted outputs. In addition to these key points the feedback loop is also requisite to inform and improve the organisational performance process (Pavlov et al., 2017).

While Madella et al.'s (2005) definition of organisational performance is comprehensive, it mostly relates to how organisations use resources at their disposal through their internal processes to achieve desired goals and objectives. This definition, however, does not illustrate the interplay between external and internal environments or how NSOs navigate these to effectively and efficiently achieve their organisational goals and objectives. This description of organisational performance has, however, been adopted for the purposes of this study as it describes the acquisition of resources and how they are used through organisational processes and activities to achieve targeted outputs and goals.

The different perspectives of defining organisational performance are visible in sport management research where researchers have used a variety of approaches to study performance measurement and organisational effectiveness among NSOs. For instance, organisational performance models and approaches that include the goal (Frisby, 1986) and system resources models (Chelladurai et al., 1987), the multiple constituency (Papadimitriou & Tailor, 2000; Wolfe et al., 2002), the multi-dimensional (Bayle & Madella, 2002; Madella et al., 2005; Winand et al., 2010) and the competing values approaches (Shilbury & Moore 2006) have been used in sport management literature to study organisational effectiveness and performance measurement among NSOs.

Studying the relationship between the structure of NSOs and how it influences effectiveness, Frisby (1986) used the goal and system resource models and reported that several structural variables adapted from Weber's theory of bureaucracy

positively correlated with effectiveness indicators. This study indicates that the structure of NSOs influence how it attains its goals and acquire finances (Frisby, 1986). However, the limitations of Frisby's (1986) approach were highlighted by Bayle and Madella (2002) who noted that the approach did not account for the variables of performance measurement. Additionally, Winand et al. (2014) observed that NSOs have intangible, inaccurate and sometimes vague goals that make the measurement of performance among these organisations challenging.

In another study, Chelladurai, Szyszlo and Haggerty (1987) used the goal, process and system resource models to study NSOs as open systems. They established that organisational effectiveness was a multidimensional construct that includes system-based dimensions such as inputs (human and monetary resources), throughputs (mass and elite sport) and outputs (mass and elite sport) (Chelladurai, et al., 1987). While the view that organisational performance is a multi-dimensional construct has received some consensus in sport management literature (Bayle & Madella, 2002; Hulme et al., 2019; Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Winand et al., 2010), Bayle and Madella (2002) noted that Chelladurai et al.'s (1987) approach was more focussed towards the quality of functioning of the NSOs rather than the results of their organisational effectiveness thereby making the measurement of organisational performance challenging. Additionally, Winand et al. (2014) reported that there was a need to pay more attention towards inter-organisational interaction and the atmosphere within the organisation as they directly impact on how an NSO performs.

In their study, Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) used a multiple constituency approach to establish the performance of NSOs based on the perceptions of constituent groups including board members, paid administrative staff, national

coaches, elite athletes, international officials and scientific consultants. The multiple constituency approach is premised on the notion that organisational performance can be determined by the level of satisfaction experienced by stakeholders and the multiple constituents of an organisation. Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000) noted the utility of the multiple constituency approach in examining the organisational performance of NSOs. Furthermore, O'Boyle and Hassan (2014) pointed out that this approach may uncover the disparities between the expectations of the stakeholders and the actual results attained by the NSOs. However, Slack (1997) observed that this measurement approach may not be comprehensive for NSOs because there may be differing, varied and conflicting perspectives of satisfaction among constituents, thus making it challenging to measure the organisational performance of these organisations.

Notwithstanding these different performance measurement approaches, researchers have observed that the organisational performance of NSOs is harder to operationalise because they are distinct type of organisations that may implement organisational performance differently from other organisations (Bayle & Madella, 2002; Madella et al., 2005; Winand et al., 2014). NSOs are distinct type of organisations because they are firstly, regulated through a sport system by international, continental and regional sport federations that they affiliate to (Bayle, 2005; Winand et al., 2010). Therefore, they are required to adhere to a framework of rules, regulations and policies as prescribed by these sports federations. While this ensures the universal standardisation of sport, it may have implication on how they implement organisational performance.

Secondly, NSOs pursue various goals that reflect the multiple demands and expectations of their stakeholders (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Shilbury & Moore,

2006). This may affect the performance goals that they set, particularly when stakeholder expectations are different and conflicting.

Thirdly, NSOs are governed by volunteer board members who have responsibility over paid operational staff (Papadimitriou, 2007; Winand et al., 2010). How board members and operational staff work together can influence how they implement organisational performance. According to Hoye and Cuskelly (2003), there is a need for board members and operational staff to facilitate an interdependent relationship that is subject to ongoing negotiation to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their organisational processes.

Lastly, NSOs report to clubs, teams and individuals who form their general membership (Baile, 2005). This places pressure on NSOs as they are required to demonstrate how they meet organisational expectations and those of their stakeholders. These characteristics of NSOs make them distinct from other organisations and may affect how they implement their organisational processes and consequently the implementation of organisational performance. It is further important to note that the distinct characteristics of NSOs may affect how they manage their organisational performance. The concept of PM is discussed in the next section.

### **2.3 Performance management**

Like organisational performance, the concept of PM is also difficult to define (Byers, Slack & Parent, 2012; McLean, 2016). This is mainly because it is underpinned by disciplines that include economics, finance and human resources (Byers, Slack & Parent, 2012). Furthermore, the concept of PM is interdependent with other management control systems that include strategy, structure, and culture

(MacLean, 2016). Consequently, PM can be regarded from a human resources perspective that considers the monitoring and evaluation of the performance of employees (Byers et al., 2012), but can also be regarded as a strategy and operations issue that considers the use of resources and the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes in attaining goals and objectives (Ferreira & Otley, 2009). For the purposes of this research, however, it is important to define PM in the context of organisations and how they manage activities and processes that ensure efficiency and effectiveness in the attainment of their goals and objectives.

Bititci et al. (1997) described PM as a process that provides a proactive closed loop control system where strategies are deployed to all business processes and feedback is obtained through a performance measurement system to enable appropriate management decisions. Here PM is viewed as a management control system that accounts for processes and activities that an organisation engages in to pursue its purpose. This description further details how PM is used to inform management decisions. This definition does not account for external environmental influences. However, the view of PM as proactive means that the process is dynamic, suggesting that it adapts to changes that occur in the operating environment. Furthermore, Bititci et al.'s (1997) description usefully includes strategy, processes, activities, performance measurement and the use of feedback as aspects of the internal environment of the organisation. To a large extent, this description provides a comprehensive view of PM that is suitable for this study.

## **2.4 Performance management and environmental influences**

External and internal environmental influences are known to impact on organisations and dictate how they implement their processes and activities (Jardioui, Garengo & El Alami, 2019; Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Melnyk, Bititci, Platts, Tobias & Andersen, 2013; Papadimitriou, 1998; Perck et al., 2016). The external environment is dynamic, and as it evolves it prompts organisations to respond by adapting their internal environments to deal with these changes (Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Melnyk et al., 2013). According to Miner (2015), the capacity of organisations to adapt their internal environments to external environmental forces determines their survival. Furthermore, Papadimitriou (1998) noted that the relationship between an organisation and the environment is crucial to the implementation of organisational performance among NSOs.

Ferreira and Otley (2009) and Melnyk et al. (2013) suggest that external environmental factors acting on organisations may influence how they manage their organisational performance. In their view, the external environment is dynamic. As it evolves, it necessitates changes to the internal environment of organisations, and this impacts on how organisational activities and processes are implemented. Based on this view, Ferreira and Otley (2009) point out the importance of how systems, frameworks and models used to implement PM should account for the influence of the external environment. Therefore, empirical research needs to consider how external and internal environmental influences affect the implementation of PM among NSOs. In the next sections, the external and internal environments of NSOs and how they impact on PM are discussed.



#### *2.4.1 The external environment and performance management*

The external environment has been known to influence both the structure and behaviour of NSOs (Papadimitriou, 1998; Perck et al., 2016). Researchers have argued that external environmental influences lead to the adoption of activities, practices and processes that impact on how NSOs function (Leopkey & Parent, 2012; Perck et al., 2016; Trendafilova et al., 2013). According to Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes result from the quality of collaboration that exists between its different facets. They argued that organisations are active systems that should improve their internal functions to cope with their complex external environments. Therefore, the external and internal environments influence each other, in that activities in one environment affect activities in the other (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Research has explored how the external environment affects the internal environment of organisations. For instance, Ferreira and Otley (2009) and Melnyk et al. (2013) noted that the external environment affects organisational processes, activities and the structure of organisations and may affect how they implement PM. Ferreira and Otley (2009) believe that whether an organisation reacts to the influence of the external environment in a proactive or reactive manner determines how it implements PM. These views were also shared by Bititci, Cocca and Ates, (2016),

In sport management literature, research indicates that sport organisations adopt and implement organisational practices that enable them to cope with external pressures (Dowling & Smith, 2016; Slack & Hinings, 1994; Nite et al., 2018; Papadimitriou, 1998; Perck et al., 2016;). There is research that explores how the institutional environment affects the internal environment of NSOs (Leopkey &

Parent, 2012; Nite et al., 2018; Perck et al., 2016; Trendafilova et al., 2013). For instance, Trendafilova, Babiak and Heinze (2013) reported that institutional pressures influenced sport organisations to operate in a socially responsible way. Similarly, Leopkey and Parent (2012) reported that the adoption of legacy in the Olympic movement was a result of pressures placed on bid and organising committees. In her study, Papadimitriou (1998) reported that an institutional environment that is characterised by state funds creates a resource dependency atmosphere that affects how NSOs behave. This leads to poor organisational performance because of poorly defined technical arrangements, lack of performance inducements and state intervention (Papadimitriou, 1998).

In another study, Perck et al. (2016) examined the impact of a quality assurance system (Quality Management System for Gymnastics Clubs, IKGym) on the homogenisation, professionalisation and organisational performance among Flemish gymnastic clubs. They reported that a top down implementation of the quality assurance system led to levels of progression towards professionalisation that depended on whether the clubs were volunteer led, and how they were structurally designed. They also found that the gymnastics clubs displayed homogenisation properties in that they started to resemble each other during the implementation of the quality assurance system in areas that included organisational management and strategic planning (Perck et al., 2016). However, it is important to highlight that Perck et al.'s (2016) study did not find any direct impact of the quality assurance system on the homogenisation of the clubs and organisational performance.

In a more recent study, Nite et al. (2018) reported that the NCAA maintained its dominance in the field of collegiate and amateur sports because of its ability to evolve its methods, abilities and cognitions in response to institutional pressures that

acted on it. These studies indicate how the external environment can prompt changes to the internal environment of an NSO. However, whether the changes made facilitate the implementation of PM practices among NSOs remains unclear in literature. The internal environment of NSOs and how it changes to adapt to external influences is presented in the next section.

#### *2.4.2 The internal environment of NSOs and PM*

The internal environment of an NSO comprises of its structural design characteristics and their effects on its functioning. Pugh et al. (1968) investigated how the introduction of professionals affected the structural design characteristics of organisations. They noted that as organisations grew, they developed patterns of structural design that included specialisation, standardisation and centralisation. There is a body of research that supports the view that these structural arrangements can impact NSOs and how they implement their organisational processes (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Frisby, 1985; Papadimitriou, 2002; Parent et al. 2018; Perck, et al., 2016). For example, Frisby (1986) found that voluntary NSOs that are characterised by features of bureaucracy are likely to be goal and system efficient. Frisby (1986) reported that structural variables that include job description formalisation, personnel decentralisation, new programme decentralisation, salaried programme staff specialisation, committee specialisation, clerical ratio, paid staff professionalisation and paid staff turnover rate were strongly associated with goal attainment and resource acquisition.

In another study, Papadimitriou (2002) analysed contextual variables that include organisational size, age and resource dependence and structural variables that include organisation, specialisation, and centralisation. Papadimitriou (2002)

reported that local clubs were mostly loosely structured, less bureaucratic with external resource dependencies and moderate performance.

In their study, Bayle and Robinson (2007) analysed the relationship between strategy, organisational structure and performance among French NSOs and further proposed a performance management framework based on elements of the strategic performance mix and the operational performance mix. They believe that their framework explains the PM of NSOs. Bayle and Robinson (2007) reported that the organisational structure of NSOs was functional with lesser or greater differentiation across areas that include administration, sport and communication.

While these studies have investigated a myriad of structural variables, there is a trend among these studies that suggests that the structure of the NSO influences how it performs. It is important to note that in their study, Parent et al. (2018) reported the influence of the structural designs on boards governed NSOs. They believed that this implicated how NSOs performed. However, there have been no studies that investigate how the structural characteristics of the NSOs affect their implementation of PM and how individuals within these organisations use the structural arrangements of NSOs to implement PM. In the next section, individuals within the NSO and how they influence PM is presented.

#### *2.4.3 Individuals within NSOs and PM*

Individuals within the NSO include the board and the operational staff. The board comprises of the people who are responsible for governing the NSO and are mostly volunteers elected to office by NSOs members (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003). The operational staff on the other hand comprise paid employees and volunteers involved in the day-to-day operation of the NSO (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003). The board

and the operational staff of an NSO are responsible for implementing processes and activities that ensure the achievement of organisational goals. While NSO boards comprise mainly of volunteers, they are required to offer direction on the operations of their organisations to ensure that they attain their purpose and achieve their goals. The capacity of board members and operational staff to execute their tasks impacts on the overall PM of NSOs.

## **Chapter 3: Theoretical framework**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the theoretical framework that underpins this study. The framework is made up of organisational theories that include the stakeholder, resource dependency, institutional and contingency theories and the institutional work perspective. These theories have been used together to provide a framework with which to explore the objectives of this PhD project. These theories and how they are used in the study is presented in the next sections.

### **3.2 Stakeholder theory**

Stakeholder theory posits that organisations exist to create value for their stakeholders (Freeman, 1984). According to this theory, to ensure their survival, organisations should develop and maintain a network of stakeholders who perform different roles that are required for the attainment of their mission (Freeman, 1984; Babiak, 2007; Miragaia et al., 2014; Vos et al., 2011). The stakeholder theory was used in this study to identify NSO stakeholders and establish the roles they play in the implementation of PM practices. To identify NSO stakeholders, what they want, and what they are offering, this study uses Mitchell, Agle and Wood's (1997) framework. This framework uses power, legitimacy and urgency attributes to identify and classify NSO stakeholders according to their salience, i.e. the degree to which managers give priority to competing claims of stakeholders. According to this framework, the more a stakeholder possesses the power, legitimacy and urgency attributes, the more salient they become.

Mitchell et al. (1997) further developed a typology to classify stakeholders into categories that include definitive, dominant, dependent, dangerous, dormant,

discretionary, demanding and non-stakeholders, this being dependent on the number and combination of the attributes that they possessed. How an organisation perceives a stakeholder according to the attributes they possess influences subsequent interactions between the organisation and the stakeholder (Mattingly & Greening, 2002).

There is sport management research that shows the successful use and utility of Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework. For instance, Anagnospoulous (2011), Miragaia et al. (2014), Hautbois, Parent and Séguin, (2012) and Parent and Deephouse, (2007) all used the framework to identify stakeholders of sport organisations. However, while Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework usefully identifies stakeholders according to how they are perceived to possess power, legitimacy and urgency attributes, Hautbois, Parent and Séguin (2012) reported that the salience of stakeholders was context and case dependent and that it changed with stakeholders gaining or losing attributes. In addition, Parent and Deephouse (2007) reported that stakeholder types could be more limited in practice than in theory.

It is important to note at this juncture that while the stakeholder theory has utility in identifying and classifying stakeholders, it does not explore whether stakeholders have the capacity to influence PM based on the attributes they possess. Merely identifying stakeholders is not enough; there is a need to explore the scope of their influence and how they affect the implementation of PM. To that end, stakeholder theory has been used together with resource dependence theory to explore what stakeholders offer, whether stakeholders have any form of influence over NSOs and if they do, how they use their influence to affect the implementation of PM. The use of these theories together helped to explore whether and how the

control of resources between stakeholders and their organisation affects the implementation of PM.

### **3.3 Resource dependence theory**

The basic assumption of resource dependence theory is that organisations that are unable to internally generate the resources they need, must interact with other organisations within their environments to obtain these resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). While the resources they receive reduce their financial vulnerability, at the same time their autonomy and ability to act independently is also greatly reduced (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The resource dependence theory further notes that organisations that control critical resources have the power to influence the behaviour of organisations that depend on the resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

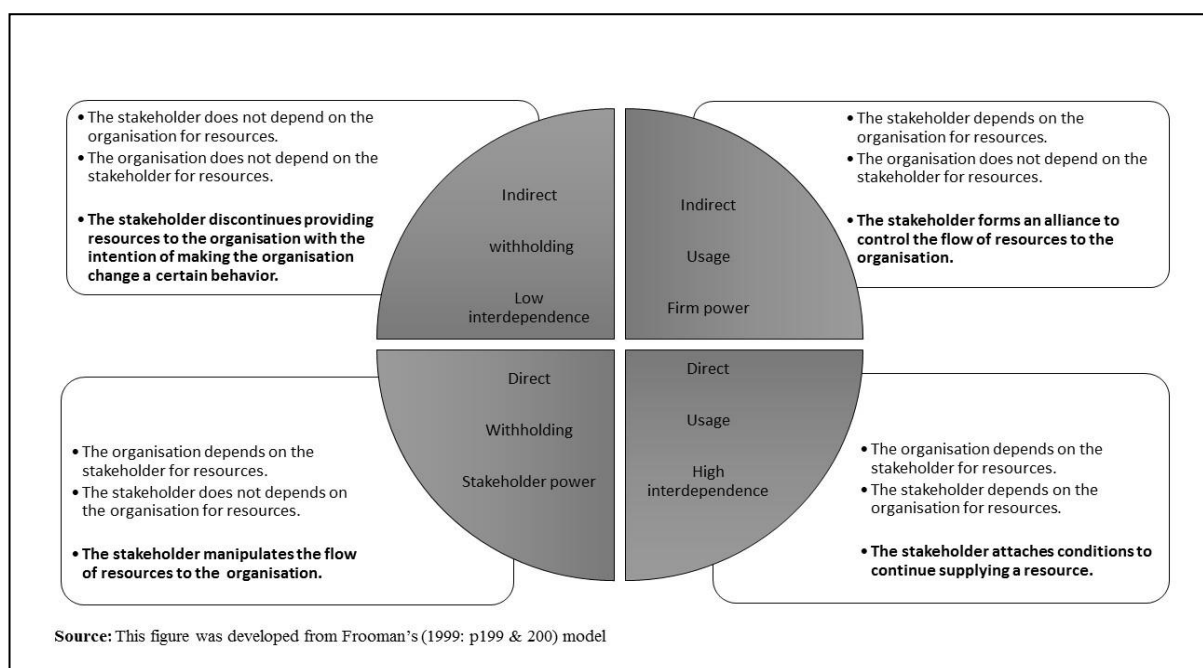
The resultant dependence on stakeholders to provide resources creates power relationships in which NSOs are susceptible to stakeholder pressure and influence (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). The resource dependence theory has been used in this study to provide a framework within which to explore the power, dependence, autonomy and constraint relationships between an NSO and its stakeholders. This theory is used to establish whether stakeholders influence the implementation PM practices among NSOs.

Stakeholder influence is determined by the level of stakeholder involvement in an organisation, or the extent to which a stakeholder can compel an organisation to follow a certain course of action (Eberendu et al., 2017). A stakeholder can exert influence over an organisation when the organisation depends on that stakeholder for resources, (De Bakker & Den Hond, 2008). The influence of stakeholders that results from their level of control over resources affects organisational processes and



activities (Friedman & Miles, 2006; Rowley & Moldoveanu, 2003; Xhe & Mason, 2017).

Based on the influence that results from stakeholders' control over resources, Frooman (1999) developed a model that explores the influence strategies that stakeholders can use to influence the behaviour of organisations. The model uses the level of resource dependence to determine the power that stakeholders have and how they use it to influence the decision-making processes of an organisation. In this model, a stakeholder may use influence strategies that include withholding or usage strategies to influence the behaviour of an organisation. However, the use of influence strategies depends on the supply of resources the organisation which can either be direct or indirect. Frooman (1999) further classified the relationships between stakeholders and organisations according to power (stakeholder and firm) and the degree of interdependence. Details of Frooman's (1999) model are illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.



**Figure 3.1: Frooman's model: developed from Frooman, (1999: p199 & 200).**

Researchers have used Frooman's model to explore how stakeholders use influence strategies on organisations (Elijido-Ten, Kloot & Clarkson, 2010; Heffernan & O'Brien, 2010; Hendry, 2005; Tsai et al., 2005). For instance, Hendry (2005) pointed out that the model was parsimonious because it fails to account for alliance forming behaviours among stakeholders. In addition, Tsai et al. (2005) observed that resource dependencies alone could not be used to determine stakeholder influence strategies, and that there was a need to include institutional legitimacy as a determinant of stakeholder influence strategy. Heffernan and O'Brien (2010) observed that Frooman's model could be used to develop heuristics that can be used to broaden understanding on how influence strategies could be used by stakeholders.

Notwithstanding the criticism raised on Frooman's (1999) model, it has been used in this study to explore whether and how NSO stakeholders use influence strategies in the implementation of PM. The decision to use this model was based on its capacity to identify the influence strategies that stakeholders use on organisations.

To mitigate against the weaknesses of Frooman's (1999) model, it has been used in conjunction with Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework so that they can complement one another and offer insights into understanding the behaviour of stakeholders on the PM of NSOs. This is based on the view that to effectively manage the interest of stakeholders, it is important to identify and categorise them according to their perceived importance, the roles they play and how they differently influence organisational processes.

### **3.4 Institutional theory**

Institutions are “shared rules and typifications that identify categories of social actors and their appropriate activities or relationships” (Barley & Tolbert, 1997, p.96). They are “human devised constraints that structure political, economic and social interactions” (North, 1990, p. 97). Institutions are created through institutionalisation, - a process by which events and components of formal structure become widely adopted and implemented by organisations, thereby serving to legitimate them over time (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Leopkey & Parent, 2012; Tolbert & Zucker, 1996).

According to DiMaggio and Powell (1983) institutionalisation is driven by isomorphism, a process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same environmental conditions. In other words, when organisations are subjected to external pressure, they react by adopting practices and processes that over time make them similar (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Kikulis, 2000; Tolbert & Zucker, 1996). Isomorphism entails competitive isomorphism, i.e. pressure from the markets; and institutional isomorphism, i.e. pressure that develops from competition for political and organisational legitimacy (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Institutional isomorphism encompasses coercive, mimetic and normative pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

Coercive pressures are those exerted on one organisation by other organisations because of dependence on resources, or by cultural and societal expectations in the society within which the organisation functions (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Examples of coercive pressures include government mandates, environmental regulations, tax law requirements and affirmative action (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Mimetic pressures relate to how organisations reduce uncertainty by imitating, modelling or copying successful peer organisations, while normative

pressures are a response to professionalisation where certain types of structure and process are viewed as more legitimate than others (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

There have been studies that used the institutional theory to explore how practices are adopted among sport organisations. For instance, Leopkey and Parent (2012) found that the adoption of legacy as an institutional rule in the Olympic Movement was a response to coercive, mimetic and normative pressures placed on the bid and organising committees. In their study, Washington and Ventresca (2008) established that the creation of the U.S. National Collegiate Athletics Association as an organisational field that accommodates basketball as an institution, resulted from institutional conflicts between actors over institutional logics, contradictions and governance struggles. Cunningham (2008) argued that political, functional and social pressures result in institutionalised practices associated with gender inequality among sport organisations.

While the utility of institutional theory and its ability to explain how organisations adopt processes and practices is acknowledged, there has been criticism raised regarding its analytic capacities. For instance, Suddaby questions the approach that institutional theory research has taken in presenting organisations as “hyper-muscular supermen, single-handedly resisting institutional pressure, transforming organisational fields and altering institutional logics” (2010, p15). According to Suddaby (2010) institutional theory research has tended to focus on outcomes of institutional processes rather than the processes themselves and this has led to research overlooking the institutional story in which meanings, systems, and processes explain how organisations interpret their institutional environments.

Suddaby (2010) further noted the need for institutional theory research to focus on how institutions are understood and influenced by individuals. This added to

the call of other researchers (see, for example, Hampel Lawrence and Tracey (2017), Lawrence and Suddaby (2006), Lawrence, Suddaby and Leca (2011)) to consider the use of the institutional work perspective to explore how and why institutions operate through the influence and agency of individuals.

Notwithstanding the criticism levelled against institutional theory, institutional isomorphism has been used in this study to identify institutional pressures that act on NSOs. To mitigate against the criticism raised on its analytic capabilities, the institutional work perspective has been used to provide a solid foundation with which to investigate how individuals within NSOs respond to institutional pressures. A more elaborate account of the perspective is presented in the next section.

### **3.5 Institutional work perspective**

The institutional work perspective has been described as the “purposive practice of individuals and organisations aimed at creating, maintaining and disrupting institutions” (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006, p.215). Institutional work describes “how and why actors work to interpret, translate, transpose, edit, recombine institutions and how these actions lead to unintended adaptations, mutations and other institutional consequences” (Lawrence, Suddaby & Leca, 2011: p. 55). It is important to note that institutions are created, sustained and reproduced by individuals through their daily activities in a variety of social settings (Edwards & Washington, 2015). Therefore, as much as organisations are affected by external influences, individuals within these organisations are also affected by the same institutional pressures. Thus, the institutional work perspective helps to explain the effort of individuals as they cope with, keep up with, tear down, transform or create

new institutional structures within which they live, work and play and which gives them their roles, relationships, resources and routines (Lawrence et al., 2013).

Creating institutions focuses on understanding the conditions in which individuals work to create the institutions, as well as the strategies that they employ to achieve this goal (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006; Lawrence et al., 2011). Creating institutions requires forms of work including advocacy, defining, vesting, constructing identities, changing normative associations, mimicry, theorizing and educating (c.f. Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006).

In maintenance, institutions are described as self-reproducing phenomena either because of taken for granted status or because of their association with regulative mechanisms that ensure their survival (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006; Lawrence et al., 2013). Maintaining institutions can be done through adherence to work systems and reproducing existing norms and belief systems (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006; Lawrence et al., 2013).

Disrupting institutions on the other hand involves deinstitutionalisation wherein actors attempt to upset institutionalised arrangements (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006; Lawrence et al., 2013). Disrupting institutions can be done through: disassociating the practice or technology from its moral foundation; state and non-state actors working through state apparatus to discover rewards and sanctions from sets of practices, technology or rules; and undermining assumptions and beliefs that stabilise institutions (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006; Lawrence et al., 2013).

Drawing on the description of institutional theory and the institutional work perspective, this study explored how actors within and outside NSOs work towards creating, maintaining and disrupting PM practices among NSOs. The use of the institutional work perspective in this study was central to the investigation of whether

individuals within NSOs are an internal environmental influence that affects the implementation of PM.

Another theory that adds to this theoretical framework is contingency theory, used in this study to elaborate on the contingency variables that are likely to be used by NSOs as they respond to pressures acting on them. This theory is presented next.

### **3.6 Contingency theory**

The basic tenet of contingency theory is that organisational effectiveness, adaptation and survival can be achieved in more than one way (Thompson, 1967; Zeithaml, Varadarajan & Zeithaml, 1988). According to this theory, organisational effectiveness depends on the appropriate matching of contingency variables with internal organisational designs that can allow appropriate responses to the environment (Zeithaml et al., 1988). This theory argues that organisational structure needs to fit the contingencies of the environment, the size of the organisation and its strategy (Donaldson, 2001). If organisations achieve this fit, then they can perform better, adapt to the environment and ultimately survive.

According to Thompson (1967), as open systems, organisations are faced with technological and environmental influences that can result in changes to organisational structures, strategies and decision-making processes. Furthermore, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) noted that organisations should develop formal structures suited to their contexts that will enable them to cope with environmental dynamics. Zeithaml et al. (1988) and Donaldson (2001) argues that this theory can be used as a major theoretical lens through which to explore organisations.

In sport management literature, Amis and Slack (1996) explored the relationship between contingency variables of size and structure among voluntary sport organisations. They established that voluntary sport organisations have unique features that influence the effect that size has on the structural arrangements of these organisations (Amis & Slack, 1996). Exploring governance structures and processes among NSOs in Canada, Parent, Narraine and Hoye (2018) found that organisations that coordinated their structures and processes with stakeholder groups renewed their focus on transparency and accountability. In another study, Hoye et al., (2019) explored the design archetypes of NSOs and report that the structural dimensions and organisational values play a key role in the design characteristics of NSOs.

As this study adopts the open system perspective of organisations, contingency theory becomes necessary to explore how external influences affect the internal environment and the structural arrangements of NSOs and how they affect the implementation of PM practices. Additionally, the theory helped the exploration of how organisational structural design characteristics and contingency variables affect the implementation of PM among NSOs.



## **Chapter 4: Performance Management of National Sport Organisations: A Holistic Theoretical Model**

Kasale, L. L., Winand, M. & Robinson, L. (2018). Performance management of National Sport Organisations: A holistic theoretical model. *Sport Business and Management: An International Journal*. 8(5), 469-491.

### **4.1 Introduction to article 1**

In this article, a literature review process, explained in detail in the paper, was used to conceptualise the PM of NSOs from a holistic perspective. This perspective entails the whole environment of NSOs made up of external and internal environmental influences, the interdependence of their operating systems and the uniqueness of their context.

This article contributes to the attainment of the overall aims and objectives (1 and 3) of the study by demonstrating the interplay between the external and internal environmental influences and how they affect the implementation of PM among NSOs.

An argument is presented that the NSOs' ability to respond to the dynamics of their external environment influences how they implement PM practices. These organisations should respond to such influences by implementing internal organisational processes that account for available resources, their structural design characteristics and the individuals within these organisations.

### **ABSTRACT**

**Purpose** – Organisational performance of sport organisations has been studied over the last three decades. However, little attention was paid towards performance

management (PM) compared to performance measurement. The purpose of this paper is to close this research gap by establishing a holistic perspective for PM of National Sport Organisations (NSOs) that accounts for their uniqueness, the interdependence of their operating systems and their relationship with their environments. Furthermore, this paper presents a holistic model of PM for NSOs.

**Design/methodology/approach** – The model was developed from a literature review process and uses the macro, meso and micro framework to describe external and internal environmental influences that affect the PM of NSOs.

**Findings** –The NSO's ability to respond to the dynamics of their external environment by implementing organisational processes that account for the resources available and their structural designs influences their PM. Furthermore, the ability of the individuals within NSO to create enabling environments for PM influences organisational efficiency and effectiveness.

**Research limitations/implications:** This paper contributes to sport management literature on PM of NSOs, and informs sport managers on ways to improve organisational performance by implementing holistic approaches to PM.

**Originality/value** – This is the first study that takes a holistic approach to PM of NSO and depicts the specific elements that play a crucial role in managing NSO's multi-dimensional performance.

**Keywords** Performance management, Holistic theoretical model, National Sport Organisations

**Paper type** Conceptual paper

## Introduction

Performance management (PM) has become increasingly important to National Sports Organisations (NSOs) as they aim to operate like business entities that control the achievement of their objectives and the satisfaction of their stakeholders (Perck *et al.*, 2016). NSOs also called National Sport Federations/Associations/ Governing Bodies are non-profit organisations that serve to organise mass participation and elite sport programs for their members in their respective countries (Shilbury and Moore, 2006). They compete for resources with other non-profit organisations in their environments and in most cases, they financially rely on stakeholders such as government and corporate sponsors, (Winand *et al.*, 2010). As such, they are required by their stakeholders to facilitate operating environments that enable them to be competitive and to account to their funders through performance-based approaches (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014; Winand *et al.*, 2013). This creates a need for NSOs to develop and implement PM models that help them to monitor the attainment of their goals and ensure the satisfaction of their stakeholders (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014).

The concept of PM is difficult to define because it is underpinned by disciplines that include economics, finance and human resources, and as such, is interdependent on other management control systems such as strategy, structure, and culture (Byers *et al.*, 2012; MacLean, 2016). Winand *et al.* (2014) and Nowy *et al.* (2015) further noted that the different perspectives of defining success also made defining PM challenging. However, according to MacLean (2016) PM should be defined from a holistic perspective that accounts for the context of the organisation and the interdependence of its operating systems. Furthermore, Ferreira and Otley (2009)

highlight that PM should also account for the influence of both external (environmental conditions) and internal (structure, processes, capabilities, people) environmental factors as they impact on organisational processes. Biticti *et al.* (1997) described PM as a process that provides a proactive closed loop control system where strategies are deployed to all business processes, and feedback is obtained through a performance measurement system to enable appropriate management decisions. While this definition does not account for the influence of the external environment, it accounts for the interdependence of the processes and activities that an organisation engages in. This description also considers the individuals who drive organisational processes and the use of feedback from performance measurement to inform appropriate management decisions. Therefore, Biticti *et al.*'s (1997) definition provides a more holistic picture of PM.

PM models such as the Total Quality Management (TQM), ISO 9001, Six-Sigma, balanced scorecard and performance prism have been developed over time to monitor the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes. As the models developed over time, there was a shift from emphasis on financial measures to the inclusion of non-financial measures of performance (Robinson, 2010) and a consideration for the influence of the environment (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). While these developments were suitable to NSOs because they have less emphasis on financial gains compared to sport and social outcomes (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014; Winand *et al.*, 2010), their use among NSOs may present operational challenges due to the uniqueness of these organisations. NSOs are unique because first, they are regulated through a sport system by international and continental sport organisations that they affiliate to (Bayle, 2005; Winand *et al.*, 2010). Second, they

pursue various goals that reflect the multiple expectations of their stakeholders (Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000; Shilbury and Moore, 2006). Third, NSOs are governed by volunteers who take charge over paid operational staff (Papadimitriou, 2007; Winand *et al.*, 2010). And finally, NSOs report to clubs, teams and individuals who form their general membership (Bayle, 2005). Therefore, these unique characteristics of NSOs have implications on their operating environment and their PM. As such, there is a need for development and implementation of NSO specific PM models that address their uniqueness.

This paper aims to conceptualise on the PM of NSOs from a holistic point of view that accounts for the NSO's whole environment made up of external and internal environmental influences, the interdependence of their operating systems and the uniqueness of their context. The paper serves to provide understanding on the practice PM as it exists among NSOs and to identify key elements that play a role in the process. This paper further demonstrates the interaction between the various operating environments of the NSO and proposes a holistic model of PM for NSOs. Additionally, the paper highlights and discusses avenues for further research on the PM of NSOs and contributes to sport management literature on PM of NSOs that is currently lacking (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014). The paper further serves to inform sport managers on ways to improve organisational performance by implementing holistic PM approaches. In the next section a theoretical framework that underpins this study is presented, followed by a description of the methods used in this study. A section on the NSOs' operating environments is presented next, and a discussion on the components of PM models follows. The paper expands to present and discuss the proposed holistic model of PM for NSOs, avenues for future research as

presented by the model and the study's practical utility. The paper closes with concluding remarks that detail the study's contribution to knowledge.

### **Theoretical framework**

This study is underpinned by organisational theories that include contingency, stakeholder, resources dependence, institutional and institutional work theories. These theories serve to provide a theoretical foundation with which to conceptualise PM from a holistic point of view and to identify influences that affect the PM of NSOs. Furthermore, these theories are used in this study to describe the external and internal operating environments of NSOs and to develop a holistic model of PM that accounts for the uniqueness of NSOs, the interdependence of their operating systems and the influence of their external and internal environments. The stakeholder and resource dependence theories are discussed next.

