

The Dynamics of Change in a Complex Sporting Environment:
Australian Cricket

Peter Tanswell

Thesis submitted for Doctor of Project Management degree

2016

This thesis is dedicated to my father
the late Kenneth Claude Tanswell
who lost his brave battle against cancer on
8 November 2016

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as part of the collaborative doctoral degree and/or fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

Signature of Student:

Date:

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge Dr Shankar Sankaran, my supervisor, teacher and mentor, whose patience and guidance made this thesis possible. Thanks also go to my co-supervisor Dr Michael Er, who also provided patience and guidance and who contributed to make this thesis possible.

Special thanks to Cricket Australia and State Cricket Associations for the assistance provided in allowing me the time to conduct interviews and meetings with Board members, CEOs and staff throughout Australian cricket.

I want to give special thanks to my parents Ken and Nell Tanswell who have supported and encouraged me on this journey. To Ken my father, who is an inspiration to all who meet him as they witness the exceptional courage and braveness that he displayed through until the end.

Thanks also should be paid to Dr Stewart Hase and Fiona Sims who both provided constructive feedback relating to content and presentation in the last weeks prior to submitting this Thesis.

Table of Contents

1.	THESIS INTRODUCTION	1-9
1.1	INTRODUCTION	1-9
1.2	EDUCATION CONTEXT & ACCOMPLISHMENTS.....	1-10
1.3	BACKGROUND AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY.....	1-11
1.4	STATEMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS	1-13
1.5	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	1-14
1.6	LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS	1-14
1.7	OUTLINE OF THE THESIS	1-14
1.8	KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS	1-16
1.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	1-16
2.	LITERATURE REVIEW	2-18
2.1	INTRODUCTION	2-18
2.2	ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE.....	2-23
2.3	SUSTAINABLE CHANGE.....	2-68
2.4	CHALLENGES TO SUCCESSFUL SUSTAINABLE CHANGE	2-70
2.5	CHANGE WITHIN SPORTING ORGANISATIONS.....	2-73
2.6	VISION.....	2-82
2.7	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	2-93
3.	HISTORY OF AUSTRALIAN CRICKET	3-96
3.1	INTRODUCTION	3-96
3.2	THE GAME OF CRICKET EXPLAINED.....	3-97
3.3	CRICKET HISTORICAL INFORMATION	3-98
3.4	THE HISTORY OF CRICKET IN AUSTRALIA	3-101
3.5	CRICKET AUSTRALIA	3-110
3.6	THE MOVE TOWARDS PROFESSIONALISM.....	3-111

3.7	CRICKET AUSTRALIA – STRATEGIC PLANNING.....	3-111
3.8	VISION FOR AUSTRALIAN CRICKET	3-112
3.9	FIVE KEY PILLARS	3-112
3.10	THE ARGUS REVIEW	3-113
3.11	GOVERNANCE REVIEW	3-115
3.12	TWENTY20 CRICKET IN AUSTRALIA.....	3-117
3.13	WOMEN’S CRICKET IN AUSTRALIA.....	3-118
3.14	DRIVERS FOR CHANGE IN AUSTRALIAN CRICKET	3-119
3.15	KEY STAKEHOLDERS.....	3-120
3.16	TALENT MANAGERS AND CRICKET OPERATIONS.....	3-121
3.17	CHAPTER SUMMARY – THE CHALLENGES AND CHANGES	3-121
4.	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	4-123
4.1	INTRODUCTION	4-123
4.2	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	4-124
4.3	JUSTIFICATION OF A QUALITATIVE CASE STUDY	4-125
4.4	QUALITATIVE RESEARCH PARADIGMS.....	4-127
4.5	CHARACTERISTICS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH	4-129
4.6	THE APPROPRIATENESS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH TO THIS STUDY	4-132
4.7	THE CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY	4-133
4.8	RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF THE CASE STUDY	4-134
4.9	THE RATIONALE FOR ADOPTING A THREE CASE STUDY APPROACH.....	4-137
4.10	METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION AND SOURCES OF DATA.....	4-138
4.11	NVIVO IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH	4-151
4.12	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	4-154
4.13	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	4-156
5.	AUSTRALIAN CRICKET – DEBACLES, DILEMMAS AND SUCCESSES	5-158
5.1	INTRODUCTION	5-158

5.2	DEBACLES, DILEMMAS AND SUCCESSES	5-159
5.3	THE CURRENT STUDY	5-162
5.4	ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW DATA	5-163
5.5	KEY OBJECTIVES OF THE DATA ANALYSIS	5-164
5.6	STEPS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY.....	5-164
5.7	DRIVERS AND DELIVERY OF CHANGE – CRICKET AUSTRALIA.....	5-171
5.8	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	5-173
6.	RESULTS, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATIONS OF THE CASES.....	6-175
6.1	INTRODUCTION	6-175
6.2	INTERVIEW ANALYSIS FINDINGS, INTERPRETATIONS AND DISCUSSION.....	6-177
6.3	THE CHANGE PROCESS FOR INCREASING PARTICIPATION IN AUSTRALIAN CRICKET.....	6-207
6.4	THE CHANGE PROCESS – CORPORATE GOVERNANCE	6-221
6.5	THE CHANGE PROCESS FOR THE RE-LAUNCH OF THE BIG BASH LEAGUE	6-233
6.6	DATA ANALYSIS USING NVIVO.....	6-250
6.7	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	6-255
7.	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK.....	7-258
7.1	INTRODUCTION	7-258
7.2	OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH STUDY	7-258
7.3	FINDINGS IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY.....	7-260
7.4	LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH.....	7-278
7.5	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	7-279
7.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	7-280
8.	APPENDICES.....	284
8.1	AUSTRALIAN CRICKET TIMELINE.....	284
8.2	FIVE PILLARS TO SUCCESS	284
8.3	RESPONDENT PARTICIPATION CODES	285
8.4	FROM THE NATIONAL CRICKET CENSUS 2015	286

8.5	AUSTRALIAN CRICKET CENSUS DATA 2002/03 TO 2013/14.....	291
8.6	INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.....	296
8.7	ETHICS INFORMATION SHEET	299
9.	REFERENCES.....	300
9.1	GLOSSARY OF TERMS.....	347

Table of Figures

FIGURE 1-1 – STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	1-15
FIGURE 2-1 – LEWIN’S THREE-STEP CHANGE MODEL	2-32
FIGURE 2-2 - KOTTER'S EIGHT-STEP CHANGE MODEL	2-46
FIGURE 2-3 THE MCKINSEY 7S FRAMEWORK	2-48
FIGURE 3-1 - OLD STRUCTURE OF THE BOARD OF CRICKET AUSTRALIA	3-116
FIGURE 3-2 - NEW BOARD STRUCTURE FOR CRICKET AUSTRALIA	3-117
FIGURE 3-3 – AUSTRALIAN CRICKET KEY STAKEHOLDERS	3-120
FIGURE 6-1 – GROUPINGS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS RELATED TO CHANGE INITIATIVES	6-179
FIGURE 6-2 – ROLES PLAYED DURING CHANGE INITIATIVES	6-191
FIGURE 6-3 – CHANGE DRIVERS FOR CHANGE INITIATIVES	6-196
FIGURE 6-4 – STRATEGIES UTILISED FOR CREATING SUSTAINABLE CHANGE INITIATIVES	6-202
FIGURE 6-5 - PLAYERS AND CHILDREN TAKING PART IN MILO IN2CRICKET SESSIONS	6-211
FIGURE 6-6 – SIMPLIFIED CHANGE MODEL FOLLOWED FOR INCREASING PARTICIPATION IN AUSTRALIAN CRICKET	6-212
FIGURE 6-7 – OVERVIEW OF THE CHANGE MANAGEMENT MODEL UNDERPINNING THE INITIATIVE TO INCREASE PARTICIPATION LEVELS IN THE GAME	6-213
FIGURE 6-8 – PARTICIPATION FIGURES FOR CRICKET NSW	6-220
FIGURE 6-9 - THE BBL EXCITEMENT AND ATTRACTING RECORD CROWDS	6-239
FIGURE 6-10 – AUSTRALIAN CRICKET ATTENDANCE FIGURES	6-243
FIGURE 6-11 – BBL ATTENDANCE GROUPS	6-244

FIGURE 6-12 – BBL ATTENDANCE GROWTH & PROJECTED GROWTH	6-245
FIGURE 6-13 – PLANNED CHANGE MODEL FOR INTRODUCING CHANGE INTO THE ESTABLISHED BBL	6-247
FIGURE 6-14 – PIE CHART SHOWING WHICH PART OF CRICKET STUDY PARTICIPANTS CAME FROM	6-252
FIGURE 6-15 – NVIVO SOFTWARE SHOWING KEY REFERENCES	6-253
FIGURE 6-16 – NVIVO SOFTWARE SHOWING KEY RESPONSES	6-254
FIGURE 6-17 – NVIVO SOFTWARE AS A WORD CLOUD – SHOWING THE WORDS MOST COMMONLY REFERENCED	6-255
FIGURE 7-1 - CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESS FOR IMPLEMENTING CHANGE IN A SPORTS ENVIRONMENT	7-273

Table of Tables

TABLE 2-1 - COMPARISON OF MODELS FOR IMPLEMENTING CHANGE	2-29
TABLE 6-1 - QUOTES MADE BY PARTICIPANTS	6-193
TABLE 6-2 -- DESIRED OUTCOMES OF CHANGE INITIATIVES	6-197
TABLE 6-3 - THE CHANGE MANAGEMENT PROCESS ASSOCIATED WITH CA'S PLANNED INTERVENTION INTO CRICKET IN AUSTRALIA TO INCREASE PARTICIPATION LEVELS.....	6-217
TABLE 6-4 - ANALYSIS OF CHANGE IN CORPORATE GOVERNANCE	6-229
TABLE 6-5 - STEPS TAKEN IN SETTING UP AND USING NVIVO 11.....	6-251
TABLE 7-1 - MODEL FOR SUSTAINING CHANGE IN COMPLEX SPORTING ENVIRONMENTS.....	7-275

Abstract

During the period 1995 to 2005, Australian cricket was considered by most of their opponents to be the world leader in the sport in terms of innovation, strategy and tactics. The expertise on and off the field was chiefly responsible for this success. However, this was insufficient to ensure its commercial competitiveness among sports organisations in Australia. This required Cricket Australia to undertake a series of significant organisational changes. This study investigated the reasons for undertaking these changes, factors that led to the successful implementation of the selected change initiatives and the factors that enabled these changes to be sustained. The setting for this study is Australian Cricket and the changes that were implemented between 2005 and 2015.

