

Organizational Culture Research in Sport Organizations

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to review the existing literature pertaining to organizational culture in sport organizations. In order to achieve this objective, this study critically reviewed the definition, functions, elements, types of the organizational cultures. Further, Antecedents and consequences of organizational culture were also reviewed to fully understand the dynamics of organizational culture concept. Finally, this study attempted to apply the concept to sport organizational context. Future research direction and discussion was also presented.

Key words : Competing Values Framework, Organizational Effectiveness, Recreation, Youth Sports, Sport Culture

1. Introduction

Organizational culture has become one of the most important topics in academic research and education, in organization theory as well as in management practice. In fact, the organizational theorists paid attention to this topic after they noticed the success of Japanese industry compared to North American and Western European organizations in the 1970s. In addition to the difference in the cultural context among them, the theorists found that Japanese organizations shared different values and beliefs, different norms of interaction, and a different set of understandings compared to

the other countries. As such several organizational theorists began to focus on this topic (Slack, 1997).

Every organization has a unique set of shared values and beliefs for their organizational goals and survival. Members of an organization need to follow these values in their work. These values serve as a standard that makes an organization different from others organizations (Deal & Kennedy, 1988). Organizational culture is important in that it ensures organizations remain stable and allows new members to understand the organizational activities. Also, it leads the organization to follow certain ways (Bluedorn & Landgren, 1993). In addition, many re-

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searchers have demonstrated the positive relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance and effectiveness (e.g., Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Deal & Kennedy, 1988; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Lund, 2003; Kotter & Haskett, 1992; Siehl & Martin, 1988; Smircich, 1983). Therefore, it is necessary for organizations to understand the effects of their internal culture and ways in order to interact or deal with the external cultures.

Slack (1997) pointed out that organizational culture is particularly important to the study of sport organizations since the system and its sub-systems of sport organizations are also affected by their own cultures. Sport organizations try to enhance the satisfaction, commitment, and performance levels of their employees, and to maintain a competitive advantage in the market place. Slack (1997) also argued that organizational culture offered an alternative approach to understanding patterns of action in sport organizations compared to the traditional socio-psychological approaches in sport management. In this sense, it may be important for sport organizations to understand the nature of organizational culture. Consequently, research in sport management attempted to investigate this topic during the last twenty years (e.g., Smith & Stewart, 1995; Weese, 1995). For example, Weese (1995) examined the relationship between leadership, organizational culture, and job satisfaction in North American sport and recreation organizations. The author found that trans-

formational leadership promoted thicker cultures which affect worker satisfaction, commitment, retention, and productivity. However, there has been little exploration of the organizational culture of sport organizations as well as the relationship between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness in the sport settings. It is possible that different types of sport organizations possess different organizational culture profiles. Therefore, it may be necessary to find ways to identify specific organizational cultural profiles and analyze the overall link between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness in the sport settings.

In this paper, perspectives of organizational culture established by various researchers will be reviewed. In addition, the concept of leadership as an antecedent of organizational culture and organizational effectiveness as a consequence will be briefly discussed in order to propose the organizational model applicable to the context of sport management. Furthermore, the description of the organizational cultural profiles of four types of sport organization as well as the organizational model regarding the relationship between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness in the sport setting will be proposed. Finally, future research plan with implication will be discussed. Before reviewing related literature on organizational culture, it is important to know what organizational culture is and its composition. The definition and elements of organizational culture are introduced in the following section.

II. Organizational Culture

1. Definition of Organizational Culture

Various researchers have attempted to define the term organizational culture. For example, Pettigrew (1979, p. 572) defined organizational culture as an “amalgam of beliefs, ideology, language, ritual, and myth” while Sathe (1983, p. 6) described it as “the set of important understandings (often unstated) that members of a community share in common.” In addition, Siehl and Martin (1988, p. 81) referred to organizational culture as “shared value and interactions.” Although researchers have attempted to define what organizational culture is, they failed to provide a single definition. However, the different definitions offered provide somewhat general themes related to organizational culture. Those include values, beliefs, basic assumptions, shared understandings, tradition, knowledge, and technology shared by the organization, group, or subgroup (Slack, 1997). Therefore, the operational definition of organizational culture in this paper is Schein’s (1992, p. 10) definition as “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems that has worked well enough to be considered valid and is passed on to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.”