#### *Stakeholder and resource dependence theories*

The stakeholder theory posits that organisations exist to create value for stakeholders, and they should manage their relationship with their stakeholders to ensure their survival and better performance (Freeman, 1984). NSOs have many stakeholders who perform different roles for the attainment of their mission, and some of the stakeholders serve to provide them with resources (Vos *et al.*, 2011; Wicker *et al.*, 2012). For more understanding of the relationship between the NSO and the stakeholders who provide them with resources, the resource dependency theory has also been used in this study. The basic assumption of the resource dependence theory is that organisations that are unable to internally generate the resources they need, interact with other organisations within their environments to

receive these resources (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). While the resources received reduces their financial vulnerability, their autonomy and ability to act independently is greatly reduced (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). The resource dependence theory further notes that the organisations that control the critical resources have the power to influence the behaviour of the organisation that depends on the resources (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). Therefore, the stakeholders that provide resources to NSOs may influence their organisational processes with implications on how they manage their performance. As such, the stakeholder and resource dependence theories provide a lens with which to describe the relationship between the NSOs and their funding stakeholders, as an external environmental factor that influences PM. Consequently, there is a further need to consider other external environmental factors, and how they influence changes to the NSOs' internal environment and the institutional theory specifically institutional isomorphism has been used in this study to describe this and is discussed in the next section.

#### *Institutional theory – institutional isomorphism*

The central idea of institutional isomorphism is that organisations respond to external environmental influences by adopting processes and practices that ensure their survival (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). It encompasses three elements, and these include coercive, mimetic and normative pressures (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Coercive pressures push organisational procedures and structures to conform to best practice, as influenced by the dependence of an organisation on another or on political influence (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Mimetic pressures on the other hand relate to organisations imitating or mimicking successful peer organisations (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). While normative pressures are a response to

professionalization (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Institutional isomorphism is used in this study to explain the influence of external environmental pressures and how they lead NSOs to adopt PM practices in their internal environments. Because they receive resources from funding stakeholder, NSO are required to account for the resources that they receive through performance-based approaches (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014; Winand *et al.*, 2010). Pressure for accountability placed on NSOs by their stakeholders is an external influence that may lead to the adoption of PM practices. For instance, Perck *et al.* (2016) found that external influences led sport organisations to adopt professional organisational designs, while Papadimitriou (1998) found that the external environment influenced both the structure and behaviour of sport organisations with implications on their PM. Additionally, Slack and Hinings (1994) also noted changes to professional and bureaucratic structures of NSOs in response to pressure from state agency. Therefore, external environmental influences lead to changes in the internal environment of the NSO with implications on PM. Notwithstanding, there is a further need to establish how individuals within NSOs react to external influences by facilitating changes to their internal environments, and how the changes they make affect the PM of their NSOs. As such, the institutional work and contingency theories have been used in this study to explain the role that the individuals within the NSOs play to influence PM.

#### *Institutional work and contingency theories*

The concept of institutional work can be described as the practice of individuals and collective actors aimed at creating, maintaining and disrupting institutions (Lawrence *et al.*, 2011). This concept is a more elaborate account of the institutional theory, and it describes the action of individuals within organisations that change because of



isomorphism. It is important to note that institutions are created, sustained and reproduced by individuals through their daily activities in a variety of social setting (Edwards and Washington, 2015). Therefore, as much as organisations are affected by external influences, the individuals within the organisations are also affected by the same institutional pressures. Institutional work theory helps to explain the effort of individuals as they cope with, keep up with, tear down, transform or create new institutional structures within which they live, work, play and which gives them their roles, relationships, resources and routines (Lawrence *et al.*, 2013). While the institutional work theory has been used in this study to describe how the individuals within NSOs work towards creating, maintaining or disrupting PM among NSOs, the contingency theory is used to elaborate on the contingency variables they are likely to use to respond to changes that happen to the NSO because of institutional pressures.

The basic tenet of the contingency theory is that organisational effectiveness or organisational adaptation and survival can be achieved in more than one way (Thompson, 1967; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1988). Organisational effectiveness depends on the appropriate matching of contingency factors with internal organisational designs that can allow appropriate responses to the environment (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1988). Thompson (1967) perceived organisations as open systems that are faced with technological and environmental influences that result in changes to organisational structures, strategies and decision-making processes. According to Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) organisations should develop formal structures suited to their contexts that will enable them to cope with environmental dynamics. While many contingency theory variables have been advanced over time (cf. Zeithaml *et al.*, 1988), this theory

becomes useful in this study to consider organisational processes that affect the PM of NSOs. As such, the institutional work and the contingency theories are used in this study to describe how individuals within NSOs respond to institutional pressures and use organisational processes such as leadership, communication and organisational climate to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their mass participation and elite sport programs. Thereby, creating, disrupting or maintaining PM as an institutional practice. In the next section, the methods that were used in this study are described.

## **Methods**

This study employs a literature review, conducted to: explore the practice of PM as it exists among NSOs; identify key elements that play a role in the PM of NSOs; identify the components of a PM model; and to develop a holistic model of PM for NSOs. As such, the literature review process was conducted in two parts. The first part of the literature review process was conducted to explore the practice of PM as it exists among NSOs and to identify key elements that play a role in the PM of NSOs. On the other hand, the second part of the literature review process was conducted to identify components of a PM model; and to develop a holistic model of PM for NSOs.

The first part of the literature review process started with an electronic search of databases including Google Scholar, Scopus and SPORTDiscus. Variations of search phrases that describe PM, organisational performance, organisational effectiveness and performance measurement among NSOs were used in this search. Articles that address PM as it exists among NSOs and the key elements that

play a role in the PM of NSOs were identified. The literature search was limited to a period between 1986 and 2018 and articles that were selected were those that were published in English and addressed the organisational performance of NSOs. In this search, NSOs were viewed as organisations that administered sport to their members in their respective countries at national level. As such, articles that referred to the PM of sport organisations that did not operate at a national level in their countries such as sport clubs or government departments were not included in the first part of the literature review process. These articles were excluded from this process because organisations such as sport clubs or government departments have different organisational structures and design characteristics from those of NSOs. As such, they are managed differently and may implement their PM systems differently; hence these studies were not suitable to explain the practice of PM as it exists among NSOs and to identify key elements that play a role in the PM of NSOs. Furthermore, because this study aims to account for PM from a holistic perspective, studies that only addressed single performance dimensions within sport organisations were not included in the first part of the literature review. As such, a total of 15 articles were selected and reviewed to explore the practice of PM as it exists among NSOs and to identify key elements that play a role in the PM of NSOs.

In the second part of the literature review process, an electronic search of databases including Google Scholar and Scopus using a variation of search phrases to describe PM models, components of a PM model and PM frameworks was conducted. The search was conducted to identify articles that address the identification of components of a PM model and the development of a holistic model of PM for NSOs. As a result, components of a PM model as proposed by Otley

(1999) and Ferreira and Otley (2009) and PM models including the balanced scorecard (Kaplan and Norton, 1996; 2006), the performance prism (Neely, Adams and Crowe, 2001) and a model developed by Bayle and Robinson (2007) were identified from the literature and were studied to identify components of a PM model. The balanced scorecard was selected because it has been used by non-profit organisations, and in sport management research (Barajas and Sánchez-Fernández, 2009; Dimitropoulos *et al.*, 2017). The performance prism was selected because it is a derivative of the balanced scorecard that proposes to offer operational improvements. And the model developed by Bayle and Robinson (2007) was selected because of its focus on sport organisations. Models such as the TQM, ISO 9001, Six-Sigma and lean manufacturing were not considered because of their orientation towards the PM of manufacturing organisations. Hence, these models were not suitable for the development of a holistic model of PM for NSOs because they are primarily non-profit organisations.

Further to identifying the components of a PM model that were required to develop a holistic model of PM of NSOs, it was important to consider the interdependence of the NSO's operating system. Therefore, NSOs were viewed as complex multi-level systems that required a multi-level approach to describe the link and interdependence between their operating environments (Chelladurai, 2017; Cunningham, 2014). To this end, the macro, meso and micro analytic framework was used in this study to describe the various levels of the organisations' operating environment (Miner, 2015; Tosi, 1992). The macro environment describes the external environment of NSOs as made up of external factors that influence their PM (Miner, 2015). As organisations that exist in a dynamic and ever-changing external

environment, NSOs are affected by changes in the environment and their responses to these changes affect how they manage their organisational performance. Other external influences result from the NSOs relationships with stakeholders from the external environment. As such, the institutional, stakeholder and resource dependence theories are used in this study to provide a lens with which to consider the external environment of the NSO as the macro environment.

The meso environment describes the internal environment of the NSO and it is made up of organisational processes and activities and the stages of the PM process (Tosi, 1992; Miner, 2015). NSOs respond to external environmental influences by adapting their internal environment to deal with external influences that act on them. How the NSOs responses to external environmental influences impact on their organisational performance. As such, the institutional and contingency theories are used in this study to explain changes to the internal environment of the NSO, made up of organisational processes and activities and the stages of the PM process as the meso environment (Tosi, 1992; Miner, 2015). The micro environment on the other hand comprises individuals within the NSO including the board and the operational staff (Tosi, 1992; Miner, 2015). They drive organisational processes and how they respond to the changes that happen to the NSO because of external influences, and how they adapt organisational processes and activities in response to external environmental changes impacts on organisational performance. As such the institutional work theory and the contingency theory are used explain the individuals within the NSO as the micro environment.

This multi-level approach helps to view the NSO from a holistic point of view, (Dixon and Bruening, 2007; Melton and Cunningham, 2014). This approach further provides an opportunity to consider how the various levels of the NSO are interdependent on one another and to explore how the strategic, operational and functional aspects of the NSO integrate for effective PM. Therefore, the macro, meso and micro analytic framework is used in this study to provide a rich description of the NSO's context that is necessary for developing an industry specific PM model (MacLean, 2016; Miner, 2015; Tosi, 1992). In the next section of this paper, the practice of PM as it exists among NSOs is discussed.

### **The practice of PM among NSOs**

A review of the 15 articles selected for this study revealed that organisational performance of NSOs has been studied over the last three decades (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014; Solntsev and Osokin, 2018). However, much of the research focus has been directed towards performance measurement as opposed to PM (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014). A variety of measurement approaches have been developed over time including the goal and system resources models, multiple constituency, multi-dimensional and the competing values approaches (cf. Bayle and Madella, 2002; Madella *et al.*, 2005; Winand *et al.*, 2010). While research of this nature has identified ways to measure organisational performance of NSOs, it does not address how these organisations manage their performance (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014). Out of the 15 articles that were reviewed, 12 articles dealt with performance measurement, and only three (3) articles focused on PM. Most studies identified the dimensions of performance as illustrated in Table 1 (Bayle and Madella, 2002; Chelladurai *et al.*, 1987; Madella *et al.*, 2005; Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000;

Shilbury and Moore, 2006; Winand *et al.*, 2010; Solntsev and Osokin, 2018) and there was a consensus in most studies that PM was a multi-dimensional construct (Bayle and Madella, 2002; Chelladurai *et al.*, 1987; Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000; Winand *et al.*, 2010).

**Table 1: Performance Management in National Sport Organisations**

Author(s) and year	Sample	Findings
Frisby (1986)	29 Canadian National Sport Organisations	Characteristics of bureaucracy prevalent among NSOs increases their likelihood of goal and system effectiveness. Furthermore, organisational design and structural characteristics of NSOs influence their organisational performance
Chelladurai <i>et al.</i> (1987)	48 Canadian National Sport Organisations	Organisational effectiveness is a multi-dimensional construct that includes six system-based dimensions of inputs (human and monetary resources), throughputs (mass and elite sport) and outputs (mass and elite sport)
Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991)	51 Canadian National Sport Organisations	Individuals within NSO can have differing perceptions regarding process effectiveness as perceived by volunteers and professional staff of Canadian NSOs
Papadimitriou (1998)	20 Greek National Sport Organisations	NSOs operate in highly institutionalized contexts because they are funded and controlled by state agencies. As such NSOs perform poorly because of influences on their institutional processes and internal organisational behaviour. Therefore, external and internal environmental conditions influence the NSO organisational performance
Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000)	20 Greek National Sport Organisations	Demonstrates the utility of the multiple constituency approach to measuring the effectiveness of NSOs and identifies performance dimensions that include stability of the board and key strategic partnerships, athlete development, internal processes, strategic planning, and the use of emerging sport science. Organisational performance is a multi-dimensional and multi-perceptual construct and there is need to identify and reconcile the multiple demands of interest groups to facilitate an environment that fosters organisational effectiveness
Bayle and Madella (2002)	40 French National Sport Organisations	Organisational performance is a multi-dimensional construct and identifies performance dimensions that include institutional, social internal, social external, finance, publicity and organisational. The study further proposes a measurement model based on these dimensions

Madella <i>et al.</i> (2005)	National Swimming Federations in Portugal, Spain, Italy and Greece	Proposes a performance measurement approach that combines input and process variables and output measures. Further identifies dimensions that include human resources, finance and institutional communication, partnership and inter-organisational relations, volume and quality of services, athletes' international performance. Furthermore, the study concludes on the multidimensionality of organisational performance
Shilbury and Moore (2006)	10 Australian Olympic Sport Organisations	Uses competing values approach to measure organisational effectiveness of NSOs and identifies determinants of effectiveness that include productivity, flexibility, resources, planning, information, stability. Highlights the influence of the varying needs and expectations of multiple constituents of NSOs on organisational effectiveness
Bayle and Robinson (2007)	11 French Sport Organisations	The study focussed on the performance management of NSOs and proposes a framework for managing organisational performance based on the strategic performance mix and operational performance mix
Winand <i>et al.</i> (2010)	27 Olympic Sport Organisations in Belgium	Developed a model that measures organisational performance based on strategic objectives and operational goals and performance dimensions that include sport, customer, communication and image, finance, organisation
Winand <i>et al.</i> (2011)	18 National Sport Organisations in Belgium	The study highlights possible success factors related to high performance of NSOs and consider organisational performance from perspectives that include focus on elite sport, developing innovative activities, the use of volunteer expertise and suggest combinations of key determinants linked with high performance of NSOs
Winand, Rihoux, Robinson and Zintz (2013)	49 National Sport Organisations in Belgium	The study established that high performance could be achieved by NSOs that were innovative in developing activities and delivering elite services to their members. The study further highlights the importance of involving paid staff and volunteers in decision making processes
O'Boyle and Hassan (2014)	Literature review	The study reviewed sport management literature on organisational performance among NSOs and concluded that most of the studies conducted between 1986 and 2014, focussed more on performance measurement rather than performance management
O'Boyle and Hassan (2015)	Case study of 3 NSOs in New Zealand	The practice of PM among NSOs in New Zealand was at evolutionary stages with some NSOs implementing aspects of the practice and some NSOs not practicing performance management at all. The study further highlights the importance of NSOs to implement PM



Solntsev and Osokin (2018)	10 inter-regional Football Associations of the Football Union of Russia	The study developed a performance measurement model that measures organisational performance based on context (Russian) specific dimensions that include player development, elite sport, grassroots infrastructure and development and promotion activities. The measurement tool that they developed evaluates the level of football development in Russia
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In their studies, Chelladurai *et al.* (1987) and Winand *et al.* (2014) indicate that PM relies on a systematic input, throughput, output and feedback cycle that yields organisational effectiveness, while studies by Chelladurai and Haggerty (1991), Papadimitriou and Taylor (2000), and Shilbury and Moore, (2006) emphasise the influence of stakeholders on the PM of NSOs. Additionally, other studies have identified factors that influence the PM of NSOs to include the institutional environment, (Frisby, 1986; Chelladurai *et al.*, 1987; Madella *et al.*, 2005; Papadimitriou, 1998) individuals within the NSOs (Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000; Shilbury and Moore, 2006; Winand *et al.*, 2011; Winand, Vos, Zintz and Scheerder, 2013, Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, and Zintz, 2013) and contingency variables such as structural design characteristics, (Frisby, 1986) and environmental conditions (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). With regards to PM, O'Boyle and Hassan (2015) established that the practice of PM among NSOs was still at evolutionary stages and that there was need for development in this regard. On the other hand, Bayle and Robinson (2007) developed a framework that NSOs could use to manage their performance. Bayle and Robinson's (2007) framework is discussed more elaborately in the PM models section of this paper.

In their study, O'Boyle and Hassan (2014) reviewed previous studies on organisational performance among NSOs and established the lack of PM studies

conducted among NSOs. Therefore, there is a need for research to look beyond performance measurement and more towards establishing ways to effectively manage organisational performance of NSOs. Further research on the PM of NSOs should employ holistic approaches to PM that integrate strategic, functional and operational aspects of organisational performance. Taking a holistic approach to analyse the PM of NSO allows for the inclusion of all elements that influence the PM systems from outside the organisation to its core. As such, the macro, meso and micro analytic framework serves this holistic approach as it divides the organisational environment into three focus areas that are discussed later. In the next section, the NSO's operating environment made up of the external and internal environmental influences is discussed.

## **NSO's operating environment**

### *External environmental influences*

The external environment of the NSO is dynamic, and as it changes, it influences its operating environment (Menylk *et al.*, 2013). Considering environmental pressures that influence the operating environment of NSOs, O'Boyle and Bradbury (2017) identified factors that include political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, environmental and legal factors (PESTEL). For instance, the political environment dictates the NSO's conformance to prescribed rules and regulations (Robinson, 2010). Economically, NSOs are affected by issues such as inflation and recession (Blakey, 2011). Technological advancements and innovations can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the NSO's processes and capacities (Winand, Vos, Zintz and Scheerder 2013; Winand, Rihoux, Robinson and Zintz, 2013). On the other hand, socio-cultural factors influence the type of services that the NSOs offer

to satisfy their stakeholders (O'Boyle and Bradbury, 2017). Furthermore, NSOs should comply with prescribed environmental restrictions and address industry-specific legal issues such as doping and match fixing (Blakey, 2011; Robinson, 2010). Therefore, the influence of PESTEL factors on the operating environment of NSOs can influence the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes, and consequently PM.

Another external environmental factor that affects the operating environment of NSOs is the influence of stakeholders. The stakeholder and resource dependence theories provide a lens with which to describe the influence of NSO stakeholders as an external influence of PM. The NSOs' inability to generate sufficient resources for their operations and their dependence on external stakeholders (government, national sport agency, sponsors, media and community) to provide them pressures NSOs to satisfy stakeholders' interests (Vos *et al.*, 2011; Wicker *et al.*, 2012). This gives stakeholders the power to influence NSO decisions and processes (Wicker and Breuer, 2011). Furthermore, NSOs have multiple stakeholders with varying expectations. These include participation in decision making processes, creating international trade opportunities for governments, participating in sport programs and meeting new people for communities, visibility in the community for sponsors and selling newspaper stories for the media (Parent, 2008). To effectively manage their stakeholder interests, NSOs should reconcile the varying needs and expectations of their stakeholders and develop strategic plans and operational goals that aim to satisfy them all (Shilbury and Moore, 2006). Strategic plans and operational objectives have a direct influence on PM because they describe what an organisation wants to achieve (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). Therefore, the influence of

the stakeholders in this regard demonstrates their influence on the PM of NSOs. Following the description above, external environmental factors that affect the PM of NSO include PESTEL factors and the influence of the external stakeholders. Therefore, PM models need to account for both PESTEL factors and the influence of the stakeholders because they impact on organisational processes with consequences on PM. Furthermore, there is a need to consider how the stakeholders as external influences facilitate changes to the internal environment of the NSOs with implication on PM. This is discussed next.

#### *Internal environmental influences*

The internal environment of the NSO comprises internal stakeholders, (clubs, teams and individual members) structural design characteristics, and organisational processes and activities. The structural design characteristics of NSOs influence their functions and their PM (Perck *et al.*, 2016). NSO develop and adopt structural designs in response to influences from the external environment (Slack and Hinings, 1994; Papadimitriou, 1998; Perck *et al.*, 2016). As such institutional isomorphism describes how external influences facilitates changes to internal environments of NSOs with implications to PM. Pugh *et al.* (1968) noted that as organisations grew, they developed patterns of structural designs that include specialisation, standardisation and centralisation. “Specialisation refers to the extent to which roles are differentiated within an organisation” while “standardisation refers to the existence of formalised procedures, rules and regulations that guide the activities of the organisation” (Kikulis *et al.*, 1995, p. 81). Centralisation on the other hand refers “to the level at which decisions are taken and degree of involvement in decision making” (Kikulis, *et al.*, 1995, p. 81). In their studies, Frisby (1985), Papadimitriou

(1998), Slack and Hinnings (1994) and Perck, *et al.* (2016) found that in response to external influences, sport organisations adopted structural design characteristics that enabled them to perform better. Therefore, structural design characteristics play a role in the PM of NSOs and as such, PM models used by NSOs should account for structural designs that NSOs adopt when they respond to external influences.

Another internal influence of PM involves the implementation of organisational processes including leadership, communication and organisational culture and activities that include mass participation and elite sports programs. Because these processes are implemented by individuals within NSOs, the institutional work and contingency theories are used to describe these processes and their implications to PM.

Leadership is the process by which a specific person or the leader influences a group of persons (subordinates) to achieve a common goal (Northhouse, 2010).

Arnold *et al.* (2012) described the importance of leadership in PM and highlighted the need for NSO leaders to establish approaches that enhance effectiveness, understand the various NSO roles, develop NSO's contextual awareness, enhance personal skills and strengthen relationships among individuals (Arnold *et al.*, 2012; Fletcher and Arnold, 2011). Effective leadership ensures the NSO's success in implementing PM. On the other hand, communication is the conveyance and receipt of information between the sender and the receiver, downwards as well as upwards, which contributes to the maintenance and improvement of the objectives of the organization. Ferreira and Otley (2009) have noted the importance of communication in implementing PM. They believe communicating with individuals within the NSO

improves their understanding of the strategy and its implementation thereby improving PM (Ferreira and Otley, 2009).

Organisational climate is the unique personality of an organisation comprising of attitudes and beliefs that influence individual's collective behaviour (Borucki and Burke, 1999). Additionally, organisational culture includes the shared values, norms and behaviours of an organisation (Borucki and Burke, 1999). Therefore, organisational climate and culture affect PM because the NSO's personality and the shared norms, and the values and behaviour of individuals determines the extent of their efforts to attain its goals and objectives. The importance of organisational climate and culture was highlighted by Bayle and Robinson, (2007) who noted that NSOs should provide an enabling environment and a participatory culture that ensures the performance of all members.

Therefore, it is important for a PM model for NSOs to account for organisational processes that include leadership, communication and organisational climate and culture, and how these processes are used to implement mass participation and elite sport programs activities. The utility of institutional work and the contingency theories in identifying internal environmental factors cannot be understated. Moreover, these theories are also used to consider how the individual within NSOs influence PM. This is discussed next.

#### *Individuals within the NSO and PM*

Individuals within the NSO include the board and the operational staff. NSO board members are volunteers who govern NSOs by ensuring adherence to organisational

best practice and formulating strategies that offer direction to organisational processes and activities (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2003; Shilbury and Ferkins, 2011). According to UK Sport (2004) the roles of NSO board members include setting strategic aims, providing leadership that puts the aims into effect, supervising management and reporting to members. In their study, Hoye and Doherty (2011) noted that the performance of the board contributed to the overall performance of the NSO (Hoye and Doherty, 2011). Interestingly, however, Hoye (2007) noted the difficulties of evaluating the performance of individual board members because of the voluntary nature of their roles. Therefore, because of the contribution that board performance makes to the overall performance of NSOs, there is a need for the holistic model of PM for NSOs to account for the role that the board members play.

The operational staff of the NSO are the paid employees and operational volunteers who are responsible for implementing the organisational processes. Paid employees are professionals employed by NSO to render their professional services, and they are remunerated. Operational volunteers are individuals who render services to the NSO and receive little or nothing in the way of personal financial remuneration for their time, effort and impact (Doherty and Carron, 2003). While the operational staff play the important role of implementing organisational processes and activities, research into their performance and their contribution to PM is lacking. However, in their study, Hoye and Cuskelly (2003) found that the performance of the board was enhanced in situations where leadership was shared, and there was mutual trust between the board and management. They further found that the control of information between the board and the operational staff affected board performance (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2003). Therefore, NSO board and the operational staff

members should aim to facilitate an interdependent relationship that is subject to ongoing negotiation because, how they work together influences organisational performance (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2003). Good relationships between the board and the operational staff facilitate a good organisational climate that fosters organisational performance (Borucki and Burke, 1999). As such, it is important for the individuals within the NSO to ensure that they work to make their environment enabling for the successful implementation of PM. Therefore, a holistic model of PM for NSOs should account for the role that individuals within the NSO play, because they have the capacity to create, disrupt and maintain organisational processes that affect PM. Furthermore, how they implement organisational processes and use contingency variables to respond to external and internal environmental influences impacts on their PM.

The NSOs external and internal environment and the individuals within the NSO play key roles in the PM of NSOs. However, to develop a holistic model of PM for NSOs, there is need to identify components of a PM model from literature. In the next section, PM models are discussed, and their components described.

### **Performance management models**

PM models describe how organisations attain their mission by aligning their strategies with their processes and capabilities, and continuously monitoring and evaluating the process to facilitate learning for future improvements (Bititci *et al.*, 1997). They are essentially management control systems that use measures to establish the quality and efficiency of organisational processes. One popular PM model the balanced scorecard was developed by Kaplan and Norton (1996) and is



widely adopted and used by different organisations. The balanced scorecard enables organisations to manage their strategies, by linking their objectives, initiatives and performance measurement at all levels of the organisation (Kaplan and Norton, 1996; 2006). This PM model allows managers to view organisations from four perspectives that include customer, financial, internal business and innovation and learning perspectives (Kaplan and Norton, 1996). The customer perspective measures how an organisation ensures the satisfaction of their customers by creating value for them, while the internal business perspective measures the efficiency of business processes and competencies (Kaplan and Norton, 2006). The innovation and learning perspective focusses on organisational growth by identifying what was learned from previous PM cycles and ways to change and improve, while the financial perspective deals with financial issues such as profit, growth, risk and shareholder value (Kaplan and Norton, 2006). Managers use both qualitative and quantitative approaches to measure organisational performance according to these four perspectives, and when this happens, the scorecard is balanced (Kaplan and Norton, 2006).

While many organisations have adopted the balanced scorecard to manage their performance, Robinson (2010) highlighted challenges that could arise from using this model among sport organisations. These include conflicting measures, managers not reacting to the feedback from the performance measurement process and lack of skills to interpret the information that the balanced scorecard generates (Robinson, 2010). Furthermore, Neely *et al.* (2001) criticized the use of first generation PM models such as the balanced scorecard, because they believed that they inundated managers with measurements, and there was a need to focus more effort towards

PM. To address this, they developed a derivative of the balanced scorecard called the Performance Prism that focuses on stakeholder management and comprises stakeholder satisfaction, stakeholder contribution, strategies, processes and capabilities as illustrated in Table 2 (Neely *et al.*, 2001).

**Table 2: Components of a PM model**

Otley (1999) and Ferreira and Otley (2009)	Kaplan and Norton, (1992)	Bayle and Robinson (2007)		
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Organisational vision and mission</li> <li>2. Organisational structure</li> <li>3. Strategies and plans</li> <li>4. Key performance measures</li> <li>5. Targets</li> <li>6. Evaluation processes</li> <li>7. Rewards</li> <li>8. Feedback and Feedforward</li> <li>9. Learning curve</li> <li>10. Influence of external environment</li> <li>11. Interdependence of operating system</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Customer perspective: General mission statements on customer service.</li> <li>2. Internal business perspective: Organisational processes and competencies.</li> <li>3. Innovation and learning: ability to improve</li> <li>4. Finance: Profits growth and shareholder value.</li> </ol> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Neely, Adams and Crowe, (2001)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Stakeholder satisfaction</li> <li>2. Stakeholder contribution</li> <li>3. Strategies</li> <li>4. Processes</li> <li>5. Capabilities</li> </ol> </td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Neely, Adams and Crowe, (2001)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Stakeholder satisfaction</li> <li>2. Stakeholder contribution</li> <li>3. Strategies</li> <li>4. Processes</li> <li>5. Capabilities</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Strategic performance               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. The system of governance</li> <li>b. Quality of the operating framework</li> <li>c. Position of the NSO system.</li> </ol> </li> <li>2. Operational performance mix               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>b. Facilitators                   <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. Forms of level of professionalisation.</li> <li>ii. Participatory organisational culture.</li> </ol> </li> <li>a. Inhibitors                   <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i. Deficient information system.</li> <li>ii. Inappropriate incentive mechanisms.</li> <li>iii. Absence of control mechanisms.</li> <li>iv. Political sclerosis.</li> </ol> </li> </ol> </li> </ol>
Neely, Adams and Crowe, (2001)				
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Stakeholder satisfaction</li> <li>2. Stakeholder contribution</li> <li>3. Strategies</li> <li>4. Processes</li> <li>5. Capabilities</li> </ol>				

In sport management literature, Bayle and Robinson (2007) developed a model that comprise strategic performance mix and operational performance mix. The strategic performance mix includes factors that determine the NSOs' strategic focus while the operational performance mix focuses on factors that impact on its operation (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). Strategic mix factors include the system of governance, the

quality of the operating framework and the position of the NSO system within the industry of its sport (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). The operational performance mix on the other hand, is made up of factors that facilitate or inhibit organisational performance. Bayle and Robinson (2007) identified facilitators of performance to include forms of level of professionalisation, presence of a participatory organisational culture and adopting a participatory culture to performance. On the other hand, inhibitors of performance included: deficient information system, inappropriate incentive mechanisms, absence of control mechanisms and political sclerosis. Bayle and Robinson's (2007) model demonstrates the importance of the strategic focus and the operating environment of the NSO in PM. This model shows how NSOs interpret their strategies and how they use their operating environments to facilitate their achievement. This model however, does not illustrate the cyclic nature of the PM process which relies on the feedback and feedforward loops to facilitate future improvements. Furthermore, while the model identifies the quality of the operating framework and the position of the NSO system within the industry of its sport, it does not show how the external environment influence PM of NSO.

To develop a PM model, Otley (1999) and Ferreira and Otley (2009) illustrate the importance of a mission and vision for providing direction of what the organisation wants to achieve and the importance of communicating it to the manager and employees. They further highlight the importance of the key success factors, the organisation's structural design, strategies, plans, key performance measures, and targets and how they are communicated to the manager and employees of the organisation. Otley (1999) and Ferreira and Otley (2009) further highlight the importance of performance measurement, rewards, penalties and the feedback,

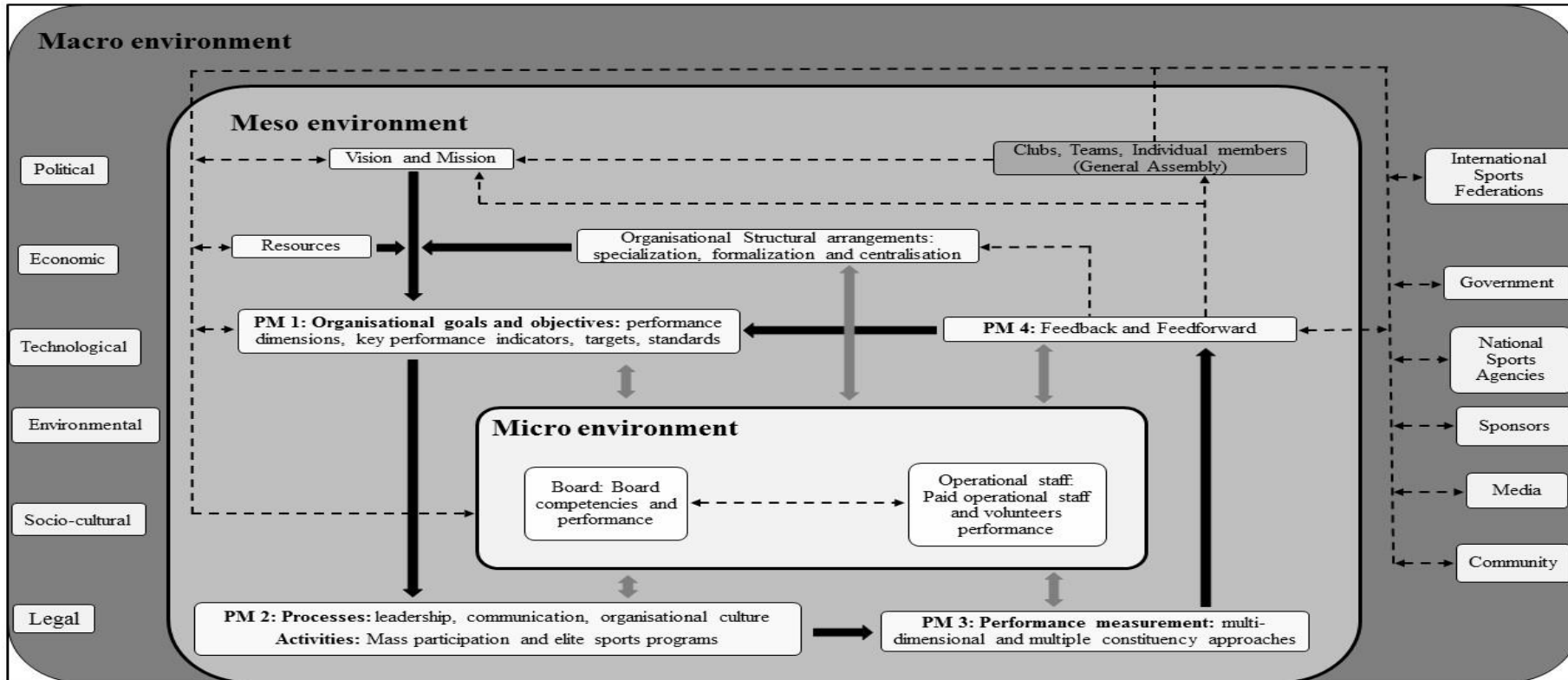
feedforward loops, and their uses for learning. They also consider the influence of the external environment and the interdependence of the organisation's operating system. These issues are illustrated in Table 2.

The balanced scorecard, the performance prism, the Bayle and Robinson's (2007) model and the issues raised by Ferreira and Otley (2009), describe what constitutes a PM model. It is made up of actions directed towards satisfying stakeholders, that account for the environment, and align organisational activities and processes with the mission and vision of the organisation. Furthermore, there should be continuous monitoring and evaluation of the organisation's process and activities through measurement, and the results reported and used to facilitate future improvements. Insights gained on the components of a PM model were used to develop the holistic model of PM for NSOs. Furthermore, highlights from the literature review indicate the importance of the holistic model of PM for NSOs to account for PESTEL factors and the influence of the stakeholders. Furthermore, the model should consider the organisational design characteristics, processes that include leadership, communication and organisational culture, and activities that include mass participation and elite sports programs. A holistic model of PM for NSOs that accounts for these factors was developed and is presented in the next section.

### **A holistic model of PM for NSO**

Figure 1 illustrates the holistic model of PM for NSOs and its description follows in the next section.