The research aimed at seeking a deeper understanding of the complex issues of change management and the sustainability of change in a complex sporting organisation. The research methodology was exploratory, qualitative and based on a multiple case study approach. Data was collected using semi-structured interviews from a diverse sample of respondents from different parts of Cricket Australia and State Cricket Associations. The respondents included Board members, CEO's, executive managers, staff and volunteers. The data collected from interviews was supplemented by secondary data obtained from the organisation as well as what was reported in the media and observations.

Results of the study highlighted the complex, multifaceted and situational nature of change in a sporting environment where the implementation of change proved to be a challenging task. Findings indicated that even though organisational change was driven by the highest levels of the organisation, necessary conditions such as engaging with key stakeholders and developing a trusting environment had to be created to ensure the success of the change initiative and its sustainability.

Three selected cases of organisational change were investigated. The three cases studied included:

1. the intervention into game development with the intention being to increase participation levels in the sport
2. the establishment of a 'best practice' corporate governance model and a reorganised Board
3. the re-launch of the domestic Twenty20 cricket competition – the Big Bash League

Through the analysis of the data collected each of the change initiatives demonstrated the importance of leadership, personal and shared experiences and the positive impact of a shared vision or strategic direction to succeed and sustain the implemented change. Engaging team members in a shared vision was not only a key component of transformational leadership but it was essential in order to provide direction and clarity of purpose.

This study revealed that a vision or strategic direction provides orientation and meaning for leaders and teams and is a strong driving force for the successful implementation and sustainability of change in a complex sporting environment. The results of this study contribute to the theory and practice of change management and sustaining change in sports organisations.

1. Thesis Introduction

There is no doubt at all that the game of cricket has changed, though in one way it is no different in that it is merely a reflection of life. (Richie Benaud, 2007)

1.1 Introduction

Today, the world is changing very rapidly in many different and unpredictable ways, and this change is only going to intensify in future (Gupta & Sanchez, 2012). Initiating, leading and sustaining change is tenuous at the best of times, however contemporary environments create even greater challenges. Business leaders are facing the complex task of leading their organisations into an uncertain future. This thesis examines the challenge of how organisations formulate, implement and sustain organisational change in such an environment through a case study of Australian cricket.

As a result of environmental pressures during the 1990s and the early part of the current century, many organisations launched comprehensive change initiatives with visionary goals that focused on innovative methods for accomplishing tasks and improving products and services. Although many sports organisations were able to implement significant transformations within their organisations, not all of them have been able to sustain the resulting changes over time. Change does not come easily to a sports organisation such as Cricket Australia which is steeped in history and tradition.

This chapter provides the background to the current study and the research problems and questions derived from the literature. A justification for the current study and an explanation of the research methodology are provided. The current study and the results are discussed and, finally, the conclusions, recommendations, limitations and

suggestions for further research are described. The chapter is structured in the following sections:

- Section 1.2 presents the background and justification for the study
- Section 1.3 presents a statement of the research objective and outlines the research questions
- Section 1.4 presents an overview of the research methodology used in this study
- Section 1.5 outlines the limitations and delimitations
- Section 1.6 provides an outline of how this thesis is structured
- Section 1.7 Outlines Key Terms and Concepts
- Section 1.8 Is a summary of what was covered in Chapter 1

1.2 Education Context & Accomplishments

This work is presented as the concluding dissertation to a Doctor of Project Management (DPM) degree program. This professional doctorate program comprises a combination of coursework (33%) and research (67%), with a stated goal of furthering the interaction of the university, industry and the professions and the community to mutual advantage. The program places a strong emphasis on the participating candidates reflecting upon their professional experience to achieve this goal.

The disciplines of project management and change management cross paths throughout the execution of a project or initiative. When an organisation introduces a change with a project or initiative, that change needs to be effectively managed on both the technical side and the people side:

- The technical side focus ensures that the change is developed, designed and delivered effectively. The discipline of project management provides the structure, processes and tools to make this happen.

- The people side focus ensures that the change is embraced, adopted and utilised by the employees who have to do their jobs differently as a result of the project. The discipline of change management provides the structure, processes and tools to make this happen.

Project management and change management both aim to increase the likelihood that projects or initiatives deliver the intended results and outcomes. Although each discipline can function independently, the most effective approach is to integrate project management and change management to create a unified approach to implementing change on both fronts.

The author of this thesis, hereafter referred to as 'the researcher', is a professional Project Manager/Change Manager with some 35 years' experience in managing project and change initiatives. The researcher has held senior positions with Professional Service firms such as KPMG and EY, and has worked as a consultant/contractor for a number of years completing a number of Project Management and Change Management assignments. The researcher has an interest in sport and especially cricket, having played grade cricket for a number of years and is also qualified umpire and member of the NSW Cricket Umpires and Scorers Association.

1.3 Background and Justification for the Study

In today's fast paced and increasingly complex world change has become inevitable. It is commonly agreed among scholars from diverse disciplines that organisational success or failure depends upon the ability to cope with the environment (Wang & Ahmed, 2007; Davies & Brady, 2000). If organisations do not adjust to the changes that occur in the environment, and change quickly and efficiently, they risk competitiveness and survival (Chesbrough, 2010; Rerup & Feldman, 2011).

Change management has been in existence for many years in varied forms (Dicke, Holwerda, & Kontakos, 2007; Burke, 2010). The late nineteenth century brought on many more changes than ever experienced in societies before, with more migrating populations and different individuals to be managed. All these, required change management in varying forms. The late 1990s brought even more challenges to organisations, with the rise of globalisation and competition. As a result, organisations responded with various strategies such as downsizing, realignment, outsourcing and joint ventures, and all these required change management on a much larger scale (Schutte, 1997; Ogilvie & Stork, 2003).

Change management is even more important nowadays, where rapid globalisation, widespread economic crisis and unprecedented change of the international geopolitical landscape, coupled with the relentless advancements of technology, have made the need for organisational change an inseparable part of organisational life and management practice (Lin & Liu, 2012). Organisations, private and public alike, operate in an environment that lacks equilibrium, and change is becoming increasingly multifaceted, with no, or very little, hope of being forecasted.

The central theme of this investigation is change management and sustainable strategic change in sporting organisations. Little is known about the specific factors that affect the ability to sustain organisational change efforts and improvements. Brundtland (1987) considers sustainability to be the capacity for an activity to be carried on indefinitely into the future, given the amount and type of resources available. Hence, sustainability suggests change and improvement that is compatible with environmental, social and other limits, both now and in the long-term future (Gray & Wiedemann, 1999). As planned change management in complex sporting environments is a relatively recent phenomenon, this study will help to increase the understanding of management of sustained change in such organisations.

1.4 Statement of Research Objective and Research Questions

The review of the literature revealed a tendency towards snapshot case studies when theorising about change management processes. Change management models developed through snapshot case studies lack the evidence of sustainability beyond a specific moment. The primary purpose of this thesis is to contribute to change management theory in general, but also to specifically identify the factors that are required for change to be sustained over a lengthy period of time.

The study aimed to achieve the following objectives:

- To provide a detailed understanding of Australian Cricket and its approach to implementing strategic change.
- To examine in detail projects focused on the implementation of strategic change throughout Australian Cricket.
- To identify factors, present during the implementation of strategic change.
- To consider how insights generated from examining change within Cricket Australia contribute to the existing literature on change management

Primarily, the research questions focused on seeking a deeper understanding of the complex issue of change and change management, and specifically sustainable change, and was guided by the following two questions:

RQ1 - How and why sports organisations implement strategic change?

RQ2 - What factors contribute to sustainable change in sports organisations?

The secondary questions that informed the main two research questions were:

1. How did Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote change throughout Australian cricket?

2. What strategies are used to create sustainable change?

The primary research questions are focused on exploring the key reasons for how and why sports organisations implement sustainable strategic change and the secondary research questions explore the unique factors that contribute to sustain strategic change in sports organisations.

1.5 Research Methodology

This thesis employs a qualitative case study. Yin (1994) confirms that case study methodology, a qualitative research approach, is often preferred in answering 'How' and 'Why' questions. Additionally, there is acknowledgement that qualitative research is a legitimate and valuable approach in management research. The qualitative methodologies are often applied in various management subject areas (Ardichvilli et al., 2003; Croasdell, Jennex, Yu, Christianson, Chakradeo, & Makdum, 2003; Avison et al., 1999; Myers, 1997; Markus, 1997; Benbasat et al., 1987).

1.6 Limitations and Delimitations

This study used an embedded case study approach that focused on Australian Cricket. The study provided an opportunity to investigate approaches to the implementation of change and the sustainability of change in detail and to devise a model to assist with sustainable change that should be tested and validated at a later time.

1.7 Outline of the Thesis

An outline of the structure of the thesis is provided in Figure 1-1 below.

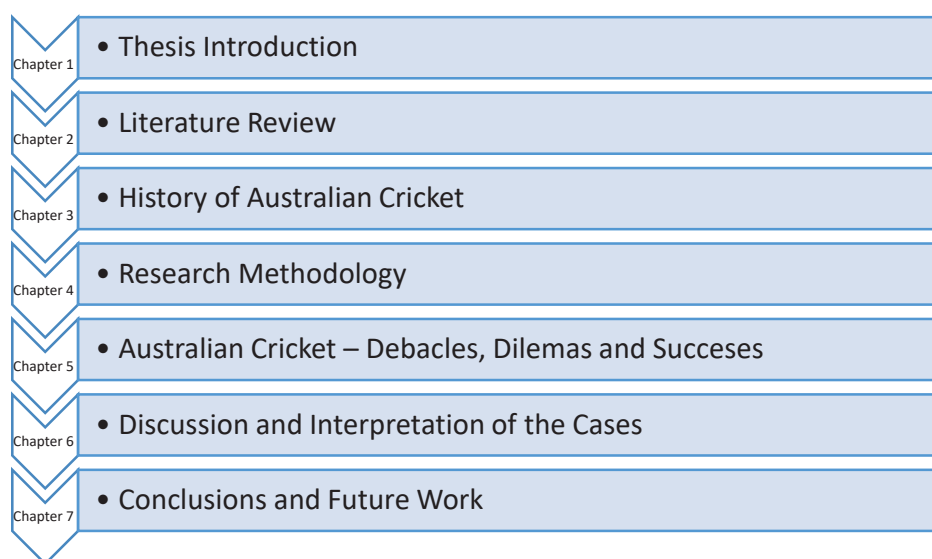


Figure 1-1 – Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 1 provides a brief overview of the study, its background, purpose and objectives, the research questions and the methodology followed.