Strong and Weak Cultures. Schein (1992) stresses the strength of an organizational culture which can be varied from one company

to another. That is, some organizations have stronger and more deeply rooted culture compared to others. According to Slack (1997), in a strong culture, members share the same view of the importance of certain values and utilize them routinely which results in strong bonds among organizational members through the sharing of organization stories, rituals, slogans, and so on. Early research showed that strong culture was necessary for organizations to foster motivation, commitment, and identity which promoted internal integration and coordination. In contrast, an organization with a weak culture does not have common values. A thin culture usually occurs when organizational values within the employees are unable to mingle and membership is often changing.

One or More Cultures. Although the basic notion of organizational culture is sharing and understanding common values among members, it cannot be assumed that all members in one organization will think alike. In fact, different people in different parts of an organization may have different values and employ different norms of behavior. However, organizations have a dominant culture which a majority of members follow plus a series of subcultures (Slack, 1997).

2. Functions of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture plays a critical role in achieving objectives specified by an organization through promoting understand behaviors among each members. That is, organizational

culture grants the shared value to the organization which influences the dynamics of an organization. Specifically, according to Shein (1992), organizations generate the shared values and assumptions resulting from the collective experiences of their members. These in turn are applied to university organizational problems of external adaptation for survival growth and internal integration for daily functioning. Shein also argued that these experiences allow for human needs for parsimony, consistency, and meaning to generate patterns that eventually can be called a culture.

Robbins (1994) identified a number of organizational cultural functions within the organization. First, culture allows organizations to be differentiated from one another by providing a boundary-defining role. Second, culture delivers a sense of identity for organizational members. Third, culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one's individual self-interest. Fourth, culture promotes social system stability and plays a critical role in helping hold the organization together. Finally, culture serves as a sense making and control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behavior of employees. In other words, culture defines the rules of the game. However, there are some dysfunctional aspects of organizational culture on organizational effectiveness. An organization often faces rapid change in its environment and if it cannot adjust to the change within the shared values promoting organizational effectiveness, a culture may become a burden to the organization. That

is, when the environment is undergoing rapid change, the strong organizational culture may not be appropriate.

Kilmann (1984) also argued that organizational culture has shared values and meaning systems that can unite organization members. As such, it actually grants social energy that provides justification of actions and direction among the members.

In sum, organizational culture provides identity and homogeneity among members and facilitates organizational commitment to members of the organization. Therefore, it is important for organizations to have healthy organizational cultures in order to achieve internal integration and harmony and enhance organizational effectiveness.

3. Elements of Organizational Culture

It is important to identify elements of organizational culture in order to clearly understand culture. Since various researchers indicate that organizational culture is composed of various elements, a brief discussion some of these representative views is in order.

Deal and Kennedy's Five Dimensions. Deal and Kennedy (1982) proposed five dimensions of organizational culture applicable to the formation of organizational culture. These elements include environment, value, hero, rites, and rituals. Deal and Kennedy attempted to explain the role of these elements in changing the culture of an organization and the process by which strong organizational culture positively

influences achievements in an organization.

Schein's Three Levels of Organizational Culture. Schein (1985) proposed that there were three levels of organizational culture including artifacts, values, and underlying philosophy of the organization. Artifacts are most visible and observable level of culture: the rituals, stories, technology, and physical settings of the organizations. Values which are not observable but determine formal and informal behaviors. Underlying assumptions or philosophy of an organization constitute the core and most important aspect of organizational culture (Schein, 1985).