**Figure 1: Holistic Theoretical Model of Performance Management for National Sport Organisations**



### *Macro environment*

A holistic model of PM for NSOs accounts for the external environmental influences (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). The assumption is that a change in the external environment of the NSO stimulates a change in the organisational strategy and other organisational processes including PM (Melnyk *et al.*, 2014). The model illustrates PESTEL factors and external stakeholders as part of the macro environment. The interaction between the external stakeholders and the NSO as presented in the model is through consultation and communication. Consultation entails information sharing between external stakeholder and the NSO on the resources made available and the expectations to be met in return. The external stakeholders' expectations are used to formulate objectives that NSO aim to achieve to guarantee high stakeholder satisfaction (Parent, 2008; Wellens and Jegers, 2014). Communication on the other hand entails information sharing at the end of the performance measurement process. It details feedback on the extent to which stakeholders' expectations are met and how the NSO will improve in the future. The information sharing between the NSO and the external stakeholders through consultation and communication is important for the maintenance of the PM process (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). The macro environmental factors as illustrated in the model influence the internal functions and operations of the NSO and their ability to respond to these influence their PM (Melnyk *et al.*, 2014).

### *Meso environment*

The meso environment is the internal environment of the NSO. It is made up of the internal processes and the four stages of the PM process that include PM 1: Organisational goals and objectives; PM 2: Processes and activities; PM 3:

Performance measurement and PM 4: Feedback and feedforward. The NSO's clubs, teams and individual members affiliated to it expect NSO to organise mass participation and elite sport programs (Winand *et al.*, 2010). They meet in general assemblies to draw their strategic plans, elect board members to implement and appraise their plans, and to agree on improvements. Their involvement in the NSO's strategic planning ensures their influence on developing goals and objectives that are based on their expectations (Parent, 2008; Parent *et al.*, 2015). They are also appraised on the results of the PM process through the feedback and feedforward and the information shared is then used to improve the NSO strategic plans (Ferreira and Otley, 2009).

PM 1: Organisational goals and objectives: This is the first stage of the PM process. When formulating organisational goals and objectives, there should be a consideration for the resources available and the structural design characteristics of the NSO (Papadimitriou, 1998; Perck *et al.*, 2016). The PM 1 stage is made up of performance objectives, performance dimensions, key performance indicators and performance targets. NSO's goals and objectives are used to draw performance objectives. The performance objectives are then used to set the key performance indicators which describe what the NSO wants to achieve in a quantifiable manner. Then the targets are set to prioritise performance objectives and draw a realistic picture of the goals and objectives that the NSO intends to achieve. Performance targets are used to measure performance. Otley and Ferreira (2009) stress the importance of disseminating the NSO's goals and objectives to the individuals within the NSO to ensure that they have a common understanding of intended performance achievements.

PM 2: This stage of the PM process considers organisational processes and activities. Organisational processes include effective leadership (Arnold *et al.*, 2012; Fletcher and Arnold, 2011), communication (Ferreira and Otley, 2009) and fostering an organisational climate and culture that facilitates performance (Bayle and Robinson, 2007). And activities include mass participation and elite sport programs (Winand *et al.*, 2010). There should be an alignment of the goals and objectives set in stage one with organisational processes and activities to ensure better performance (Kaplan and Norton, 2006).

PM 3: This is the performance measurement stage that entails establishing the extent of efficiency and effectiveness in the attainment of goals and objectives of the NSO. It involves comparing the overall performance achieved against the set performance targets. The comparison of the actual performance against the performance targets gives a measure of NSO performance achieved. In this stage NSOs should employ measurement procedures that give feedback on the efficiency of organisational processes and the satisfaction of the stakeholders. This stage is important because it evaluates the PM process and it provides information that is used for its maintenance (Bititci *et al.*, 1997).

PM 4: This stage of the PM process includes feedback and the feedforward (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). The feedback is used to inform external and internal stakeholders on how their expectations were met. And, the feedforward is used for learning on ways to improve future performance cycles. This learning curve is used to facilitates changes to the organisational structural designs and improvements to the vision and



mission of the NSO. The learning curve also provides information on the amount and type of resources required for future performance cycles.

### *Micro environment*

The micro environment comprises of the board and the operational staff of the NSO and they are responsible for driving organisational processes and activities. Their interpretation of the NSO's environments influences how PM is implemented. The board and the operational staff interpret the NSO's vision, mission, goals and objectives and use resources available through the structural design characteristics and organisational processes to implement the mass participation and elite sport programs. They also facilitate performance measurement through periodic assessments, summative assessment, peer assessments and self-assessment. Furthermore, they make performance measurement results available for sharing with NSO stakeholders and use the information to facilitate learning for future cycles. The NSO board should use their competencies to offer strategic direction to the operational staff, and they should foster a relationship that facilitates a good working environment that improves the attainment of organisational goals and objectives (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2003).

## **Discussion**

### *Macro environment*

The external environment is dynamic, and it evolves and changes with time (Ferreira and Otley, 2009; Melnyk *et al.*, 2014). The NSO has no control over changes in the external environment such as changes in the political environment, economic climate, technological advancements, environmental influences, socio-cultural influences as well as legal issues (PESTEL). However, their ability to respond to

changes in their external environment by adapting their internal environments to the changes, improves the efficiency and effectiveness of their organisational processes and their PM (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). There has been no evidence that shows a direct association between the external environmental influences and PM (Perck *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, this calls for further studies to investigate how NSOs respond to the influence of PESTEL factors specifically considering how they adapt by changing their internal environments and establishing the associated impacts on PM. Furthermore, this research could establish if PESTEL factors influence changes to the implementation of the various stages of the PM process including goal and objective setting, organisational processes and activities, performance measurement and feedback and feedforward and the extent of their influence and how the influences if any affect the development and use of PMS among NSO. This research could provide the link between the external environment and PM, specifically how influences such as government regulations, economic climate, technological advancements, environmental legislation, socio-cultural and legal issues affect PM processes in the unique context of the NSO.

The expectations of external stakeholders add to the external environmental influences that affects PM of NSOs. The resource vulnerabilities of NSOs lead them to form resources dependent relationships with funding stakeholders, and they place demands on the NSOs to meet their needs and expectations, thereby, influencing their strategic goals and objectives (Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000; Parent *et al.*, 2015; Winand *et al.*, 2010). An influence on the strategic goals and objectives of an organisation has implications on its PM. As such, further research could establish how funding stakeholders influence the development and use of PMS among NSOs. This

type of research could use the stakeholder, resource dependence and institutional theories to provide insights into how the expectations of the funding stakeholders affect organisational processes including the PM process.

The stakeholder theory could be used to identify and categorise stakeholders according to the roles they play in NSOs. For instance, Mitchell *et al.* (1997)'s power, legitimacy and urgency framework could be used to classify NSO stakeholders according to their salience. This framework could be used to further establish how the different categories of stakeholder according to their salience influence the development and use of PMS among NSOs. The resource dependence theory could also be used to study the power relationship between the NSO and their funding stakeholders. This theory could help to provide understanding into how NSO's resource vulnerabilities lead them to conform to the needs and expectations of the funding stakeholders and whether that leads them to use performance-based approaches to account for the resources used. Furthermore, the theory could help to analyse how NSOs with different resources dependencies towards their funders may be affected differently when organisational goals and objectives are set. Because NSO receive resources from many funders, this research could establish the association between the amount and type of resources that they receive and the goals and objectives that they set. The institutional theory can also be used in this line of research, to study how NSOs are affected by coercive, mimetic and normative pressures to adopt PM as an institutional practice. Because NSOs receive resources from funding stakeholders and are expected to account through performance-based approaches, (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014) this type of research could establish whether funding stakeholders use coercive influences on NSOs to account, or whether NSOs

copy how other organisations or whether NSOs are influenced by professionals working within them to account through performance-based approaches. This research could provide insights into whether PM has been legitimised as an institutional practice by NSOs, which are primarily non-profit organisations governed by volunteers. The study could be useful as it offers understanding into how NSOs develop and use PMS in their unique operating contexts. The use of these organisational theories in unison could provide a rich understanding of the context of the NSOs and how their external environmental pressures such as the influence of the needs and expectations of stakeholders affects their goal and objectives setting and their overall PM process. This will provide an understanding of the influence of external stakeholders on the PM of NSO.

In response to macro environmental influences, or external pressures such as PESTEL factors or the influence of external stakeholders, NSOs adapt by changing their operating environment or their meso environment to survive and perform better. The changes to the operating environment of NSOs are facilitated by the individuals within the NSO including the board and the operational staff who make up the micro environment of the NSO. This shows the link and interdependence between the NSOs' macro, meso and micro environments. In that changes in one environment necessitates changes in other environments to accommodate that change, with implications on PM. The meso environment which is mainly the internal environment of the NSO made up of its operating system and the stages of the PM process is discussed next.

### *Meso environments*

NSO have clubs, teams and individual members affiliated to them. These members require NSOs to facilitate quality mass participation and elite sport programs for them, and they influence the goals and objectives set by the NSO (Papadimitriou and Taylor, 2000; Parent *et al.*, 2015). Considering the influence of external and internal stakeholders on the formulation of NSOs' goal and objectives, further research could establish how they prioritise their objectives to meet the varying needs and expectations of their stakeholders. Shilbury and Moore (2006) pointed to conflicting needs and expectations of the various NSO stakeholders and the need to reconcile them by developing strategic plans that cater for all stakeholders. However, with their varying degrees of influence on the goals and objectives setting of NSOs, it could be interesting to study how the NSOs deal with the conflicting needs and expectations of their stakeholders. Therefore, further research could establish how the conflicting needs and expectations of their stakeholders affect the goals and objectives set by NSOs and how that affects other stages of the PM process.

The NSO structural design characteristics including specialisation, standardisation and centralisation influence the efficiency and effectiveness of its organisational processes when implementing mass participation and elite sport programs (Frisby, 1985; Kikulis *et al.*, 1995; Thibault *et al.*, 1991). The model of PM for NSO highlights the importance of organisational processes such as leadership (Arnold *et al.*, 2012; Fletcher and Arnold, 2011), communication (Ferreira and Otley, 2009) and organisational culture (Bayle and Robinson, 2007; Borucki and Burke, 1999; Bowen and Ostroff, 2004) in a PM process. How NSO are structured (specialisation, standardisation and centralisation) influences how they implement organisational

processes (leadership, communication and organisational climate and culture), and this impacts on the quality of their activities (mass participation and elite sport programs) and affects how they manage their performance. NSO are governed by volunteer board members; therefore, their implementation of organisational processes such as leadership, communication and organisational climate and culture may be different. Therefore, further research that employs the contingency theory could consider how the structural arrangements of NSOs impact on organisational processes and how it affects the implementation of NSO activities and the consequences on PM. Specifically how the individuals within NSOs implement organisational processes through the NSO's structural arrangements and the implications of their actions on PM of NSOs. Furthermore, research that uses the contingency theory could further uncover how volunteer boards facilitate leadership in the unique setting of the NSO, and how their leadership processes impact the implementation of their elite sport and mass participation programs and other stages of the PM process (goal and objective setting, performance measurement and feedback and feedforward).

The importance of an organisational culture that facilitates PM has been highlighted by Bayle and Robinson (2007). When individuals within the NSO have shared norms, beliefs and attitudes towards PM, the NSO may manage its performance better. However, not much research has been conducted on the influence of organisational culture on the PM of NSO. This calls for more research in this area, to establish how organisational culture made up of the shared norms values and beliefs of the board and operational staff of NSO impacts on the various stages of the PM

process (goal and objective setting, organisational processes and activities, performance measurement and feedback and feedforward).

The relationship between the volunteer boards and the operational staff of the NSO has been studied in sport management literature (Hoye and Cuskelly, 2003); however, the influence of this relationships on creating an enabling environment that foster PM has not been studied. Research into the influence of organisational climate on PM of NSO could consider the influence of the relationship between the board members and the members of the operational staff. This could offer insights into how the shared values, belief and norms of the board and operational staff of NSO foster an organisational culture that facilitate PM. Communication is important as it facilitates a common understanding of what the NSO intends to achieve in terms of its PM strategy (Ferreira and Otley, 2009). Future research that employs the contingency theory could establish how communication is implemented among NSO. It could be interesting to establish how the volunteer boards communicate with the operational staff on the strategic direction of the NSO and how it impacts on the various stages of the PM process.

There has been research on the measurement of the performance of NSO with emphasis on developing measurement tools that account for the uniqueness of NSO (O'Boyle and Hassan, 2014). However, research does not show how NSO use the information obtained from the performance measurement process. The model of PM for NSO highlights the importance of performance measurement and how its information is used to facilitate feedback and feedforward loops that are used as a learning process to inform future PM cycles. Therefore, future research could

consider how NSO use the information from their performance measurement processes and establish how they learn from it as well as how they facilitate improvements to future PM cycles. While efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes are important to the PM of NSOs, it is the individuals within the NSO who drive the organisational processes. The role that they play as illustrated by the holistic model of PM for NSOs is discussed next.

### *Micro environment*

The PM model for NSO highlights the roles of the board and the operational staff on the PM of NSOs. The importance of board members, their competencies and their overall performance has been highlighted in the model. This issue has been studied in sport management literature (Ferkins and Shilbury, 2010; Fletcher and Arnold, 2011; Hoye, 2007; Hoye and Cuskelly, 2003; Hoye and Doherty, 2011; McDonald and Sherry, 2010). However, McDonald and Sherry (2010) have noted that there was little empirical evidence to support the contention that there is a positive relationship between the performance of the board and organisational performance. Therefore, further research could establish how NSO measure board performance in relation to its contribution to organisational performance. The model illustrates that one of the components of measuring performance is through employee appraisals that establish the extent to which employees are successful in attaining their set performance objectives. This is an important exercise because the performance of the operational staff may contribute to the overall PM of the NSO. Therefore, further research could establish how the operational staff of NSOs facilitate their self and peer appraisals and whether the performance of volunteers is appraised and how it is appraised. As well as to establish how the performance of the operational staff



contributes to the overall performance of the NSO, this research could offer insights into how NSO manage the performance of their workforce which comprises of a mix between volunteers and paid staff.

The holistic model of PM for NSO illustrates the role of the individuals within the NSO and their interaction with the various organisational processes and the stages of the PM process. Their role is to interpret the external and internal environments and work towards creating, maintaining or even disrupting PM as an institutional process in their NSO (Lawrence *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, as individuals within NSOs interpret their external and internal environments, they employ contingency variables that enable their organisations to survive and perform better. As such, the contingency and institutional work theories can be used to study how the individuals within the NSO interpret changes to the external environment and how they adapt by facilitating internal environmental changes. The institutional work theory can be used to establish how individuals within NSOs work to create, maintain or disrupt PM as an institutional practice within NSOs in response to changes in the external environment. And the contingency theory could be used to identify and describe contingency variables that individuals within the NSO implement in response to changes in the external environment. This perspective has not been studied in literature and it could offer insights into the role that the individuals within the NSOs play to establish PM as an institutional practice. While the holistic model of PM highlights avenues for further research, it also has practical utilities, and these are discussed next.

The model of PM for NSOs provides information to sport managers on the interdependence of the NSO's macro, meso and micro environments and further demonstrates how changes in one environment necessitates changes in other environments. This can help them to develop intuitions on how to respond and adapt their operating environments, to ensure the survival and better performance of their NSOs. The model also provides information on the external and internal factors that influence the PM of NSOs. While sport managers do not have control over the external factors that influence PM of NSOs, knowledge of these influences prepares them for more appropriate responses. Furthermore, knowledge of external influences of PM provides sport managers with avenues to control their environments in ways that will ensure that their NSOs perform better. The model further provides a description of the PM process and how it can be used to improve organisational processes. This model can be seen as a practical tool allowing sport managers to identify key elements that play a role in the management of their performance. Therefore, sport managers can effectively use the PM process as outlined in the model to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their processes. Because the model accounts for the uniqueness of NSOs, it provides specific information that is useful to sport managers.

## **Conclusion**

This paper intended to conceptualise PM from a holistic point of view and to develop a holistic model of PM for NSOs from a literature review process. The study was underpinned by organisational theories that include stakeholder, resource dependence, institutional, contingency and institutional work theories. The study further used the macro, meso and micro multi-level approach to describe the PM of

NSOs from a holistic perspective and to describe the interdependence of its operating system. The holistic model of PM for NSO identifies external and internal environmental influences and the roles they play in the NSO's PM process. The model further highlights the NSO's organisational processes and activities and the stages of the PM process and proposes avenues for further research into the PM of NSO.

This study contributes to knowledge in that it provides a framework for the discussion of PM among NSOs. Previous studies that have been undertaken in the organisational performance of NSOs have focused on performance measurement rather than PM. This study provides a framework with which PM of NSOs can be considered from a holistic point of view accounting for the unique context of NSOs, the interdependence of their operating system and their relationship with their environment. This study provides an avenue for NSOs to consider the implementation of holistic approaches to PM that will ensure their efficiency and effectiveness in their ever-competitive environments where they are required to compete for resources with other non-profit organisations. Furthermore, this study considers the cyclic nature of the process and the stages of the PM process that include among others, the feedback, feedforward and the learning curve stages that provide an opportunity to foster dynamism and new ideas into the system that improve the effectiveness of NSOs. This study also contributes to knowledge as it proposes avenues for further research into holistic perspectives towards organisational performance of NSOs.

While this study contributes to sport management literature and has practical utilities, it is important to note the limitation, that it was developed purely from a literature review exercise. As such, there is a need for the holistic model of PM for NSOs to be developed further and improved through further research and empirical testing.

#### **4.2 Summary of article 1**

This article presents an argument that the external and internal environments of NSOs are interdependent and affect how these organisations implement PM. The literature review undertaken comprised of 15 articles; 12 of which were on performance measurement and 3 on PM. The review used a theoretical framework to explore PM of NSOs from a holistic perspective investigating how the external and internal environments influence the implementation of PM. Furthermore, the Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1996, 2006), Bayle and Madella's (2002) model and components of a PM model by Ferreira and Otley's (1999) were reviewed leading to the proposal of a holistic theoretical model of PM for NSOs.

The article contributes to the objectives of this PhD study. Objective (1) of this study was concerned with how external environmental influences affect the implementation of PM among NSOs. In this article, it was established that PESTEL factors and external stakeholders including International and continental federations, government, national sport agency, sponsors, media and the community affected the implementation of PM. Objective (3) of this study was concerned with how the internal environment of NSOs influence the implementation of PM. The study established that internal stakeholders including clubs, teams and individual members influenced how these organisations implement PM. These stakeholders could influence the goals and objectives and performance measurement processes

employed by these organisations. In addition, the vision and mission, resources, organisational structural design characteristics, stages of the PM process and individuals within NSOs were internal influences that affected how NSOs implement PM.

The macro, meso and micro analytic framework used in this study demonstrates the inextricable link of the operating environment of the NSO. This framework divides the environment of NSOs into external and internal environments. The internal environment is further divided into the internal organisational processes and activities and the individuals within the NSOs. The macro, meso and micro analytic framework demonstrated that the interplay between external and internal environmental influences impact on the implementation of PM practices, thereby addressing the general aim of this PhD study.

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### **Further reading**

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## **Chapter 5: Research methodology**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, a description of the methods used in this study and the rationale and justification for using them is presented. It is important to note that the research design, study participants, procedures for data collection and analysis have been described in detail in the method sections of the articles presented in this PhD. While these methods sections are elaborate and comprehensive, what is provided in this chapter is the background on the ontological and epistemological positions of the researcher and how they influenced decisions on the methodology, theoretical perspective, method, and sources used in this study.

As the research methods are presented in this chapter, it is important to highlight that in chapter 4, a holistic theoretical model for the PM of NSOs as developed from literature was presented. There was a possibility of empirically testing the whole model. However, the risk of this leading to overall and vague conclusions was acknowledged. Therefore, a decision was taken to test the macro and micro environmental influences as stipulated in the model. Specifically, the macro environment focussed on the influence of stakeholders, and the micro influences were individuals within NSOs. Notwithstanding, the elements of the model that were tested in this study, provided conclusive evidence on the influence of external and internal environmental factors on the PM of NSOs. In addition, the intricate link and the interplay between these environmental influences was established through testing these aspects of the model.

It is important to note that some details of the meso environment (resources, structural designs, processes, and activities) are highlighted in chapter 8 of this study. This chapter is crucially important because it presents an integrated

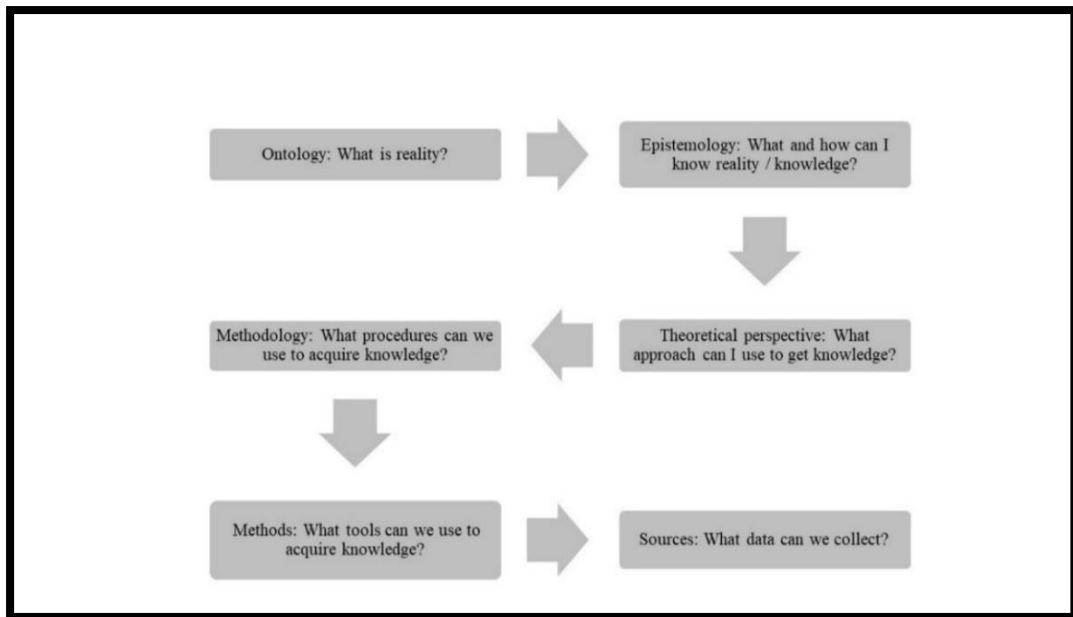
discussion of all the results of the study including those that have not yet been published. Nonetheless, aspects of this study that were not tested are suggested as avenues for further research in chapter 9.

## **5.2 Research paradigm**

A research paradigm has been described by TerreBlanche and Durrheim, (1999) as an all-encompassing system of interrelated practices and thinking that define the nature of enquiry along dimensions that include ontology, epistemology and methodology. Research paradigms shape the questions that researchers ask, the methods they use and degree to which their findings will impact society (Frisby, 2005). According to Frisby (2005) paradigms are broad because they encompass ontological, epistemological, and methodological claims that researchers make.

Researchers operate from a wide range of paradigms including positivist, post positivist, constructivist, interpretivist, transformative, emancipatory, critical, pragmatism, deconstructivism and post-modernist (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). The paradigm that a researcher operates from is decided by how they perceive reality and how they can know reality, the approach, and procedures that they can use to acquire knowledge, the tools they use and the data to collect. Figure 5.1 was developed from literature by Killam (2013) and Hiller (2016) to illustrate the process by which the ontology and epistemology of a researcher can affect the methodology, theoretical perspective, method and sources of data they will use in their research endeavours. How researchers answer the question in Figure 5.1 determines the research paradigm that they employ.





**Figure 5.1: Ontology and epistemology influences on methodology: developed from Killam (2013) and Hiller (2016).**

### 5.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is the study of the philosophy of knowledge that deals with questions concerning what entities exist and how such entities can be grouped or subdivided according to similarities and differences (Hiller, 2016; Killam, 2013). Ontological approaches are concerned with answering the question what is reality? The researcher believes that reality is a construction that is based on how people see and experience the world that they live in and how they interact with one another. For example, people living in a community with similar cultural norms and beliefs may have similar perceptions and views on reality that are based on how they experience their community and their interactions with one another. Individuals gain their beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and experiences through their social interactions and as a result, the meaning they ascribe to things is based on their social construction of reality (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). According to Prus (2008) reality is

an outcome of an interactive process that occurs through social interaction and individuals construct shared meanings as a result of interacting with others and through their experiences of the world around them.

Based on this ontological perspective, a constructivist approach to research was considered appropriate to provide answers to the questions raised in this study. A description of the social constructivist approach and how it was used to study PM is presented in the next section.

#### *5.2.1.1 Social constructivism in the study of PM*

Social constructivism is “rooted in the assumption that individuals seek to understand the world in which they live and work,” and they develop subjective meanings of their experiences (Andrew, Pedersen & McEvoy, 2020.p12). These meanings are varied and multiple, leading researchers to seek complexity of views rather than narrowing the meaning of phenomenon into a few categories or ideas (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). According to Crotty (1998) the constructivist perspective assumes that; (1) human beings construct meanings as they engage with the world they are interpreting; (2) human beings engage with the world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives; (3) the researcher should seek to understanding by immersing themselves with the context and personally gathering information and interpreting what they find based on their own experiences and background; (4) the basic generation of meaning is always social, arising from and out of the interaction with a human community. Hence according to Crotty (1998) the interaction between human beings and their environment constructs their reality and can be used to interpret how they perceive the world that they live in.

Based on these assumptions and their congruence with the researcher's ontological position, a constructivist approach was considered appropriate for this study. Using this approach is beneficial because it helps to explore PM from the perspectives of the stakeholders, board members and operational staff of NSOs. The assumption is that the perspectives that these individuals have with regards to PM were constructed based on the knowledge and experiences acquired from the roles they play in their organisations and from their interactions with one another. According to Herman and Renz (1997), constructivism can be used to examine what happens within an organisation considering the judgements made by individuals in an ongoing process of sense making and implicit negotiation.

However, Snelgrove (2017) has pointed out that if knowledge is constructed, then researchers using constructivism should acknowledge that findings are also constructions between researcher and participants. According to Creswell and Creswell (2017), the researcher's background shapes their interpretation and they should position themselves in research to acknowledge how their interpretations flow from their personal, cultural and historical experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The intent of the constructivist researcher is to make sense of or interpret the meanings that others have of the world (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

### 5.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology deals with questions: what is knowledge? How can I know reality? Epistemological approaches assume that knowledge about the presence of a construct results from existing related knowledge (Hiller, 2016). To answer epistemological questions, it is important to reiterate the ontological position of the researcher that reality is constructed by individuals. In this study, reality as perceived

by board members, operational staff and NSO stakeholders was interpreted so that the underlying meaning of events and activities that happen in NSOs regarding PM are established. Hence, it follows that the epistemological position of this research study is interpretivism.

#### *5.2.2.1 Interpretivism*

According to Cohen and Manion (1994), interpretivist researchers understand the world of human experience, where reality is discovered from studying the views of respondents, their background and experiences. This approach allows researchers to use the perceptions and experiences of respondents to construct their own understanding from the data collected (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). The interpretivist approach allows the researcher to explore reality by interpreting how individuals see the world (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Willis (2007) points out that in the interpretivist approach, the context in which any form of research is conducted plays a critical role in the interpretation of the data gathered and is based on the core belief that reality is socially constructed. Interpretivists reduce the complex and dynamic community life into variables that can be used to describe reality (Prus, 2008). Smith (1993) notes that interpretivist researchers are anti-foundationalists because there is no right or correct path to knowledge; no special methods that automatically lead to intellectual progress. Therefore, interpretivist researchers do not seek answers for their studies in rigid ways, but rather believe that reality can be established from the knowledge, beliefs and experiences of study respondents (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Adopting an interpretivist perspective in this study allows for clarification on the perspectives and experiences of NSO stakeholders, board members and operational staff on PM, enabling the researcher to make inferences and to draw conclusions.

There are advantages that can be derived from using interpretivist approaches in research. For instance, data collected through interpretivist studies can be associated with a high level of validity because it tends to be trustworthy and honest (Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Willis, 2007). Furthermore, the interaction between the researcher and study respondents in the data collection exercise allows for more complete data to be collected. Interpretivism, however, does not come without disadvantages. For instance, the subjective nature of the interpretivist approach gives researchers room for bias. Furthermore, data collected in interpretivist studies cannot be generalised because it is impacted by personal viewpoints and values of the researcher. Thus, reliability and representativeness of the data is undermined.

Notwithstanding the disadvantages of the interpretivist perspective, it has been used in this study because of the benefits that can be derived from its use. Interpreting the perspectives of stakeholders, board members and operational staff seems appropriate as these individuals are involved in the implementation of organisational practices and hence can answer the questions regarding reality and knowledge regarding PM in NSOs. The next section illustrates the views of the researcher on the question of what procedures can be used to acquire knowledge.

### 5.2.3 Methodology

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, methodology is concerned with the question ‘what procedures can I use to acquire knowledge?’ To answer this question, the researcher believes that there is a need to develop strategies that can be used to acquire knowledge from individuals and groups so that their backgrounds and experiences can be used to answer questions on reality. Constructivist and interpretivist researchers tend to favour the use of qualitative methodologies

because they often provide rich data necessary for understanding the context. According to Cooper and Schindler (2013), qualitative research offers depth of understanding of the subject matter as it describes and analyses how study respondents perceive the phenomenon being studied. According to Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy (2020) constructivist studies employ open ended questions posed by the researcher to elicit detailed responses from participants that highlight their views of the situation being studied.

A qualitative approach was deemed suitable for this study for the following reasons. Firstly, as this study investigates external and internal influences that affect the implementation of PM in NSO, the perceptions and experiences of stakeholders, board members and operational staff within NSOs provided insight into this subject matter. In addition, a document analysis process was used to provide qualitative details that offer rich data to complement the data collected from individuals.

Cooper and Schindler (2013) suggest that qualitative methods can be used to explore areas about which little is known or to gain a fresh and deeper understanding of the subject matter. This is particularly useful for this study because PM has not been studied among Botswana NSOs, therefore a deeper understanding of the subject can be achieved. In addition, qualitative research can be used to obtain intricate details about phenomena that are difficult to learn about (Shareia, 2016). Furthermore, qualitative research relies on contact between the researcher and the respondents or groups being studied. This builds a partnership with study respondents that leads to deeper insights into the context studied, adding richness and depth to the data collected (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Ulin, Robinson & Tolley, 2012).

### *5.2.3.1 Research design*

This research employs an exploratory research design to offer insights into how Botswana NSOs implement PM practices. An exploratory research design was described by Veal (2017) as a study that seeks depth of insights because the topic under investigation has not been studied before. An exploratory research design allows for the exploration of a phenomena particularly in cases where not much is known about it (Andrew, Pedersen & McEvoy, 2020). Therefore, the exploratory research design was used in this study because PM of NSOs had never been studied before in the geographical context of Botswana.

The exploratory design allowed for the researcher to explore the experiences of the stakeholders, board members and operational staff who participated in the study. The experiences of these individuals, developed from their day-to-day interactions within NSOs, are interpreted to provide a detailed account of how external and internal environmental influences affect the implementation of PM.

### *5.2.3.2 Selection of the study participants*

The participants in this study are representatives from NSOs including board members and operational staff and NSOs stakeholders. The following section details the procedures that were used to select and recruit them to participate the interviews and focus groups of this study.

#### *5.2.3.2.1 Selection and recruitment of NSOs*

Out of the 37 NSOs affiliated to BNSC, a total of 14 NSOs were identified to participate in the study. The BNSC's Affiliates Empowerment Policy was used to select NSOs according to their tier categorisation. According to this policy, Botswana

NSOs affiliated to the BNSC are assessed every four years and categorised into four tiers. These tiers describe how this sport agency empowers and provides funding these NSOs. Table 5.1 illustrates the assessment criteria.

**Table 5.1: Criteria for Tier Categorisation** (Developed from the BNSC Affiliates Empowerment Policy)

<b>Assessment</b>	<b>Criteria</b>
Sustainable Quality leadership	Initiative and creativity, Managerial effectiveness, and competence (books of accounts and governance instruments), Conflict resolution, Maturity, Stability and Continuity
Numerical strength	Number of people participating in the sport, Number of clubs affiliated to the NSO, Number of qualified coaches and technical officials in the NSO, Rate of growth
Popularity	Spectators (ages and gender), publicity campaigns
Performance	Sport achievements (awards, medals, rankings), generation of funding, appointment to positions of responsibility at various levels (regional, continental, and international appointments)
Geographical spread	Nature of participation at urban and rural centres, countrywide distribution
National appeal	Citizen components and citizen infusion
Level of activity	Hosting of international events, number of major activities per season, distribution of events throughout the country
Equity	Provision of equal opportunities for all regardless of age, disability, socio-economic background or geographical location, encouragement of women participation in male dominated sports and vice-versa
Social responsibility	Involvement in the development and welfare of the community, involvement with disadvantaged groups
Focus on development	Promotion of mass participation, grassroots development, systematic talent identification and development, strategic links with sport development stakeholders

Based on the results of the 2016 assessment, there were no NSOs in tier one, two in tier two, seven in tier three and twenty-three in tier four. Only four NSOs were



unclassified either because they had newly been affiliated to the BNSC or they were inactive. Inactive NSOs were those that were registered with the BNSC, did not pay affiliation or membership fees, did not engage in any activity, and did not respond to BNSC correspondence. The assessment criteria engaged in the Affiliates Empowerment Policy addresses numerous dimensions and characteristics of Botswana NSOs as illustrated in Table 5.1. The tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy were used to select participating NSOs ensuring that different types of were represented in the study.

In addition to the tier categorisation, further selection was based on whether the NSOs were Olympic or Non-Olympic Sport, Team Sport or Mixed Sport. This added rigor to the selection process, further ensuring the diversity and variability of NSOs participating in this study. Table 5.2. illustrates Botswana NSOs in the tiers of the BNSC’s Affiliates Empowerment Policy and the process through which participating NSOs were selected.

**Table 5.2: Classification and selection of participating NSOs**

Tier	BNSC Categorisation	Olympic Sport	Team, Individual and Mixed Sport	Selected
Tier 1	-	-	-	-
Tier 2	Football	O	T	X
	Volleyball	O	T	X
Tier 3	Athletics	O	I	X
	Boxing	O	I	-
	Botswana Primary School Sport Association	NO	M	X
	Karate	NO	I	X
	Netball	NO	T	X
	Rugby	O	T	X
	Softball	NO	T	-
	Tier 4	Badminton	O	I
Basketball		O	T	X
Botswana Integrated Sports Association		NO	M	X
Botswana Brigades Sports Association		NO	M	-
Botswana Tertiary Sports Association		NO	M	-

	Bowling	NO	I	-
	Bridge	NO	I	-
	Cycling	O	I	-
	Chess	NO	I	-
	Cricket	NO	T	X
	Dance	NO	I	-
	Golf	O	I	-
	Hockey	O	T	-
	Judo	O	I	-
	Horse	O	I	-
	Motorsport	NO	I	-
	Paralympic Sport Botswana	NO	M	-
	Special Olympics	NO	M	-
	Squash	NO	I	X
	Swimming	O	I	-
	Table Tennis	O	I	-
	Tennis	O	I	X
	Weightlifting	O	I	-
Unclassified	Handball	O	T	X
	Gymnastics	O	I	-
	Taekwondo	O	I	X
	Wrestling	O	I	-

**Legend:** Olympic sport: O; Non-Olympic sport: NO; Individual sport: I; Team Sport: T; Mixed sport: M; Selected NSO: X

As illustrated in Table 5.2, NSOs that were selected to participate in the study are Botswana Football Association, Botswana Volleyball Federation, Botswana Athletics Association, Botswana Primary School Sport Association, Botswana Integrated Sports Associations, Botswana Karate Association, Botswana Netball Association, Botswana Rugby Union, Botswana Squash Rackets Association, Botswana Basketball Association, Botswana Cricket Association, Botswana Tennis Association, Handball Association of Botswana and Botswana Taekwondo Federation.