Chapter 2 is a detailed review of the existing literature pertaining to change management and change models, sustainable change, change within sporting organisations and the role of vision in directing an organisation from a current state to a desired future state.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the history of cricket in Australia. This chapter is presented in two sections. Section one presents a background and history of Australian cricket. Section two provides information relating to Australian cricket.

Chapter 4 describes the methodological approach used in this study. A justification for the use of qualitative research and the use of an embedded case study is provided. The case study strategy was adopted again using qualitative data collection methods in the form of semi-structured interviews and observational methods.

Chapter 5 describes the objectives of the study and provides an overview of the approach taken by the researcher for data collection from interview participants, and analysis of documents.

Chapter 6 discusses and interprets the findings from the case study. Data collected from the primary source interviews and secondary sources review of documents such as annual reports and strategic plans are analysed and reviewed. As well, an analysis of data collected on the three specific change programs conducted during the period 2005 through to 2016 are examined in detail

Chapter 7 presents the conclusion and describes the major contributions the study has made to our understanding of change management and, in particular, sustainable change. It describes how the research aims and objectives have been met and reflects upon the research process undertaken. The contribution to knowledge made by this study is shown and areas for future research are identified.

1.8 Key Terms and Concepts

Key terms and abbreviations used within this research project, refer to Section 9.1 Glossary of Terms.

1.9 Chapter Summary

This current study provided a potentially exciting opportunity to examine change management within a complex sporting environment. Specifically, the study aimed to examine, through a case study analysis of Cricket Australia, the extent to which change can be successfully implemented and sustained.

The next chapter provides a review of relevant existing literature relating to change management and change models, sustainable change, change within sporting

organisations and the role of vision in directing an organisation from a current state to a desired future state.

2. Literature Review

The rate of change is not going to slow down anytime soon. If anything, competition in most industries will probably speed up even more in the next few decades. (John P. Kotter)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the literature and previous research conducted on the topic of change management in organisations, which is the key focus of this study. Literature on change management is extensive, partly as a result of organisations wanting to manage the change process more effectively and more successfully. Given the depth and breadth of the literature on organisational change management the literature review focuses on key concepts, change models and research that influenced the development of each area that is considered to be relevant to this study. This literature review defines change and change management, discusses some key reasons for change, outlines types of change and presents some traditional and contemporary models and approaches to change, assesses key areas such as communication and vision within the change process and also examines resistance to change. This chapter is structured in the following sections:

- Section 2.2 presents an overview of the literature relating to change management. Three key models of change management are presented: planned change, emergent change and opportunity-based change. Factors associated with change such as strategic management, leadership, communication and vision are identified and discussed. Challenges to successful organisational change are discussed in this section, emphasising how tenuous and risky change management can be.

- Section 2.3 presents an overview of change within sports organisations, which have a set of unique characteristics: governance, organisational structure, culture, and drivers of change. As this research focuses on change within Australian cricket, attention is focused on change management within sporting organisations.
- Section 2.4: whilst the concept of vision has been mentioned and explored briefly in the examination of change management literature, this review presents a more detailed review of literature on the topic of having a shared vision and the need for communicating the vision.

As outlined in Chapter 1, this study is concerned with change in sporting organisations, a topic which has received little attention and considered to be poorly researched. Literature related to change, sustainable change, change in sporting organisations and vision was utilised. The University of Technology library, EBSCO Information Services, Google Scholar and the Google search engine were used to research relevant literature on the subjects. Search terms used included: change, change implementation, change management, change management models, leading change, sustainable change, change in sporting organisations, change implementation success, and vision. Attempts to locate articles published between 2005 and 2015 were made; however, articles published earlier were also used and reviewed since they were relevant.

2.1.1 The Phenomenon of Change

The world has changed and will continue to change. Organisations over the past few decades have had to deal with an increasingly complex and fast-moving world. Over the last thirty years, an abundance of projects to improve organisational effectiveness, productivity and quality of work-life have been initiated. A number of these projects

were very innovative; however, many also had short lifetimes and eventually failed (Goodman & Truss, 2004; Jacobs, 2002; Senge et al., 1994).

Organisations of today operate under increasing demands for change. The market has radically changed due to globalisation, strong competition, technical development and a customer-driven market (Härenstam et al., 2004). The rapid pace of change means that an organisation must be able to modify its behaviours and be capable of adapting to shifts in the market (Norrgren et al., 1996 in Nonås, 2005). The majority of organisations have had to deal with increasing pressures of having to compete in a global market place and at the same time have been struggling to find ways to remain competitive and therefore having to change to address these challenges. Initiating a change project can cause excitement and interest; however, over time such projects may lose momentum, sustained resources or employee engagement (Herkness, Kettinger & Segars, 1996). Without forward momentum, improvements can regress (Kotter, 1996). Thus, organisational change has been a focus of theorising and research since the 1950s. Since then there has been a great deal written on the topic and it is to that literature that we now focus our attention.

Before organisational change is implemented, factors exist that create the need for this change. These factors can include anything in the organisation that contributes to a project's requirement for organisational and behavioural change. There is an increased need for the management of change in organisations and within projects, with the need growing significantly over the past decade for project management and change management being closely aligned. The link between project management and change management is being recognised on a more regular basis (Morrison, Brown and Smit, 2006; Waldersee, Griffiths and Lai, 2003; Pellegrinelli, 2007).

When an organization introduces a change with a project or initiative, that change needs to be effectively managed on both the technical side and the people side. A

technical side focus ensures that the change is developed, designed and delivered effectively. The discipline of project management provides the structure, processes and tools to make this happen. A people side focus ensures that the change is embraced, adopted and utilized by the employees who have to do their jobs differently as a result of the project. The discipline of change management provides the structure, processes and tools to make this happen.

Project management and change management both aim to increase the likelihood that projects or initiatives deliver the intended results and outcomes. Although each discipline can function independently, the most effective approach is to integrate change management and project management to create a unified approach to implementing change on both fronts.

2.1.2 Types of Change

The organisational development literature discusses various typologies of change as well as various conceptual approaches to change. This section identifies structural approaches and individual-behavioural approaches to change as the strategies that are typically used in planned change initiatives. These assists to situate the focus of the present study within the spectrum of existing approaches.

2.1.2.1 Structural Approach to Change

Senior and Fleming (2006) provide a picture of the future and how it will affect people and their willingness to change. They predict there will be a *structural change* with fewer layers of management and a reduction in the numbers of people working together. There will be stronger pressure for individuals to work harder and longer. Organisational change typically originates from two primary sources, including change resulting from internal or external environmental factors that are outside the leader's control and change resulting from a planned implementation. In order for an

organisation to be successful both the internal and/or external environment should be considered. The structural approach to change considers the organisation's internal and external structure and chain of command as a source of change and assumes that task performance is improved by redefining the separation of tasks and relationships between functions (Hollenbeck, 2000, p. 534). The structural approach to change involves redefining areas of responsibility and authority and the chain of command (Leavitt, 1964, p. 58). The approach describes various options for the structure of organisations, such as circular organisations (where authority and functions radiate in all directions from the centre), matrix organisations (relationships established as a grid) and job design (Poras & Silvers, 1994, p. 89; Hollenbeck, 2000, p. 534). Structural change focuses on the internal organisation by reorganising both the leadership and departmental structure, or the external structure of the organisation, in terms of evaluating how the organisation as a whole exists within the environment in which it operates. Change leaders involved in this type of change more often than not tend to be managers or leaders (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 105). Most organisational change tends to focus upon structure, restructuring and downsizing, which are considered to be the best examples of structural change (i.e. change that aims to improve productivity and cost-effectiveness by examining and redefining individual and departmental roles and responsibilities within organisations). Some of the key elements of structural change are aimed at identifying important parts of the system, determining the nature of their interdependence, and determining what processes link the parts together (Hollenbeck, 2000, p. 534; Harvey and Brown, 1996, p. 224).

2.1.2.2 Behavioural and Individual Approach to Change

Leavitt (1964, p. 62) defines behavioural and individual approaches to change as “a people approach which tries to change the organisational world by changing the behaviour of actors in the organisation”. This approach attempts to alter the attitudes,

beliefs and behaviours of organisational members and assumes that structural and technical improvements will follow (Hollenbeck, 2000, p. 534.). Chin & Benne (1976, p. 31) describe this approach as “the normative re-educative strategy of changing”. This strategy focuses upon people and considers that the clarification and reconstruction of values is of primary importance in any change. Involvement of the individual in organisational decision-making during change is an important belief of this approach as this allocates at least equal power to the people being affected by the change and it assists the individual to grow (Leavitt, 1964, p. 66). By increasing the level of individual participation in the change process through methods such as action research and learning, the individual-behavioural approach attempts to improve relationships between individuals and their work, which in turn increases organisational effectiveness (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 105; Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 37). Change leaders following this approach are usually change educators or change facilitators rather than technical experts or managers. Change leaders rely upon qualitative data such as employee testimonials about morale and satisfaction (Margulies & Rala, 1978, pp. 20-21). Poras & Silvers (1994, p. 86) describe this as “successful change efforts must alter the internal organisational environment such that new signals influence individuals to produce new behaviours”.

2.2 Organisational Change

Many researchers have written about change, change management and implementing change in organisations (e.g. Jick, 1991; Orlikowski, 1993; Kotter, 1995; Cummings & Worley, 2005) and have provided guidance on how manage change. However, the field of organisational change is far from mature in understanding the dynamics and effects of time, process, discontinuity and context (Pettigrew, Woodman, and Cameron., 2001). Change initiatives are commonly implemented as top-down, planned programs of change, but continuous change is more closely associated with emergent change

processes. Emergent and planned change are often presented as dichotomous approaches, and relatively little is known about how to foster emergence (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009; Tsoukas and Chia, 2002).

2.2.1 Organisational Change – Definitions

Although the concept of change is commonly understood, there is no universally agreed definition of the term organisational change management. Organisational change has been described and defined in several ways. Kanter, Stein and Jick (1992 p. 11) consider change to be “the shift in behavior of the whole organisation”. Van de Ven and Poole (1995, p. 512) consider organisational change to be “an empirical observation of difference in form, quality, or state over time in an organisational entity. The entity may be an individual’s job, a work group, an organisational strategy, a program, a product, or the overall organisation”. Ford and Ford (1995, p. 543) describe organisational change as “the difference(s) between two or more successive conditions, states, or moments of time”. Burnes (2000) defines organisational change as being a multi-level, cross-organisation process that unveils in an iterative and messy fashion over a period of time and comprises a series of interlocking projects. From a more strategic perspective, Berger (1994, p. 7) sees change management as, “a continuous process of aligning an organization with its marketplace and doing it more responsively and effectively than competitors”. Moran and Brightman, 2000, p. 111) define change management as “the process of continually reviewing an organisation’s direction, structure and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers”.