Trice and Beyer's Perspective. Trice and Beyer (1984) also suggested elements of organizational cultures for researchers to consider. First, they identified stories and myths which deliver important messages about an organization to its employees. Stories and myths enable an organization to reduce the uncertainty of the employees through establishing an enduring organization. Secondly, symbols in the form of logos and slogans play a critical role in demonstrating specific meaning about an organization to its employees as well as to the public at large. Thirdly, each sport organization have its own specialized language or jargon when communicating with others. This allows the organization to be strengthened through sharing commonality within a team and separates other organizations which do not know the shared language. Finally, ceremonies or rites can be an important element of organizational culture. For example, sport organizations often hold rookie initiation as a form

of ceremonies. Beside these elements, organizations have other elements including physical setting, legend, gesture, and so on.

Meanwhile, these components of organizational culture are interrelated with each other. Thus, organizations are expected to achieve their objectives by maintaining a consistent relationship among those elements. In addition, organizations form their own organizational cultures through this process.

4. Types of Organizational Culture

Organizations, throughout their unique organizational cultures, carry out organizational activities and achieve organizational goals. However, organizational cultures can vary greatly and take different forms and have various features. Consequently, the culture which ultimately results in the best organizational performance is the appropriate organizational culture for that organization.

Different researchers have different classification for organizational culture. While some researchers, such as Harrison (1972), Handy (1985), and Cameron and Quinn (1999) divide organizational cultures from a structural perspective, other researchers such as Deal and Kennedy (1982) divide cultures based on an action perspective. Moreover, Meyerson and Martin (1987) addressed the differentiation perspective in term of the open system perspective. In the following section, each of these different views is discussed.

Behavioral Perspective. Some researchers

have attempted to divide organizational culture from an action perspective. For example, Kono (1990) in his survey of 88 Japanese companies identified five culture types: vitalized, 'follow the leader and vitalized', bureaucratic, stagnant, 'follow the leader and stagnant.' In addition, Deal and Kennedy (1982) defined organizational culture as "the way things get done around here (p. 111)." They measured organization in terms of the speed of feedback as well as risk taking. Based on these measures, they classified four types of organizational culture: the tough guy macho culture, the work hard/play hard culture, the bet your company culture, and the process culture. Finally, Kets de Vries (1986) classified organizational cultures into five categories based on top managers' psychological tendencies: the dramatic culture, the depressive culture, the paranoid culture, the coercive culture, and the schizophrenic cultures.

Table 1. Summary of Organizational Cultural Types from a Behavioral Perspective

Researcher	Type of Organizational Culture
Kono (1990)	• Vitalized culture • Follow the leader and vitalized culture • Bureaucratic culture • Stagnant culture • Follow the leader and stagnant culture
Deal & Kennedy (1982)	• The tough guy macho culture • The work hard/play hard culture • The bet your company culture • The process culture
Kets de Vries (1986)	• The dramatic culture • The depressive culture • The paranoid culture • The coercive culture • The schizophrenic cultures

Structural Perspective. Along with an action view of organizational culture dimensions, a structural perspective is also a widespread and popular view among researchers when discussing dimensions of organizational culture. The most widespread model of organizational culture types from a structural perspective is Harrison's (1972) four types of organizational cultures: power, role, task, and person culture.

According to Harrison (1972), power cultures are those characterized by struggles for superiority of the strong over the weak. This has the features of constantly causing conflict for the promotion and convenience among members. Role cultures are those in which behavior is governed by rules, regulations, responsibility, and legitimacy. Priority is given to developing appropriate policies and procedures, and thus place more emphasis on means rather than ends. Task cultures are those which concentrate on the mission of the organization. This provides a strong sense of purpose within its members which allows them to ignore other considerations. Thus, organizations focus more on ends rather than means. Finally, person cultures are those which attract members who desire to work in the environment in which a premium is placed upon interest in the job itself as well as personal development.