Letters inviting selected NSOs to participate in the study were delivered to their offices. The invitation letters contained information sheet to provide details about the research project and ethical issues on participating in the project. Follow up visits and telephone calls were made with all selected NSO to provide more details about the ramifications of participating in the study and to recruit study

participants. Board members and operational staff that were selected were the ones that were available to participate in the study.

Ultimately board members that participated in the study were presidents, vice presidents a secretary general, and additional members. Furthermore, operational staff who participated in the study were Chief Executive Officers an administration manager, a technical officer, a youth teams development officer, and sport development officers. These participants were considered appropriate for the study because they are knowledgeable about the operations of their NSOs and how they implement organisational processes and activities. Specifically, it was believed that board members and operational staff of Botswana NSOs could offer explanations on how external and internal environmental influences affected the implemented PM practices in their organisations. Hence these individuals were suited to respond to questions that address the aims and objectives of the study. Board members and operational staff who agreed to participate were required to sign consent forms before they could engage in the activities of the research study.

#### 5.2.3.2.2 Selection and recruitment of stakeholders

The selection of stakeholders that participated in the study was based on Bayle and Madella's (2002) stakeholder map. They developed a stakeholder map for sport organisations that includes international sports federations (IOC, FINA, FIFA, IAAF, ICF etc.), the government through the ministry that handles sport, national sport agencies such as the BNSC and the BNOC, clubs, members of the NSO, sponsors, media, and the community. This stakeholder map was used to guide the selection process because a wide and diverse range of NSO stakeholders could be included in the study. However, Bayle and Madella's (2002) stakeholder map does

not include continental and regional federations and confederations such as African Union Sport Region 5, Association of National Olympic Committees of Africa (ANOCA), Council of Southern Africa Football Associations (COSAFA). This stakeholder category was included to ensure diversity of perspectives, inclusion and representation of continental and regional federations and confederations in the study.

There was need to interpret clubs and members of the NSOs as illustrated in Bayle and Madella's (2002) stakeholder map. In this case clubs were interpreted to include teams affiliated to NSOs and could be represented by team officials, coaches, and athletes. In addition, individual members was interpreted as individuals that held membership status of NSOs. Based on Bayle and Madella's (2002) map, stakeholders selected for the study were FIFA and ITF for international federations, and African Union Sport Region 5 and COSAFA for continental and regional federations and confederations. These stakeholders were selected because they have offices in Gaborone. The Ministry, BNSC and BNOC were selected because of the role they play in the administration of Botswana sport. Selected sponsors were Botswana Telecommunications Corporation, Mascom Wireless, Orange, Kalahari Breweries and Capital Motors because they sponsor Botswana NSOs. Additionally, selected media houses were Radio Botswana, RB2, Yarona FM, Gabz FM, Daily News, The Voice and The Guardian because they cover sport events. To represent the community, Mogoditshane Village Development Committee was selected because of its proximity to Gaborone, their representation of a large community, and their involvement in sport activities. In addition to their engagement with NSOs, these stakeholders were selected to participate in this study because it was believed that they could provide information on the aims and objectives of this study.

Clubs, teams, and individual members affiliated to 14 participating NSOs were selected to participate in the study. One club or team affiliated to a participating NSO was selected to participate in the study. Selection of these stakeholders was based on their willingness to participate in the study and their proximity to the University of Botswana. Proximity was used as a selection criterion because this was the venue where data collection processes were conducted. It was believed that clubs and teams located closer to the University would be more willing to participate in the study. Therefore, teams and clubs that were outside Gaborone were not invited to participate in the study.

Invitation letters were sent through the mail to all selected stakeholders to invite them to participate in the study. To ensure receipt, invitation letters were also delivered to all selected stakeholder offices. These letters contained a copy of the information leaflet to provide details of the research and participation in the study. In addition, the invitation letter requested stakeholders to encourage the participation of representatives who were knowledgeable about their involvement with NSOs. Selected stakeholders were later contacted telephonically to follow up on the invitations and to facilitate the recruitment of participants. Delivering invitation letters and contacting stakeholders through the telephone helped to provide additional information about the research project. Moreover, ramifications for participation, ethical concerns and details on the data collection process could be explained to stakeholders during the follow up visits or through the telephone calls.

Before participating in the study, participants were informed about the research project and the ethical issues around their involvement in the research project. In addition, the participants were required to sign consent forms to indicate

the willingness to participate in the research project. Ultimately stakeholders who were selected were the ones who agreed to participate in the study.

#### 5.2.4 Method

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, the method section entails questions on what tools can be used to acquire knowledge? To answer this question, tools that can be used in a qualitative enquiry include literature reviews, document analysis, focus groups, and interviews (Cooper & Schindler, 2013; Andrew, Pedersen & McEvoy, 2020). These tools have been used in this study to complement each other in ensuring depth of inquiry so that deeper insights were gained in the investigation. As we consider the tools used in this study, it is important to consider sources. Sources are concerned with questions on the data that can we collected. To answer this question, qualitative data that includes a collection of articles used in the literature review, NSO documents and transcripts from interviews and focus groups were collected for analysis.

##### 5.2.4.1 *Literature review*

Details of the literature review process that was employed in this study can be obtained in Chapter 4 on page 48.

##### 5.2.4.2 *Document analysis*

The analysis of NSO documents was conducted to corroborate the data collected from interviews and focus groups thereby enhancing the richness of the data collected (Bowen, 2009). Documents that were analysed for the purposes of this study are the Affiliates Empowerment Policy, strategic plans for some NSOs (n=5), BNSC annual reports for 2017 and 2018. These documents were collected,

reviewed and evaluated. The document analysis helped this study by providing information on the background of the NSOs and of how they were different from one another thus, illustrating their diversity and their varying abilities to deal with external and internal influences acting on them.

#### *5.2.4.3 Focus groups*

According to Schindler and Cooper (2006) a focus group is a panel of people made up of 6 to 10 participants, led by a moderator, who meet to discuss topics related to the subject of enquiry. The moderator uses group dynamics to focus or guide the group in an exchange of ideas, feelings, and experiences (Jones, 2014). The decision to use focus groups in this study was because in a group, respondents may be free to discuss and raise issues pertinent to the study (Schindler & Cooper, 2006). Furthermore, respondents could challenge themselves on the issue raised, and further discuss the issues before arriving at conclusions. This will be beneficial in reviewing and evaluating PM practices among NSOs. The use of focus groups by constructivist researchers was supported by Andrew, Pedersen, and McEvoy (2020).

A semi-structured schedule of questions was used to guide the discussions of the focus groups and to ensure that as much data as possible could be obtained from the discussions (see Appendix B). As the schedule was semi-structured, this ensured that interesting tangents in the discussions could be explored. The focus groups encouraged participants to give an account of their knowledge and experiences on the subject matter thereby providing data for the study.

A total of five focus groups meetings were facilitated for 14 stakeholders, ten board members and six operational staff of NSOs. The stakeholders were athletes, coaches, umpires, and technical officials who represented selected clubs, teams, and

individual members. Twenty-eight participants comprised of two representatives from 14 selected clubs, teams, and individual members were expected to participate in the study. However, 14 of these stakeholders participated in the study, resulting in two focus groups that had seven members each.

Ten board members and six operational staff also participated in NSO focus groups. The board and operational staff were divided into three focus groups in which one group had six members and the other two groups had five members each. Discussions for NSO focus groups followed a schedule of questions herein appended as Appendix C.

All the focus group sessions were recorded to ensure accuracy of the data collected. The length of the focus group sessions ranged between 45 and 90 minutes. The data collected from the focus group meeting was transcribed verbatim, coded, and then analysed using thematic analysis. As a thematic analysis entails identifying, analysing the data, and reporting themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006), it was useful in this research as it helped to draw conclusions from the themes emerging from the data on the aims and objectives of this study. The data collected from the focus groups was managed using the NVivo 11 qualitative analysis software.

#### *5.2.4.4 Interviews*

Interviews were used in this study because they facilitated a face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the respondents. This provides an opportunity for the researcher to observe and record non-verbal and verbal behaviour thereby improving the probe (Schindler & Cooper, 2006). While interviews are limiting in that a large population cannot be covered, they are useful because they offer opportunities for further discussions into the questions asked. In this study semi structured



interviews were used, allowing additional questions to be asked to pursue interesting topics emerging from the discussion. This ensured completeness and depth in the data collected (Veal, 2005).

A total of 10 representatives from the various stakeholder groups were interviewed. In addition, nine board members and 12 operational staff of NSOs were interviewed to explore how they dealt with external environmental influences and whether they implemented PM practices.

The interview schedules used for stakeholder, board member and operational staff interviews contained open ended questions and the interviews were recorded to ensure accuracy of the data collected. The data was transcribed verbatim, coded and then thematically analysed. The data collected from the interviews was managed using the NVivo 11 qualitative analysis software.

#### 5.2.5 Theoretical perspective

The theoretical perspective entails the question: what approach can I use to acquire knowledge? To answer this question, a theoretical framework was adopted to provide a foundation with which to investigate the aims and objectives of this study. The theoretical framework draws on stakeholder, resource dependence, institutional and contingency theories along with the institutional work perspective.

Questions emanating from the literature review on these theories were used to explore documents and perceptions of stakeholders, board members and individuals within NSOs to establish how external and internal influences affect the implementation of PM. A more elaborate description of the theoretical framework is presented in chapter 3.

Still on the approaches that can be used to acquire knowledge, it is important to note that the data collection and analysis procedures of this study followed a phases approach. The four phases used in this study ensured an organised data collection exercise. These phases were implemented between January and May 2017 and June and July 2018. The use of phases in the data collection exercise, coupled with the semi-structured format for the interviews and focus groups, allowed for previous phases of the data collection exercise to inform future phases, thereby enriching the quality of discussions and hence the data collected.

### **5.3 Ethical considerations**

#### 5.3.1 Ethical clearance

Ethical clearance was sought in line with the requirements of the University of Stirling. An application to the University of Stirling's General University Ethics Panel (GUEP) was approved on 6<sup>th</sup> February 2017 (see Appendix B). It was only after the ethical clearance was obtained that the data collection exercise was commenced.

#### 5.3.2 Research permit

A research permit was necessary to conduct research in Botswana. An application for a research permit from the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development of the Government of Botswana was approved on the 23<sup>rd</sup> January 2017 (see Appendix A).

#### 5.3.3 Informed consent

The following procedures were followed during the data collection exercise to ensure that valid informed consent was attained for this research endeavour:

#### *5.3.3.1 Disclosure*

The participants were provided with an information sheet that explained the implications of participation in the study. Once they read and understood the ramifications of participating, they were required to indicate their willingness to participate by signing a consent form. A consent form used in this study is provided as Appendix F.

#### *5.3.3.2 Voluntariness*

Voluntariness refers to participants' right to freely exercise their decision making without being subjected to external pressure such as coercion, manipulation, and undue influence. It was necessary for participants to declare that they volunteered to participate in the study, and they were required to sign an informed consent form that asserted this freedom.

#### *5.3.3.3 Confidentiality and anonymity*

The participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity.

Following these procedures ensured that participants were aware of the research processes and practices and were therefore free to choose to participate or not in the study.

## **Chapter 6: A stakeholder approach to performance management in Botswana National Sport Organisations**

Kasale L. L., Winand, M. & Morrow, S. (2019). A stakeholder approach to performance management of National Sport Organisations. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 24: 4, 226-243.

### **6.1 Introduction to article 2**

In this article, stakeholder influence and how it affects the implementation of the various stages of PM is explored. The study firstly identified different stakeholders according to their salience and further established how they used influence strategies to affect the implementation of different stages of the PM process. The research finds that depending on their salience, stakeholders used influence strategies to affect particular PM stages. This was enabled by the resource dependencies of NSOs that made them susceptible to stakeholder influence.

This article addresses objective (2) of the thesis by demonstrating that the resource dependencies of NSOs make them vulnerable to stakeholder influence. As a result, stakeholders use influence strategies to affect the implementation of different stages of the PM process. The article argues that stakeholders are an external environmental influence that affect the implementation of PM among NSOs.

This article further contributes to the attainment of the overall aim of this study by demonstrating that NSOs in Botswana implemented PM practices that include goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement and feedback and feedforward.

## **ABSTRACT**

**Rationale:** Performance management is important to National Sport Organisations because it aims to ensure their transparency and accountability and offers an opportunity for improved service delivery to stakeholders. However, the role played by stakeholders in how performance management systems are used by National Sport Organisations remains unclear. This study investigates how different stakeholders influence the implementation of performance management among National Sport Organisations.

**Approach:** Thirty-one semi-structured interviews and five focus groups targeting 14 Botswana Sport Organisations and 10 stakeholder categories were undertaken.

**Findings:** Results reveal different stakeholders used influence strategies directly and indirectly to affect multiple performance management stages.

**Practical implications:** This study informs sport managers on how stakeholders use influence strategies on performance management processes, thereby helping them to better manage and improve stakeholder relationships.

**Research contribution:** The study contributes to understanding the development of performance management processes and how stakeholders influence internal processes within sport organisations.

**Keywords:** Performance management, National Sport Organisations, influence strategies, stakeholder salience

## **Introduction**

The relationship between National Sport Organisations (NSOs) and their stakeholders, and how they influence organisational processes is crucial.

Researchers have focused on a variety of approaches and different theoretical lenses to establish the influence of stakeholders on decision making (Heffernan & O'Brien, 2010; Miragaia, Ferreira, & Carreira, 2014; Parent & Séguin, 2007), financial performance (Sotiriadou, 2009) and management structures (Holt, 2007) of NSOs. However, research that explores the influence of stakeholders on how NSOs implement performance management is still lacking.

NSOs are non-profit organisations that administer their sport and provide sport services to communities in their countries (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). They have developed relationships with individuals, groups or other organisations - their stakeholders - that affect or are affected by their actions (Babiak, 2007). In some cases, NSOs depend on their stakeholders to provide resources such as grants, sponsorships, access to facilities and professional services (Wicker, Vos, Scheerder, & Breuer, 2013). In return, stakeholders expect NSOs to be transparent, accountable and to build their capacity to meet stakeholder demands by managing their organisational performance (O'Boyle, 2015; Winand, Zintz, Bayle, & Robinson, 2010). However, how different stakeholders differently influence performance management of NSOs and the influence strategies they use remains unknown.

Frooman (1999) has pointed out that most stakeholder research addresses managerial behaviour taken in response to stakeholders, rather than how the behaviour of the stakeholders affect organisations. Furthermore, Laplume, Sonpar

and Litz (2008) suggested that managers should establish strategies that stakeholders are likely to use to influence organisations. Drawing on these views, the aim of this study is to establish how stakeholders influence the performance management of NSOs. To pursue this aim, the objectives that guide the study are; to identify NSO stakeholders according to their salience using the power, urgency and legitimacy framework (Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1997); and to identify influence strategies used by stakeholders to affect the implementation of performance management among NSOs (Frooman, 1999). Using these complimentary frameworks together provides an opportunity for deeper insights on the influence of stakeholders the performance management of NSOs.

This study was conducted in Botswana, a developing Southern African country where research of this nature has not previously been conducted. Prior studies on organisational performance of NSOs have been conducted in countries including Australia (Shilbury & Moore, 2006), Belgium (Winand et al., 2010; Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, & Zintz, 2013), Canada (Chelladuari & Haggerty, 1991), France (Bayle & Robinson, 2007), Greece (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000), Portugal, Spain, Italy (Madella, Bayle & Tome, 2005), New Zealand (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015), Russia (Solntsev & Osokin, 2018), where the countries' economies allow for bigger NSOs with numerous and more lucrative resource streams. Therefore, this study offers a distinct perspective into the operation NSOs in a developing African country, a markedly different social, economic and cultural context than that experienced by NSOs in more developed countries.

In the next section of this paper, a review of literature on performance management, stakeholder identification, influence strategies, and how stakeholders influence performance management of NSOs is presented. Next the study methods are discussed, beginning with an overview of the geographical context and how it influenced the rationale for the chosen methods. A research design, including information on study participants, the phases of the data collection exercise and the data analysis processes are all presented in the following methods section. The results are then presented according to topics that include stakeholder identification, types of NSO stakeholders, influence strategies used by NSO stakeholders and stakeholder influence on the performance management process. In the section that follows, the discussion is structured around themes that include the salience of NSO stakeholders and stakeholder influence and performance management. These thematic areas help to illuminate the link between the results, theoretical framework and insights from Botswana on how stakeholders influence performance management of NSOs. The paper concludes with conclusions drawn, study implications and of how it contributes to sport management literature and practice.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Performance management is a process that provides a proactive closed loop control system where strategies are deployed to all organisational processes, and feedback is obtained through a performance measurement system to enable appropriate management decisions (Bititci, Carrie, & McDevitt, 1997). It is a cyclic process made up of phases that include goals and objectives setting, organisational processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward (Ferreira & Otley, 2009). While performance management can be used to improve the efficiency and



effectiveness of organisational processes, it may be implemented differently by NSOs due to their stakeholders' influence on decision-making and organisational processes. To understand the influence of performance management among NSOs, it is essential to identify who these stakeholders are, their level of influence and why they influence organisational decisions and processes. Identifying stakeholders and their level of influence begins the process of understanding how they are likely to impact the implementation of performance management and to that end, how stakeholders are identified is presented in the next section.

### **Stakeholder identification**

Freeman (1984, p. 46) has described a stakeholder as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organisation’s objectives”. NSOs have multiple stakeholders that include International and Continental Federations, National Olympic Committees, government ministries responsible for sport, national sport agencies, sponsors, media, clubs, teams and individual members (Bayle & Madella, 2002). These stakeholders play various roles necessary for the success of NSOs and in-turn expect their needs to be satisfied (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Shilbury & Moore, 2006). Thus, performance management is crucial to improving the capacity of NSO processes, as they endeavour to satisfy their multiple stakeholders (O’Boyle & Hassan, 2015).

Stakeholders have been identified and classified as: internal and external; primary and secondary; and voluntary and involuntary (Clarkson, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Olander, 2007). Internal stakeholders implement organisational projects while external stakeholders are affected by the project (Freeman 1984; Olander 2007).

Voluntary stakeholders bear risk by investing capital on an organisation, while involuntary stakeholders are placed at risk by an organisation's activities (Clarkson, 1994). According to Clarkson (1995) an organisation cannot survive without the participation of primary stakeholders, while secondary stakeholders are those that affect or are affected, but not engaged in organisational activities.

Mitchell et al. (1997) developed a framework to identify and classify stakeholders according to their salience, described as the degree to which managers give priority to competing claims of stakeholders. Their framework uses power, legitimacy and urgency attributes and classifies stakeholders into categories that include definitive, dominant, dependent, dangerous, dormant, discretionary, demanding and non-stakeholders. While there are various approaches to identify and classify stakeholders, Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework was considered appropriate for this study as it uses attributes that describe the claims that stakeholders place on organisations. Additionally, they use a variety of categories to classify stakeholders according to the number of attributes they possess, providing opportunities to classify the wide range of NSO stakeholders.

According to Mitchell et al. (1997, p. 865) "a party to a relationship has power based on the extent to which they can gain access to coercive (physical resources of force, violence or restraint), utilitarian (material or financial resources) or normative (symbolic resources) means to impose their will in the relationship". Therefore, a stakeholder can impose their will on the organisation based on the power that they possess (Mitchell et al., 1997). Legitimacy on the other hand is an assumption that stakeholder actions are desirable and appropriate according to norms, values,

beliefs and definitions of a social system (Mitchell et al., 1997). Urgency is described as the extent to which stakeholder claims are critical, time sensitive and call for immediate attention (Mitchell et al., 1997). The more a stakeholder possesses the power, legitimacy and urgency attributes, the more salient they become. Mitchell et al. (1997) further noted that (1) the attributes were variable and not steady; (2) the attributes were socially constructed; and that (3) an individual or entity may not be conscious of possessing attributes or, if conscious may choose not to enact any implied behaviours.

Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework has been widely used in sport management literature to identify stakeholders in football clubs (Anagnostopoulos, 2011; Miragaia et al., 2014) and organising committees bidding for international events (Hautbois, Parent & Séguin 2012; Parent & Deephouse, 2007). In their study, Parent and Deephouse (2007) supported the positive relationship between the number of attributes and salience, and further observed that the hierarchical level and role of managers had a direct and moderating effect on stakeholder identification and salience. Furthermore, Hautbois et al. (2012) established that stakeholder salience was context or case dependent, changing at different phases of the bidding process with some stakeholders gaining or losing attributes.

While these studies confirm the utility of Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework in identifying salient stakeholders, Parent and Deephouse (2007) reported that stakeholder types could be more limited in practice than in theory. This suggests the need for further research to test the utility of this framework. Additionally, because this study establishes how different NSO stakeholders use influence strategies to

affect performance management processes, based on their possession of power, legitimacy and urgency attributes, there is a need to explore influence strategies that stakeholders use on NSOs. These are discussed in the next section.

### **Stakeholder influence strategies**

In a broad sense, stakeholder influence can be described as the level of stakeholder involvement in an organisation or the extent to which a stakeholder can compel others to follow a certain course of action (Eberendu, Akpana, Uban, & Okorochoa, 2017). Stakeholders have the capacity to influence decision making and organisational processes and may employ various strategies to change organisational practices (Rowley & Moldoveanu, 2003). A stakeholder can exert influence over an organisation in a situation where the organisation depends on the stakeholder for resources (De Bakker & Den Hond, 2008). Hence, resource dependence theory provides a framework to explore the power, dependence, autonomy and constraint relationships between the NSO and its stakeholders.

Resource dependence theory posits that organisations that are unable to generate resources internally, interact with other organisations within their environments to receive the resources they need to operate (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). While the resources received from the external environment reduces their financial vulnerability, their autonomy and ability to act independently is also greatly reduced because organisations that provide these critical resources have the power to influence the behaviour of the resource dependent organisation (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Wicker & Breuer, 2011). The power to influence the behaviour of an organisation based on control over resources forms the foundation of the influence

strategies that stakeholders use on focal organisations (Elijido-Ten, Kloot & Clarkson, 2010; Frooman, 1999; Hendry, 2005).

Based on this principle, Frooman (1999) developed a model that uses levels of resource dependence to determine the power that stakeholders have, and how they use it to influence organisational and decision-making processes. The model describes influence strategies used by stakeholders and the ways in which these can manipulate the supply of resources to focal organisations. According to Frooman (1999) stakeholders can use withholding or usage strategies direct or indirect to influence the behaviour of organisations. Withholding strategies entails discontinuing the provision of resources to an organisation with the intention of encouraging that organisation to change certain aspects of its behaviour (Elijido-Ten et al., 2010; Frooman, 1999). These withholding strategies work when the organisation depends on stakeholders' resources and when the balance of power resides with the stakeholders (Frooman, 1999; Hendry, 2005). On the other hand, stakeholders adopt usage strategies when the organisation does not depend on them and they stand to lose if they discontinued their provision of resources (Frooman, 1999; Tsai, Yeh, Wu, & Huang, 2005). In other words, when the balance of power is evenly distributed between the stakeholders and the focal organisation, stakeholders will continue to provide resources to the organisation with conditions attached (Frooman, 1999; Hendry, 2005).

Stakeholders can use either direct or indirect pathways to manipulate the flow of resources to an organisation (Frooman, 1999). Direct pathways are used when stakeholders manipulate the flow of resources to the organisation through either

withholding or usage strategies, whereas for indirect pathways, stakeholders work with allies to manipulate the flow of resources to the organisation through withholding and usage. Furthermore, Frooman (1999) identified relationships that are based on the extent of resource dependence between a stakeholder and the focal organisation. These resource relationships include stakeholder power, high interdependence, low interdependence and organisation power. In stakeholder power relationships, stakeholders have control over resources, while in high interdependence relationships, organisations and stakeholders depend on one another for resources (Frooman, 1999). In low interdependence relationships, neither the organisation nor the stakeholder depends on the other for resources while in an organisation power, the organisation does not depend on the stakeholder for resources (Frooman, 1999).

A number of previous studies have used Frooman's (1999) model, (Elijido-Ten et al., 2010; Hendry, 2005; Rowley & Moldoveanu, 2003; Tsai et al., 2005) including in sport management literature (Heffernan & O'Brien, 2010; Xue & Mason, 2017).

However, some critics have highlighted weaknesses regarding the use of this model. For instance, Hendry (2005) pointed out that the model fails to account for alliance formation among stakeholders. Additionally, Tsai et al. (2005) observed that resource dependencies alone could not be used to determine stakeholder influence strategies. Accounting for these weaknesses, Heffernan and O'Brien (2010) suggested that Frooman's (1999) model could be used to develop heuristics that broaden understanding on how stakeholders use influence strategies.

To mitigate against the weaknesses of Frooman's (1999) model, it has been used in conjunction with Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework enabling a complementary insight

into the behaviour of stakeholders. Stakeholders will firstly be identified using the power, legitimacy and urgency framework, and secondly influence strategies used by stakeholders to affect the performance management process will be established. What is important is to draw attention to performance management, the crux of this study. To that end, stakeholder influence and performance management are presented in the next section of the literature review.

### **Stakeholder influence and performance management**

The satisfaction of stakeholders has consistently been identified in literature as a determinant for measuring organisational performance among sport organisations (Bayle & Madella 2002; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; Shilbury & Moore, 2006; Winand et al., 2010). Performance measurement models such as the multiple constituency (Connolly, Conlon & Deutsch, 1980) and the competing values (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) approaches are based on the notion that organisational effectiveness is socially constructed and based on the satisfaction of stakeholders.

NSOs depend on a wide array of stakeholders to provide financial resources, human resources and media for exposure. On the other hand, stakeholders may also depend on specific services delivered by NSOs: for example, many stakeholders expect NSOs to provide mass participation and elite sports programmes (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Parent, Kristiansen, Skille, & Hanstad, 2015). Thus, different stakeholders may be interested in how NSO implement performance management stages that include goals and objectives setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward (Kasale, Winand, & Robinson, 2018). Despite stakeholder interest in the different stages of performance

management process, how they influence the implementation of these stages remains unknown.

It has been noted that research on organisational performance of NSOs has been conducted before, however, most of these studies were directed towards performance measurement with a few studies (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015) focussed on performance management. Furthermore, while some studies acknowledge the role that stakeholders play in performance measurement, (Papadimitriou & Taylor, 2000; Shilbury & Moore, 2006) none of the prior studies explore the influence of stakeholders on the stages of performance management among NSOs.

With regards to Botswana and Africa, the paucity of research on performance management of NSOs compounds the challenge of establishing the influence of stakeholders on performance management in this geographical context.

Nevertheless, some studies conducted in Botswana indicate that performance management systems have been adopted by Botswana government to improve the quality of its public service (Marobela, 2008; Mosware, 2011). However, no studies illustrate how performance management is implemented by government departments that deal with sport in Botswana and therefore, this study provides an opportunity to explore performance management of NSOs in a new and distinct geographical context. Additionally, no studies were found in the literature on the influence of stakeholders on NSOs in Botswana. Lindgreen, Swaen and Campbell (2009) explored how stakeholders influenced corporate social responsibility initiatives among organisations in Botswana and Malawi. But while this study offers insight into



the behaviour of stakeholders in developing countries, there remains a need to study the behaviour of stakeholders in the context of sport and to gain insights on how stakeholders influence the performance management of NSOs. More information on Botswana is presented in the next section of this paper as a part of the rationale for the methods used in this study.

## **METHODS**

### **Geographical context**

Botswana national teams have been competing at international events since the country's independence in 1966. However, disappointing results prompted the government to set up a commission of inquiry to investigate the poor performance of the country's national teams in 1997 (Kasale, Burnett, & Hollander 2003). The inquiry identified structural deficiencies in the administration of sport and recommended the implementation of the National Policy on Sports and Recreation to facilitate reforms to the sporting landscape (Shehu & Mokgwathi, 2007). This led to developments that include the creation of a government ministry responsible for sport, changes to sport legislature, development of sports infrastructure and increased government spending on sport (Bohutsana & Akpata, 2013). These developments to the sporting landscape in Botswana create an interesting context to study performance management of NSOs.

### **Research design**

As this was exploratory research into performance management in NSOs in a unique and previously unresearched context, qualitative research was considered the most appropriate approach. Interviews and focus groups with stakeholders, board

members and operational staff were used to explore, explain and understand how different stakeholders influence performance management of NSOs, thus ensuring an in-depth and as rich a source of data as possible. Both interviews and focus groups were used as it was considered that these were complimentary data sources: Interviews provided face to face interaction between the researchers and the respondents, and focus groups facilitated group dynamics enabling participants the freedom to challenge themselves and to raise and discuss issues pertinent to the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2013; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Questions for the interviews and focus groups were developed from the literature guided by the objectives of the study. Both the interviews and focus groups followed a semi-structured format, allowing participants the flexibility to explore interesting tangents in discussions and enabling unique contributions to the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2013; Veal, 2005). All discussions were digitally recorded and later transcribed verbatim.

## **Participants**

Fourteen (n=14) out of 37 NSOs affiliated to Botswana National Sports Commission (BNSC) – a sports agency that serves as a link between government and the NSOs – were identified to participate in the study. To ensure diversity, the selection of NSOs was based on the categorisation of the BNSC's Affiliates Empowerment Policy. This policy classifies NSOs based on their geographical spread, national appeal, popularity, level of activity, equity, social responsibility, focus on development, elite sports performance, numerical strength and quality leadership. Further selection was based on whether NSOs were an Olympic or non-Olympic, individual, team, or mixed sport.

Nine (n=9) board members and twelve (n=12) operational staff from the 14 selected NSOs were interviewed. Board members interviewed included presidents, vice presidents and a secretary general, while the operational staff included chief executive officers, an administration manager, a youth team development officer and sports development officers. Furthermore, sixteen (n=16) participants including ten (n=10) board members and six (n=6) operational staff participated in 3 NSO focus groups, with one group comprising of six members and two groups made of five members each. Four operational staff members participated in both the interviews and focus groups.

Stakeholders were also interviewed and participated in focus groups. Bayle and Madella's (2002) stakeholder map was used to ensure the inclusion of a wide range of stakeholder in the study. A total of ten (n=10) stakeholders were interviewed including representatives from an international federation, a continental federation, the Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development (hereinafter referred to as Ministry), the BNSC, the Botswana National Olympic Committee, the media, sponsors and the community. In addition, fourteen (n=14) stakeholders including coaches, athletes, officials, team and club representatives from the 14 selected NSOs participated in two stakeholder focus groups each comprising seven (n=7) members. None of the stakeholders participated in both the interviews and the focus groups.

## **Data collection**

The data were collected in four phases between January and May 2017 and June and July 2018. The use of phases in the data collection exercise, coupled with the semi-structured format for the interviews and focus groups, allowed for previous phases of the data collection exercise to inform subsequent phases, thereby enriching the quality of discussions and hence the data collected. The first phase of the data collection exercise comprised of focus groups for NSO board members and operational staff. Discussions here centred on the type of resources provided by the stakeholders, stakeholder expectations and whether stakeholders used influence strategies on the performance management of NSOs. The second phase entailed interviews and focus group meetings with stakeholders. These followed a linked schedule of open-ended questions that explored the resources made available to NSOs, stakeholder expectations and whether stakeholders used influence strategies on performance management of NSOs.

In the third phase of the data collection exercise, interviews with board members and members of the operational staff were conducted. A standard interview guide encouraged a discussion that explored attributes possessed by various stakeholders according to Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework as well as influence strategies used by stakeholders on the phases of performance management process. In the fourth and final phase, transcripts from interviews and focus groups were confirmed with the participants of the study. This allowed for three (3) follow up interviews to be conducted with a board member, a member of operational staff and a stakeholder (n=3) to enable the collection of additional data to fill gaps identified during the data analysis process.

## **Data analysis**

The data collected from the interviews and focus groups was managed using the NVivo 11 qualitative data analysis software and thematically analysed. The decision to use thematic analysis was based on its advantages of summarizing key features of a large data set (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). To analyse the data, a coding framework was developed deductively from the theoretical framework. Codes that included expectations of the stakeholders, stakeholder power, legitimacy of stakeholder claims, and urgency of stakeholder claims were developed and used to categorise the data to enable the identification of stakeholders according to Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework. Additionally, codes that included resources provided by stakeholders, organisation power, stakeholder power, resource interdependence, direct pathways, indirect pathways, withholding strategies and usage strategies were developed and used to categorise the data for the identification of influence strategies according to Frooman's (1999) model.

The coding framework was used to develop themes that include types of stakeholder, resources made available to NSOs and influence strategies used on performance management of NSOs. Moreover, subthemes that include goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward were also developed as they described the stages of the performance management process influenced by stakeholders. Quotations from the data were identified, assessed for commonalities and differences and used to identify and categorise NSO stakeholders according to their salience (Mitchell et al., 1997) and to identify influence strategies that stakeholders use on the performance management

of NSOs (Frooman, 1999). The results obtained from this process are presented in the next section.

## RESULTS

### Stakeholder identification

Stakeholders were identified according to how board members and operational staff perceived them to possess salience attributes (Mitchell et al., 1997). There were similarities and differences in these perceptions. Board members and operational staff perceived international federations, continental federations, BNSC and Botswana National Olympic Committee to possess all the salience attributes because they enforced affiliation statutes and regulations that required NSO compliance. A board member and an operational staff described the attributes possessed by international and continental federations as follows:

*[...] they have power to revoke our affiliation [...] as] they require compliance to rules and regulations [...]. (Interviewee board members #9)*

*[...] their needs and expectations are legitimate [...] we are duty bound to respond [...] with urgency. (Interviewee operational staff #6)*

Additionally, board members and operational staff perceived sponsors to possess all the salience attributes because they provided NSOs with funding. The funds provided through sponsorships also came with terms of reference that described what sponsors required. Elaborating on this an operational staff member noted that:

*[...] the needs and expectations of the sponsors are stipulated in the terms of reference of the sponsorship [...] NSOs should urgently meet these to*

*continue receiving the sponsorship [...] because they provide funding, their [claims] are legitimate.* (Interviewee operational staff #11)

In other similarities, both groups perceived the Ministry to possess power and legitimacy attributes and not urgency. Furthermore, there was consensus that the community possessed legitimacy attribute because it comprised of members of the public who paid taxes and as such their claims on NSOs were legitimate.