Following on from these definitions, organisational change management is considered to be a continuous process of experiment and adaptation aimed at matching an organisation’s capabilities to the needs and directives of a volatile environment (Burnes, 2000). More specifically, Lichtenstein (2000) views organisational change as

a transformative change through a complex adaptive system model of change, which consists of three stages: increased organising, tension and a threshold, and newly emerging configuration. Some researchers and academics have compared change management to Darwin's theory of "survival of the fittest" (Vaill, 1989). This view is that any organisation which fails to change is faced with the real possibility of being eliminated from the competition. Similarly, Burnes (2004) considers change as an ever-present feature of organisational life, both at an operational and strategic level. Change in the context of contemporary organisations needs to be defined clearly at the outset. According to Kanter (1992, p. 279):

Change involves the crystallization of new possibilities (new policies, new behaviours, new patterns, new methodologies, new products or new market ideas) based on the reconceptualised patterns in the institution. The architecture of change involves the design and construction of new patterns, or the reconceptualisation of old ones, to make new, and hopefully more productive actions possible.

Organisational change management is a multidisciplinary practice that has evolved as a result of scholarly research. It is often associated with other names such as business transformation, development metamorphosis, transformation, transition, evolution, regeneration, and revolution (Hughes, 2006, p. 1). Prosci (2013) defines change management as the application of a set of tools, processes, skills and principles for managing the people side of change to achieve the required outcomes of a change project initiative. The above views are shared by Rouse (2009, np) who describes organisational change management as a framework for managing the effect of new business processes, changes in organisational structures or culture within an enterprise. Fincham and Rhodes (2005, p. 525) define change management as the leadership and direction of the process of organisational transformation especially with regard to human aspects and overcoming resistance to change. Ford and Ford (1994, p. 759) argue that change is "a phenomenon of time, where something over time turns

into something else". Porras and Silvers (1991, p. 52) state that, "organisational change consists of the following components: an initiative which alters critical organisational process, which in turn influences individual behaviours, and which subsequently impacts on organisational outcomes".

Whilst these definitions differ in the way they are articulated, they nevertheless seem to subscribe to a fundamental view of change management: that it is a process that is formally initiated and approved, using an agreed method, resulting in a different state or condition. Change management is described in this research study as a structured approach or process during which the changes are implemented in a controlled manner by following a pre-defined framework or model with, to some extent, reasonable modifications in order to facilitate the transitioning of individuals, teams, and organisations from a current state to a desired future state. For the purpose of this dissertation, change management will be explored through people's experiences of change and also the organisational processes used to manage change.

2.2.2 What is Change Management About?

Change management is a comprehensive term used to describe change at both the individual and organisational level (Jones, Aguirre, and Calderone, 2012, np). Whilst definitions of change management diverge in the way they are formulated, they do however seem to subscribe to the same fundamental view of change management: that it is a process that is formally initiated and approved, using an agreed method, resulting in a different state or condition.

2.2.3 Early History of Change Management

The need to understand change and how it affects organisations was first suggested by Lewin (1952). The planned approach to change is based on Lewin's (1952) three-step model of unfreezing, changing and refreezing. Lewin's approach has been

expanded by a number of researchers. For example, Lippitt, Watson and Westley (1958) extend Lewin's three-step change model and created a seven-step theory that focused more on the role and responsibility of the change agent rather than on the evolution of the change itself. Huse (1975) expanded Lewin's (1952) three-step model into a dynamic seven-step process and in so doing addressed one of the main criticisms of the planned approach by acknowledging that organisations exist in different states at different times and that planned movement can occur from one state to another. Bullock and Batten (1985) developed a planned model for change that was based on meta-analysis of other planned models of change from the organisational development literature. The Bullock and Batten (1985) model describes four phases which have been developed in terms of two dimensions of change: change phases and change processes. Jick (1991) acknowledges that change is not a simple step-by-step process and, rather than producing a new model for change, provides a tactical list of ten "commandments" which should be viewed as an inventory of ingredients that managers can use when planning and implementing change.

Kotter's (1995) eight-step change model causes change to become a campaign. Employees buy into the change after leaders convince them of the urgent need for change to occur. The ADKAR model created by Prosci founder Jeff Hiatt is a sequential change management model that, when followed, transitions a person or a team of people through change. It primarily approaches change from an individual level. The acronym ADKAR describes an individual's journey through the change process: from Awareness, to Desire, to Knowledge, to Ability and Reinforcement.

Each of the new models represents further enhancements to Lewin's (1952) original three-step model. The *unfreezing* phase has been expanded to include identifying the threat faced by the organisation (Bullock & Batten, 1985; Jick, 1991; Kotter, 1995); identification of relevant stakeholders; diagnosing the problem and establishing goals;

developing a potential solution (Bullock & Batten, 1985; Huse, 1975; Jick, 1991; Kotter, 1995) and creating a vision (Jick, 1991; Kotter, 1995). The *changing* step, which represents the practical implementation of the change, is barely enhanced by the other models. The **changing** phase becomes implementation (Bullock & Batten, 1985; Huse, 1975; Lippitt, Watson & Westley, 1958). Jick (1991) identifies that communication is the key to the changing phase. Kotter (1995) expands the changing phase to focus on creating short-term wins and consolidating improvements whilst looking for more change. The **refreezing** phase from Lewin's (1952) model is expanded to include reviewing the change; terminating relationships; and the change itself (Bullock & Batten, 1985; Huse, 1975; Jick, 1991; Kotter, 1995; Lippitt, Watson & Westley, 1958).

2.2.4 Models and Approaches to Change and Change Management

Most planned change models map to the first model of change, as developed by Lewin (1952). The current prominent change models discussed in this literature review are presented in Table 2-1 and are aligned to Lewin's (1952) three-stage model. Presenting this comparison of change management models, the table includes three rows to demarcate the steps advocated in each model for planning, implementation and establishment of change. As the table illustrates, these change management models provide only limited advice on the actual implementation phase of change management. This is primarily because change management is a people-focused craft that draws on a person's communication capabilities and political shrewdness to help guide change through an organisation. Part of leading change is about having a change process to follow, which will help to engage stakeholders, and build momentum and organisational support to identify and overcome resistance to change.

As well as determining the nature of change and change management in organisations, there is also a considerable amount of literature about what processes might be best used to effect useful and lasting change (e.g. Cummings & Worley,

2005; Leppitt, 2006, Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Markus & Benjamin, 1997; Kotter 1995; Orlikowski, 1993; Jick, 1979; Laughlin, 1991; Lewin, 1952; Pettigrew, 1985; Schein, 1996).

	Lewin 1958	Lippit, Watson et al. 1958	Huse 1975	Jick 1991	Kotter 1995	ADKAR 2006
Change planning phase						
	Unfreezing	Develop a need for change	Scouting	Analyse the organisation and the need for change	Establish a sense of urgency	Awareness
		Establish a change relationship	Entry	Create a shared vision and common direction	Form a powerful coalition	Desire
		Diagnose problems	Diagnosis	Separate from the past	Create a vision	Knowledge
		Establish goals and actions	Planning	Create a sense of urgency and support a strong leader	Empowering others to act on the new vision	
				Line up political sponsorship		
				Develop enabling structures		
				Craft an implementation plan		
Change implementation						
	Changing	Transformation into actual change effort	Action	Communicate and involve people and be honest	Plan for and create short-term wins	Ability
					Consolidating improvements and producing more change	
Establishing the change						
	Refreezing	Stabilisation of the change	Stabilise	Reinforce and institutionalise the change	Institutionalise the change	Reinforcement
		Terminate the relationship	Termination			

Table 2-1 - Comparison of Models for Implementing Change

Organisational change is not an easy process to manage (Nelson & Coxhead, 1997; Preskill & Torres, 1999), with more than 70% of change initiatives failing or already failed (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Lewis and Seibold (1998) suggest that implementation of changes associated with the implementation of new technologies may have even higher failure rates, sometimes up to 75%. Successful implementation of change involves discipline and this cannot occur unless measurements of accountability are in place and a master plan exists that can be evaluated at any time (Collins, 2001; Newcomb, 2005). It is not surprising, therefore, that this subject area has been examined extensively, resulting in a vast body of organisational change literature.

Two models most often utilised in organisations for managing and/or leading change are the ADKAR model and Kotter's 8-step model. ADKAR focuses on changing one person, an individual. Kotter's 8-step change model is considered to focus on leading change rather than on managing change a point that is mentioned by Kreitner and Kinicki, 2007, p588).

2.2.5 Planned Change

Planned change is embedded in the work of Kurt Lewin (1951). Inherent in the planned change approach is a heavy reliance on managers and change leaders to design and carry out a prescribed sequence of steps and activities for change (Wilson, 1992). The criticality of strong change leadership pervades organisational development literature. This approach also underlies traditional strategy literature, which portrays strategic management as a completely rational process of formulation followed by implementation (Mintzberg, 1987). The implication is that outcomes can be directly connected to a deliberate action. Leaders implement formal controls to ensure plans are followed as designed (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985).

2.2.5.1 Lewin's Three-Step Change Model

Kurt Lewin says that “you cannot understand a system until you try to change it” (Schein, 1996, p. 34). Thus, a well-established and planned approach to change is based on Lewin’s (1952) model, which has three stages: unfreezing, changing and refreezing (refer to Figure 2-1). Lewin suggests that the existing state must be unfrozen, the change implemented and then the new state refrozen. The first stage of “unfreezing” involves preparing an organisation to accept that existing ways are not working, recognising that change is necessary and understanding the nature of the change that is required. Changing is the second stage, in which the change is planned and implemented. Time and communication are both crucial during this stage for change to occur and for an organisation to adapt to the change. Refreezing is the third stage, in which the change is embraced by an organisation and becomes embedded in its culture as the new way of operating. Lewin stresses that just reaching the new level does not suffice, rather the end point of the change must be the stage where a specific change is internalised and institutionalised (Lewin, 1952, p. 228). It should be noted that Lewin’s three-step model has more often than not been embedded in most change models developed over the last 50 years.