Table 2. Summary of Organizational Cultural Types from a Structural Perspective

Researcher	Type of Organizational Culture
Harrison (1972)	• Power culture • Role culture • Task culture • Person culture
Handy (1995)	• Clan-based culture • Hierarchy-oriented culture • Market-oriented culture • Adhocracy-based culture

Handy (1995) also distinguished four types of organizational cultures based on four dominant types of corresponding to gods of Greek mythology: Zeus, Apollo, Athena, and Dionysus. His argument clearly distinguishable organizational cultures based on the four types of leaders as described in the table below; clan-based, hierarchy-oriented, market-oriented, and adhocracy-based cultures. According to him, organizations with clan-based cultures are very friendly places to work where people share a lot of themselves. It is like an extended family. Organizations with hierarchy-oriented cultures have a very formalized and structured work environment. In fact, procedures govern what people do in these organization. Organizations with adhocracy-based cultures are dynamically entrepreneurial, and creative work environments. People are willing to take risks in this work environment. Finally, market-oriented organizations are result-oriented organization where the major concern is with getting the job done. People are usually competitive and goal-oriented in this work.

Differentiation Perspective. As mentioned above, organizations may have multiple organizational subcultures operating within an organization rather than one dominant culture (Meyerson & Martin, 1987; Schein, 1992; Smircich, 1983). It is possible that these subcultures are counter cultures, competing within organizational boundaries, and sources of conflict and competition. Meyerson and Martin (1987) pointed out that the differentiation perspective is an open-system perspective organizational culture formed by influences from within and outside the organization. In this perspective, the culture emphasizes differentiation and diversity characterized by inconsistency, subgroup culture, and ambiguity (Coyer, 2000). They also addressed competing values associated with various subgroup memberships which may create inconsistencies and conflict for the individual. This notion of competing values led to development of a framework called “Competing Values Framework (CVF)” by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981)

III. Competing Values Framework

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) first proposed the CVF based on their Competing Values Model (1981) to examine organizational culture in various organizational settings. Cameron and Quinn (1999) argued that the CVF allowed organizations to examine differences in the values underlying organizational behavior and diagnose organizational cultures.

According to these differences, there may be conflicts and tensions within organizations and the competing values framework attempts to integrate them. Specifically, the framework explains whether an organization has a predominant internal or external focus and whether it emphasizes flexibility and control. In Figure 1, the vertical axis indicates organizational focus ranging from internal to external while the horizontal axis describes organizational structure in terms of flexibility versus control. Each quadrant represents a distinct set of cultural value indicators (Choi, Martin, & Park, 2008).

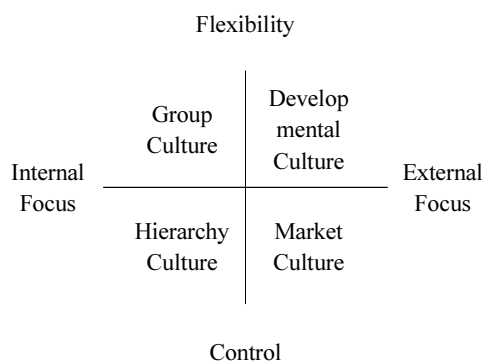


Figure 1. Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999)

The CVF consists of four cultural value types: a) Group culture: an organization that concentrates on internal maintenance with flexibility and human relations, b) Hierarchical culture: an organization that focuses on internal maintenance with uniformity, cooperation, and evaluation, c) Developmental culture: an organization that concentrates on external environment with flexibility and change, and d) Rational culture: an organization that focuses on

external maintenance with productivity, performance, goal fulfillment, and achievement. According to Choi and his colleagues (2008), one of the main purposes of the CVF is to diagnose organizational culture which leads to development of an organizational culture profile. An organizational culture profile can be drawn by establishing the organization's dominant culture type characteristics.