Additionally, national team players, coaches, umpires and officials were perceived to possess legitimacy and urgency attributes but not power. Describing attributes possessed by the Ministry, interviewees remarked that:

*[...] the Ministry provides grants to [NSOs...] they have every right to make demands.* (Interviewee board member #7)

*[the Ministry's] claim is legitimate [...] we do not deal with the Ministry on a day to day basis and as such we do not really feel the urgency of their requests.* (Interviewee operational staff #1)

The board members and the operational staff had differing perceptions of attributes possessed by clubs, teams, individual members and the media. Board members perceived these stakeholders to possess power, legitimacy and urgency attributes, while operational staff members mostly perceived them to possess legitimacy and urgency but not power. Elaborating on these perceptions, a board member and an operational staff member remarked that:

*[Clubs, teams and individual members] depend on [NSOs] to provide services to them [but] power still lies with [NSO].* (Interviewee operational staff #4)

*[...] they have the power to vote us out of office [...] their claims are legitimate because [NSOs] exist to serve their members, [...] their needs and expectations are urgent. (Interviewee board members #2)*

Similarly, operational staff believed that the media possessed power and legitimacy attributes while the board members perceived them to possess only power but not legitimacy or urgency attributes. The perceptions of NSO board members and operational staff on the attributes that various stakeholder possessed helped identify stakeholder types according to Mitchell et al.'s (1997) salience model. The different types of stakeholders identified among NSOs in Botswana are discussed next.

### **Types of NSO stakeholders**

Based on the perceptions of the board members and operational staff, NSO stakeholders in Botswana were identified as definitive, dominant, dependent, dormant and discretionary stakeholder types. International federations, continental federations, BNSC, Botswana National Olympic Committee and sponsors were identified as definitive stakeholders because they possessed all the salience attributes. The Ministry was perceived as a dominant stakeholder because it possessed power and legitimacy attributes, while national team players, coaches, umpires and officials were perceived as dependent stakeholders because they possessed legitimacy and urgency attributes. The community was identified as a discretionary stakeholder because of the legitimacy attribute it possessed.

In instances where there were differing perceptions on the attributes possessed by stakeholders, inevitably this results in differences in stakeholder identification. For instance, the operational staff believed that the media possessed power and



legitimacy attributes making them dominant stakeholders while the board members perceived them to possess only power, making them dormant stakeholders. These differing perceptions on the media were explained as follows:

*The media has the power to create or destroy [NSOs, their] claim is legitimate because they cover our events using their own resources. (Interviewee operational staff #11)*

*[...] the media may have the power, but they do not have any claim to [NSOs] because they need us as much as we need them. [...] They sell their stories using our events and we need the coverage. (Interviewee board member #1)*

The board members and operational staff also differed on the attributes possessed by coaches, umpires and officials: identified as dependent stakeholders by operational staff who perceived them to possess power and legitimacy attributes, but as definitive stakeholders by board members who perceived them to possess all the salience attributes.

Following stakeholder identification, there was an additional need to consider how the different type of stakeholders differently influenced NSOs. This is discussed in the next section.

### **Influence strategies used by NSO stakeholders**

The results indicate that stakeholders used withholding and usage strategies, directly and indirectly on Botswana NSO in line with Frooman's (1999) model. International and continental federations employed usage strategies through direct pathways based on the high interdependence resource relationship they shared with NSOs.

The international and continental federations depended on the NSOs to administer sport in their countries while NSOs depended on their funding for coaches and officials training, equipment and facility development. Describing this high interdependence relationship, an operational staff member noted that:

*[...international and continental federations] provide [NSOs] with resources [and we...] represent their presence in our countries [...].* (Interviewee operational staff #5)

On the other hand, BNSC, Botswana National Olympic Committee and sponsors shared a stakeholder power resource relationship with NSOs. These stakeholders had control over the resources - grants, scholarships and sponsorships and they used withholding strategies through direct influence pathways on NSOs. A board member described influence strategies used by the BNSC as follows:

*[...] when [NSOs] do not meet the needs and expectations of the BNSC, they can lose their funding [ and even...] their affiliation.* (Interviewee board member #2)

Similarly, Botswana National Olympic Committee and sponsors used withholding strategies to ensure that NSOs complied with their needs and expectations.

The media and the Ministry also had control over resources and hence had stakeholder power over NSOs. The media controlled the coverage and sponsorship of sporting events while the Ministry controlled grants made available to NSOs. The media employed withholding influence strategies through direct influence pathways confirming their stakeholder power. A representative of the media noted that:

*[...] when we feel [NSOs] are not meeting our expectations, we do not provide media coverage for their events. (Interviewee stakeholder #4)*

In contrast, the Ministry employed withholding strategies through indirect pathways where their influence was exerted through the BNSC. A Ministry representative observed that:

*NSOs are independent and we do not influence them [...] we monitor their activities through [the BNSC] who deal with them directly. (Interviewee stakeholder #2)*

A high interdependence resource relationship existed between the NSOs and clubs, teams, individual members, national team players, coaches, umpires and officials. These stakeholders depended on the NSOs to facilitate sporting programs for them and the NSOs relied on them to legitimise their existence. These stakeholders employed usage strategies through direct pathways to influence NSOs. A participant in one of the stakeholder focus groups pointed out that:

*[...] we need [NSOs] to provide good programmes for our athletes, coaches and umpires [...] we participate in all [NSO] activities. (Participant #3 Focus Group Stakeholder 2)*

The community and the NSOs shared a low interdependence resource relationship in which they did not depend on each other for resources. Here the community employed usage strategies indirectly, by using a pressure group called Women in Sport Botswana and partnerships with the media to influence NSOs. This was described by a community elder who noted that:

*[...] because [NSOs] use public funds, sometimes we [use] pressure groups [...] when we are not satisfied with their performance [...] we have used WASBO [Women in Sport Botswana] in the past so that we could be heard [...] sometimes we use the media [...].* (Interviewee stakeholder #10)

That said, there were instances where the community had power over resources. For example, the community has stakeholder power when they provide community facilities to NSOs. In these instances, the community could directly use withholding strategies to grant or deny NSOs access to playing venues and facilities. A community leader recounted that:

*[...] we provide [NSOs] with community facilities [...] but that is [...] at our discretion.* (Interviewee stakeholder #10)

The results indicate that stakeholders use influence strategies as described by Frooman (1999) on NSOs. How the strategies were used to affect the performance management process is presented in the following section.

### **Stakeholder influence on performance management process**

The results indicate that NSO stakeholders used withholding and usage strategies, directly and indirectly to affect different stages of the performance management process. Table 1 provides an illustration of the types of stakeholders, the resources they provide and the resource relationship between the stakeholder and the NSOs. Table 1 also shows the pathways for manipulating the flow of resources and the influence strategies used on the stages of the performance management process.

**Table 1: Stakeholder identification, influence strategies and stages of the PM process**

Stakeholder types	Stakeholder	Resources	Influence strategy			
			Goal & objective setting	Processes & activities	Performance measurement	Feedback & Feedforward
<b>Definitive stakeholders</b>	International federations	Scholarships Facility development Equipment		HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage
	Continental federations	Scholarships Facility development Equipment		HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage
	Botswana National Sports Commission	Government grants	SP, Direct Withholding	SP, Direct Withholding	SP, Direct Withholding	SP, Direct Withholding
	Botswana National Olympic Committee	Scholarships		SP, Direct Withholding	SP Direct Withholding	SP, Direct Withholding
	Sponsors	Sponsorships		SP, Direct Withholding	SP, Direct Withholding	SP, Direct Withholding
	Clubs, Teams, Individual members (BM)	Membership fees	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage
<b>Dominant stakeholders</b>	Ministry, Youth Sports & Culture	Grants	SP, Indirect Withholding	SP, Indirect Withholding	SP, Indirect Withholding	SP, Indirect Withholding
	Media (OP)	Media coverage Marketing		SP, Direct Withholding		SP, Direct Withholding
<b>Dependent stakeholders</b>	Clubs, Teams, Individual members (OP)	Membership fees	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage
	National Team Players	Elite athlete services	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage
	Coaches, Umpires, Technical staff	Professional sport services	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage	HI, Direct Usage
<b>Dormant stakeholder</b>	Media (BM)	Media coverage Marketing		SP, Direct Withholding		SP, Direct Withholding
<b>Discretionary stakeholder</b>	Community	Community facilities		SP, Direct Withholding		SP, Indirect Withholding

**Key:** BM: Board members; OP: Operational staff; HI: High interdependence; LI: Low interdependence; SP: Stakeholder power

that include processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward. These stakeholders provided funding for NSO programs and activities, and they required reports on their initiatives. A representative of a continental federation remarked that:

*we fund some activities implemented by [NSO...] we expect them to report on how they used our investment.* (Interviewee stakeholder #1)

In contrast, the BNSC used withholding strategies to influence the goal and objective setting, activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process. The goal and objective setting were influenced by the BNSC's demands for alignment of strategic plans. The BNSC also influenced NSO activities through its approval of funding for sanctioned activities. Additionally, the NSOs were expected to report to the BNSC, prompting NSOs to conduct performance measurement against their objectives. The reports submitted to the BNSC also served as feedback and feedforward for NSOs. As described by some board members and operational staff, the BNSC influenced all stages of the performance management process:

*The BNSC demands that we align our strategy with the BNSC 2028.*

(Interviewee board member #5)

*[...] we have to report all activities that we engage in to the BNSC [...the BNSC] moderates our processes and activities.* (Interviewee operational staff #1)

*[...] we submit activity, annual and financial reports to the BNSC.*

(Interviewee board member #3)

Botswana National Olympic Committee and the sponsors influenced the processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process, a sponsor noted that:

*we actively participate in [NSO activities] because it is where we market ourselves [...] a report on our funding is important to us. (Interviewee stakeholder #3)*

Similarly, the media influenced the activities, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process through providing media coverage for NSO activities and events. Furthermore, their scrutiny of the NSOs ensures more rigor in reporting mechanisms thereby, influencing both performance measurement, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process.

The Ministry influenced goal and objectives setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process. While the influence was indirect, it was exerted through the BNSC which ensured compliance of NSOs. Clubs, teams, individual members, national team players, coaches, umpires and officials influenced the goals and objectives set, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process while the community influenced the activities, feedback and feedforward stages.

## **DISCUSSION**

### **Salience of NSO stakeholders**

In identifying Botswana NSO stakeholders according to their salience, it was established that international federations, continental federations, BNSC, Botswana

National Olympic Committee and sponsors were definitive stakeholders. The BNSC, international federations and continental federations were perceived to possess power because they could revoke the affiliation status of NSOs therefore, their claims were perceived to be legitimate and urgent. This result is consistent with the findings of Parent and Deephouse (2007) who established that most definitive stakeholder had some form of regulative or legislative means of power. In addition, the BNSC, Botswana National Olympic Committee and sponsors were identified as definitive stakeholders because they provided resources to NSOs. These stakeholders were perceived to possess utilitarian power enabling them to impose their will on NSOs. The resource constraint nature of the environment in Botswana means that resources received from stakeholders become important for NSO survival. In turn NSOs become susceptible to influence from these stakeholders. Moreover, the receipt of resources resulted in NSOs perceiving the claims by BNSC, Botswana National Olympic Committee and sponsors to be legitimate and urgent, consistent with Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework.

Another stakeholder that provided resources to NSOs was the Ministry. The Ministry was identified as a dominant stakeholder. While it possessed utilitarian power and its claims were perceived to be legitimate because of the grants it provided to NSOs, its claims were not perceived to be urgent. This is because the Ministry interacts with NSOs through the BNSC and hence it could not exert any urgency on these organisations. Other stakeholders including national team players, coaches, umpires and officials were identified as dependent stakeholders while the community was identified as a discretionary stakeholder.



While board members and operational staff agreed on attributes they perceived some stakeholders to possess, they differed on their perception of salience on some stakeholders. Operational staff perceived clubs, teams and individual members as dependent stakeholders, while board members perceived them as definitive stakeholders. Furthermore, the media was perceived as a dormant stakeholder by the operational staff but as a dormant stakeholder by board members. This finding confirms Mitchell et al.'s (1997) supposition that the existence of each attribute is a matter of multiple perceptions; a constructed reality rather than an objective one. Furthermore, Hautbois et al. (2012) also found that the salience of the stakeholders and the attributes they possessed varied according to the various cases that they studied.

The most common attribute possessed by NSO stakeholders as perceived by the board and the operational staff was legitimacy. While this result is contrary to Parent and Deephouse (2007) who found power to be the most common attribute, this finding further confirms Mitchell et al.'s (1997) and Hautbois et al.'s (2012) suppositions, that salience depends on a constructed reality. Importantly, the salience of the NSO stakeholders in a developing country like Botswana is likely to differ from the salience of the NSO stakeholders from other countries, because of how board members and operational staff perceive stakeholder and the attributes they possess. Further research could usefully consider a comparative analysis between the salience of NSO stakeholders from different economies and culture to determine if identifying stakeholders differently influences how they will affect organisational processes.

## **Stakeholders' influence and performance management of NSOs**

NSO stakeholders employed withholding and usage strategies to influence the various stages of the performance management process. The performance management stages influenced depended on the resource relationship between the NSO and the stakeholder, and whether they interacted during the implementation of the stage. Stakeholders such as the BNSC, clubs, teams, individual members, the Ministry, national team players, coaches, umpires and officials used influence strategies on all the stages of the performance management process because they are involved in their implementation. For instance, the clubs, teams and individual members were involved in the goal setting process as they participated in the general meetings where NSO goals were set and reviewed. Furthermore, they are key actors in the implementation of activities that the NSO engages in and they can effect changes to organisational processes through their general meetings. Additionally, these stakeholders are involved in performance measurement processes as it is their activities that are measured, and they are affected by the feedback and feedforward which they should use to improve the implementation of their future activities.

Stakeholders that were not involved in the implementation of some stages of the performance management process could not use influence strategies on those stages. For instance, international federations, continental federations, Botswana National Olympic Committee, sponsors, media and community could not use influence strategies on the goals and objectives set by the NSOs because they did not participate in the strategy formulation process. While some of these stakeholders were invited to NSO general meetings, they did not participate in the deliberations

and could not influence the goals and objectives set. The NSOs may consider the needs and expectations of these stakeholders when they set their goals and objectives (Parent et al., 2015) but these stakeholders do not influence the process because they are not actively involved in it. Similarly, the media and the community do not use influence the performance measurement processes as they did not participate in them.

The BNSC employed withholding influence strategies to affect all the stages of the performance management process because they controlled resources, and hence had stakeholder power. Consequently, they influenced goal and objective setting and activities stages by demanding the alignment of NSO and BNSC strategies and ensuring that they sanctioned the activities implemented. Furthermore, the BNSC expected NSOs to report on all activities they engage in and work towards improving their performance in future. When NSOs failed to meet the needs and expectations of the BNSC, they stood to lose their grant or have their affiliation revoked. The Ministry also employed withholding strategies on all stages of the performance management process because it controlled the resources and grants made available to NSOs. However, the influence pathway that it used was indirect because they depended on the BNSC to interact with the NSOs. The BNSC and the Ministry were the only two stakeholders that used withholding influence strategies on all the stages of the performance management process and as a result had the most influence on the implementation of the process among NSOs. This could be because the grant funding made available to NSOs formed a large part of their budget.

This view was shared by many board members and operational staff. Based on this view, it can be argued that the Ministry through the BNSC is the key player in influencing how performance management is implemented by Botswana NSOs. The government's drive for improvements to the performance of national athletes and teams at international competitions (Shehu & Mokgwathi, 2007) could offer an explanation to this influence. This result is particularly relevant in a Botswana context where the grant from the Ministry forms the largest part of NSOs budgets. Further research could establish how the government influences the implementation of performance management among NSOs in contexts where these organisations have access to a wider range of resource streams.

Botswana National Olympic Committee, sponsors, media and the community are other stakeholders that used withholding strategies to influence stages of the performance management process in their interaction with NSOs. For instance, the sponsors could withhold their sponsorship, the media, their coverage of sport events, and the community could deny NSOs access to community facilities. These stakeholders used influence strategies on processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward stages of the performance management process. These results indicate that where a stakeholder has control over resources, they may use strategies to influence focal organisations. This result confirms Frooman's (1999) suppositions and the findings of Heffernan and O'Brien (2010) as well as Xue and Mason (2017), that control over resources gives a stakeholder power to influence the behaviour of the focal organisation. For NSOs in Botswana where resources are scarce because the government deals with more pressing matters such as the HIV/Aids pandemic and other health concerns, inevitably fewer

resources are available for sport (Chappell, 2004). In addition, as a country with a small population, Botswana is unable to attract big multi-national corporations like its neighbour South Africa as its markets are too small. This leads to fewer corporate sponsors and limited access to what could otherwise be a lucrative resource stream for NSOs. These factors help explain the reasons Botswana NSOs are susceptible to influence that results from withholding resources. By meeting their resource needs, organisational and performance management processes of NSOs in Botswana are easily influenced by those stakeholders who control resources.

It was also established that in cases where stakeholder such as the community did not have control over resources, indirect pathways were used by relying on a pressure group and partnerships with the media to influence stages of the performance management process. This is consistent with De Bakker and Den Hond's (2008) finding that a stakeholder can exert influence on the focal organisation by forging alliances with other stakeholders. This finding is further contrary to Hendry (2005) who noted that Frooman's (1999) model could not account for alliance forming behaviours among stakeholders.

Clubs, teams, individual members, national team players, coaches, umpires and technical staff, also employed usage influence strategies on all the stages of the performance management process as they were involved in their implementation. This was due to a high interdependence resource relationship between the NSOs and these stakeholders.

## **CONCLUSION**

Drawing on the established frameworks and models of Mitchell et al.'s (1997) and Frooman's (1999), this research demonstrates that different stakeholders can use different influence strategies on the stages of performance management process that they are involved in. It was also found that stakeholders who contributed the largest share of resources to NSOs were key players as they used withholding strategies to influence all the stages of the performance management process. Additionally, stakeholders that shared a high interdependence resource relationship with NSO primarily employed usage strategies throughout the stages of the performance management process.

As the study of performance management of NSOs evolves, further research could empirically test the relationship between stakeholders, resources, organisational processes and the performance management of NSOs. Theoretical development such as stakeholder, resources dependence, institutional, and contingency theories can provide a base to explore the role that stakeholders play in the development and use of performance management systems among NSOs. Furthermore, how the NSOs' operational environment is affected by the influence of stakeholders and the influence strategies they use provides avenues for future research as does the role that the individuals within NSOs play because of stakeholder influences.

This study contributes to sport management literature by demonstrating how stakeholders with different resource relationships with NSOs differently influence the implementation of the stages of performance management process. The study further provides insights on performance management of NSOs in the context of a

developing African country, thus enriching our understanding of how stakeholders from different geographical contexts influence organisational processes. The study also has practical utility because it informs sport managers on how stakeholders use influence strategies on performance management. This information is useful to sport managers as they can facilitate organisational processes that account for stakeholder influences, thereby ensuring the satisfaction of their multiple stakeholders and improved service delivery.

## **6.2 Summary of article 2**

This article argues that stakeholders are an external and internal environmental influence that affects the implementation of the stages of the PM process. Depending on how they interact with NSOs, stakeholders could influence the stages of the PM process that they were involved in. Furthermore, their control over resources enabled stakeholders to use withholding or usage strategies through either direct or indirect pathways to influence relevant stages of the PM process.

Objective (2) of this study was concerned with whether stakeholders influenced the implementation of PM practices among NSOs and how and why they did so. This study established that stakeholders and NSOs developed relationships that depended on control over resources. These resource relationships enabled stakeholders to use influence strategies to affect the implementation of goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement and feedback and feedforward stages of the PM process. Thus, stakeholders are an external environmental influence that affects the implementation of PM among NSOs.

This article further demonstrates the utility of using Mitchell, Agle and Wood's (1997) framework and Frooman's (1999) model in unison to achieve key objectives

of this study. The use of these frameworks together had its foundations in the theoretical framework that uses stakeholder and resources dependence theories. The use of these models enabled identification of who the NSO stakeholders are and how they affect the implementation of PM within these organisations, thereby addressing the general aim of this PhD study.



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## **Chapter 7: An institutional work perspective to performance management: The case of Botswana National Sport Organisations**

Kasale L. L., Winand, M. & Morrow, S. (2020). An institutional work perspective to performance management: The case of Botswana National Sport Organisations. Accepted for publication in the *Journal of Global Sport Management*.

### **Introduction to article 3**

This article explored how and why performance management practices are adopted and implemented by NSOs. Specifically, this study investigated the roles that stakeholders, board members and operational staff play in the implementation of PM practices. The study established that NSOs adopt and maintain PM practices in response to coercive, mimetic and normative pressures. Furthermore, the study found that the decisions taken by individuals within NSOs as they responded to external influences acting on their organisations were guided by their organisational values. The decisions influenced how PM was implemented among NSOs.

This article addresses objective (4) of this study by demonstrating the roles that board members and operational staff play in the adoption and implementation of PM practices. Firstly, it demonstrates that stakeholders play a role by exerting pressure on NSOs. Secondly, board members and operational staff play a role by either acceding to or manipulating the demands and expectations of the stakeholders. As they did so, board members and operational staff created and maintained PM practices in their NSOs.

This article further demonstrates the utility of institutional theory and the institutional work perspective in understanding how PM practices are adopted and implemented by NSOs.



## **Abstract**

Performance management practices are used by organizations to monitor the efficiency and effectiveness of organizational processes. However, how National Sport Organizations adopt and implement these practices is still unknown. To fill this gap, this research investigates how and why performance management practices are adopted and implemented by National Sport Organizations. Data was collected from documents, 31 semi-structured interviews and five focus group meetings held with 14 Botswana National Sport Organizations and 10 of their stakeholders. The results indicate that stakeholders and individuals within National Sport Organizations play different roles in the creation and maintenance of performance management practices. This information can help sport managers to improve how they implement performance management practices, ensuring the efficiency and effectiveness of their organizational processes and the satisfaction of their stakeholders.

**Key words:** Performance management practices, National Sport Organizations, institutional pressures, institutional work, organizational values

## **1. Introduction**

Research on organizational performance conducted over the last three decades indicates that performance management (PM) practices are prevalent in National Sport Organizations (NSOs) (Frisby, 1986; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015; Solntsev & Osokin, 2018; Winand, Zintz, Bayle, & Robinson, 2010). Much of the research shows that NSOs use PM systems to build their capacity to meet organizational and social expectations (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; Winand, Vos, Claessens, Thibaut, &

Scheerder, 2014). As a result, over time PM practices have proliferated among NSOs (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015). However, details of how these practices are adopted and implemented by these organizations remain unclear.

NSOs are non-profit organizations that facilitate mass participation and elite sport programs in their communities (Shilbury & Moore, 2006). Their receipt of public funds and stakeholder resources makes them susceptible to scrutiny as their ability to achieve organizational, social and sport objectives is questioned (Papadimitriou, 1998; Winand et al., 2010). While this has led NSOs to use PM practices (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015; Winand et al., 2014), little is known of how these management control practices are adopted and implemented by these organizations. To fill this gap, the aim of this study is to establish how PM practices are adopted and implemented by NSOs. The objectives that guide this study are: to identify institutional pressures that act on NSOs; and to establish how individuals within NSOs respond to these pressures and whether their responses lead to the creation, maintenance and disruption of PM practices.

This study was conducted in Botswana, a sparsely populated Southern African country whose national teams have experienced disappointing performance in international competitions since the country gained its independence in 1966. In 1997, the Botswana government instituted a commission of inquiry investigating the poor performance of its national teams (Kasale, Burnett & Hollander, 2003). The recommendations of the commission led to legislative reforms, infrastructural developments and financing initiatives designed to improve the country's

international sporting performance (Bohutsana & Akpata, 2013). However, to date no research has investigated whether there were concomitant developments in the PM of Botswana NSOs.

While numerous prior studies have been conducted on the organizational performance of NSOs in developed countries (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Madella, Bayle & Tome, 2005; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015; Solntsev & Osokin, 2018; Winand et al., 2010), such countries have markedly different social, economic and cultural backgrounds than Botswana. For instance, developed countries economies allows for bigger NSOs that have access to more lucrative resource streams. While Botswana is a middle-income country with an economic performance that enables provisions for education, health care, food and social security (Chappell, 2007), NSOs in the country are relatively smaller with fewer available resource streams. Its small population and hence small markets make it more difficult to attract big multinational corporations, in contrast, for example, to its neighbor South Africa whose larger markets allow for big sponsorship deals for NSOs. Therefore, the particular context of Botswana presents an opportunity to study how small NSOs that exist in sparsely populated countries with fewer lucrative resource streams implement PM, thus providing a distinct perspective of how these NSOs operate.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge around PM as it is the first to establish the roles played by stakeholders, board members and operational staff in the adoption and implementation of PM practices among NSOs. This information can help improve the efficiency and effectiveness of sport organizations by encouraging managers to reflect on their internal PM practices. Knowing how they influence PM

practices in NSOs can help stakeholders to improve the quality of the feedback they receive by encouraging NSOs to use effective reporting mechanisms. Additionally, policy makers can use this information to develop policies that are easily embraced by NSOs. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The next section is the literature review that elaborates on PM practices in NSOs and on organizational values and collective responses. Next, the theoretical framework that underpins the study is presented. This is followed by the methods, results and discussion sections. The paper concludes with theoretical and practical implications, limitations and suggestions for further research.

## **2. Performance management practices in National Sport Organizations**

PM is a process that provides a proactive closed loop control system, where strategies are deployed to all business processes and feedback is obtained through a performance measurement system to enable appropriate management decisions (Bititci, Carrie, & McDevitt, 1997). It is a cyclical process made up of PM practices, described as formal mechanisms that organizations use to manage performance in line with their corporate and functional strategies (Bititci et al., 1997; Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Pavlov, Mura, Franco-Santos, & Bourne, 2017). According to Pavlov et al. (2017), PM practices are used to communicate direction, and to provide feedback on current performance to influence behavior and stimulate improvement action. PM practices include goals and objectives setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward (Bititci, Cocca, & Ates, 2016; Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Pavlov et al., 2017).

In goal and objective setting, performance objectives, key performance indicators and targets are formulated from the organization's vision, mission and values (Ferreira & Otley, 2009). Performance objectives and targets indicate what the organization wants to achieve while key performance indicators measure how effectively an organization meets its objectives (Bititci et al., 1997; Ferreira & Otley, 2009). The organization seeks to achieve its goals and objectives through organizational processes such as leadership, communication and facilitating an organizational culture that supports performance (Arnold, Fletcher & Molyneux, 2012; Bayle & Robinson, 2007). These processes are used to implement activities that include NSOs' mass participation and elite sport programs (Winand et al., 2010). How NSOs use organizational processes to implement their activities determines how they perform (Winand et al., 2014).

Performance measurement entails establishing the efficiency and effectiveness of attaining organizational goals by comparing actual performance against performance targets (Bititci et al., 1997; Bititci, Cocca, & Ates, 2016). The information obtained from the performance measurement process can be used either as feedback to establish the extent to which goals and objectives were achieved, or feedforward to facilitate improvements to future performance cycles (Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Pavlov et al., 2017).

Sport management research on organizational performance of NSOs conducted over the last three decades focused on performance measurement rather than PM (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014). However, recently there has been research interest in the PM of NSOs (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; Kasale, Winand & Morrow, 2019; Kasale,

Winand & Robinson, 2018; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014; 2015). While these studies provide insights into how NSOs manage their organizational performance, they do less to describe how PM practices are adopted and implemented by NSOs.

Furthermore, these studies do not explain the roles that actors within and outside NSOs play to create, maintain and disrupt these practices.

With regards to Botswana, the lack of research on the PM of NSOs makes it challenging to establish how PM practices are adopted and implemented by these organisations. However, it is important to note that in 1999 the government of Botswana introduced PM systems to its public services, with the objective of improving and sustaining productivity and service delivery (Bulawa, 2011; Mosware, 2011). PM research conducted in Botswana to date details challenges faced in implementing the practice in the public service and in some government ministries (Bulawa, 2011; Marobela, 2008; Mosware, 2011). For example, Bulawa (2011) describes a top down approach to the implementation of PM systems by the Ministry of Education and Skills Development in Botswana schools. This approach led to challenges as teachers did not feel that the PM systems implemented were suitable to their work (Bulawa, 2011). While this study provides insights into how PM practices are adopted by Botswana schools, there remains a need to establish how NSOs adopt and implement them.

### **3. Collective responses and organizational values**

Organizational values define basic shared beliefs that guide, justify and explain the behavior and action of individuals within organizations (Miller & Yu, 2003; Tuulik, Õunapuu, Kuimet & Titov, 2016). These values determine how organizations

respond to institutional pressures (Greenwood & Hinings, 1996). It is important to note that individuals also have their own belief systems and values that influence their responses and actions (Amis, Slack & Hinings, 2002; Miller & Yu, 2003). For instance, the response of a Chief Executive Officer or a sport manager may be explained by the interplay between their personal and organizational values.

However, when they respond as part of a department or as the NSO, their individual values may be less influential than organizational values particularly when individual values are not consistent with the organizational values (Miller & Yu, 2003). In this study, individuals within NSOs refers to board members and operational staff who collectively respond to pressures acting on their organizations. Of interest is how their responses are explained, guided or justified by organizational rather than individual values.

Prior studies indicate how individuals within organizations collectively respond to pressures acting on their organizations, with responses varying from passive conformity to active resistance (Oliver 1991; Pache & Santos, 2010). Oliver (1991) developed a typology of responses that include acquiescence, dismissal, compromise, avoidance, defiance and manipulation. According to Oliver's (1991) typology, acquiescence is when an organization agrees to institutional pressures as a result of habit, imitation and compliance (Oliver, 1991; Pache & Santos, 2010). At the far end of the typology is manipulation which involves co-opting, influence and control (Oliver, 1991).

According to Amis, Slack and Hinings (2002), how individuals within NSOs respond to pressures acting on their organizations depends on how close organizational

values are to the proposed response. For instance, if organizational values are consistent with proposed responses, then compliance responses are possible. However, if the values do not coincide with proposed responses, then there could be defiance or manipulative responses that attempt to change pressures acting on the organization (Amis, Slack & Hinings, 2002). Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, no studies have investigated whether organizational values explain the responses of individuals within NSOs that lead them to adopt and implement PM practices. To provide a comprehensive theoretical framework to underpin this study, institutional theory and the institutional work perspective have been employed. These are presented next.

### **3. Theoretical framework**

#### ***3.1 Institutional theory***

Institutions are “shared rules and typifications that identify categories of social actors and their appropriate activities or relationships” (Barley & Tolbert, 1997, p.96). They are created through institutionalization, a process by which “social processes, obligations or actualities come to take on rule-like status in social thought and action” (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, p.341). Organizations institutionalize practices because they want to increase their legitimacy - described as the degree of cultural support for an organization, or the extent to which the established cultural accounts provide explanations for its existence, functioning and jurisdiction (Washington & Patterson, 2011).

Institutionalization is driven by isomorphism, a process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same environmental conditions



(DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). When organizations are subjected to external pressure, they react by adopting practices and processes that over time make them similar (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). There are two types of isomorphism: competitive isomorphism - pressure from the markets; and institutional isomorphism - pressure that develops from competition for political and organizational legitimacy (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The primary focus of this study is institutional isomorphism, encompassing coercive, mimetic and normative pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

Coercive pressures are pressures exerted on one organization by other organizations because of dependence on resources, or cultural and societal expectations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Mimetic pressures relate to how organizations reduce uncertainty by imitating successful peer organizations, while normative pressures are a response to professionalization, where certain types of structure and process are viewed as more legitimate than others (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Several studies have explored how coercive, mimetic and normative pressures impact sport organizations (Leopkey & Parent, 2012; Perck et al., 2016; Trendafilova, Babiak & Heinze, 2013). However, the analytic capacity of institutional theory has been questioned. For example, Suddaby (2010) questions why its central aspect - understanding how and why organizations attend to and attach meaning to some elements in their institutional environment and not others - has not been addressed. Suddaby (2010) suggests that this could be due to researchers' overreliance on positivist as opposed to interpretivist approaches which leads institutional theory research to focus on the outcomes of institutional processes rather than the processes themselves.

According to Suddaby (2010), if institutions are powerful instruments of cognition, then research should focus on how they are understood and influenced at the individual level of analysis. Additionally, researchers have called for the use of the institutional work perspective to understand how institutions operate through the influence and agency of individuals (Hampel, Lawrence, & Tracey, 2017; Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006; Lawrence, Suddaby & Leca, 2011). The institutional work perspective is an emerging field in sport management and an overview is presented in the next section.

### ***3.2 Institutional work in sport organisations***

Institutional work has been described by Lawrence & Suddaby (2006, p.215) as the “purposive action of individuals and organizations aimed at creating, maintaining and disrupting institutions”. It describes how and why actors work to shape institutional arrangements, the factors that affect their ability to do so and the experience of these efforts for those concerned (Hampel, Lawrence, & Tracey, 2017). To catalogue forms of institutional work, Lawrence and Suddaby (2006) developed a framework that describes how institutions and practices are created, maintained and disrupted.

According to their framework, creation work involves: (1) reconstructing rules and boundaries that define access to material resources; (2) reconfiguring the belief systems of actors; (3) and altering abstract categorizations to change meaning systems. Forms of creating work include defining, theorizing, advocacy, construction of identities and educating. Defining refers to the construction of a rule system that confers status or identity and sets out boundaries of membership or creates status

hierarchies within a field (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). Sport governing bodies use a system of rules and regulations to confer membership and affiliation for NSOs. For example, Nite, Ige and Washington (2018) found that the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) constructed a rule system that described rules for game play, membership and organizational structure to expand its membership base. Theorizing involves developing and specifying abstract categories that elaborate chains of cause and effect (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). Dowling and Smith (2016) found that the development of a tier/classification system that categorized Canadian NSOs into priority or non-priority sports based on their performance was a form of theorizing. According to Dowling and Smith (2016) specifying these categories and using them to vary funding allocations to NSOs helped to create 'Own the Podium' as an institution.

Constructing identities involves defining the relationship between the actor and the field in which they operate (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). For instance, Heinze and Lu (2017) reported that the National Football League constructed its identity as a leader in concussion prevention and treatment by changing practices, structures, the nature of the game and knowledge in the field of concussions. Other forms of creation work are educating and advocacy. In educating, actors are provided with skills and knowledge necessary to support new institutions, while advocacy involves work that includes lobbying for resources, promoting agendas or proposing new or attacking existing legislation (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). An example of advocacy was reported by Nite et al. (2018) who found that the NCAA had historically lobbied for support from its powerful allies to oppose Title IX compliance, thereby attacking existing legislation.

In maintenance work, institutions are regarded as self-reproducing phenomena either because of their association with regulative mechanisms that ensure their survival or because of their taken for granted status (Lawrence, Leca, & Zilber, 2013). Individuals perform maintenance work by ensuring adherence to existing rules and by reproducing existing standards and systems of thinking (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). Forms of institutional work associated with maintenance includes policing, valorizing and demonizing and embedding and routinizing.

Policing ensures the compliance of NSOs through enforcement, auditing and monitoring (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). An example of policing work was reported by Dowling and Smith (2016) who found that the Own the Podium programme ensured the compliance of NSOs through a reporting process that required them to submit quadrennial and annual reports for auditing and monitoring. Valorizing and demonizing involves providing for public consumption the positive and negative examples that illustrate the normative foundations of an institution (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006). For instance, Agyemang et al. (2018) reported that the media and Olympians demonized Smith and Carlos' protest at the 1968 Olympic Games to maintain the Olympic Games as institution. On the other hand, the promotion of nationalistic ideals such as waving the flag after winning a medal was seen by Agyemang et al. (2018) as an act of valorizing.