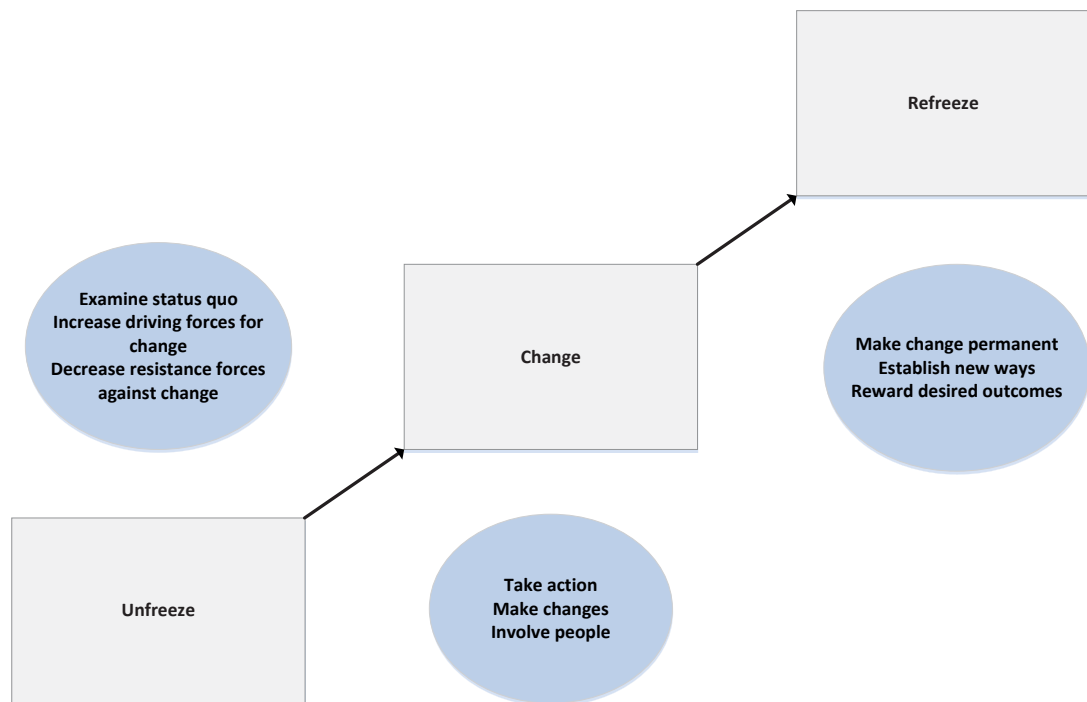


Figure 2-1 – Lewin's Three-Step Change Model

Some literature, however, suggests that the model proposed by Lewin is somewhat simplistic, or as Kanter et al. (1992, p. 10) call it, a “quaintly linear and static conception”, and it does, on the face of it, seem rather too simple a depiction of a complex process. Lewin’s work has been expanded upon by a number of different researchers. Lippit and Watson (1958) expanded Lewin’s three-step model into a five-step model. They continued their work further and following the five-step model they developed a seven-step model. Huse (1975) expanded Lewin’s three-step model into a more dynamic seven-step model. The model developed by Huse (1975) was seen to address one of the main criticisms of the planned approach to change. In this new model, it was recognised that organisations exist in different states at different times and that planned movement can occur from one state to another.

Berger (1994, p. 7) defines the process of change management as, “the continuous process of aligning an organisation with its marketplace and doing it more responsively

and effectively than its competitors”. Thus, organisational change management is a continuous process of experiment and adaptation aimed at matching an organisation’s capabilities to the needs and dictates of a volatile environment (Burnes, 2004). Lichtenstein (2000) sees organisational change as a transformative change through a complex adaptive system model of change, which consists of three stages: increased organising, tension and a threshold, and newly emerging configuration.

Burnes (2004) depicts change to be a multi-level, cross-organisational process that unveils in an iterative and messy fashion over a period of time and comprises a series of interlocking projects. To manage the mess, Ford and Ford (1995, p. 545) outline that organisational change requires a change manager or agent to deliver an intended state or result that previously did not exist. It is also important that “change that is brought about through the purposeful efforts of organisational members” (Lewis et al., 2011, p. 9).

2.2.5.2 Jick’s Ten Steps for Improving Organisational Change

Jick (1991) argues that change is not a simple step-by-step process. Instead of developing a new model for change, Jick describes a tactical list of ten “commandments” which ought to be viewed as a catalogue of ingredients that managers can follow when planning and implementing change. These ten commandments are listed below:

- 1. Analyse the organisation and its need for change.** Managers should understand an organisation’s operations, how it functions in its environment, what its strengths and weaknesses are, and how it will be affected by proposed changes, in order to craft an effective implementation plan.
- 2. Create a vision and common direction.** One of the first steps in engineering change is to unite an organisation behind a central vision. This vision should

reflect the philosophy and values of the organisation, and should help it to articulate what it hopes to become. A successful vision serves to guide behaviour, and to aid an organisation in achieving its goals.

3. **Separate from the past.** Disengaging from the past is critical to awakening to a new reality. It is difficult for an organisation to embrace a new vision of the future until it has isolated the structures and routines that no longer work, and vowed to move beyond them.
4. **Create a sense of urgency.** Convincing an organisation that change is necessary isn't so difficult when a company is teetering on the brink of bankruptcy or foundering in the marketplace. But when the need for action is not generally understood, a change leader should generate a sense of urgency without appearing to be fabricating an emergency, or 'crying wolf.' This sense of urgency is essential to rallying an organisation behind change.
5. **Support a strong leader role.** An organisation should not undertake something as challenging as large-scale change without a leader to guide, drive, and inspire it. This change advocate plays a critical role in creating a company vision, motivating company employees to embrace that vision, and crafting an organisational structure that consistently rewards those who strive toward the realisation of the vision.
6. **Line up political sponsorship.** Leadership alone cannot bring about large-scale change. In order to succeed, a change effort must have broad-based support throughout an organisation. This support should include not only the managers, or change implementers, but also the recipients of change, whose acceptance of any program is necessary for its success.
7. **Craft an implementation plan.** Whilst a vision may guide and inspire during the change process, an organisation also needs more nuts and bolts advice on what to do, and when and how to do it. This change plan maps out the effort,

specifying everything from where the first meetings should be held, to the date by which the company hopes to achieve its change goals.

8. **Develop enabling structures.** Altering the status quo and creating new mechanisms for implementing change can be a critical precursor to any organisational transformation. These mechanisms may be part of the existing corporate structure, or may be established as a freestanding organisation. Enabling structures designed to facilitate and spotlight change range from the practical – such as setting up pilot tests, off-site workshops, training programs, and new reward systems – to the symbolic – such as rearranging the organisation’s physical space.
9. **Communicate, involve people, and be honest.** When possible, change leaders should communicate openly, and seek out the involvement and trust of people throughout their organisations. Full involvement, communication and disclosure are not called for in every change situation, but these approaches can be potent tools for overcoming resistance and giving employees a personal stake in the outcome of a transformation.
10. **Reinforce and institutionalise the change.** Throughout the pursuit of change, managers and leaders should make it a top priority to prove their commitment to the transformation process, reward risk taking, and incorporate new behaviours into the day-to-day operations of the organisation. By reinforcing the new culture, they affirm its importance and hasten its acceptance.

(Source Kanter, Stein *and* Jick, 1992)

2.2.5.3 *Kotter’s Eight-Step Change Model*

Kotter is recognised as an expert in change and change management. Kotter’s (1995) eight-step model is arguably one of the best-known change management models.

Appelbaum et al. (2012, p. 765) state that it “remains a key reference in the field of change management”.

Kotter, Professor of Leadership at Harvard Business School, investigated 100 organisations of different sizes and types, involved in or having attempted a complex change program and identified eight main reasons why transformation efforts fail. These reasons were used by Kotter to develop the eight-step change model for planning and implementing change.

The steps are mainly focused on improving communication during the change process. Kotter (1995, p. 103) suggests that change is not easy to manage if it is to be successful and “there are still more mistakes that people will make”. According to Kotter, there are eight steps to transforming an organisation (refer to Figure 2-2). These eight steps are described below:

- 1. Create sense of urgency.** This means creating an awareness of the need for the organisation to change and establishing convincing reasons why change is needed (www.kotterinternational.com). In this step, change managers and/or managers and/or change leaders “unfreeze” people by establishing why change is needed. In so doing they identify potential threats and develop potential scenarios showing what could happen in the future (Cooke, & Lafferty, 2005). This step is not simple – it is not just a matter of showing people things such as poor sales statistics or identifying and talking about increased competition. This step entails sharing in an open and honest manner and convincing people about what is happening in the marketplace, within the organisation and with competitors.

Creating a sense of urgency around the need for change may assist the organisation to spark the initial motivation to get things moving. In fact, it is better

if the whole company really wants it. Kotter suggests that for change to be successful, 75% or more of the company's management needs to “buy into” the change. Thus, making this step such a crucial step – one should not rush through it. What steps can be undertaken are outlined below:

- Identify potential threats and develop possible scenarios showing what could happen in the future.
- Identify opportunities that could be, or should be, followed.
- Start honest discussions and provide convincing reasons so as to get people thinking and talking.
- Request support from customers, outside stakeholders and industry people to strengthen arguments.

Establishing a sense of urgency is central to gaining the required cooperation. With complacency high, transformations usually go nowhere because few people are even interested in working on the change problem. With urgency low, it's difficult to put together a group with enough power and credibility to guide and manage the change initiative (Kotter, 1996). Bold or risky actions normally associated with good leadership are generally required for creating a strong sense of urgency (Kotter, 1995, p. 43).

Kotter (1995) considers that, “it is vitally important that change efforts must begin with individuals and groups evaluating both internal and external forces that are challenging the organisation. Once the evaluation is completed, leaders must find ways to communicate the information both broadly and dramatically around the organisation. The need for change must be understood.” Gist et al. (1989, pp. 884-891) agrees that “messages are more effective if they come from more than one source and especially if it comes from someone such as a consultant external to the organisation”.

Ginsberg (1995, pp. 425-448) and Kotter (1995, pp. 59-67) state that “the more the change is a topic of conversation, the greater its implied urgency”. Jansen (2004, pp. 276-294) deduces that apathy is conveyed if there is little interaction regarding the change, thus deeming it unimportant. Discussions about the change, whether negative or positive, indicate that the change is progressing and employees are feeling the need to rationalise events (Jansen, 2004). As a result, energy for change is created by the implication of change.

2. **Form a powerful coalition.** This means establishing a group that has enough power, energy and authority in the organisation to push for and lead the change. It is essential that this group have the authority to influence and outline the need for change. Cameron and Green (2009, p. 126) claim that “within this step the critical aspect of the team is to develop a shared commitment and mechanism with the goal being to get people together in order to mutually assess problems and determine the best solution to address the problems identified”.

Strong leadership is required. Managing change is not enough; it is necessary that the change be led. Once established, the change coalition must work as a team and continue to establish the momentum around the need for change.