1. Measurement of Organizational Culture

In the early years of organization culture research, more focus was placed on using qualitative measurement of subjective variables, such as rituals and stories from the workplace (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Hofstede, 1986; Smircich, 1983; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991). According to Siehl and Martin (1988), using qualitative methods are appropriate to investigate the topic because it contains complex dynamics. However, Hatch (1997) argued that qualitative and subjective approaches to organizational culture are not very useful due to the difficulty of application and interpretation.

The CVF provides a measurement for conducting quantitative analysis and a means for comparing within and between organizations. As mentioned above, Cameron and Quinn (1999) used this framework to generate an Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) used to measure organizational type based on the core values, assumptions, interpretations, and approaches that characterize organizations. The OCAI assesses four di-

mensions of organizational culture: group, hierarchical, rational, and developmental culture. Each subscale contains six items that ask employees to indicate employee perceptions of core cultural elements, such as dominant cultural type, leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success. Item responses are based on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree to strongly agree”.

Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) also developed the Competing Values Instrument II to measure perceptions of organizational culture in selected sport associations. They addressed the sixteen value statements derived from Quinn’s model to represent the values of four cultural dimensions (group, development, hierarchical, and rational cultures). Participants are asked to rate the extent to which they agree with each statement, using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree to strongly agree.”

IV. Research on Organizational Culture

1. Antecedents of Organizational Culture

Leadership Characteristics. Leadership is often considered a significant agent in shaping the environment that subordinates experience, and influencing organizational outcomes. It is argued that an organization’s founder and leader will undoubtedly influence and shape organizational culture, through the values they reiterate, reinforce, and celebrate (Denison, 1990;

Schein, 1985).

In his research Schein (1992) studied the intertwined relationship between organizational culture and leadership. That is, the leaders of an organization create the values and beliefs of an organization and the cultural traits of the organization during the process of organizational formation. Leaders can also transmit organizational culture through teaching, coaching, role modeling, reward allocation, and promotion. In turn, the organizational culture established by the founder also influences the leadership behavior and styles. Bass and Avolio’s (1993) also supported Schein’s findings by suggesting an inter-related relationship between the two concepts. In fact, they classified the two aspects of leadership into transactional and transformational leadership. Transformational leadership seems to be particularly relevant to this relationship. According to Yukl and Van Fleet (1992, p. 174), the definition of transformational leadership is “the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members (organizational culture) and building commitment for major changes in the organization’s objectives and strategies.” Bass and Avolio (1993) purported that transformational leadership inspires followers to contribute beyond expectation.

Weese (1995) studied the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational culture with Big Ten and Mid-American Conference university recreation programs. He reported that there was a positive relationship between transformational leader and strong or-

ganizational cultures and such leaders tended to carry out culture-building activities more than other leaders.

Lim and Cromartie (1991) also found that transformational leaders allow their employees to accept ownership for their own vision, which lead to develop of a commitment to carry it through to achieving objectives. One of the important attribute of leaders is the ability to draw the vision from their employees and inspire and empower them to do what it takes to bring the vision into reality.

Hennessey (2000) found that leadership was a critical factor nurturing the appropriate organizational culture which promotes the implementation of specific government reforms in the United State federal civil service. Hennessey also argued that the role of leadership in fostering, supporting, and sustaining organizational cultures which connect to the organizational effectiveness is critical.

2. Consequences of Organizational Culture

Many researchers have studied how organizational culture is related to important consequences such as organizational effectiveness, the attitudes and behavior of people in the organization such as job satisfaction, commitment, cohesion, and ethical behavior (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Lund, 2003; Kotter & Haskett, 1992; Siehl & Martin, 1988).

Organizational culture profile perspective. Using organizational culture profile as a pre-

dictor, Lund (2003) found there was a positive relationship between job satisfaction and group culture which emphasizes human relationship. Group culture is expected to positively influence job satisfaction in that the importance of personal values and respect for people is deemed essential regardless of cultural boundaries (Bond, 1991). Kerr and Slocum (1987) examined the relationship between organizational culture and employees' commitment, satisfaction, and intention to stay with organization. Their result showed that people-oriented organizations with respect among the members tend to create dependent variables.