Disrupting institutions involves deinstitutionalization where individuals attempt to upset institutionalized arrangements (Lawrence et al., 2013). Describing the motivation of actors to disrupt institutions, Lawrence and Suddaby (2006) noted that

when the interests of actors are not served by existing institutional arrangements, they will work to upset them. Additionally, if actors benefit from prevailing institutional arrangements, they will work to maintain them rather than disrupt them (Agyemang et al., 2018).

While the institutional work perspective has been used in sport management research, prior studies have tended to focus on maintenance (Nite, 2017; Nite, Ige & Washington, 2018) and disruption work (Agyemang, et al., 2018) rather than all categories of institutional work (Dowling & Smith, 2016). Furthermore, no studies have used Lawrence and Suddaby's (2016) framework to study the adoption and implementation of PM practices. This research addresses both issues. The methods used in the study are presented in the next section.

## **4. Method**

### ***4.1 Research design***

This exploratory research employed qualitative approaches in which data was collected from documents and through semi-structured interviews and focus groups. The use of qualitative approaches supported Suddaby's (2010) views that interpretivist approaches are better suited to institutional theory research than positivist approaches because they provide a comprehensive account of how actors experience institutions. Interviews facilitated a face to face interaction between the researchers and participants, while focus groups provided opportunities for group dynamics and discussions (Cooper & Schindler, 2013; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The questions asked during interviews and focus groups were developed from literature to explore the objectives of the study and the semi-structured format

allowed for additional questions to be asked to pursue interesting tangents in discussions (Cooper & Schindler, 2013). In addition, NSO documents were analyzed to corroborate the data collected from interviews and focus groups thereby fostering the credibility of the results and enhancing the richness of the data collected (Bowen, 2009).

#### **4.2 Participants**

All NSOs selected for this study were affiliated to the Botswana National Sport Commission (BNSC), a sport agency that provides a link between government and NSOs. The selection process was based on the tiers/ of the Affiliates' Empowerment Policy, a policy used by the BNSC to disburse resources to NSOs. Following periodic assessment and categorization NSOs are placed into four tiers based on geographical spread, national appeal, popularity, activity, equity, social responsibility, grassroots sport development, elite sports performance, numerical strength and quality leadership. According to this policy, there were no NSOs in tier one, two in tier two, seven in tier three and 23 in tier four. Four NSOs were unclassified either because they were newly affiliated to the BNSC or were inactive (i.e. they did not perform any activities or respond to correspondence from the BNSC). Further selection was based on whether NSOs were an Olympic, non-Olympic, individual, team, or mixed sport.

Both tier two NSOs, five in tier three, five in tier four and two of the unclassified NSOs were selected for this study. Ultimately 14 out of 37 NSOs were selected. The selected NSOs shared some similarities as they were all affiliated to the BNSC and their respective international, continental and regional federations. They also differed

from one another as some were older having been established as early as 1966 while others were formed in the mid-2010s. Their size according to members differed, ranging from 13 to 754 members with some memberships including school clubs, other community clubs or a mix of both. The administrative structures of selected NSOs also differed with some having regional and national structures to manage their large memberships, while others relied on their executive boards to manage their small member numbers. Additionally, the grants they received from government ranged between USD 14,000 to USD 830,000 in 2017 and USD 15,000 to USD 561,000 in 2018. These differences illustrate the diversity of NSOs participating in this study and consequently their varying ability to tackle institutional pressures. However, this study was focused on how individuals within NSOs responded to pressures acting on their organisations. Therefore, how different NSOs with varying capacities dealt with institutional pressure acting on them was not addressed in this study.

From the 14 selected NSOs, 9 board members and 12 operational staff were interviewed. Additionally, 16 participants including ten board members and six operational staff participated in three focus groups with one group comprising of 6 members and two groups comprising of five members each. The board members that participated in the study comprised presidents, vice president, secretary general and additional members. Whereas the operational staff participating in this study comprised of chief executive officers, an administration manager, a youth team development officer and sports development officers. Four operational staff members participated in both interviews and focus groups.

NSO stakeholders also participated in this study. The selection of participating stakeholders was based on Bayle and Madella's (2002) stakeholder map. They identified different NSO stakeholders that affected the performance measurement of NSOs. Based on this stakeholder map, ten stakeholders including an international federation, a continental federation, Ministry of Youth Empowerment, Sports and Culture Development, BNSC, Botswana National Olympic Committee, three media (radio, newspaper: private and government), a sponsor and a community were selected for this study. The rationale for using Bayle and Madella's (2002) stakeholder map was to ensure the inclusion of a wide range of NSO stakeholders. Additionally, as their study focused on organizational performance, their stakeholder map was considered appropriate for this study.

Stakeholders including representatives from clubs, teams, individual members, elite athletes, coaches, umpires and technical officials from the 14 selected NSOs participated in focus groups meetings. The decision to use focus groups for these stakeholders was based on that the anticipated number of participants. Two representatives of each of these NSO stakeholder groups were invited to participate in this study (n=28). The decision to use focus groups to collect data from this group of stakeholders was based on the ability to collect data from many participants over a short period of time (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). However, only 14 individuals representing this group of stakeholders participated in this study and were divided into two focus groups comprising of 7 members each. None of the stakeholders participated in both interviews and focus groups.



### **4.3 Data collection**

Data was collected in Gaborone, Botswana from January to May 2017 and between June and July 2018. The data collection exercise was conducted in four phases. In the first phase, focus groups for NSO board members and operational staff were conducted in which discussions sought to uncover the nature and type of pressures that acted on NSOs and how board members and operational staff responded to such pressures. The second phase of the data collection exercise focused on interviews and focus groups with NSO stakeholders. The interview schedules and focus group guides shared common questions that encouraged discussions about stakeholder demands and expectations and whether stakeholders pressured NSOs.

The third phase entailed interviews with board members and operational staff. The interviews sought to establish the nature and type of pressures that acted on NSOs and how the board members and operational staff, responded to these pressures. The fourth and final stage of the data collection exercise was conducted between June and July 2018. In this phase, transcripts from interviews and focus groups were confirmed with the study participants. This phase also allowed for the collection of additional data to fill the gaps identified during the data analysis process. This resulted in additional interviews conducted with an operational staff member, a board member and a stakeholder (n=3), all of whom had previously been interviewed.

Combining interviews and focus groups and the use of phases in the data collection process, ensured that the information collected in previous phases informed future phases of the data collection exercise. This provided opportunities for deeper exploration thereby contributing to a more comprehensive probe (Lambert & Loiselle,

2008). Additionally, organizational documents – specifically, the Affiliates Empowerment Policy, strategic plans of some NSOs (n=5) and the BNSC annual reports for 2017 and 2018 - were collected, reviewed and evaluated. These documents were reviewed to enhance the knowledge base on the NSOs studied, thereby providing information on the context within which individuals in these NSOs operate (Bowen, 2009).

#### ***4.4 Data analysis***

The documents collected for this study were analyzed through a multi-stage process that began with preliminary skim reading of the documents. This was followed by more thorough reading and then detailed interpretation of the content thereof (Bowen, 2009). This document analysis exercise ensured that objective evidence was obtained on NSOs including in areas such as when they were formed, membership numbers, their administrative structures and their budgets in terms of the annual government grants. Moreover, as appropriate, organizational values of NSOs were also identified from the strategic plans and NSO websites. Subsequently these organizational values were matched against how individuals within NSOs responded to institutional pressures to determine whether the values were coincident with the responses made (Amis, Slack & Hinings, 2002).

The data collected from interviews and focus groups was digitally recorded, transcribed verbatim and managed using the NVivo 11 qualitative data analysis software. The data was analyzed through a thematic analysis process. A thematic analysis process was used in this study because of its ability to summarize key features of a large data set (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). The responses

of the participants were interpreted in relation to the key concepts uncovered from the literature. Quotes from the data were identified, assessed for commonalities and differences and used to address the objectives of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

Themes that emerged from the data included institutional pressures acting on NSOs comprising of coercive, mimetic and normative pressures. Furthermore, thematic areas on the responses of individuals within NSOs to institutional pressures, creation and maintenance work emerged from the data. These described how individuals played a role in the adoption and implementation of PM practices and included goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward. The results obtained from this analysis process are presented in the next section.

## **5. Results**

### ***5.1 Pressures acting on NSOs***

The results indicate that NSOs faced coercive, mimetic and normative pressures. With regards to coercive pressures, the BNSC, international federations and continental federations exerted coercive pressures on NSOs by enforcing rules, regulations and policies on affiliation/membership and funding. Pressure was exerted by stipulating that NSOs would lose their affiliation/membership and funding if they did not comply with the rules and regulations. NSOs perceived this as pressure, as a board member illustrated:

*“[...] if we do not comply with the rules and regulations, we lose our affiliation status and our funding”* Interviewee board members 1.

Another form of coercive pressure was exerted by sponsors through terms of reference for sponsorship agreements. Sponsors use these agreements to stipulate their demands and expectations in return for sponsorship provided. An operational staff member described this as follows:

*“[...NSOs] come under pressure to meet the expectations of sponsors so that they may continue getting the sponsorship”* Interviewee operational staff 6.

On normative pressures, it was reported that the BNSC expected NSOs to act like professional entities, capable of achieving the BNSC 2028 strategic plan. To ensure that NSOs become professional entities, the BNSC employs consultants to share skills and information on strategic planning and reporting. Furthermore, the BNSC publishes annual reports, categorizes NSOs into tiers according to the Affiliates Empowerment Policy, and conducts annual BNSC awards to recognize excelling NSOs. Commenting on consultants employed by the BNSC, a focus group participant observed that:

*“The consultants [...] provide information on how to align our strategies and how to work to achieve the BNSC 2028”* NSO focus group 1 participant 3.

The BNSC also employed personnel to serve NSOs. NSOs categorized in higher tiers of the Affiliates' Empowerment Policy had an officer hired to serve them, while those in lower tiers shared an officer between 4 to 5 NSOs. These employees report to the BNSC and implement processes and activities as sanctioned by the BNSC. A board member pointed out that:

*“The officers employed in our [NSOs] help us a great deal. But they also serve to ensure that [NSOs] do what the BNSC wants”* Interviewee board member 7.

Additionally, board members and operational staff of NSOs reported that they worked to meet the requirements of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy, seeking to be placed in a higher tier as this would ensure that they receive more resources.

With regards to mimetic pressures, board members and operational staff reported that they copied activities of successful NSOs to improve their own activities. NSOs categorized in the lower tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy copied and adopted practices of NSOs in higher tiers. Describing this, a participant in the NSO focus group observed that:

*“[...] by learning from [NSOs] in higher tiers, we can [...], move up to higher tiers”* NSO focus group 2 participant 1.

While these results detail coercive, normative and mimetic pressures, it is essential to highlight how individuals within NSOs responded to these pressures. As the responses of individuals in organizations can be guided by organizational values, the next section presents organizational values of Botswana NSOs.

## **5.2 Organizational values of Botswana NSOs**

Some NSOs that had their strategies aligned to the BNSC 2028 strategic plan shared similar values with those of the BNSC. These include: *botho* – a Setswana cultural concept that means to maintain social harmony by acknowledging and respecting the humanity and human needs of all individuals within a community

(Khama, 2017), integrity, effective communication, inclusiveness, excellence and discipline. In most cases, however, NSOs had additional organizational values.

These were identified from NSO strategic plans and websites and included transparency, accountability, enjoyment, voluntarism, fair-play, teamwork, competitiveness, professionalism, quality service delivery, effective management, effective leadership, participation, safety, quality, vision, and respect.

Complementing this result, a board member added that:

*“[...] we have to show that our [NSOs] are transparent and accountable so that our partners can have confidence in us”* Interviewee board member 7.

### **5.3 Responses to institutional pressures**

#### *5.3.1 Responses to coercive pressures*

The rules and regulations for affiliation/membership and funding and terms of reference for sponsorships enforced by stakeholders, place expectations that demand the compliance of NSOs. Individuals within NSOs reported that the BNSC expected their organizations to align their strategic plans with the BNSC 2028 strategic plan, and to submit budgets, plans, and regular audited financial reports. In addition, sponsors expected NSOs to submit sponsorship reports. Individuals within NSOs reported that they responded by complying with stakeholder demands and expectations. A board member pointed out that:

*“[NSOs] have to comply with expectations of the BNSC [by...] aligning our strategy with theirs and submitting all reports that are required”* Interviewee board member 3.

By aligning their strategies with the BNSC strategic plan, individuals within NSOs reported that they adopted goals and objective setting and by preparing budgets, plans and reports, they improved their organizational processes and activities. To provide details for their reports, individuals within NSOs reported that they had to measure the success of their activities against their plans, thereby measuring their performance. A member of the operational staff elaborated on this as follows:

*“[...] the only way we can know if we meet what our stakeholders want is to compare what we achieved against what they expected”* Interviewee operational staff 9.

Additionally, individuals within NSOs pointed out that while reports provided feedback to their stakeholders, they learned ways to improve their future performance from these reports.

It was further reported that NSOs and the BNSC collaborated to lobby the government to repeal the Botswana National Sports Council Act and replace it with the Botswana National Sports Commission Act. Thus, individuals within NSOs responded to the pressure to repeal and replace the BNSC Act by manipulation/influence in which they shaped the rules and regulations to suit them.

Detailing these events, a board member remarked that:

*“the BNSC Act was old, it was enacted in 1983 [...NSOs] needed this law changed. [NSOs] agreed at a BNSC general meeting to lobby the government for the law to be revised. Eventually we won, and the law was changed”*  
Interviewee board member 8.

### 5.3.2 Responses to normative pressures

Individuals responded to the need for their NSOs to act like professional entities by complying with the demands and expectations of the BNSC. This entailed meeting deadlines for reports, facilitating regular board meetings and working to meet the assessment criteria for the Affiliates Empowerment Policy and BNSC awards. An operational staff member observed:

*“[...] when we meet deadlines, [...] call regular board meetings [...] and make submissions for BNSC Awards and Affiliates Empowerment, we will be seen as professional organizations by all our stakeholder”* Interviewee operational staff 4.

Individuals within NSOs reported that regular meetings improved their communication and leadership processes and these in turn improved the implementation of their mass participation and elite sport programs. Furthermore, they stated that preparing reports for submission required them to measure the success or failure of their activities against their plans, thereby facilitating performance measurement practices.

Responding to the need for NSOs to act like professional entities, individuals within NSOs complied with the demands of the BNSC and worked to ensure that their organizations fitted required profiles. Additionally, the BNSC employed consultants and Sport Development Officers to serve NSOs. Consultants facilitated seminars and workshops for NSOs to share skills and knowledge on strategic planning and reporting while Sport Development Officers implemented the adopted PM practices as part of their normal work routine.



### 5.3.3 Responses to mimetic pressures

Individuals within NSOs reported that they copied development plans, budgets and annual reports from the BNSC annual report and used them to develop their own practices. Furthermore, they reported that they learned about the frequency of board meetings, strategic planning and reporting from seminars and workshops that were facilitated by consultants. Elaborating on this, a participant in one of the focus group meetings observed that:

*“[...] most of the information we need to improve is in the BNSC annual report [...] we learn from other NSOs through meetings, seminars and workshops with consultants”* NSO focus group 2 participant 3.

Individuals within NSOs pointed out that copying practices from successful NSOs, improved their organizational processes and how they implemented their activities. Furthermore, the BNSC stipulates chains of cause and effect by stating that when NSOs meet requirements, they either receive awards or move up the tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy. Additionally, the BNSC published awards, annual reports and tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy. Commenting on the publishing of awards and annual reports, a board member elaborated that:

*“[...] the awards are televised for all to see. [...] the annual reports are public record”* Interviewee board member 2.

## 6. Discussion

The purpose of this paper was to investigate how and why PM practices are adopted and implemented by Botswana NSOs. The study established that the demands and expectations of stakeholders created pressures that acted on NSOs. Individuals

within NSOs responded to these pressures by complying with stakeholder demands and expectations leading to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. It was further established that the compliance or manipulation responses made by individuals within NSOs could be explained by how these responses were coincident with organizational values. The sections that follow describe the processes by which actors create, maintain and disrupt PM practices in NSOs.

### ***6.1 Creation work and performance management practices***

Actors engaged in creation work including defining, advocacy, theorizing, construction of identities, mimicry and educating (Lawrence & Suddaby, 2006) to adopt PM practices. In terms of defining work, stakeholders enforced rules and regulations that defined membership and funding for NSOs, resulting in coercive pressure. Government grants and sponsorship funding form a large part of Botswana NSOs' budgets and provide the means to facilitate their recreational and elite sport activities. Therefore, the response of individuals within NSOs to comply with membership and funding rules and regulations ensure continued membership and funding by these stakeholders. Furthermore, securing memberships and funding that facilitates the implementation of their recreational and elite sport programs, individuals within NSOs could believe that they were pursuing their organizational values such as effective management, leadership, professionalism and quality service delivery. Therefore, their responses in this case can be explained by these values as they are coincident.

Individuals within NSOs performed advocacy by lobbying for a change of laws that govern sport in Botswana as they called for the repeal and replacement of the BNSC

Act. This response is manipulation because individuals within NSOs used the influence of their NSOs and the BNSC to alter the nature of pressures they faced. Because these changes facilitated the adoption and implementation of PM practices, individuals within NSOs performed creation work. A similar result was reported by Nite et al (2018) who found that the NCAA lobbied powerful allies to resist implementing Title IX. This result indicates that when they pursue their purpose and interests, NSOs can respond to pressures in any way they choose, particularly if their responses serve their interest. For instance, individuals in Botswana NSOs believed that the BNSC act was old and did not serve their interest and hence had it changed.

Another form of creation work performed by the BNSC was theorizing. The BNSC's use of the tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy to determine the amount and type of resources to award to NSOs, creates status hierarchies among these organizations. A similar finding was reported by Dowling and Smith, (2016) who concluded that implementing a tiering system in the Own the Podium programme created priority or non-priority status hierarchies among Canadian NSOs. While the tier system may be beneficial to the BNSC as it helps them to allocate resources to NSOs, the status hierarchies created may demotivate NSOs in lower tiers as more public resources are made available to those in higher tiers. For instance, there cannot be uniform development of NSOs in Botswana if one is granted USD 830000 and another USD 14000 in the same financial year. Therefore, these status hierarchies may negatively impact the performance of athletes and teams in Botswana.

Further institutional work undertaken by the BNSC was focused on constructing the identities of NSOs. In simple terms, the BNSC expected NSOs to act like professional entities capable of delivering on the BNSC 2028 strategic plan. While Lawrence and Suddaby (2006) describe the construction of identities in the context of individuals rather than organizations, this form of creation work has been applied to Botswana NSOs because the expectation to act like professional entities is placed on the organizations themselves. NSO values that include competitiveness, effective management, effective leadership, professionalism and quality service delivery coincide closely with professionalism, hence they could be instrumental in the compliance of NSOs towards construction of their identities.

The BNSC's expectation for NSOs to act like professional entities further led to forms of creation work including mimicry and educating. NSOs in lower tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy imitated the practices of those in higher tiers because they aspired to move up the rankings set out in the Affiliates Empowerment Policy and hence receive more benefits from the BNSC. This aspiration was driven by the resource constrained context within which Botswana NSOs exist. With regards to educating, the BNSC employed consultants to impart knowledge and skills to NSOs. Individuals within NSOs used the skills and knowledge they learnt to improve their reporting mechanism to the BNSC, thus enhancing the adoption and implementation of PM practices. A form of educating was described by Bulawa (2011) in which Botswana secondary school management personnel were trained to implement PM in their schools. However, the top down implementation approach impeded progress on PM in secondary schools. Therefore, while it is beneficial to impart skills on PM, it is important to ensure that the skills developed yield desired results.

## ***6.2 Maintaining work and performance management practices***

Actors within and outside NSOs engaged in maintenance work including policing, valorizing and demonizing and embedding and routinizing, leading to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. Regarding policing, the BNSC expected NSOs to submit reports that are used to audit, monitor and evaluate the activities of NSOs. Individuals within NSOs comply and submit the reports required by the BNSC.

Dowling and Smith (2016) considered this form of reporting as policing particularly because of the auditing, monitoring and evaluation that these reports were used for. Notwithstanding this, developing and submitting the reports to the BNSC led NSOs to continue implementing PM practices that include goal and objective setting, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward. Furthermore, the submission of reports can be coincident with organizational values that include professionalism, effective leadership, management, fair play and respect, thus explaining the compliance of individuals within NSOs to this demand and expectation by the BNSC.

Another form of maintenance work performed by the BNSC and individuals within NSOs is valorizing and demonizing. The BNSC publishes awards, annual reports and tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy for public consumption. The effect is to valorize or create heroes out of NSOs that meet the criteria for awards, are included in higher tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy and which submit their reports, while demonizing or creating antiheroes of those that do not. In a developing country like Botswana where resources are scarce and the government is required to deal with issues such as the HIV/Aids pandemic, Malaria outbreaks and infrastructural developments, fewer resources are available for sport (Chappell,

2004). Therefore, making awards and reports available for public consumption makes NSOs open for public scrutiny and serves to encourage them to behave in ways which are considered to justify their receipt of government grants.

On embedding and routinizing, individuals repeated the implementation of adopted PM practices with each funding cycle. As the stakeholders presented demands and expectations, individuals within NSOs continued to implement adopted PM practices to satisfy them. The repeat of these practices within each funding cycle can also be seen as a habit as individuals within NSOs follow practices that have already been adopted and accepted (Oliver, 1991).

### ***6.3 Disrupting performance management practices***

Botswana's resource constrained environment, where few lucrative financial opportunities are open to NSOs (Chappell, 2004), explains why they comply with stakeholder demands and expectations. The dependence of NSOs on stakeholder resources makes board members and operational staff do what is necessary to ensure continued receipt of funding and hence the survival of their organizations. As there are benefits to be derived from maintaining current institutional arrangements, individuals within the NSOs are not motivated to perform any disruption work (Agyemang et al., 2018).

## **7. Conclusions**

### ***7.1 Theoretical contributions***

This study contributes to sport management literature around PM as it is the first study to explain how and why PM practices are adopted and the roles that actors

within and outside these organizations play in the process. Furthermore, the study provides insights on how NSOs in a small developing African country implement PM practices, thereby enriching our understanding of the pressures they face and how individuals within these organizations respond to them.

This study also provides insights on the issue of heterogeneity among institutional actors (Hampel, Lawrence & Tracey, 2017). We find that heterogeneous actors with differing objectives but a general interest in NSO activities, together performed creation and maintenance work leading to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. These actors did not have to collaborate with one another or share common goals and objectives. However, because their different objectives could be served through NSOs' recreational and elite sport activities, they facilitated the adoption and implementation of PM practices and differently created and maintained these practices. Additionally, the study also established that in cases where organizational values were coincident with proposed responses, individuals within NSOs complied with the demands and expectations of their stakeholders, thereby adopting and implementing PM practices.

## ***7.2 Practical implications***

This study informs sport managers, their stakeholders and policy makers on how NSOs adopt and implement PM practices. Knowing how individuals within NSOs interpret and respond to the policies can help policy makers to develop more efficient and effective policies that are easily embraced by NSOs. Additionally, this study informs stakeholders on how their demands and expectations lead to the adoption and implementation of PM practices among NSOs. This can help them to improve

the quality of feedback they receive from NSOs by using reporting mechanisms that inform them on whether their investment has met expectations. Sport managers can use this information to leverage for more support from their stakeholders by demonstrating how the adoption and implementation of PM practices helps them to meet stakeholder demands and expectations. Furthermore, sport managers can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their organizational processes by implementing informed PM practices that ensure the attainment of their objectives and satisfaction of their stakeholders.

### ***7.3 Limitations and further research***

While this study furthers our understanding on PM of NSOs, there are a few limitations. Firstly, this study only used NSOs that were affiliated to BNSC, and hence those that received government grants. The receipt of, and dependence on, government grants played a significant role in how individuals within NSOs complied with the demands and expectations of the BNSC and consequently the adoption and implementation of PM practices. Therefore, further research could investigate NSOs that do not depend on government grants for survival, to establish whether and how they adopt and implement PM practices and whether individuals in these NSOs respond differently to stakeholder demands and expectations.

Secondly, while the study focused on how individuals within NSOs responded to pressures acting on their organisations, the varying capabilities of NSOs to deal with institutional pressures were not investigated. Therefore, further research could consider this avenue as it may help to illuminate whether different NSOs with varying abilities to deal with institutional pressures differently adopt and implement practices.



Thirdly, the approach used in this research does not detail the decision-making processes used by individuals within NSOs. Further research could investigate formal decision-making processes involved and how individuals within NSOs arrive at the decision to comply or otherwise with stakeholder demands and expectations. It would also provide an opportunity to investigate what happens when individuals within NSOs arrive at conflicting decisions or when stakeholders present conflicting demands and expectations. Additionally, further study could focus on how individuals within NSOs treat different stakeholder demands and expectations and related compliance issues. These various dimensions to decision making processes may improve our understanding on how PM practices are adopted and implemented.

### **Summary of article 3**

This article presents an argument that NSOs face coercive, mimetic and normative pressures. These pressures are mostly exerted by stakeholder demands and expectations. The board and operational staff of NSOs respond to the pressures acting on their organisations by either acceding to the demands and expectations of the stakeholders or manipulating the expectations so that they are suitable to the NSOs. The responses of board and operational staff are guided by their organisational values.

Objective (4) of this study was concerned with the roles that stakeholders, board members and operational staff played in the implementation of PM among NSOs. This article establishes that stakeholders cause coercive, mimetic and normative pressure. In response, NSO boards and operational staff undertake creation and maintenance work that leads to the adoption and implementation of PM practices.

While this article addresses objective 4 of this study, it further demonstrates the utility of institutional theory and the institutional work perspective in providing a solid foundation to study PM among NSOs.

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## **Chapter 8: Environmental influences and the performance management of National Sport Organisations**

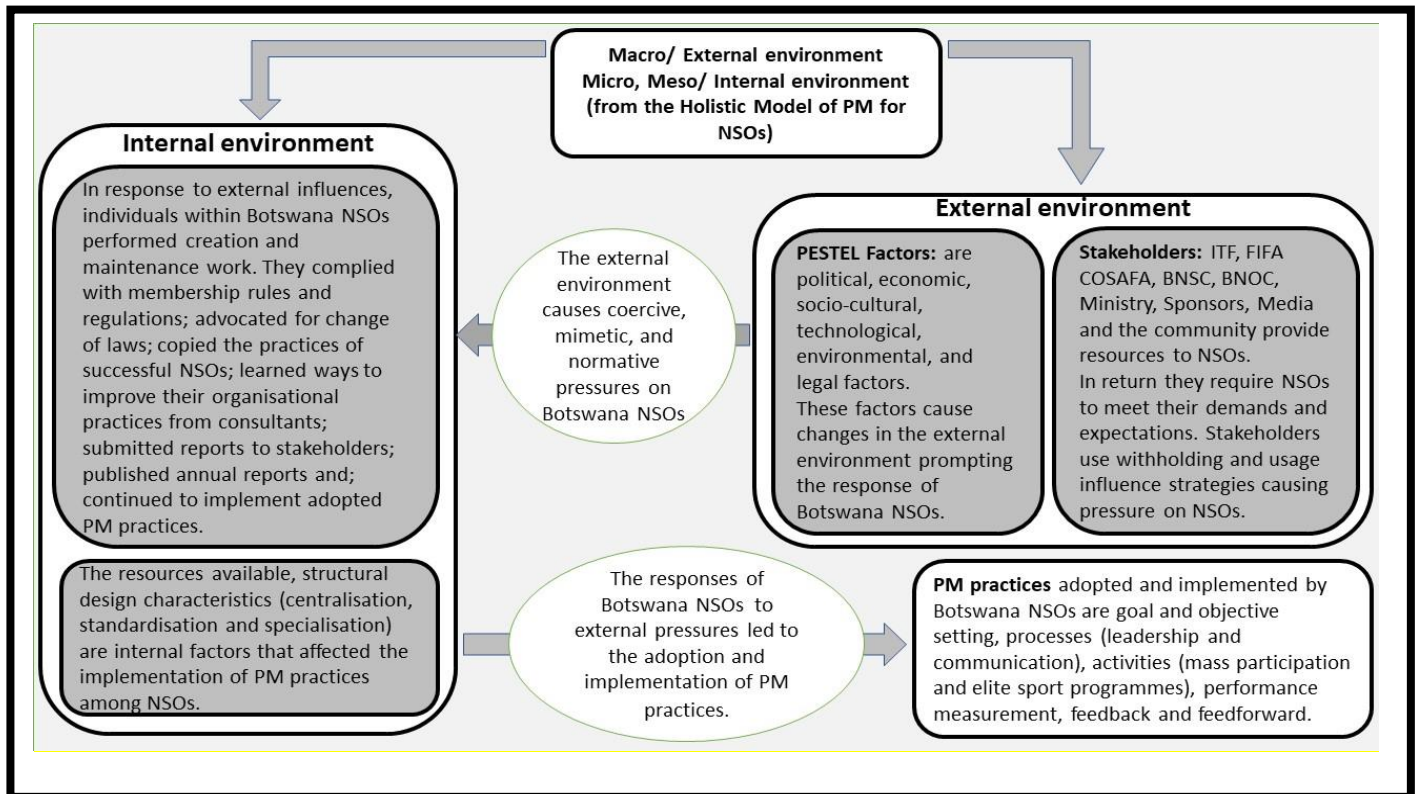
### **8.1 Introduction**

This research study aimed to investigate whether Botswana NSOs implemented PM practices, and if they did, how and why they did so. The study further explored external and internal environmental influences and their effect on the implementation of PM among these organisations. This chapter presents a discussion on the results of this study structured around themes. These themes are (1) External environment and the PM of Botswana NSOs; (2) Internal environment and PM of Botswana NSOs; (3) The roles of individuals in PM of Botswana NSOs. These thematic areas provide a narrative that incorporates the findings of this study as presented in the three individual published articles with wider elements of the PhD research. Thus, this chapter presents an integrated discussion of the results of the overall PhD research.

It is important to highlight that as this is a PhD by publication, and the results of this study are presented in the respective articles that form part of this thesis. Therefore, it is necessary to provide an illustration of the results, to aid in the discussion presented in this chapter. To that end, Figure 8.1 offers a visual illustration of the results of the study. According to Figure 8.1, the external environment of Botswana NSOs is the macro environment, while the internal environment is the micro and meso environments as illustrated in the holistic model for the PM of NSOs (page 85). The external environment is made up of PESTEL factors and the influence of stakeholders, while the internal environment comprises of resources, structural design characteristics and individuals within the NSOs. Figure 8.1 further illustrates how the external environmental influences prompt

responses to the internal environment of NSOs and how the responses of these organisation lead to the development and use of PM practices. Detailed discussions of the results of this study as illustrated in Figure 8.1 are presented in this chapter.

Figure 8.1 titles visual illustration of the results of this study is presented below.



The results of the study indicate that Botswana NSOs were implementing PM practices. However, board members and operational staff in these NSOs did not perceive their organisations to be implementing a PM system. They considered the implementation of PM practices in isolation and not as part of a coherent PM system. They reported that implementing PM practices was simply part of their job routines. Furthermore, the board and operational staff stated that their NSOs were not

implementing a PM system because there were no clearly stipulated key performance indicators or rewards.

These results suggest that individuals within Botswana NSOs are knowledgeable about PM systems. The knowledge that these individuals have on organisational PM can be attributed firstly to education. Botswana has high literacy rates as a direct result of the implementation of the revised National Policy on Education of 1994. This policy made education free for all citizens hence, Botswana NSOs have literate and educated personnel.

Secondly, board members are volunteers from different backgrounds in terms of their work and social interactions and bring a wide range of skills and experience to the NSO. Through these skills and experience, they can demonstrate their knowledge about what PM systems entail and how they are implemented. For instance, Bulawa, (2011), Marobela (2008) and Mosware (2011) reported that PM systems were introduced to Botswana public service in 1999. Therefore, PM systems may not be new to board members in Botswana NSOs as many of these volunteers worked in public service.

Operational staff were mostly professionals employed by the BNSC for the NSOs. The BNSC facilitated a performance appraisal for these employees thus they were knowledgeable about PM systems in these organisations. Additionally, while there were individuals who were employed by the NSOs and not the BNSC, their knowledge of PM practices could be explained by their literacy rates and backgrounds. Therefore, operational staff members understood systems of organisational PM.

Reporting that their NSOs are not implementing PM systems may mean that board and operational staff find the practices implemented by their organisations

weak or not comprehensive enough to be considered as PM systems. This suggests that Botswana NSOs implement PM systems that are not well developed and sufficiently robust. While this finding is to a large extent consistent with the findings of O'Boyle and Hassan (2014; 2015), the lack of robustness of PM systems among can be because Botswana NSOs implemented these practices to meet stakeholder requirements. For instance, if a sponsor requires an NSO to report to them, the NSO will do so to ensure the continuation of sponsorship. Therefore, NSOs could perform PM practices on an instrumental basis, effectively to meet requirements that ensure the continuation of stakeholder resourcing.

On the other hand, implementing PM practices while simultaneously stating that the NSO is not implementing them may suggest that such practices are embedded among Botswana NSOs' internal structures to such an extent that individuals within these organisations do not see them for what they are. Therefore, there is need for more research exploration to investigate the underlying reasons for NSOs to implement PM practices. This research could help us understand whether NSOs implement PM practices to obtain resources from stakeholders or to manage their organisational performance. Furthermore, this research could also offer insights into whether the PM systems implemented by NSOs are effective or they are just requirements for funding.

Nonetheless, because Botswana NSOs were implementing PM practices, further research could also explore whether putting in place oversight instruments by funding stakeholders improves their implementation of these practices. Research could explore whether Botswana NSOs would be receptive to implementing PM practices as part of stakeholder funding and reporting mechanisms.

## **8.2 External environmental influences and PM practices**

The results indicate that Botswana NSOs' external environment affected how they implemented PM. While these organisations did not control the external environment, their responses to these factors influenced how they implemented PM. Key external environmental influences identified among Botswana NSOs are PESTEL factors and the influence of stakeholders.

### *8.2.1 PESTEL factors and the PM of Botswana NSOs*

PESTEL (political, economic, socio-cultural, technological, environmental, and legal) factors are external environmental factors that affected how Botswana NSOs implemented PM practices.

#### **8.2.1.1 Political factors**

With regards to political factors, the results indicate that the operations of Botswana NSOs and how they implemented their processes and activities were guided by a framework of rules, regulations and policies. The framework comprises of the constitution of the Republic of Botswana, the BNSC Act and the National Policy on Sport and Recreation. In addition, Botswana NSOs affiliate to international, continental, and regional sport federations. Therefore, they are bound by affiliation rules and regulations as prescribed by these federations. Furthermore, because Botswana NSOs were affiliated to the BNOC their processes and activities were also guided by the Olympic Charter.

The framework of rules, regulations and policies caused coercive pressures. Botswana NSOs responded to these pressures by complying with the rules, regulations and policies. For example, the NSOs aligned their strategic plans with

the BNSC's overarching strategy and submitted reports in compliance with the rules, regulations and policies as prescribed by stakeholders. This form of coercive pressure prompted the compliance of Botswana NSOs, leading to the adoption and implementation of PM practices that include goal and objective setting as they developed their strategies and they provided feedback to the BNSC through their reports. This finding demonstrates that the framework of rules, regulations and policies influences how Botswana NSOs implement PM practices.