According to Kotter (1996, p. 52), no one person is capable of single-handedly leading and managing the change process in an organisation and putting together the right “guiding coalition” of people to lead a change initiative is critical to its success. This guiding coalition should be made up of people with the following characteristics (Kotter, 1996, p. 53):

- position power: having enough key players on board so that those left out cannot block progress;

- expertise: all relevant points of view should be represented so that informed intelligent decisions can be made;
- credibility: ensuring that the group is seen and respected by those in the organisation so that announcements from the group will be taken seriously by all employees; and
- leadership: the group should have enough proven leaders to be able to drive the change process.

3. Create a vision for change. Change managers and change leaders must be able to formulate a clear and gripping vision that people will aspire to – a vision that will guide them in the transformation effort. Kotter (1996, p. 70) claims that “an effective and compelling vision creates a drive in of followers to accomplish specific tasks to achieve the end result – having a vision is a way of painting a picture of what the desired future is like ... without such a vision, the change objectives can easily dissolve into a list of confusing and incompatible projects that can take the organisation in the wrong direction or nowhere at all”.

Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010, pp. 175-193) agree, and define the change vision as “a key part of the change process”. Flamholtz and Kurland (2006, pp. 187-193) believe that “vision and strategic planning is necessary to extend management’s thinking beyond incremental performance improvement goals and to address longer-term issues and changing competitive dynamics”.

Kotter (1996, p. 70) states that “a clearly defined vision is easier for employees to understand and act on”. Washington and Hacker (2005, pp. 400-411) through their research discovered that “managers who have a clear understanding of the change effort being undertaken are more likely to be excited about the change initiative and less likely to think that the change effort will fail”.

4. Communicate the change vision. Transformation is unlikely to succeed unless the majority of the people in the organisation are involved and willing to assist. Change managers and change leaders need to use every means possible to communicate the vision to all parties involved and affected by the change process. This should not just be done through calling special meetings to communicate the vision. Instead, the change vision should be discussed at every opportunity possible. Communication is a critical element of any organisational change initiative as it can reduce uncertainty (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, and Callan., 2004), decrease ambiguity and can even affect the type of positive or negative responses to organisational change (Nelissen & van Selm, 2008). Melnyk and Fineout-Overholt (2020, p. 282) state that “when the message is kept fresh in everyone’s mind, they will remember and respond to it”.

It is also important to “walk the talk” and translate theory into practice. What one does is far more important and believable than what one says. Managers and leaders in the change coalition should therefore model and demonstrate the new behaviours needed from the rest of the employees. It is advisable when communicating the vision to:

- talk often about the change vision;
- openly and honestly address peoples’ concerns and anxieties;
- apply the vision to all aspects of operations – from training to performance reviews and tie everything back to the vision
- lead by example.

Klein (1996) suggests a number of effective communication strategies based on empirical principles found in the literature in order to apply them to various stages of organisational change. These strategies, as listed, strongly support Kotter’s overall communication requirement:

- People's memories can be increased by diffusion and repetition of the message through several media, leading to message retention (Bachrach & Aiken, 1972; Daft & Lengel, 1984). This point supports Kotter's suggestion to ensure that the change message and vision is repeatable as "ideas sink in deeply only after they have been heard many times" (Kotter, 1996, p. 90).
 - Kotter maintains that "two-way communication is always more powerful than one-way communication" (Kotter, 1996, p. 90). This is confirmed by D'Aprix (1982) and Jablin (1982), who demonstrate that face-to-face communication taken by itself is the medium with the greatest impact. The interactive potential of face-to-face communication is in fact what works, conclude Gioia and Sims (1986). The two-way process allows involvement, irons out ambiguities, and increases the chances of the communicators connecting adequately (Klein, 1996).
 - Employees expect to hear important, officially sanctioned information from their immediate supervisor or boss, and therefore this is the most effective source as they are also presumed to be well informed (Klein, 1996). These supervisors can subsequently keep supervisees aware of the changes (Higginson & Waxler, 1989; Smeltzer & Fann, 1989).
5. **Remove obstacles.** When this stage is reached, the assumption is that the vision has been successfully communicated, and buy-in from relevant stakeholders has been obtained. The key objective now is to remove all obstacles and empower all parties with the knowledge, resources and direction needed to make things happen. This step involves taking care of resistance by empowering employees who can execute the proposed vision. It is important to take actions, where appropriate, to get people involved in the change effort so that they will start thinking about the changes positively. Get people involved so

as to reduce the likelihood of resistance to the change. Employees are emboldened to try new ideas and approaches, often just simply by the successful communication of the vision across the organisation (Kotter, 1995). However, communication is never sufficient by itself and employees often need help in getting rid of obstacles to the change vision (Kotter, 1995). Typically, empowering employees involves addressing four major obstacles: structures, skills, systems, and supervisors (Kotter, 1996, p. 102).

Kotter (1996, pp. 107-109) stresses the pivotal role of training in the empowerment process and he has broad empirical support for this assertion. Denton (1994) describes how Ford and its union, the United Auto Workers, jointly created an effective training program that emphasised changing Ford's corporate culture. He suggests that training was successful because it helped build a sense of responsibility and empowerment in the employees. Whilst effective communication is necessary, by itself it may not be enough.

Assistance may be required to remove obstacles that could detrimentally affect the successful achievement of the change vision. Removing obstacles so as to be able to get on with the change entails several possible actions: e.g. allocating budget money to the new initiative and freeing up key people from existing responsibilities so they can concentrate on the new effort; allowing people to start living the new ways and making changes in their areas of involvement. There is nothing more frustrating than believing in the change but then not having the time, money, help or support needed to effect it (Armenakis et al., 1993).

Removing obstacles is believed to empower the people who are needed to execute the vision, and helps the initiative to move forward (Biech, 2007, p. 28).

Things that can be done include:

- identifying or hiring change managers and/or change leaders whose main task is to deliver the change;

- looking at organisational structures, job descriptions, performance and compensation systems to ensure they are in line with the vision;
- recognising and rewarding people for making change happen;
- identifying people who are resisting the change and helping them to see what is required for the change to be successful;
- taking action quickly to remove barriers – human or otherwise.

6. Generating short-term wins. Seeing the changes happening and working, and recognising the work being done by people towards achieving the longer-term goals is critical in Kotter's view. Kotter (1995) argues that a leader should plan for visible performance improvement, allow improvements to happen, and then celebrate them with employees who have been able to make it happen, as nothing motivates better than success. Short-term wins demonstrate that the change effort is paying off (Kotter, 1996, pp. 122-124). Such wins help the guiding coalition test the vision against real conditions and make adjustments (Kotter, 1996, pp. 122-124).

Since major changes can take time to implement, a transformation effort may lose momentum if no short-term wins are accomplished, recognised and celebrated. Throughout the transformation process, the leader should set high performance expectations and reward behaviours that are directed toward fulfilment of the vision. It is also important that the leader models the behaviours that are required to institutionalise the change and sets the standards for the rest of the organisation to emulate (Eisenbach et al., 1999). Without these wins, critics and negative thinkers might hurt the progress being made. So, as momentum builds, people try to fulfil the vision, whilst fewer and fewer resist the change. Thus, the change coalition team will have to work hard to come up with these targets and win them so as to further motivate the entire team and the staff (Webster, 2011, np). This can be achieved by:

- looking for guaranteed projects that can be implemented without help from any strong critics of the change;
- not choosing early targets that are costly or expensive;
- thoroughly analysing the potential pros and cons of the targets – if the team does not succeed with an early goal it can hurt the entire change initiative;
- rewarding the people who meet the targets.

(Cameron & Green, 2009, p. 126)

7. **Consolidate improvements.** This stage involves consolidating the change when it occurs so that it is sustained. Kotter states that it may be tempting for managers to declare victory after the first signs of performance improvement are visible. However, as new processes can regress, it's crucial for leaders to use these short-term gains in order to tackle other issues, such as systems and structures that are not in line with the recently implemented changes (Kotter, 1995). Pfeiffer et al. (2005) argue that verifying the credibility of vision and strategy through the use of measurable results is the main goal for gathering first successes. What is important to remember about this step is that each success provides an opportunity to build on what went right and identify what can be improved. Consolidating the change and new way of working into the organisation is critical for the long-term success of the project.
8. **Anchor changes.** The key objective of this final step is critical and involves institutionalising the changes into the organisation. Here the relationship of the organisation's new successes with the new methods and behaviours that have been introduced into the organisation through the change initiative are demonstrated. The key objective is to make the changes stick and become part of the norm in the organisation. Kotter (1995) believes that new behaviours are subject to degradation if they are not rooted in social norms and shared values

once the pressure for change is alleviated. He cites two factors that are critical to the institutionalisation of change in corporate culture:

- a) showing employees how the new approaches, behaviours and attitudes have helped improve performance; and
- b) ensuring that the next generation of management personifies the new approach (Kotter, 1996, p. 67).

Establishing the culture and aligning it with the change that has been made is critical. When change has been implemented successfully, it is critical that management and leaders continue to support the change. Failure to anchor the changes in the organisation may mean that changes achieved through hard work may slip if people revert back to old working habits.

As described by Lunenburg (2010, p. 2) Kotter's eight-step model was developed utilising Lewin's three-step model as a base or reference point. Kotter's model for managing change is, however, a more detailed approach for managing change. Steps one through to four can be mapped to the unfreezing phase. Steps five to seven may be mapped to the changing phase and the final step can be considered to be the re-freezing step. Kotter's eight-step model was fully elaborated to address fundamental changes in how the business is conducted in order to help cope with a new, more challenging market environment (Kotter, 1995).

Kotter argues that the eight steps should be followed in sequence and that extended overlapping of the steps will compromise success, implying that steps are requisite of one another. Therefore, not implementing the first step will make it difficult or impossible to implement the subsequent steps. Burnes (1996) argues that such a prescriptive approach does not correlate well with studies that suggest that organisations prefer to use approaches to change that stem from their culture and thus cannot easily be amended or replaced (Cummings & Huse, 1989; Schein, 1985;

Burnes & James, 1995). The model can be considered to be a framework describing how a change initiative should proceed if the model is followed and used as a reference point or a guide.

Whilst research indicates the model can be used in practice to manage and lead change, there are a number of critics of the model. On the people side of a change project, it is reckoned that there is no specific model that can be applied precisely in a variety of organisations. Different organisations have various people, styles and cultures (Nauheimer, 2009). Understanding people in an organisation will help to understand the flow of change activities.

Some people consider the change model as a management approach; however, Kotter sees it as a process for leading change. Once a need for change is recognised (as per Step 1) then the rest of change process will be followed.