Strength of culture perspective. Also, some researchers attempted to examine the relationship between strong culture and various organizational outcomes. As a result, it has been found that a strong culture is expected to help create a better "fit" when hiring new employees (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999), result in higher retention among employees (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Sheridan, 1992), enhance employee productivity (Denison, 1990), promote organizational performance over the long term (Barney, 1986; Bretz & Judge, 1994), and contribute to organizational effectiveness (Deal & Kennedy, 1972; Denison, 1990).

The Application of Organizational Culture Research Streams to Sport Organizations

Based on the review of organizational culture research presented above, it appears the construct can be applied to sport organizations in two manners. That is, the research can focus on: a) identifying distinctive organizational

cultural profiles of various types of sport organizations on the basis of competing value frameworks and b) examining the effects of unique organizational culture on the organizational outcomes such as effectiveness in various sport organizations.

First, based on the competing value framework (CVF), research of the organizational culture profiles of various sport organizations can be initiated. That is, various sport organizational types such as professional sport organizations, intercollegiate sport organizations, and youth sport organizations may have their own distinctive cultural types based on the nature of the organization or their primary objectives. In her study, Coyer (2000) examined the organizational culture of selected sport associations in Western Australia, and identified and classified cultural profiles for each of the three sport organizations. According to Coyer (2000), competing values approach plays a critical role in defining organizational culture profiles as a first step for researchers to analyze organizational culture in assessing performance, effectiveness, and dynamics of organization.

Although a traditional categorization of organization depends on profit orientation, source of funding, prime beneficiary, employee-customer interface, and volunteer participation (Chelladurai, 2009), in this paper, athletic teams as sport organizations. According to Ball (1975), athletic teams possess all the attributes of an organization. In fact, many researchers argued that athletic teams are similar to conventional organizational in many aspects.

In this perspective, athletes are considered clients or beneficiaries of the athletic team as the organization (Chelladurai, 2009) and coach-athlete relationship will be considered as a vehicle for assessing organizational culture.

In this paper, sport organizations will be classified into youth, interscholastic, intercollegiate, and professional sport organizations on the basis of chronological order. The primary assumption of this classification is that there are two distinctive objectives in sport teams which are developmental goals (e.g., focusing on development of the athlete) and performance goals (e.g., winning perspective) proposed by Trail and Chelladurai (2000). Since their primary objectives are deemed different, it will be assumed that each organization possesses different organizational cultural profiles.

Based on Cameron and Quinn's (1999) dimensions of organizational culture, an organizational cultural profile is proposed which is applicable to these sports organizations. The CVF examines differences in the values underlying organizational behavior in terms of the four dimensions. In this respect, the overall culture profile of an organization can be identified as group culture, hierarchical culture, developmental culture, and rational culture. Organizations with group culture are organizations that concentrate on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people, and sensitivity for customers. This type of organization aims at development of human resources through emphasizing cohesion and morale. The characteristics in this organization are open discussion, empowerment of employees

to act, assessing employee concerns and ideas, and emphasizing team work and cohesion. Organizations with hierarchical culture are organizations that focus on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control through controlling and pursuing stability. Distinctive features are control, centralization, formalization, and order. Organizations with developmental culture are organizations that concentrate on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality for achieving their goals such as resource acquisition and growth. This type of organizations are characterized in terms of flexibility, expansion, growth, development, and creative problem solving. Organizations with rational culture are organizations that focus on external maintenance with a need for stability and control whose means are productivity and efficiency. The characteristics of this type of organization are goal achievement, setting a clear objectives and direction, and outcome excellence (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Each cultural dimension is compared among youth, interscholastic, intercollegiate, and professional sport organizations.