In another example, both the BNSC and the BNOC used affiliation/membership rules and regulations to define boundaries for membership and to confer membership status among these organisations. As membership and affiliation facilitates funding, sponsorships and scholarships Botswana NSOs complied with requirements for membership and affiliation to these sport agencies to continue receiving funding, sponsorships, and scholarships. Thus, these organisations performed creation work thereby laying the foundation for the adoption and implementation of PM practices. This result is consistent with the arguments of Lawrence and Suddaby's (2006) who note that coercive pressures define boundaries for membership and can be used to confer membership status. Furthermore, this finding illustrates how a framework of rules, regulation and policies are political factors that affect the adoption and implementation of PM practices among Botswana NSOs.

Interestingly, NSOs are in the position to change the rules if they are not convinced that they are being served by them. For example, Botswana NSOs successfully lobbied the government to change the BNSC Act. This indicates that these organisations do not just passively accept political influences that act on them,

instead, they can change these pressures to further their interests (Oliver, 1991; Pache and Santos, 2010).

While the framework of rules, regulations and policies guides the operations of Botswana NSOs and influences how they implement PM practices, none of these stipulate how these organisations should implement PM. It is important to note that the poor performance of Botswana national teams is a key factor that led to developments in the way Botswana sport is managed. The development and revision of laws, rules, regulations, policies, and increases in funding for sport by the government (BNSC Annual report 2017, 2018) and their drive to develop sport infrastructure throughout the country (Bohutsana & Akpata 2013) were aimed at improving the performance of Botswana national teams.

While to some extent the performance of sport teams has improved, with improved performance of Botswana athletic teams in continental competitions, there has only been one Olympic Medal since the Commission of Inquiry into the poor performance of the national teams (one silver medal in athletics track 800m event from the 2012 London Olympic Games). Thus, there should be ways to establish whether these developments and improvements have yielded desired results in the performance of Botswana's national teams. The BNSC Act was enacted in 2014 while the National Policy on Sport and Recreation was implemented in 2002. Therefore, there is a need to revise these rules, regulations, and policies and to reflect on how best to establish process which provide evidence as to whether the national teams' performance has improved. Additionally, the efficiency and effectiveness of Botswana NSOs as key players in the implementation of the national agenda for sport should be factored into the revisions.



Another political instrument that affects the implementation of PM practices among Botswana NSOs is the BNSC's Affiliates Empowerment Policy. This policy categorises Botswana NSOs into tiers that define how these organisations can be empowered and funded by the BNSC. The results indicate that placing Botswana NSOs into tiers creates status hierarchies in which organisations in higher tiers are more empowered and receive more funding than those in lower tiers. To a large extent this implicates the performance of the national teams of Botswana NSOs because they are differently funded and empowered. Dowling and Smith (2016) reported a similar finding in their study, reporting that a tier system used among Canadian NSOs to facilitate the implementation of *Own the Podium* programme created status hierarchies that categorised NSOs into priority and non-priority sports. As a result, priority sports received more resources than non-priority sports.

It is important to highlight that the national teams of Botswana NSOs in higher tiers, or those that receive higher empowerment and funding, were not necessarily attaining higher performance in regional, continental or world stage competitions than those in lower tiers. For instance, the national teams of NSOs in higher tiers are yet to qualify and compete at world stages, and while they qualify to compete at regional and continental competitions, they do not regularly attain successful results. For example, the national football team has never qualified for the World Cup. They have only qualified for the Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) once and they were eliminated at group stages of the competitions in 2012.

On the other hand, NSOs in lower tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy (see Table 5.2) or those that receive less empowerment and/or less well funded have qualified and competed at these stages with satisfactory results. For example Botswana Athletics Association's elite athletes have qualified, competed and

achieved good performance at the All Africa Games, the Olympic Games, the Commonwealth games and the athletics World Championships. Indeed, the only medal that Botswana National teams have won at Olympic Games since the 1997 Commission of Inquiry is a silver medal won by a track and field athlete at the 2012 London Olympic Games. However, Botswana Athletics Association was categorised into the third tier of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy. This demonstrates a need for a revision on this policy to include targets that are based on achievements at international, continental, and regional competitions.

#### 8.2.1.2 Economic factors

The results indicate that there were economic influences that affected how Botswana NSOs implemented PM practices. According to the results, a significant economic influence that affected the operations of Botswana NSOs and how they implemented their PM was the 2007-2008 global economic recession. This economic crisis affected the grants that the government could provide to Botswana NSOs. In addition, other resource streams such as sponsorships, scholarships and donations were affected as sponsors and donors dealt with financial issues that affected their individual companies. As a financial crisis is an external economic influence that Botswana NSOs do not control, these organisations found ways to cope with the external influence.

Botswana NSOs coped with external pressure by prioritising the activities they implemented due to limited funds. They facilitated activities that encouraged the engagement of many different stakeholders, over those that engaged only a few. As this affects recreational and elite sport activities that Botswana NSOs could facilitate, it had a direct influence on how these organisations operate and their

implementation of PM practices during and after the economic crisis. This finding supports prior studies by Robinson (2010) and O'Boyle and Bradbury (2017) who noted that economic influences can affect how NSOs operate. In addition, this finding demonstrates that economic factors are external environmental influences that affect how Botswana NSOs implement PM practices.

Still on economic influences, it is important to note that Botswana is a developing African country with an upper middle-income status (Sebina, 2017). While this economic position affords Botswana's citizenry education, health, social safety and sport (Chappell 2007; 2008), the country faces challenges that require economic investment. These challenges include high prevalence of diseases such as HIV/Aids and Malaria, high rates of graduate unemployment and pressing needs for infrastructural development. However, as a middle-income country, there is a marked decrease of donor support (Sebina, 2017), and therefore the costs of these challenges are borne by the government. Consequently, fewer economic resources are available for sport and Botswana NSOs. For instance, Botswana sport suffered budget cuts of P 6.7 million (approx. \$615,000) in the year 2020 to make funds available for Covid 19 (Kolantsho, 2020). This shows that Botswana NSOs can be directly affected by external economic influences as they impact the environment, and this implicates how they manage and implement PM practices.

#### 8.2.1.3 Socio-cultural factors

There are socio-cultural factors that influence how NSOs implement PM practices. The results of the study indicate that demographic characteristics of communities where NSO operate influenced the type of activities that these organisations offered to their members. The characteristics of a community,

including population trends and income distribution, determined the activities and programmes that Botswana NSOs could implement.

In Maun, Masunga and Molepolole where the government has constructed integrated sports facilities (multi-sport venues), NSOs were able to facilitate mass participation and grassroots sport development programmes. The population of these villages mostly comprise of young people, hence mass participation programmes such as the district sports festivals and the constituency leagues were facilitated by these organisations.

In addition, grassroots sport development programmes such as *Re Ba Bona Ha*, school sport and out of school sport were facilitated in these areas to develop sport skills among young people. Moreover, sport activities that require less equipment like athletics, volleyball, football and netball were facilitated by Botswana NSOs because they were economically affordable for the participants. Young people with limited income could participate in activities that NSOs promoted and facilitated. Therefore, demographic characteristics including populace and income distribution directly influenced the implementation of PM practices by Botswana NSOs.

It is important to note that recreational and elite sport programmes were not only implemented in places that had integrated sport facilities. Some of Botswana NSOs have regional structures to support the spread of their members throughout the country. These NSOs facilitate and implement mass participation programmes for these communities. For instance, NSOs, the BNOG (Botswana National Olympic Committee) and other stakeholders implement the Olympic day celebrations in many different villages to promote healthy and active lifestyles among people living in Botswana communities. These celebrations are also meant to promote Olympism and Olympic values and ideals.

#### 8.2.1.4 Technological factors

On technological advancements and innovation, some of Botswana NSOs used social media platforms to improve their communication and marketing capabilities. While technological advancements and innovations are external to NSOs, their adoption and use improved their processes. How Botswana NSOs internally used these advancements will be discussed in more detail under internal environmental influences and PM on page 233.

Nonetheless, technological advancements and improvements in communication and marketing improve NSOs' processes. An improvement of processes leads to improved capacity of NSOs to implement their recreational and elite sport activities and this impacts on their organisational performance. This finding is consistent with the writings of Blakey (2011) and O'Boyle and Bradbury (2017) who note that technological advancements improve the operations of NSOs and their capacity to attain their goals and objectives and satisfy the demands and expectations of their stakeholders.

#### 8.2.1.5 Environmental factors

Environmental factors have become increasingly important to NSOs and other organisations in Botswana. The government of the world have set targets that aim to ensure the sustainability of the planet. As a result, Botswana NSOs face pressures to comply with the global and government's environmental and ecological targets around climate change, carbon footprint, pollution and save water campaigns.

Individuals within Botswana NSOs were aware of environmental and ecological requirements and were abiding by them. Interestingly, individuals within

these organisations viewed these more as campaigns rather than restrictions. This finding can probably be attributed to the small population of Botswana and the few athletes that qualify for the major events. For instance, over the last 4 Olympic Games, Botswana sent 12 athletes to the 2016 Rio de Janeiro, 4 to 2012 London, 12 to 2008 Beijing and 10 to the 2004 Athens games. In contrast Lithuania, a European country with a similar population to Botswana sent 67 athletes to Rio de Janeiro, 62 to London, 71 to Beijing and 59 to Athens.

Given how few athletes from Botswana NSOs qualify for major events, environmental concerns associated with sport's carbon footprint may not be paramount. In contrast, NSOs from countries that take large contingents of athletes to international competitions could be pressured by environmental considerations (Wicker, 2019). This could explain why these individuals reported that they were aware of restrictions, they were abiding by them, but that in practice they viewed them more as campaigns rather than restrictions.

Still on environmental factors, the government of Botswana implemented *the Save Water campaign*. This campaign is context specific to Botswana because almost 70% of the country is the Kalahari-desert that faces long dry seasons, limited rainfall, and periodic droughts (Van der Weyde, et al., 2020). In addition, drought relief programmes meant to alleviate the impact of drought among the people are also implemented (Byakatunda et al., 2018; Krüger, 2018). These programmes come at a cost to the government, affecting budgetary allocations to sports and NSOs. Inevitably small budgetary allocations and budget cuts then affect how NSOs in this country implemented PM. Further research could explore the effects of drought conditions on the funding of Botswana NSOs and how this affects the performance of national teams.

Research could also investigate how different NSOs with different organisational capabilities respond to environmental and ecological influences. Comparative studies could be used to investigate NSOs in different contexts, for example, developing countries vs developed countries, using different variables such as number of international competitions and number of athletes attending these competitions, the frequency of these competitions and the results attained at these competitions. This type of research could provide insights into whether different NSOs that exist in different contexts respond differently to environmental factors acting on them, and whether their responses can be attributed to PM.

#### 8.2.1.6 Legal factors

On legal factors, individuals within NSOs reported their awareness of legal issues such as discrimination, match fixing, doping and corruption in sport. They reported that they dealt with these matters as and when they arose through courts of laws and the Court of Arbitration for Sport. The results indicate that legal matters affected how the NSOs implement their activities. For instance, the suspension of Botswana Athletics Association's elite athlete from international competitions due to doping in 2014 affected the results that this NSO could achieve during the period of the athlete's suspension. In this case, doping as a legal issue affected the performance of Botswana Athletics Association.

Based on these findings, a conclusion can be drawn that PESTEL factors impact on Botswana NSOs and influence how they implement their organisational practices and consequently PM. Therefore, it is important for these NSOs to be cognisant of and to account for PESTEL factors in their strategic plans and to

improve how they implement their activities to attain their mission effectively and efficiently.

### 8.2.2 Stakeholder influence and PM of NSOs

One of the objectives of this study was to establish whether stakeholders were an external environmental influence that affects the implementation of PM among NSOs. To address this objective, it was necessary to identify Botswana NSO stakeholders and to establish how and why they influenced the implementation of PM practices.

Botswana NSO stakeholders include international and continental federations, BNSC, BNOC, sponsors, clubs, teams, individual members, the Ministry, media, national team players, coaches, umpires, technical staff and the community. For the purposes of this study, these were identified as definitive, dominant, dependent, dormant, and discretionary stakeholders according to Mitchell et al.'s (1997) framework. In addition, these stakeholders were also categorised as external and internal stakeholders.

Different stakeholders differently influenced the implementation of different PM practices among Botswana NSO. These NSOs depended on stakeholders such as the BNSC, BNOC, sponsors, the Ministry, the media and the community for resources. The control over resources meant that stakeholders could use withholding and usage strategies to directly and indirectly influence the implementation of PM practices. However, the degree of stakeholder influence depended on whether they were involved in the implementation of the different stages of the PM process.



In cases where stakeholders controlled the resources, they influenced how NSOs in Botswana implemented PM. For example, the BNSC controlled the government grant to NSOs and could withhold this funding if these organisations did not comply with their demands and expectations. Botswana NSOs are unable to internally generate the resources that they need to facilitate their operations. This could be due to numerous factors. Firstly, Botswana has a small population making it challenging to attract multi-national corporations as is common in countries with large populations. These corporations provide sponsorships to NSOs in countries that attract them. In addition, the poor performance of the country's national teams makes it more difficult to obtain funding through sponsorship.

Secondly, Botswana is a developing country that faces challenges such as infrastructure development and provisions of education, health care and social safety for its citizenry. This impacts on the funding that government makes available to NSOs. The resource constrained environment in which Botswana NSOs exist forced them to comply with the demands and expectations of the BNSC. This led to the adoption and implementation of goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback, and feedforward practices. Thus, because of withholding resources, the BNSC influenced the behaviour of Botswana NSOs by making them adopt PM practices. This result confirms the suppositions of Frooman (1999) that when a stakeholder controls resources, they can influence the behaviour of the organisation that depends on the resources. Similar findings on how stakeholders employ withholding strategies to influence the behaviour of sport organisations were reported by Heffernan and O'Brien (2010) and Xue and Mason (2017).

On the other hand, there were some stakeholders and Botswana NSOs that depended on each other for resources. For instance, NSOs depended on athletes to provide them with elite athlete services and in-turn these athletes depended on NSOs to facilitate elite sport programmes. This interdependence led Botswana NSOs and stakeholders to employ usage strategies in which both parties could provide resources with strings attached to ensure that their demands and expectations were met. This facilitated the implementation of PM practices. This finding is consistent with the arguments of Frooman (1999) that when organisations and their stakeholders depend on each other for resources they can influence how they both behave. As these stakeholders could affect the behaviour of these organisations, they influenced the adoption and implementation of PM practices.

Stakeholders also influenced the different stages of the PM management process. In this case, PM practices were considered from a process perspective comprising of stages in which the first stage entailed the goal and objective setting and the second comprised of the NSO processes and activities. The third was the performance measurement stage while the fourth and final stage was the feedback and feedforward stage. Depending on whether the stakeholders interacted with the NSO in any of these stages, they could influence their behaviour. For instance, the BNSC and the Ministry interacted with the NSOs in all the stages of the PM process and as a result they could influence the implementation of all these stages. In addition, internal stakeholders such as clubs, teams, individual members, national team players, coaches and technical staff could influence all the stages of the PM process as they were involved in all of them.

On the other hand, some stakeholders such as sponsors, international federations, the media and the community could not influence the goal and objective

setting stage of the PM process because they were not involved in this process. While the needs and expectations of these stakeholders were considered when NSO goals and objectives were set, these stakeholders did not directly influence the implementation of this PM stage. This demonstrates that despite their influence on the implementation of PM practices, the sphere of control of stakeholders was limited to the stages of the PM process they were involved in.

It is important to note that stakeholders could still influence the implementation of PM practices among Botswana NSOs even when they did not have any control over resources. Some stakeholders formed alliances to influence the behaviour of NSOs. For instance, members of the community teamed up with pressure groups to make NSOs account for the public resources that they received. This prompted Botswana NSOs to provide feedback to these stakeholders thereby affecting the implementation of this stage of the PM process. The pressure from the alliances that stakeholders formed with pressure groups made NSOs vulnerable as they could lose government funding.

These findings demonstrate that stakeholders are an external environmental influence that affects the implementation of PM practices among NSOs in Botswana. Furthermore, the resources that different stakeholders provide placed demands and expectations on Botswana NSOs influencing the implementation of PM practices. It is important to highlight that this study only considered the relationship between these organisations and their stakeholders from a resource dependence perspective. Therefore, the resource constrained environment in which Botswana NSOs exist could to a large extent explain why these organisations comply with the demands and expectations of various stakeholders leading to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. Therefore, research on the PM of NSOs should intensify efforts to

uncover how NSOs that have numerous lucrative resource streams adopt and implement PM practices. Particular attention could be paid towards independent NSOs that do not have resource dependencies on stakeholders. This research could offer insights into whether NSOs implement PM practices to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their processes or as practices meant to meet the demands and expectations of their stakeholders.

The results of this study demonstrate that stakeholders are an external environmental influence that affects how NSOs implement PM practices. However, it is important to highlight that there were internal stakeholders that also affected the implementation of PM practices among NSOs. In this study, these stakeholders have been classified as part of the internal environment. Internal stakeholders and other aspects of the internal environment and how they affect the implementation of PM practices among NSOs are discussed in the next section.

### **8.3 Internal environmental influences and PM practices**

One of the objectives of this research study was to establish how the internal environment of Botswana NSOs influenced the implementation of PM. This research particularly considered the internal environment to comprise of internal stakeholders, available resources, structural design characteristics, processes, activities, stages of the PM process and individuals within NSOs.

#### **8.3.1 Internal stakeholders**

Internal stakeholders of Botswana NSOs were identified as clubs, teams, individual members, national team players, coaches, umpires and technical staff. These stakeholders are involved in the implementation of the stages of the PM

process by NSOs. For instance, clubs, teams and individual members form the general assembly where decisions on the goal and objectives, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward are taken. Their participation in deliberations at NSO general assemblies means that they could present their demands and expectations, thereby influencing the goals and objectives set by these organisations. This finding is consistent with that of Parent et al. (2017) who note that the demands and expectations of stakeholders can influence how organisations implement practices and activities.

In addition, the participation of the national team players, coaches, umpires and technical staff in NSO activities means that they could influence the implementation of processes, activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward phases of the PM process. Therefore, internal stakeholders of Botswana NSOs directly influenced the implementation of different stages of the PM process. This finding demonstrates that stakeholders, whether external or internal, influenced the implementation of PM practices among NSOs.

### 8.3.2 The resources available to NSOs

Resources are important to NSOs as they are required for the implementation of mass participation and elite sport activities. NSOs obtained membership fees, grants, sponsorships, scholarships, donations, recreational and elite sport professional services from their many different stakeholders. Botswana NSOs could attract these different types of resources based on their size and popularity. Popular NSOs with many members affiliated to them could attract sponsorship agreements more than smaller NSOs with a small number of members. For example, football is the most popular sport in Botswana. With a total number of 754 members, Botswana

Football Association could solicit sponsorship agreements to facilitate its premier league competition. On the other hand, NSOs with small member numbers had difficulty securing sponsorship agreements. Additionally, NSOs with large member numbers could obtain more funds from member affiliation fees over those with small numbers.

While the resources obtained facilitated the implementation of recreational and elite sport activities, bigger NSOs had to implement these programmes for their large member numbers. For instance, Botswana Football Association implemented its programmes to its large membership spread throughout the country in contrast to NSOs with small member numbers in relatively fewer places. Thus, while bigger popular NSOs attracted more resources over their smaller counterparts, they faced a challenge of facilitating their programmes to a large membership base than smaller NSOs. This finding demonstrates that the resources available to Botswana NSOs determined the activities that these organisations could implement thereby, affecting how they implemented PM practices.

### 8.3.3 Structural design characteristics

The structure of NSOs affects how they implemented PM practices. NSO developed and adopted structural designs characteristics in response to the influences of the external environment. Structural designs characteristics that include specialisation, standardisation and centralisation affected how Botswana NSOs implemented PM practices.

On specialisation, Botswana NSOs adopted differentiated roles that facilitated the efficient and effective implementation of their processes and activities. These NSOs employed a wide range of officers including Sports Development Officers,

Chief Executive Officers, Administration Officers and Finance Officers. These officers performed processes and implemented activities that ensured the achievement of the mission and vision of these organisations. It is important to note that depending on their Affiliates Empowerment Policy tier categorisation, the BNSC employed different officers for the NSOs. For instance, NSOs in lower tiers shared a Sports Development Officer between 4 or 5, while those in higher tiers had an individual officer employed for them. As the different officers employed by Botswana NSOs played key roles in the implementation of NSO activities and processes, this affected the implementation of PM practices among these organisations.

While this research identified various roles performed by different officers attesting to the specialisation of Botswana NSOs, how different officers differently contributed to the PM of these organisations was not explored in this research. Therefore, further research could investigate how specialisation and the different roles played by different officers in NSOs contribute towards the overall performance of these organisations. This type of research can illuminate performance issues among employees of NSOs including performance appraisals, rewards and key performance indicators. Additionally, this research could offer insights into whether PM is different for hired staff and operational volunteers within these organisations.

Botswana NSOs followed a standardisation framework comprised of the constitutions of NSOs, the constitution of the Republic of Botswana, the BNSC Act, the National Policy on Sports and Recreation, the Olympic Charter, the rules and regulations of the BNSC and those of international and continental federations. This standardisation framework guided the activities of NSOs and affected how these organisations implemented PM practices. For example, international and continental federations provided the rules and regulations that guided how their sport were

played. In addition, the BNSC Act and the National Policy on Sport and Recreation provided guidelines on how Botswana NSOs implemented sport in that country. Abiding by the rules and regulations of international and continental federations and following guidelines as stipulated in the BNSC Act and the National Policy on Sport and Recreation led these NSOs to implement PM practices.

This finding can to a large extent be explained by various studies which have drawn on institutional theory (see, for example, Dowling & Smith, 2016; Nite et al., 2018) where it is suggested that a framework of rules and regulations puts pressure on organisations leading to their adoption of organisational practices among NSOs. In this case, the standardisation framework influenced how Botswana NSOs implemented PM practices.

On centralisation, different decisions were taken at different levels within Botswana NSOs. For instance, decisions on strategic matters were taken at the National Assemblies of NSO, while operational decisions were taken by operational staff as they performed their work routines. Furthermore, decision making structures varied for NSOs according to their size. Smaller NSOs relied on their executive boards to manage their small membership while bigger NSOs had national, regional and local structures to manage larger numbers of members. Thus, the decision-making processes of NSOs affected how they implemented PM practices.

It is important to note that this research only identified the centralisation and decision-making structures and their importance in the PM of Botswana NSOs. This research, however, did not investigate the efficiency and effectiveness of different decision-making structures and how they differently affected the performance of these organisations. Therefore, further research could explore the efficiency and effectiveness of NSOs with different decision-making structures including national,



regional and local structures versus those that rely on an executive board to make all decisions. This research could provide more information on whether the decision-making structures of NSOs impact on their organisational performance. This type of research could provide understanding on the levels at which decisions are taken among differently structured NSOs and how these affect their efficiency or effectiveness.

Considering the structural design characteristics of NSOs, a conclusion can be drawn that their ability to employ specialised staff who make decisions guided by a framework of rules, regulations and policies is evidence of the professionalisation of Botswana NSOs. This finding demonstrates the capacity of Botswana NSOs to implement organisational processes and activities thereby affecting their implementation of PM practices. This finding further demonstrates that Botswana NSOs have developed into professional organisations that have the capacity to implement practices that help in the management of their performance. While this result demonstrates the capacity of NSOs to implement PM practices, it further reinforces the findings of Parent et al. (2018) who note that the structural design characteristics of NSOs influenced how these organisations perform organisational processes and activities.

#### 8.3.4 Organisational processes, activities, and stages of the PM process

In this study, the organisational processes investigated were leadership, communication and creating an organisational environment that favours the implementation of PM. On the other hand, organisational activities considered were recreational and elite sport programmes implemented by NSOs. These

organisational processes, activities and stages of the PM process are essentially PM practices implemented by NSOs.

#### *8.3.4.1 Leadership, communication, and an environment that favours PM*

Leadership among Botswana NSOs was exercised through governing boards that were elected to office by their General Assemblies. These individuals were elected to board positions that include president, vice president (technical/administration) secretary general, treasurer, and additional members. The composition and term of office of the NSO boards depended on the stipulations in their constitutions. In addition to governing boards, some NSOs had national and regional coordinating structures that provided leadership for these organisations.

Botswana NSO governing boards and their national and regional structures provided strategic direction and leadership on the implementation of recreational and elite sport programmes. These leadership structures comprised of volunteers who led paid professional staff. It was reported that different individuals including volunteers or paid professional staff played different roles towards the attainment of the mission of their NSOs. Board members provided the strategic direction, oversight, and leadership, while paid professional staff operationalised the strategic plan and implemented NSO activities. This demonstrates that regardless of whether there are volunteers or paid staff, individuals within NSOs participated in leadership. This finding is consistent with Hoye and Cuskelly (2003) and Fletcher and Arnold (2011) who found that effective leadership provides direction on the implementation of NSO activities.

It was further established that when board members were actively involved in NSO activities, they influenced the attainment of organisational goals and objectives

than those that were not actively involved. For instance, board members who frequently met and actively provided leadership on the implementation of recreational and elite sport programmes influenced their NSOs more than those that did not. This demonstrates that leadership was influential on whether the NSO attained organisational objectives or not. This finding is consistent with the arguments of Arnold et al. (2012) and Fletcher and Arnold (2011) that effective leadership increases the efficiency and effectiveness with which organisational goals and objectives are achieved.

Board members and operational staff of Botswana NSOs communicated with members and stakeholders through face-to-face communication, regular meetings, letters, emails, and phone conversations. Through these different communication channels, board members communicated strategic plans and the operational staff communicated to facilitate the implementation of the plans. In addition, communication allowed individuals within NSOs to share the extent to which they achieved predetermined goals and objectives. Thus, individuals within NSOs engaged in regular communication to improve the attainment of the strategic goals and objectives of the NSOs.

In addition to the different channels of communication used by NSOs, some of these organisations had websites and used social media platforms including Facebook and Twitter. Social media platforms provided information to fans, spectators, and members of the NSOs. However, it is important to note that some NSOs did not have websites or accounts on social media platforms. Nevertheless, NSOs that used websites and social media platforms could make information available to their members and stakeholders thereby improved the attainment of their goals and the implementation of their processes.

Botswana NSOs also used television, radio, and newspapers to communicate with their members, fans, and spectators. For instance, they use press statements in print and electronic media to inform their members and stakeholders about their activities and to attract fans and spectators to their events. Spectators of NSO events bring revenue to these organisations through gate receipts. Therefore, this form of communication improves NSO events as they are able to increase their revenue. Furthermore, popular events in sports such as football are broadcast live on the radio and television. While these broadcasts inform the fans and spectators on events of this sport, they also increased the popularity of the sports, thereby improving the implementation of these activities. Hence, NSOs used various media channels to communicate with their spectators and fans and broadcast their events to their followers. As communication is a part of the PM process, how NSOs implemented this practice influences the efficiency and effectiveness of their goal attainment. This result is consistent with Ferreira and Otley (2009) who found that communication is important for the implementation and maintenance of a PM system because it facilitates a common understanding of what is to be achieved. Thus Botswana NSOs implemented this PM process.

Bayle and Robinson (2007) reported that an enabling environment that supported PM is essential as it ensures effective implementation of organisational processes and activities. However, the results of this study indicate that Botswana NSOs did not necessarily create enabling environments that support PM. The results indicate that these organisations reported that they were not implementing PM systems. Therefore, these NSOs could not create environments that facilitate the implementation of PM practices. However, the board members and operational staff

of Botswana NSOs agreed that an enabling environment that supports PM could influence the implementation of PM among these organisations.

This finding to large extent demonstrates that while it was established that Botswana NSOs implemented of PM practices, these practices did not constitute a PM system. Because a PM system can affect the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational activities and practices, there is need for Botswana NSOs to consider implementing comprehensive PM systems. Furthermore, it is rather unusual for these organisations to report that they are not implementing PM systems while on the other hand they implemented PM practices. Therefore, further research is required to explore how Botswana NSOs could optimise the PM practices they employ and develop them into systems that benefit the efficiency and effectiveness of their organisational processes. This research could offer insights on the capacity of the internal environment of NSOs and its suitability for the implementation of PM systems. In addition, this type of research informs practice on the most suitable PM systems that NSOs can employ taking into account their distinct nature.

#### *8.3.4.2 Stages of the PM process*

Botswana NSOs implemented the various stages of the PM process including goal and objective setting, processes and activities, performance measurement, feedback and feedforward. These stages were implemented in response to external and internal influences that affected Botswana NSOs. Furthermore, while this study considered PM practices from a process perspective and described each practice as a stage in the PM process, Botswana NSOs implemented these practices as distinct organisational practices not as part of a coherent whole PM process.

How Botswana NSOs developed and used PM practices and how these practices, which are essentially stages of the PM process, are adopted and implemented by these organisations is described in detail in Chapter 7 of this thesis. It is important to note that this research study set out to investigate how Botswana NSOs developed and used PM systems. However, the research findings as stipulated in chapter 7 describe how these organisations implement practices as opposed to implementing PM systems. Therefore, this thesis adopted a PM practices approach rather than a PM system approach to describing the organisational performance of NSOs.

It should be noted that these results are specific to the Botswana context in that the external environmental influences which may be distinct to Botswana prompt changes to the internal environment of NSOs leading to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. These results demonstrates that organisational performance among Botswana NSOs can still be developed from practices to comprehensive and robust systems. This development will help to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of these organisations in the attainment of organisational goals and satisfaction of their stakeholders.

These results to a large extent support the findings of O'Boyle and Hassan (2015) who established that while NSOs implement organisational performance, the systems they use are not robust enough and not fully developed as PM systems. While O'Boyle and Hassan's (2015) study was conducted in New Zealand, it is clear that regardless of the context in which they may exist, NSOs have similar organisational capacities that influence how they implement PM. Nevertheless, there remains a need for further investigation into how PM practices implemented by Botswana can be woven into a PM system that is robust and comprehensive. This

study may investigate whether implementing PM systems improves the capacity of these organisations to pursue their vision and mission. Additionally, this type of research can offer insights into the underlying reasons for the under development and lack of robustness of organisational performance among NSOs. Furthermore, comparative studies can be conducted in different context of varying backgrounds to establish the capacity of these organisations to implement and maintain PM practices.

### 8.3.5 Individuals within NSOs

In this study, individuals within NSOs refers to board members and operational staff. These individuals influenced the implementation of PM practices among Botswana NSOs. Because of their involvement in daily organisational operations, individuals took decisions and implemented practices, thereby performing creation and maintenance work that led to the implementation of PM practices. A more detailed illustration on how individuals within Botswana NSOs performed creation and maintenance work and how they influenced the adoption and implementation of PM practices is presented in Chapter 7. Nonetheless, it is important to discuss the results as illustrated in Chapter 7 to highlight how external environmental influences led individuals within NSOs to adopt and implement PM practices. Furthermore, this discussion illustrates how individuals are an internal environmental influence that affects how Botswana NSOs implement PM practices.

The results of this study indicate that Botswana NSOs faced coercive, mimetic and normative pressures from their external environments. These institutional pressures mostly resulted from the demands and expectations of their stakeholders and they prompted the response of individuals within these organisations. Oliver's

(1991) typology of responses were used to describe how individuals within Botswana NSOs responded to institutional pressures acting on their organisations. In addition, because values can be used to explain, guide or justify the behaviour of individuals (Tuulik et al., 2013), organisational values were used to understand the responses of individuals to external pressures acting on their NSOs.

The results demonstrate that individuals within Botswana NSOs responded to pressures acting on their organisations by acceding to stakeholder demands and expectations. In cases where they did not agree, they changed the demands and expectations to suit what they could provide to stakeholders. This finding is consistent with Heinze and Lu (2017) who reported that NSOs can adopt a variety of responses to deal with external pressures as they are not passive recipients of institutional demands. Similarly, Nite et al. (2019) reported that NSOs respond in any way they choose particularly if their responses serve their interests. Moreover, the results of this study demonstrate that the responses of individuals within Botswana NSOs were to a large extent driven by their need to continue receiving resources from their stakeholders. Therefore, while NSOs are not passive recipient of institutional demands, when resources are at stake, they become susceptible to external environmental influences and these affect their implementation of PM practices.

This study established that individuals within Botswana NSOs responded to external environmental influences by performing creation and maintenance work. This led to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. This finding may be relevant to Botswana NSOs because they exist in a resource constrained environment that makes them prioritise continued receipt of resources by acceding to stakeholder demands. Therefore, there is a need to further investigate whether



NSOs that do not face resource constraints will adopt and implement PM practices in the same manner that those in Botswana did. This research could provide insights into the underlying reasons for NSOs to implement PM practices. Furthermore, this research could provide more clarity on whether NSOs use PM practices to improve their efficiency and effectiveness or whether they do so because of the external pressures they face.

In this study, it was established that the decisions taken by individuals within NSOs were guided by values that these organisations espoused. The responses to external pressures acting on Botswana NSOs were guided by organisational values that include competitiveness, professionalism, quality service delivery, effective management, fair-play and respect. The responses of Individuals within these organisations were coincident with the values that these organisations espoused. This result is consistent with the findings of Miller and Yu (2003) that individuals within organisations respond in ways that are coincident with their organisational values. In the context of Botswana NSOs, however, the values that guided the responses of individuals such as competitiveness, professionalism, quality service delivery, effective management were to a large extent focussed towards satisfying stakeholder demands and expectations.

This finding raises interesting questions that may provide avenues for further research. For instance, research could investigate whether personal values of individuals within NSOs influence how they respond to pressures affecting their organisations and whether their responses implicate PM. Research that explores these questions may provide understanding into how individuals within NSOs respond to institutional pressures in cases where their personal values are different to those of their NSOs. In addition, this type of research can offer more clarity on

how individuals within NSOs respond to external pressures in cases where there is a conflict between individual and organisational values, or between values of individuals within these organisations. Furthermore, how the individual values of the leader of the NSO affect whether the organisation implements PM can also be pursued. Nonetheless, it is important to highlight that this research study provided clarity on how organisational values guided the responses of individuals within Botswana NSOs to adopt and implement PM practices.

This research study also established that individuals within NSOs in Botswana did not perform any disruption work to affect the implementation of PM practices. While the results indicate that they performed creation and maintenance work that led to the adoption and implementation PM practices, there was no evidence to support that they performed institutional work that disrupted these practices. This result is consistent with the findings of Agyemang et al. (2018) that when they benefit from prevailing institutional arrangements, actors lack the motivation to disrupt them. In this case, individuals within Botswana NSOs lacked the motivation to disrupt the implementation of PM practices because they benefitted from stakeholder resources. Individuals within Botswana NSOs worked to satisfy the demands and expectations of their stakeholders to ensure continued receipt of resources rather than perform disruption work.

#### **8.4 The interplay between external and internal environments**

This research considered the interplay between the external and internal environments and how their interdependence and synergy influenced the implementation of PM practices among NSOs. To effectively study the interplay between external and internal environments, the environment of Botswana NSOs

was analysed through the macro, meso and micro framework. This analytic framework allowed for Botswana NSOs to be explored from three distinct environments. The macro environment comprises of PESTEL factors and the influence of stakeholders. The meso environment on the other hand, is made up of the resources, structural designs, processes, and activities of NSOs. Additionally, the micro environment comprises of individuals within the NSO; board members and members of the operational staff. Thus, the macro environment is the external environment, while the meso and the micro environments are the internal environment of NSOs.