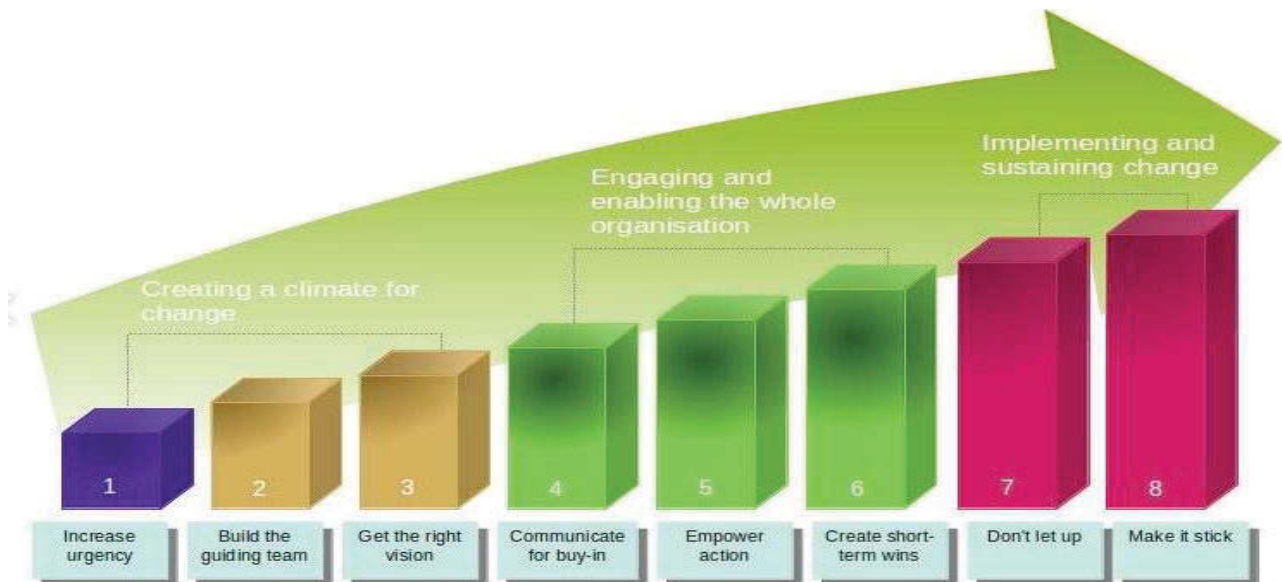


Figure 2-2 - Kotter's Eight-Step Change Model

<http://www.leadershipthoughts.com/kotters-8-step-change-model>

2.2.5.4 McKinsey 7-S Model

The McKinsey 7-S framework (Figure 2-3) was developed by Tom Peters and Robert Waterman at McKinsey & Company. It argues that organisational effectiveness involves more than simply putting in place the right command and control structure to coordinate the delivery of an organisation's strategy. Instead, the framework maps a constellation of seven interacting factors that are key to helping people function effectively together, in order to achieve a high-performance organisation.

The goal with the McKinsey model was to show how seven different elements of the company could be aligned together to achieve effectiveness in the workplace. The seven key areas of the model include structure, strategy, skills, staff, style, systems and shared values. In summary, the 7S elements stand for:

- **Strategy:** Organisations need to compete in volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous environments. So, strategy needs to respond to this with agility. Organisations must constantly adapt strategies to succeed.
- **Structure:** The hierarchy of control exercised through delegated responsibility. The structure should be as simple as possible to help people understand who is accountable for specific results.
- **Style:** Also, referred to as culture, this represents the way things are done and, particularly, the way the leadership team conducts itself in the organisation. The leadership style will influence how the rest of the employees behave. Therefore, if the leadership visibly embraces, champions and demonstrates cost transformation and management, then people around the organisation, staff and other stakeholders will typically follow.
- **Staff:** This includes the inherent talents of the organisation's people, the number of staff and the diversity needed in each area to optimise organisational capability and capacity.

- **Skills:** This refers to the skills needed to deliver the cost transformation and management strategy. Having the right skills to deliver the strategy is vital and skills gaps can pose a risk to achieving cost competitiveness objectives.
- **Systems:** These are the activities, processes and procedures that people engage in to do their work. It also includes software systems, which are increasingly automating activities, processes and procedures.
- **Shared values:** These encapsulate the organisation’s purpose or its societal mandate. The organisation’s purpose tends to remain a fundamental constant over time and this purpose shapes the organisation’s values.

The model addresses the “critical role of coordination, rather than structure, in organizational effectiveness” (Bryan, 2014). To better visualise how the seven elements work together to provide organisational effectiveness, Peters and Waterman created the framework shown in Figure 2-3.

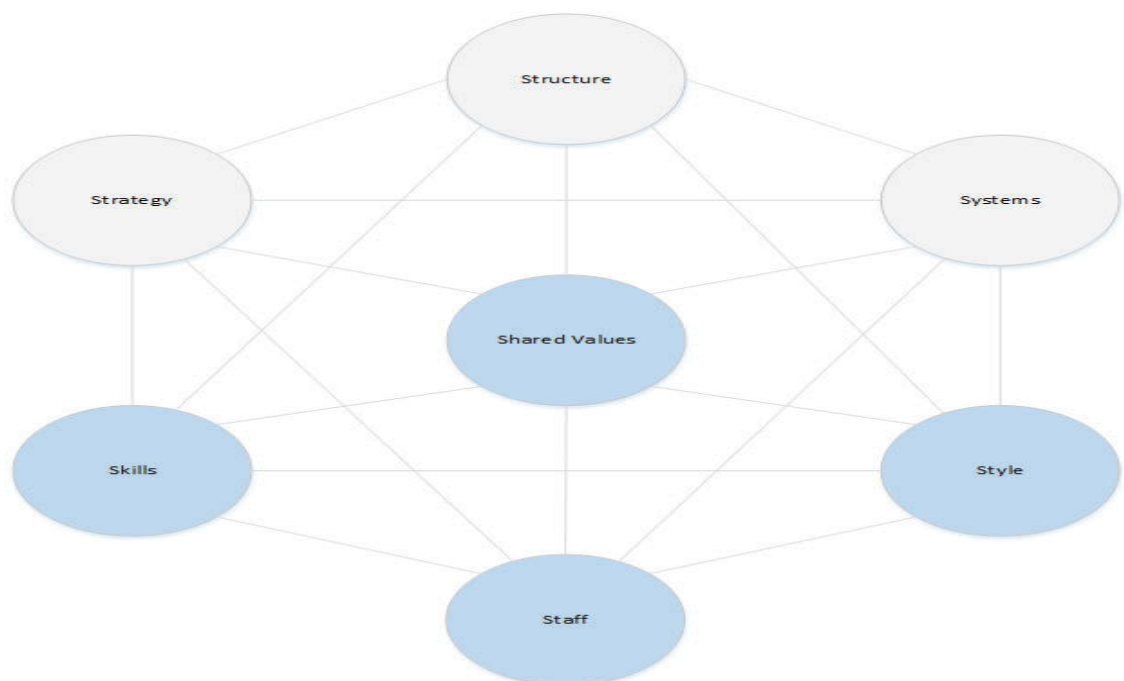


Figure 2-3 The McKinsey 7S Framework

The three elements on the top of the diagram – strategy, structure and systems – are referred to as the Hard S elements. These are the three elements of the model that are slightly easier to define. Management tends to have a better time influencing the hard elements in the organisation. Such examples of Hard S elements include strategy statements and organisation charts. The bottom four, the Soft S elements – skills, staff, style and shared values – are more difficult to describe and are influenced by the culture rather than management. As can be seen in Figure 2-4, all seven of the elements are interdependent. Change within one element requires change in the remaining six (Manktelow, 2014).

Peters and Waterman (1982) consider the framework is best used in five steps. They first believe it is important to identify the elements of the framework that are not aligning properly. This step also includes recognising inconsistencies between the relationships of the elements. In the second step the company should determine the optimal organisational design. It is important to note that this will be different for all organisations. The third stage is deciding where and what changes should be made. The fourth step involves actually making the changes that are necessary. Peters and Waterman (1982) believe this implementation step is the most important stage in the reorganisation process. The fifth and final stage is to continuously review the 7S framework. The seven S's will be constantly changing and it is important to keep up with each element individually (Jurevicius, 2014).

2.2.6 Communication in Planned Models

Each of the planned models of change described (in Table 2-1) has communication embedded into its structure. Step 1 of Lippitt's (1958) change model relates to awareness and the author notes that there may be communication blockages which inhibit the spread of awareness. Step 2 discusses developing a change relationship and identifies the problem of communicating the need for help. In step 3, the change

agents need information to diagnose the client system's problem. Step 4 focuses on the communication between the client system and the change agent. Step 5 discusses the need for feedback when trying to implement actual change. Stabilisation is the focus of step 6, and the authors warn that no evaluation may be interpreted as poor evaluation. Finally, step 7 terminates the relationship between the client system and the change agent. This termination depends on how dependent the client system has been on the change agent and will involve care and communication to positively terminate the relationship.

Huse (1975) identifies communicating the change as a key step in the change process. Failure during the action phase can be aligned to improper diagnosis or failure to involve key people or groups. Therefore, communicating the change to those most affected, namely the key people or groups, will help reduce the risk of failure.

The four-phase model of Bullock and Batten (1985) indicates the explicit need for communication in three out of the four phases. Planning requires information sharing, the action phase advises action steps with progress reviews, and integration calls for a handover from external change agents to internal change agents to ensure the embedding of the change in the organisation.

Jick's (1991) ten commandment model focuses on communication as the key to moving the organisation. Jick (1991) relies on communication for commandments that relate to unfreezing the organisation.

Kotter (1995) explicitly calls for managers to communicate their vision to the organisation. Communication is embedded in the two steps that align to moving the organisation. Planning and empowering short-term wins must be communicated to the organisation. The consolidation of improvements and being positioned to produce more change requires open communication.

Communication is a key ingredient in the planned models of change. Whilst communication is embedded in these models, however, little guidance is given on how to communicate the planned change.

2.2.7 Vision in Planned Models

A number of the change models outlined in Table 2-1 have vision either explicitly described or embedded into the structure. Jick's (1979) change model has as its second step "create a shared vision and a common direction". In a similar manner, the McKinsey 7-S model developed by Tom Peters and Robert Waterman has as its final step "shared value" which is summarised in a vision statement. Kotter's (1995) change model has step 3 as "create a vision for change" and step 4 as communicate the vision. Nutt and Backoff (1997) explain that moving to a new level of organisational complexity calls for vision of a new way of doing things. Deetz, Tracy, & Simpson, (2000, p. 44) emphasise that the urgency for change must be matched by a "compelling notion of what can be" so as to maintain the motivation, support and direction for change.