The organizational cultural dimensions and the comparisons of these profiles among four types of sport organizations are presented in Table. 3. A six –point Likert scale representing the values of the four cultural types (group, developmental, hierarchical, and rational cultures) were used to describe each cultural dimension.

An analysis of the data collected indicated that youth sport teams scores high (range from 4 to 6) on every cultural value (range from 4

to 6). This would indicate that youth sport teams possess the group culture because their primary target population is young athletes under the age of twelve. As more youth sport programs increasingly focus on positive youth development program across the United States, youth sport teams may focus more on group culture in creating mutual relationship between coach and athletes. This atmosphere may lead to the creation of a developmental culture. Moreover, in youth sport leagues, the competitive level is relatively low and most of young athletes participate in sport teams with intrinsic motivation such as having fun and making friends. Therefore, young athletes possibly seek personal satisfaction from the challenge and fun of their involvement with sport activities. Furthermore, young athletes are so easily distracted that coaches attempt to control their behaviors in the course of their interaction with athletes for preventing any injury and ensuring safety. Thus, the hierarchical dimension scores high too.

Table 3. Organizational Cultural Profiles in Sport Organization

Objective	Education		Winning	
	Youth	Inter scholastic	Inter collegiate	Professio nal
Group	6	5	4	2
Hierarchical	5	4	3	2
Developmental	3	3	5	6
Rational	5	3	5	6

Interscholastic sport teams which consist of middle school and high school athletes have a similar cultural profile with youth sport

teams while the scores for each quadrant are relatively smaller. Coaches still pay attention to athletes' behavior and discipline as a means of achieving a developmental objective and athletes join the sport teams with motives for making friends and having pleasure. Adolescent players are very sensitive and impulsive so a hierarchical relationship between coaches and athletes should be ensured. Compared to youth sport teams, athletes in the interscholastic sport leagues begin to participate in sport activities due to their pursuit of skills and excellence. Moreover, they realize the aspect of competitiveness inherent in sport activities, which leads to a decline in group culture. However, the clarity of rational goals possibly become vague since the conflict between pursuing developmental goals and winning goals begin to emerge within the team. While there has been growing interest in emphasizing developmental perspective in this age group, significant agents such as coaches, parents and school administrators are still emphasizing and following a winning-at-all cost attitude.

As the level of competitiveness moves to the intercollegiate and professional levels, value and assumptions within the athletic teams will be dramatically changed. University athlete teams are expected to set their objectives as a winning, championship, and making profit. At this level, university and professional athletic teams increasingly concentrate on their external environments such as stakeholders (e.g., donor and fans) since it directly and in-

directly relates to their profit or objectives. Thus, the strength of developmental and rational culture may become stronger than the other cultural perspectives. Also, the hierarchical order between coaches and athletes becomes more diverse and systematically structured. For example, any university and professional football has one head coach followed by several assistant coaches, captains, and athletes. This form of relationship refers to the bureaucracy system characterized by routine and orderly structured association. The size of the athletic teams in these levels may influence their state of culture.

In summary, the four types of sport teams are discussed and the comparison of each on the basis of organizational cultural types. From this perspective it is argued that the four types of athletic teams classified in terms of competitive levels will show different cultural profiles due to the difference in their objectives and size. However, as Quinn and McGrath (1985) pointed out, there is no "right" or "desired" cultural profile. It is possible that the cultural profile may be variable due to the many factors affecting the nature of the organizations.

3. Organizational Culture and Organizational effectiveness in Sport Organizations

Identifying an organization's culture allows researchers to examine organizational effectiveness in providing values and beliefs inherent

in a certain organization. As such, connecting various methods of profile identification approach will provide much stronger description of an organization's culture (Coyer, 2000).