Using the macro, meso and micro analytic framework in this study allowed for the environment of Botswana NSOs to be viewed from a holistic perspective. This perspective was crucial because it accounts for the whole environment of Botswana NSOs that comprises of external and internal environmental influences, the uniqueness of these organisations and the interdependence of their operating systems. This perspective enabled a comprehensive investigation into the interplay between external and internal environments of Botswana NSO. While details of the macro, meso and micro environments are presented in chapter 4 of this thesis, the arguments in this chapter are based on a literature review exercise. Therefore, there remains a need for a description of these environments to demonstrate the interplay between external and internal environments with a particular reference to Botswana NSOs. This section presents a discussion on this perspective in terms of the study of organisational performance among Botswana NSOs.

The results of this study indicate that the environments of Botswana NSOs are linked in that changes in the external environment influenced changes in these organisations' internal environments. For instance, Botswana NSOs did not control

PESTEL factors or the influence of stakeholders affecting them. However, these factors put pressure on NSOs prompting them to respond by changing their internal environments. The changes that these organisations made include adopting and implementing practices that helped them to cope with external pressures. For example, stakeholders exerted pressure on Botswana NSOs to comply with their rules, regulations and policies. While this defined their operational boundaries, it pressured the compliance of these organisations. By complying with this pressure as exerted by stakeholders, Botswana NSOs adopted and implemented activities thereby changing their internal environments. This finding demonstrates the link between the macro or external environmental factors and the meso or structure, processes and capabilities of NSOs. These environments are linked in that changes in one environment prompts responses in the other environment.

It is important to consider that the responses of NSOs are initiated and implemented by individuals within these organisations. As individuals are the micro environment of NSOs, they are key actors that respond to external pressures acting on their organisations. In response to external influences, these individuals perform work by adopting and implementing organisational processes that mobilise the capacity of Botswana NSOs to deal with external influences affecting their organisations. Therefore, external environmental influences lead to internal changes that facilitate the adoption and implementation of PM practices.

This finding indicates that Botswana NSOs' external and internal environments are linked. This result is consistent with the findings of institutional theory-based studies (see, for example, Agyemang et al., 2018; Dowling and Smith, 2016; Nite et al., 2018) who note that institutional pressures influence the adoption and implementation of practices among sport organisations. While the findings of this

study comprehensively detail how the interplay between external and internal influences affect the implementation of PM practices among NSOs, there is a need for further research on this topical area. In this study, external environmental influences are PESTEL factors and the influence of stakeholders. Thus, the unique context of Botswana where the NSOs studied exist, played a role in the type of PESTEL factors affecting these organisations as well as the type of influence that stakeholders exerted on these organisations. In addition, the unique context of Botswana made up of its small population, middle income developing country status and the fact its government faced more pressing political matters than sport meant that NSOs in this country existed in a resource constrained context that affected their capacity of these organisations to deal with external influences. Therefore, the interplay between external and internal environmental influences and the role that they play in the implementation of PM practices may be different for different NSOs, existing in different contexts.

Further research could explore the interplay between external and internal environments of NSOs that exist in contexts that are different from that of Botswana. For instance, interplay between external and internal environments for NSOs from highly populated developing or developed countries, or those with low- or high-income status could be different to those that exist in Botswana. Thus, this type of research could offer more explanation the interplay between external and internal environmental influences of NSOs and their varying capacity to implement PM practices.

## **Chapter 9: Conclusions, limitations, and further research**

### **9.1 Conclusions**

What is demonstrated in this study and in the constituent papers is that Botswana NSOs have implemented PM practices. Acquiring resources in their resource constrained environment where fewer resource streams were available made Botswana NSOs susceptible to external influences. This prompted responses in their internal environments that led these organisations to implement PM practices. While Botswana NSOs did not implement robust and comprehensive PM systems, they implemented PM practices as part of their organisational processes and routines.

Objective (1) involved examining how external environmental influences affected the implementation of PM practices among Botswana NSOs. These organisations faced institutional pressures. Specifically, PESTEL factors and stakeholder influence were coercive, mimetic, and normative pressures that affected these organisations. Individuals within Botswana NSOs responded to these pressures by performing creation and maintenance work that led to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. Thus, by causing pressures that prompted responses among Botswana NSOs, external environmental influences affected the implementation of PM practices among these organisations.

Objective (2) was concerned with whether stakeholders influence the implementation of PM practices among Botswana NSOs and how and why they do so. It is concluded that stakeholders influenced the implementation of PM practices. Different stakeholders used influence strategies to influence the implementation of different PM practices depending on their involvement in the execution of these practices. Stakeholders used influence strategies to ensure that NSOs met their

demands and expectations in return for the resources that they made available to these organisations. External stakeholders' demands and expectations caused pressure and in response, NSOs adopted and implemented PM practices. On the other hand, internal stakeholders were involved in the implementation of PM practices and they could influence how these practices were implemented by NSOs.

Objective (3) was concerned with how the internal environment of NSOs influenced the implementation of PM practices. It is concluded that the resources available and the structural design characteristics are internal environmental factors that influence the implementation of PM practices by these organisations. In addition, organisational processes and activities and stages of the PM process are part of the PM process and their implementation is required for the implementation of PM practices.

The amount and type of resources available to NSOs influenced the activities and programmes that these organisations could implement. Furthermore, the NSOs' structural design characteristics including standardisation, centralisation and specialisation affected the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes, thereby affecting PM. In addition, leadership and communication were organisational processes that affected the implementation of PM practices among NSOs. It was further concluded that Botswana NSOs did not create an environment that facilitates the implementation of PM, as they did not implement a comprehensive PM system.

Objective (4) involved examining the roles played by stakeholders, board members and operational staff and how they influenced the implementation of PM. It is concluded that stakeholders, board members and operational staff played different roles and performed creation and maintenance work that led to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. These different individuals did not have to have

common goals or objectives or have to collaborate in the execution of their roles. However, because their interest could be served by NSOs, they differently influenced how these organisations implemented PM practices.

## **9.2 Contribution to theory**

This study contributes to what we know about PM and how it is implemented by NSOs. The study found that the influence of external and internal environments, the interdependence of the NSO's operating system and the uniqueness of their context influenced the implementation of PM practices among these organisations. Based on these findings, a holistic theoretical model for the PM of NSOs was proposed. This model provides a holistic perspective to the PM of NSOs, a perspective that had not been developed for such organisations before. Thus, the proposed holistic model for the PM of NSOs model is new. The model accounts for the whole environment of the NSO made up of its external and internal environments, the interdependence of the NSO's operating system and the uniqueness of these organisations. This perspective is crucial because all aspects of the PM of these organisations are now considered.

Because this research proposes a model that provides a new perspective for considering the PM of NSOs, it contributes to sport management literature on this topic. In addition, because some aspects of this model have not been empirically tested, it serves to initiate a discussion on holistic perspectives to the study of the PM. Furthermore, this model proposes avenues for further research, helping to enrich our understanding on how these organisations operate and how they perform organisational and PM practices,



Using stakeholder and resource dependence theories, this study identified stakeholders according to their salience, established their influence and identified influence strategies they used to affect the implementation of PM. These theories helped to establish how different stakeholders differently influenced the implementation of PM practices among NSOs depending on the resources they provided to these organisations. Thus, this study demonstrates the utility of combining these theories in the research of PM of NSOs. While these theories have been used individually or combined to study different properties and characteristics of NSOs, they had not been used in combination to study the PM of NSOs. Combining these theories in this study provided insights that enrich our understanding of how stakeholders and resources affect the implementation of PM among NSOs.

This study further demonstrated the utility of combining institutional theory and the institutional work perspective. These theoretical perspectives helped to identify pressures that NSOs faced, how individuals within these organisations responded to these pressures and how their responses affected the implementation of PM practices. Furthermore, the roles played by stakeholders, board members and operational staff in the implementation of PM practices was established drawing on these theoretical perspectives.

It is important to highlight that institutional theory and the institutional work perspective have been used to explore the implications of institutional pressures on the operational environment of NSOs and how individuals within these organisations perform institutional work. However, these theoretical perspectives had not before been combined to study PM among NSOs. Therefore, this research contributes to sport management literature, specifically with regards to how individuals within NSOs

respond to institutional pressures by performing creative and maintenance work that leads to the adoption and implementation of PM practices.

This study was conducted in a unique context: a sparsely populated developing country in Africa that presents distinct challenges for NSOs compared to those in developed countries that have previously been studied (Bayle & Robinson, 2007; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2015; Solntsev & Osokin, 2018; Winand et al., 2010). Therefore, this study contributes to what we know as it provides perspectives into how NSOs from this unique context operate and how they behave. Specifically, this research finds that NSOs in this context display similar characteristics to those in other contexts and will act in a similar manner when faced with similar situations. Furthermore, research on the PM of African NSOs is lacking in sport management literature therefore, this study contributes to our knowledge in this regard.

It is important to further highlight that institutional, stakeholder, resource dependence theories and the institutional work perspective had previously not been combined to study PM among NSOs. Therefore, combining these theories in this study provided a unique perspective with which to consider the implementation of PM practices by these organisations. Thus, this research project contributes to sport management literature as it provides unique perspectives on the PM of NSOs that have never been studied before.

### **9.3 Practical implications**

Knowing external and internal environmental influences and how they affect the implementation of PM practices among NSOs in Botswana can be useful to sport managers, policy makers and stakeholders. In addition, the knowledge that Botswana NSOs implement PM practices, the underlying processes that lead to their

development and use as well as the roles that various actors play to facilitate the implementation of these practices can be useful to these practitioners.

### 9.3.1 Practical implications for sport managers

The results of this study provide information on demands and expectation of stakeholders, that are based on the resources they provide. Sport managers can use this information to improve their service delivery to stakeholders by ensuring that their needs and expectation are met. This improves their organisation's stakeholder engagement and ensures that the NSO continues to receive resources from stakeholders. Furthermore, knowing the demands and expectations of stakeholders can help sport managers to improve the quality of reports they submit to stakeholders. These managers can improve their reports by providing details on ways that their NSOs have met the needs and expectation of stakeholders. This will improve NSO – stakeholder relationships as sufficient and more relevant information will be provided on stakeholder investment.

The findings of this study detail PM practices and the different stages of the PM process. In addition, the underlying processes that lead to the adoption and implementation of these practices by NSOs is also described in this study. These results can help sport managers to develop robust PM systems that improve the implementation of organisational processes and the goal attainment of NSOs. Furthermore, this study provides details of the roles that specific individuals play towards the creation and maintenance of these practices. This knowledge can help sport managers to lead the implementation of PM systems in their NSOs as they are aware of the roles that different individuals play. This can also help these managers to influence the adoption and implementation of PM in their organisations thereby,

improving the efficiency and effectiveness of their processes and the quality of the services they provide.

Botswana sport managers can further use the findings of this study to improve the capacity of their NSOs to achieve their goals and satisfy the expectations of their stakeholders. For instance, sport managers of NSOs in the lower tiers of the Affiliates Empowerment Policy can use PM to develop goals and objectives and facilitate the effective implementation of processes and activities. Furthermore, these managers can measure the extent to which their goals and objectives were achieved, report to stakeholders and use the results to improve their organisational practices. By facilitating the implementation of these PM practices, sport managers can improve the performance of their NSOs and the satisfaction of their stakeholders. This can improve these NSOs' tier categorisation and their opportunities for access to lucrative resource streams.

The resource constraint environment of Botswana makes NSOs to rely on stakeholder resources. To continue receiving these resources, NSOs need to be accountable and transparent. According to the results of this study, organisational performance fosters transparency and accountability. Therefore, sport managers of Botswana NSOs can facilitate the implementation of PM practices to ensure that their organisations are transparent and accountable to stakeholders. Implementing these practices, can facilitate the use of performance-based approaches to governance, management and in the implementation of organisational processes and activities. This will ensure that Botswana NSOs demonstrate credibility through practices that create stakeholder confidence.

In addition, the findings of this research point to the need to account for external and internal environmental influences in the implementation of PM

practices. Knowledge of how PESTEL factors and stakeholder influence prompt responses to the internal environment of NSOs, and the catalogue of responses that these organisations can make can be useful to sport managers. They can use this information to anticipate external pressures and plan their responses better to deal with these influences. This can help Botswana sport managers particularly those with many members spread throughout the country like Botswana Football Association and Botswana Volleyball Federation. Their many members and geographical spread make them vulnerable to more external pressures than smaller NSOs with fewer members spread in comparatively fewer places in the country. Hence sport managers of large NSOs can effectively plan for external influences and initiate internal responses that ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of their organisational processes. The ability of sport managers to mitigate against these external environmental influences ensures the sustainability of their organisations and the continued provision of recreational and elite sport programs.

The results of this study call for sport managers to facilitate the implementation of PM practices and to initiate the use of PM systems. This can help them to improve the efficiency and effectiveness with which their NSOs can achieve organisational goals and meet the demands and expectations of their stakeholders. By facilitating the implementation of PM systems, Botswana sport managers can improve the capacity of their NSOs to contribute to the development of a sporting economy which can benefit this developing country.

### 9.3.2 Practice implication for policy makers

The results of this study indicate the components of Botswana legal framework, and how they cause pressure that prompts the compliance of NSOs.

Furthermore, in compliance with the rules, regulations and policies as prescribed by this legal framework, NSOs adopt and implement PM practices. Knowing how rules, regulations and policies affect the adoption and implementation of PM practices can be used by policy makers to develop policies that are easily embraced by NSOs. Moreover, understanding how individuals within NSOs respond to pressures caused by rules, regulations and policies and responses, can help these practitioners to develop policies that benefit both the government and NSOs.

This study details that as organisations that receive public funds, NSOs should implement PM practices to enhance their transparency and accountability. Policy makers can use the findings of this study to develop policies that describe oversight mechanisms that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of organisational processes and ultimately the attainment of Botswana NSOs' goals and objectives. Thus, the results of this study will help in the development of informed policies that are easily embraced by NSOs and that ensure a return on government investment.

This study refers to BNSC Act of 2014 and the National Sports and Recreation policy of 2001. Additionally, the results of this study indicate that the Government White Paper Number 4 of 2002 is an additional legal instrument that guides the implementation of sports in Botswana. Furthermore, the results indicate that while the BNSC Act was enacted in 2014, while other legal instruments are relatively older. Notwithstanding, none of these make any reference to the organisational performance of Botswana NSOs. Therefore, Botswana policy makers can consider revisions to these laws and policies to include of clauses on organisational performance and the PM of NSOs. These developments can help the implementation of Botswana NSOs' organisational practices. Moreover, as these organisations receive public funding, adding these clauses the legal framework that

guides the implementation of Botswana could ensure the transparency and accountability of these organisations.

### 9.3.3 Practical implications to stakeholders

Knowledge of how the demands and expectations of stakeholders cause pressures on NSOs and of how individuals within these organisations respond to these by implementing PM practices can be useful to stakeholders. Stakeholders can use this information to improve details of their demands and expectations in line with the resources they provide to NSOs. Stakeholders can clearly stipulate their goals, objectives, key performance indicators and targets. For example, sponsors can use the findings of this study to improve their terms of reference for sponsorship agreements by stipulating their demands and expectation and how these should be met by NSOs. They can offer clarity on these demands by stipulating goals, objectives, and targets with regards to the sponsorship. This could ensure that stakeholders achieve the primary purpose of their engagement with NSOs. Because this can enhance stakeholder satisfaction and a return on their investment, these findings can facilitate a beneficial partnership with NSOs. Moreover, this can help stakeholders ensure that NSOs meet their demands and expectations.

The results of this study indicate that stakeholders use strategies to influence the behaviour of NSOs and their implementation of PM practices. Stakeholders used influence strategies depending on the control over the resources they provided to NSOs. This information can be used by stakeholders as it can help them to use their influence to improve the quality of the services that they receive from NSOs. For instance, the knowledge of how influence strategies can be used to facilitate the adoption and implementation of PM practices can be useful to athletes, coaches,

and technical officials. These stakeholders provide professional services to NSOs and they have control over these resources. Hence the results of this study can help athletes, coaches, and technical officials to use their influence to ensure that NSOs facilitate the implementation of suitable programmes for them. As this can ensure the satisfaction of these stakeholders, this can improve their engagement in the activities of the NSO.

The results of this study also demonstrates that stakeholders perform creation work that leads to the adoption and implementation of PM practices. Knowing that they play a role in the adoption and implementation of PM practices can be useful to stakeholders. They can use this information to facilitate the implementation of PM practices by NSOs to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of these organisations to meet their needs and expectations. For instance, knowing that by enforcing affiliation rules and regulations the BNSC and the BNOC perform creation work by which the compliance of NSOs facilitates the adoption and maintenance of PM practices can be useful to these stakeholders. These stakeholders can use this knowledge to facilitate the adoption and implementation PM practices by NSOs. As these practices improve the capacity of NSOs to meet stakeholder demands and expectation, the BNSC and the BNOC can benefit from efficient and effective implementation of programmes by their affiliated members.

#### **9.4 Limitations**

The study employed comprehensive methods of data collection and analysis in which sufficient respondents participated and different techniques were employed to collect as much data as possible. Furthermore, additional engagements with respondents were facilitated to collect more data for clarity. While the data collection



and analysis were comprehensive, the results of the study cannot be generalised to all NSOs in Botswana. This limitation of qualitative methodologies should be acknowledged.

Another limitation arose from the openness of the respondents that participated in the study. Some of the board members and members of the operational staff that participated in this study seemed guarded with their responses. It is possible that some participants gave politically correct responses, concerned that they otherwise might affect their funding from the government and the BNSC.

### **9.5 Avenues for further research**

It was established that NSOs exist in a dynamic external environment and that changes therein prompt changes in the internal environment of NSOs. While it was established that NSOs adopt and implement PM practices due to institutional pressures, there is need for further investigation to establish whether NSOs can disregard external influences and what happens when they do. This research can help to offer insights into the autonomy of NSOs. Additionally, it is important to note that NSOs also pursue their own interests. Thus, as they adopt and implement practices, they may put their interest before those of their stakeholders. Therefore, this type of research can provide understanding into whether NSO response to pressure serves their interest or whether it is driven by the satisfaction of their stakeholders. This research will help illuminate whether the adoption and implementation of PM practices is driven by external pressure or by the interest of NSOs.

On organisational processes, further research could explore how advancements in communication can be used to improve the implementation of PM.

Specifically, further research could explore the use of social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook by NSOs. Because these platforms facilitate marketing and communication initiatives, they may influence how these organisations implement their organisational processes and activities. This type of research could offer insights into activities and processes that make technological advancements external environmental influences that affect the implementation of PM practices among NSOs.

Further research can also focus on the role played by NSO staff who are employed by the BNSC. Because the BNSC and these employees implement performance appraisals, further research could explore how these appraisals contribute to the attainment of the overall organisational performance of NSOs. Performance appraisal instruments for board members and volunteers could be developed and tested to investigate how these individuals contribute to the overall performance of NSOs. This type of research could inform us on the efficiency and effectiveness of stakeholders, board members and operational staff in the execution of their roles and how they contribute to the implementation of PM.

The holistic model for the PM of NSOs proposed in this thesis is theoretical and has not tested. Further research could explore the benefits, opportunities, and challenges of using holistic perspectives to manage the organisational performance of sport organisations. This research could offer insights into how the whole environment of sport organisations affects the achievement of the mission, vision, and purpose of these organisations. In addition, this type of research can provide more information on how the interdependence between the NSOs' environments can be exploited to improve organisational processes, organisational performance, and the PM of these organisations. Furthermore, because this model was created to

specifically address the uniqueness/distinctiveness of the NSOs, testing this model could help address its weaknesses thereby, improving the model further and ensuring its utility and effectiveness.

This study demonstrates the capacity of Botswana NSOs to adopt and implement PM practices. These volunteer organisations are unique, and the implementation of their PM practices may be a result of a myriad of reasons. In the context of Botswana, these organisations adopted and implemented these practices because of their need for stakeholder resources. These reasons may be different for NSOs in other contexts. Therefore, further research could explore how NSOs in different contexts adopt and implement these practices. This type of research could offer more understanding into whether these organisations consider PM as a practice that they should implement to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their practices. Furthermore, these results could explain the reasons NSOs have the capacity to implement these practices but do not implement them as robust systems.

The findings of this study indicate that when faced with institutional pressures, NSOs respond by adopting and implementing PM practices that help them to deal with these pressures. It is important to note that NSOs from different contexts may face different pressures. In addition, these organisations may respond differently to pressures than NSOs in Botswana. Therefore, there is need for further research to comparatively analyse NSOs in developed and those in developing countries to establish how they differently respond to pressures. This type of research could offer more insights into how these organisations adopt and implement PM practices.

The results of the study indicate that Botswana NSOs were not implementing robust PM systems. Rather, these organisations were implementing PM practices as part of their organisational routines as they responded to institutional pressures

acting on them. Therefore, they were not creating an environment that facilitates the implementation of the practice. As non-profit organisations that compete with other organisations for resources, NSOs need to implement comprehensive PM systems to increase the efficiency and effectiveness processes and the satisfaction of their stakeholders.

On that note, further research could establish how the PM practices that these organisations implement can be developed into systems that these organisations can use to improve their capacity to achieve their organisational objectives. Comprehensive PM systems can be developed from the holistic model of PM for NSOs. These models can be tested on NSOs through research, to establish the extent to which the efficiency and effectiveness of implementing organisational processes and activities is improved. While this type of research could provide an opportunity to develop industry and context specific, holistic PM systems for NSOs, it can also help to establish whether these organisations create favourable environments that facilitate the implementation of PM.

Further research could also explore the different constitutions of Botswana NSOs, their strategic plans, and values. This research could investigate whether these make any specific reference to PM. It is noted that the poor performance of Botswana national teams led to improvements in laws, sport infrastructure, and financing by the government. Hence, the constitutions, strategic plans, and values of Botswana NSOs should refer to PM to indicate how they improve the performance of their national teams. This type of research could provide reasons for continued poor performance of the country's national teams two decades later despite all the improvements and government investment.

Since 2000, the government of Botswana has invested resources to develop sports following the recommendations of the Commission of Inquiry into the poor performance of the national teams at international competitions. More than two decades later, the national teams have only achieved minimal improvements to their performance at international competitions and further research could explore the underlying reasons for this. The results of this study indicate that these organisations have capacity to implement organisational performance. Hence, research could explore how Botswana NSOs implement activities designed to improve the performance of the national teams of sports, and whether their organisational processes are efficient and effective. This type of research provides information on how to improve the capacity of Botswana NSOs and how PM systems can be optimised so that the efforts towards the attainment of this national agenda can be improved.

## **9.6 Recommendations**

Based on the results of this study, recommendations for the Ministry, the BNSC and Botswana NSOs are proposed are proposed.

1. The Ministry should,
  - a. evaluate how the government has responded to the recommendations of the Commission of Inquiry into the poor performance of Botswana national teams over the last two decades and whether their responses have yielded desired results,
  - b. revise the BNSC Act of 2014 and the National Sports and Recreation Policy of 2001 to include comprehensive clauses on funding NSOs, the

- performance of national teams and organisational performance to improve the implementation of sport as part of the national agenda,
- c. fund research that explores whether government investment towards the development of sports in the last two decades has improved the performance of Botswana national teams and how this investment can be optimised to improve future performance.

2. The BNSC should,

- a. develop and facilitate the implementation of PM systems for NSOs that receive government grants. Industry and context specific PM systems that account for the whole environment of Botswana NSOs should be developed, piloted, and implemented to improve the transparency and accountability of these organisations. In addition, implementing comprehensive PM systems may help to improve the performance of their national teams at international competitions,
- b. revise Affiliates Empowerment Policy. Firstly, revision of this policy should ensure that the criteria for classification is performance based, in that NSOs whose national teams achieve good results at international competitions and events are placed in higher tiers than those that do not. Secondly, the empowerment and funding that is made available to NSOs should be commensurate with the performance of their national teams regardless of the tiers they are placed in.

- c. revise all policies that guide the funding of NSOs to ensure the inclusion of clauses that stipulate expectations on the performance of the national teams.
3. Botswana NSOs should,
- a. clarify details of their engagement with different stakeholders by establishing their goals and objectives, key performance indicators, targets, ways to measure whether their expectations were met and the rewards for engagement. This will facilitate the satisfaction of their stakeholders, thereby, ensuring improved service delivery through the implementation of PM. In addition, seeking clarity on the different PM practices encourages NSOs to implement these practices.
  - b. develop and implement PM systems that can encourage efficiency and effectiveness in the attainment of their goals and objectives and the satisfaction of their stakeholders. Because PM systems facilitate accountability and transparency, implementing these facilitates stakeholder confidence and continued engagement.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Research permit

TEL: (+267) 3901186  
FAX: (+267) 3913473

MINISTRY OF SPORT, YOUTH AND CULTURE  
PRIVATE BAG 00514  
GABORONE  
BOTSWANA



REF: MYSC 9/2/1 V (36)

23<sup>rd</sup> January 2017

Mr Lobone Lloyd Kasale

37 Egin Drive, Broomridge, Stirling, Stirlingshire

Scotland, United Kingdom

### RESEARCH PERMIT- LOBONE LLYOD KASALE

This serves to acknowledge your application for a Research Permit on "**Performance Management of National Sport Organisations in Botswana**". The Permit is granted for a period of twelve (12) Months, commencing 23<sup>rd</sup> January 2017 to the 23<sup>rd</sup> January 2018 and is granted under the following conditions:

1. Copies of the final product of the study are to be directly deposited with the Ministry of Youth Sport and Culture, National Library Services, National Archives and Records Services and Research and Development in the University of Botswana.
2. The Permit does not give you authority to enter premises, private establishment or protected areas. Permission for such areas should be negotiated with those concerned.
3. You conduct your study according to particulars furnished in the application you submitted taking into account the above conditions.
4. Failure to comply with any of the above conditions will result in the immediate cancellation of the Permit.

Thank you

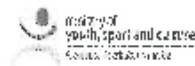
Yours Faithfully



Kerly D. Kelly

For/Permanent Secretary

Cc: Director, National Archives and Records Services  
National Librarian, National Library Services  
Director, Research and Development, University of Botswana



## Appendix B: Ethical clearance



Lobone Lloyd Kasale  
Faculty of Health Sciences and Sport  
University of Stirling  
Stirling FK9 4LA

06/02/17

General University Ethics Panel (GUEP)  
C/O Faculty of Social Sciences  
University of Stirling  
Colin Bell Building  
Stirling  
FK9 4LA  
Scotland UK

✉: [GUEP@stir.ac.uk](mailto:GUEP@stir.ac.uk)

Dear Lobone,

**Re: Ethics Application: Performance Management among National Sports Organisations In Botswana (GUEP60)**

Thank you for making the requested revisions to your submission of the above to the General University Ethics Panel.

I am pleased to confirm that GUEP has approved your application, and you can now proceed with your research.

Please note that should any of your proposed changes, a further submission (or amendment) to GUEP will be necessary.

If you have any further concerns or queries, please do not hesitate to contact the Committee by email to [g.uep@stir.ac.uk](mailto:g.uep@stir.ac.uk).

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Helen Cheyne".

Pp

On behalf of GUEP  
Professor Helen Cheyne  
*Deputy Chair of GUEP*



The University of Stirling is a charity registered in Scotland, number SC018393.

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## Appendix C: Schedule of questions for NSO focus groups

Guide for focus groups

- **Introductions**
- **Briefly describe study**
- **Describe what will happen during the group discussions: duration, informed consent, confidentiality, audio-recording**

### Consent forms

**To the group members:** We can start by discussing the nature of your relationships with the various stakeholders from the external environment who provide resources for your BSOs as follows:

1. Relationship with stakeholders
  - Describe how the resource needs of your BSO ensure the interaction with stakeholders.
  - Describe the expectations of the stakeholders for the resources that they provide.
  - Describe the extent to which the expectations of the stakeholders facilitate performance management of your BSO.
  - Do you have a performance management system in place? If yes describe how it works.
2. Institutionalisation of Performance Management
  - Would you say that as a result of the resources that your organisation receives from the stakeholders your organisation is pressured to ensure the implementation of performance management practices? Describe this.
  - Describe how performance management has developed your organisation.
    - Have you learned from other BSOs or you BSO is expected to implement it and if so by whom and why?
  - To what extent would you say performance management has evolved as a result of your BSO proving that it is able to meet the expectations of the stakeholders?
  - To what extent has performance management become an expected practice in your BSO?

**Thank and debrief the respondents who participated in the group discussions**

## **Appendix D: Schedule of questions for stakeholder interviews and focus groups**

Interview schedule for stakeholder interviews

- **Introductions**
- **Briefly describe study**
- **Describe what will happen during the interview: duration, informed consent, confidentiality, audio-recording**

### **Consent form**

**To the stakeholder:** We can start with you telling me the background of your organisation?

- When it was established, what is its size in terms of the number of people that are employed and the type of organisation it is.
- Does your organisation interact with sport organisations?

#### **3. Relationship between organisation and NSO**

- What type of resources does your organisation provide for NSO?
- Please describe what your organisation expects in return for the resources that they provide?
- Describe how your organisation establishes if the NSO was able to meet your expectations?
- Do you require NSOs to have a performance management system in place to ensure that your expectations are achieved?

#### **4. External pressures on NSOs**

- Would you say that as a result of the resources that your organisation makes available to the NSOs, does your organisation pressures the NSOs to your expectation?
- Please describe how your organisation exerts this kind of pressure.

**Thank and debrief the respondent**

## **Appendix E: Schedule of questions for NSO board members and operational staff**

Interview operational staff and board members of BSOs

- **Introductions**
- **Briefly describe study**
- **Describe what will happen during the interview: duration, informed consent, confidentiality, audio-recording**

### **Consent form**

**To the operational staff and board members of BSOs:** We can start with you telling me the background of your organisation?

- When it was established, what is its size in terms of number of clubs, geographical spread, and the nature of activities that your organisation engages in?
5. Relationship with stakeholders
- Describe how the resource needs of your BSO ensure the interaction with stakeholders.
  - Describe the expectations of the stakeholders for the resources that they provide.
  - Describe the extent to which the expectations of the stakeholders facilitate performance management of your BSO.
  - Do you have a performance management system in place? If yes describe how it works.
6. Institutionalisation of Performance Management
- Would you say that as a result of the resources that your organisation receives from the stakeholders your organisation is pressured to ensure the implementation of performance management practices? Describe this.
  - Describe how performance management has developed your organisation.
    - Have you learned from other BSOs or you BSO is expected to implement it and if so by whom and why?
  - To what extent would you say performance management has evolved as a result of your BSO proving that it is able to meet the expectations of the stakeholders?
  - To what extent has performance management become an expected practice in your BSO?
7. Maintenance of Performance Management as an institutional practice
- As an individual within the organisation, describe how you interpret performance management as an institutional practice.



- Describe how your intentions and efforts as an individual within the organisation are aimed at ensuring the maintenance of performance management as an institutional practice
- To what extent do you believe that you learn for the practice and how do you use what you have learned in order to improve future performance?

**Thank and debrief the respondent**

## Appendix F: Consent form and information leaflet

Consent form



**UNIVERSITY OF  
STIRLING**

**School of Health Sciences and Sport**

### Consent form

## Performance Management Among National Sport Organisations in Botswana

This is a study aims to establish the nature of performance management as it exists among National Sports Organisations in Botswana. It relies on the information that is based on the experiences of board members, stakeholders and the operational staff of National Sport Organisations in Botswana. Therefore, board members, stakeholders and operational staff of National Sport Organisations are invited to participate in this study.

- 1 I confirm that I have read and understand the Participant Information Leaflet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
- 2 I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time.
- 3 I understand that the interview and focus groups will be recorded. I agree to the audio recording of the interview.
- 4 I agree to the use of anonymous extracts from my interview in conference papers and academic publications.
- 5 I agree to take part in the above study.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant's name                      Signature                      Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Researcher's name                      Signature                      Date



**UNIVERSITY OF  
STIRLING**

School of Health Sciences and Sport

## **Participant information leaflet**

### **Performance Management Among National Sport Organisations in Botswana**

#### **Invitation to take part in a research study**

Thank you for your interest in our research study and for getting in touch. This leaflet gives information that is designed to help you to decide whether to take part in this study. You are being asked to take part in a research study, which looks into Performance Management among National Sport Organisations in Botswana. Before you decide if you want to take part, we would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Thank you for taking the time to read this leaflet.

#### **Purpose of the research study**

This study aims to establish the nature of performance management as it exists among National Sports Organisations in Botswana. This study is important as its result can potentially improve how National Sport Organisations manage their performance. Furthermore, it will make a contribution to the body of knowledge on performance management as it exists among National Sport Organisations particularly in African developing countries.

#### **Why have I been chosen to take part**

We would like you to take part because you are either a member (board member or operational staff member) or a stakeholder of a National Sport Organisation therefore, more suited to provide information on Performance Management of National Sport Organisations. After you have read this leaflet and have had a few days to think about it, a researcher will call you back to see if you are still interested to take part in the study. If you wish to take part, you will be asked to take part in an interview or a focus group. Your participation in this research will be of benefit to Botswana Sporting fraternity as it will enhance the operations of their NSOs towards performance orientation.

#### **Time commitment and what we would like you to do**

If you are eligible, we will ask you to take part in an interview or a focus group which will be arranged at a time to suit you. The interview will include questions about your experiences at the National Sport Organisation regarding performance management. The interview will be held at a venue that suits you. And the focus groups will be held at a location that will be communicated to you. The location for the focus groups will not inconvenience you in any way. The interview will last between 45 minutes to an hour and the focus groups will last for an hour.

### **Decisions about taking part and termination of participation**

It is up to you to decide whether or not to participate in this study. If you decide to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form. Participation is entirely voluntary and you are free to refuse to take part or to withdraw from the study at any time without explanation and without penalty.

### **Risks**

There are no known risks for you in this study.

### **Design of the study and ethical approval**

The study was designed by a group of researchers from the University of Stirling. Funding for this study has been provided by the University of Botswana. The General University Ethics Panel of the University of Stirling, has approved the study.

### **Confidentiality**

Any information obtained from the interviews and the focus groups will be kept confidential and securely stored. Only members of the research team will be able to listen to the interview recordings. Your name will not be disclosed, nor will details of your answers be given to anyone. No one will be able to link the data you provided to your identity and name. The audio recording of the interview and focus groups and their transcript will be kept until the final report is completed, after which time they will be destroyed.

### **Study findings**

If you decide to take part in the study and would like to receive information about the results of the study, please let us know, and we will forward a summary of the findings to you at the end of the study. The findings of this study may be published in academic journals but you will not be identified in any way.

### **Further information**

If you have any questions or would like further information about the study, please contact Lobone Lloyd Kasale at the School of Health Sciences and Sport of the University of Stirling at [l.l.kasale@stir.ac.uk](mailto:l.l.kasale@stir.ac.uk).

If you wish to speak to an independent advisor about the study or if you have any complaints, please contact Dr Mathieu Winand at the School of Health Sciences and Sport of the University of Stirling [Mathieu.winand@stir.ac.uk](mailto:Mathieu.winand@stir.ac.uk).