After identifying the pattern of organizational culture, it is possible to examine the links more effectively between organizational culture and important organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, retention, and so on. Compared to general organizational research, there has been little research regarding the relationship among these variables in the field of sport management (Choi et al., 2008). Various antecedents acknowledged by the previous research and consequences can be applicable to sport management research to investigate the dynamics of organizational culture in sport settings. In addition, there may be several mediating factors which interplay between them such as members' psychological arousal, effort, performance strategies, and knowledge and skills.

One potential and critical antecedent of organizational culture in the sport settings may be leadership style. As discussed earlier, leadership style is one of the critical factors affecting organizational culture through its emphasis on a certain value and subordinate motivation. Coaches of athletic teams and managers in sport industries or athletic departments are able to create and maintain organizational cultures. Thus, various leadership theories can be applicable to the sport management field. The transformational leadership perspective is the dominant research realm connected to the or-

ganizational culture. Also, one may assess the leadership behavior of coaches by using the leadership scale for sports developed by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980). The leadership scale provides five dimensions of leader behavior including training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior social support, and positive feedback. Connecting these dimensions to the organizational culture in athletic team settings may generate one area of sport management research. Moreover, other domains of leadership theories such as charismatic leadership and spiritual leadership may also be relevant.

Weese (1995) argued that the type and strength of organizational culture are significant factors affecting organizational effectiveness. In fact, organizational culture not only affects organizational outcome, but also individual outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and ethical behavior (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Lund, 2003; Sosa & Sagas, 2006). Therefore, in this model, the outcome variables affected by organizational culture include the attitudes and behavior of people in the organization such as job satisfaction, commitment, cohesion, and ethical behavior (Deal & Kennedy, 1999; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Lund, 2003; Kotter & Haskett, 1992; Siehl & Martin, 1988). In addition, Yin-Cheong (1989) pointed out that some variables such as individuals' psychological arousal, effort, performance strategies, and knowledge and skills may play a mediating role between organizational culture and organizational effectiveness.

V. Overall Proposed Model of Organizational Culture in Sport Organizations

Based on synthesis of the research previously reviewed in this document, an overall model of organizational culture is proposed. Essentially, the model focuses on two states of organizational culture: cultural profile and strength of the culture. The antecedent variables that affect these cultures consist of leader characteristics. Leader characteristics involve various leadership styles such as transformational leadership. Organizational cultural profiles and the strength of culture are largely determined by leadership characteristics. The consequence in the model is organizational effectiveness measured by surrogate measures such as retention rate, job satisfaction, commitment, cohesion, and ethical behavior. The mediating factors mentioned by Yin-Cheong (1989) are also included. The illustration of this model is provided in Figure 2.

VI. Future Research Direction

It is possible to conduct many studies by identifying the organizational cultural profiles of different types of sport organizations. In this paper, the cultural profiles of four categories of athletic teams was proposed. However, sport organizations can also be categorized on the basis of their purpose (i.e., profit-oriented vs. nonprofit-oriented). Profit-oriented sport or-

ganizations such as fitness centers and professional sport teams may have different cultural profiles compared to nonprofit-oriented sport organizations such as national governing body. Since the primary objectives of these sport organizations are different, they may have distinctive cultural profiles compared to each other. Therefore, conducting cross-organizational studies which compare the cultural profiles among different sport organizations (e.g., fitness center vs. recreational sport organizations) may result in interesting results. Also, identifying distinctive cultural profiles may prove advantageous for both sport managers and employees. Managers may use their own cultural profiles as standards for recruiting new employees. Potential employees who seem to fit into their culture may be more appropriate for recruitment.

As the measurement of organizational culture was already discussed, analysis needs to be considered. For the proposed overall model of organizational culture in sport settings, it is necessary to conduct multiple regression analyses to examine the effects of four cultural types on each of the potential organizational outcomes. When the mediating factors between culture and outcomes are added, it is necessary to conduct a hierarchical multiple regression analyses to control the confounding variables affecting the outcomes. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is also recommended to determine whether a certain model is valid.

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