Vision originally emerged as an organisational concept out of the management by objectives and strategic planning concepts of the 1950s and 1960s (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen. 1995). By the late 1980s and early 1990s, following a number of ground-breaking works on leadership and change management (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Kotter 1995, Kouzes & Posner, 1995), vision was gradually being acknowledged as a recognised concept in literature by researchers and leaders. However, although beginning to appear in the literature of the time, vision was not a commonly accepted feature of corporate culture. Indeed, some successful corporations did not have a clear corporate vision or agreement on a clear direction for the organisation to pursue and follow (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen 1995). Whilst many organisational leaders were embracing the concept of visioning, some notable corporate leaders were not (e.g. Bill

Gates of Microsoft was reported as avoiding visioning, preferring instead to focus on day-to-day running of the organisation (Quigley, 1994).

Kotter and Heskett found that "the single most visible factor that distinguished major cultural changes that succeed from those that failed was competent leadership at the top and in particular a new leader who established a new vision and a set of strategies for achieving that vision" (1992, p. 84).

Bennis (2003, p. ii) recognised that by the early 2000s, the concept of vision had been widely embraced, not just by the corporate world but among leaders of educational institutions, churches, and other non-profit organisations. Bennis's research at that time noted that one of the most critical elements of successful leadership was a clearly articulated vision, which provided a sense of direction, which in turn focused the attention of everyone associated with the organisation. Bennis stated that "it is generally recognised that all successful organisations need not just a clear mission and purpose, but also a widely shared vision and that few leaders can succeed without both".

The literature reveals that effective visions evolve over time. For example, Nutt and Backoff (1997) found that visions are more likely to lead to successful transformation when they incorporate the views of many organisational stakeholders with various interests and ideas. They proposed that visions grow in stages, initially from the leader who incorporates views of key insiders, and then to more insiders as well as key outsiders.

Given the importance that Cricket Australia placed on their vision statement, further detailed information is provided on the role of vision in Section 3 of this literature review.

2.2.8 Leadership of Change

Whilst there are numerous definitions to be found for leadership, one definition that provides an overview of leadership is:

Leadership is the competencies, skills, knowledge, experience and processes needed to positively influence, enable and empower followers to do extraordinary things in all circumstances and to perform at their personal and professional optimum to benefit themselves, the group and the organisation (Waddell, Cummings & Worley 2004, p. 537).

Many researchers consider that leadership theory begins with the “Great Man Theory”. This theory assumes that “great leaders are born, not made” (Hirsch, 2002). Cherry (2011) wrote that it appears as though the right person for the job naturally emerges and takes control of the situation. When thinking about leadership, consideration should be given to different things such as stability, crisis, dynamic conditions and the edge of chaos (Osborn, Hunt & Jauch, 2002). Bititci et al. (2006) consider that there is a dynamic link between leadership and organisational culture and organisational change.

When change is being planned, senior management have some key decisions to make: what change is right for their organisation and how to ensure that the change is correctly implemented (Bruch, Gerber & Maier, 2005). It is expected that successful leaders will create a clear vision, adjust organisational cultures as required and work to generate early successes (Wren & Dulewicz, 2005). Strong leadership is key to successful change. Successful leaders develop and build commitment to change and consider that their own behaviour is critical for success (Miller, 2001).

Leadership, a clear vision statement along with a guiding mission statement are able to lead to successful change (Martin, Jones & Callan, 2005). Senior management has a key role in communicating with and engaging all stakeholders (Sminia & Van-

Nisterrooij, 2006) and may need to alter behaviours when trying to improve performance. These are changes which can act as drivers for successful change (Waclawski, 2002).

It is considered that reviewing change in an organisation such as Australian cricket reveals several factors that support change such as good leadership, an appropriate model of change, room to negotiate or compromise, and well-planned communication (Stewart & Kringas, 2003).

2.2.9 Resistance to Change

Resistance to change is a topic that has been referred to often in the change management literature. Ansoff (1998, p. 207) defines resistance to change as “a multifaceted phenomenon, which introduces unanticipated delays, costs and instabilities into the process of a strategic change”. Zaltman and Duncan (1977, p. 63) define resistance to change as “any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo”. In an organisational setting, resistance is described by Block (1989, p. 199) as “an expression of reservation which normally arises as a response or reaction to change”. Organisational change represents a shift from the known to the unknown, by changing the status quo (Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Eisenbach, Watson & Pillai, 1999). Unless there are compelling reasons for a change, employees generally do not support change (Cummings & Worley, 2005; Lorenzi & Riley, 2000). Resistance to change can be explained by several factors. A key factor that results in employees resisting a change may be linked to feelings of insecurity and uncertainty about the change. Employees do not have a clear understanding of what the future brings and what the consequences will be for themselves (Bordia et al., 2004). Additionally, people have the tendency to spread and hear rumours that tend often to contain negative and potentially threatening information. Consequently, employees may create a selective, negative perception of the change (Cummings &

Worley, 2005). This misunderstanding about the nature and the consequences of the change may be considered to be resistance to change. Where employees have a negative perception, they will be more resistant and reluctant to change due to misunderstandings (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008). When there is inadequate information sharing and communication, humans have the habit of speculating and spreading rumours about the change and want to stick to the status quo (DiFonzio & Bordia 1998; Smeltzer & Zener, 1992), resulting in resistance to the change (Cummings & Worley, 2005).

Resistance to change causes damage to the organisation as well as the individual employee. Resistance to change is considered to be one of the most important causes of failure in the implementation of changes (Kotter & Schlesinger, 2008; Piderit, 2000; Strelbel, 1996). Failure in the process of change is often accompanied by high costs (Lewis, 2011) and a smaller chance of survival in the environment (Lewis, 2011; Levinthal, 1991).

Resistance towards change encompasses behaviours that are acted out by change recipients in order to slow down or terminate an intended organisational change (Hughes, 2006). Resistance to change has long been recognised as a critically important factor that can influence the success of any organisational change effort. It can be said that resistance hinders effective planning so it is therefore a barrier of organisational change. In any organisational change initiative, one of the greatest challenges comes with the awareness that managing change includes managing the reactions to that change (Andriopoulos & Dawson, 2009). Managers often attempt to initiate change without giving appropriate thought to the psychological effect it may have on members of the organisation, especially those who have not been part of the decision to make the change. This therefore means that the success or failure of the change initiative is dependent on good management of the organisation's members in

understanding and accepting the change. Most researchers have recognised that employee resistance is to be expected in any major organisational change initiative. Employee resistance should not simply be treated as an obstacle to be overcome but as a valuable source of knowledge and critique of the change initiative (Strebel, 1998). Resistance is a very important concept which must be given full attention during organisational change initiatives. Resistance can therefore be said to be a reaction or response to change initiatives which is normal and is possible to be managed effectively. Graetz, Rimmer, Lawrence, and Smith. (2006, p. 284) state:

Although the meaning of resistance to change is intuitively clear, how resistance translates into practical change dissension is unclear. Resistance can include a wide range of behaviours, including refusal to engage in joint problem solving, refusal to seek common ground, the silencing of advocates for change, sabotage, the use of sanctions and a general lack of cooperation.

2.2.10 The Nature and Causes of Resistance to Change

In the literature on resistance to change, many researchers have identified that employees resist change because they are afraid of losing something that they value and they do not understand the change and its implications, they do not believe that the proposed change makes sense for the organisation and/or they simply find it difficult to cope with either the level or practice of change (Skoldberg, 1994; Kotter, 1996; Maurer, 1996; Robbins, 1998; Schuler, 2003). The basic idea is that people focus more on their own interests than on those of the organisation. People can have the belief that they will be negatively affected by the change. They might consider that they might lose something they value as a consequence of the change process, neglecting the possible benefits that change can provoke for the whole organisation. This resistant behaviour stems from the consequences on an employee's established relationship with the organisation or the perception of his or her role or place in the

organisation (Van Dijk & Van Dick, 2009). The most common concerns in this category are:

- lack of confidence in management;
- loss of power;
- loss of salary;
- loss of prestige;
- loss of comfort;
- change in working conditions;
- loss of job.

Another reason that has been identified as a reason for resistance to change is different assessments made by initiators of change and by people throughout an organisation. Sometimes people think that the change will not benefit the organisation or that the benefits will not outweigh the costs. They perceive weaknesses in the proposed change initiative, therefore they are unwilling to change. Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009) also point out that people in the organisation have different backgrounds, roles and experiences which can lead them to evaluate the situation differently, even though most people are aware of the necessity for change for the organisations to remain successful.

2.2.11 The Emergent Approach

The emergent approach to change was developed by those who criticised the planned approach, noting that the planned approach to change assumed that the environment was stable and change could be pre-planned (Burnes, 1996). The emergent approach was developed from a critical perspective with authors finding that the planned approach to change and models of change had perceived shortcomings (Dawson, 1994; Pettigrew & Whipp, 1993; Wilson, 1992). Emergent change is change that arises

spontaneously from local innovation and not change that is originally anticipated or intended (Orlikowski & Hofman, 1997).

2.2.11.1 Views of Emergent Change

Researchers who support the emergent approach are considered to be a disparate group who tend to focus on their scepticism regarding planned change but conclude that there is agreement of the main tenets of emergent change:

- Organisational change is a continuous process of experiment and adaptation aimed at matching an organisation's capabilities to the needs and dictates of a dynamic uncertain environment. Though this is best achieved through a multitude of small incremental changes, over time these can lead to a major reconfiguration and transformation of an organisation.
- The role of managers is not to plan or implement changes but to create or foster an organisational structure and climate which encourages and sustains experimentation and risk taking and to develop a workforce that will take responsibility for identifying the need for change and implementing it.
- Though managers are expected to become facilitators rather than doers, they also have the prime responsibility for developing a collective vision or common purpose which gives direction to their organisation, and within which the appropriateness of any proposed change can be judged (Burnes, 1996).

The key organisational activities which allow these elements to operate successfully are: information gathering – about the external environment and internal objectives and capabilities; communication – the transmission, analysis and discussion of information; and learning – the ability to develop new skills, identify appropriate responses and draw knowledge from their own and others' past and present actions (Burnes, 1996).

Emergent change models have their basis in the planned change models, whilst taking into account the need for dealing with an uncertain environment; implementing change incrementally; and changing organisational structures and culture to facilitate risk taking, with managers providing a strategic direction for the organisation.

2.2.12 Opportunity-Based Change

The last of the three approaches to be examined is that of opportunity-based change which is directed more towards technological change. Orlikowski and Hofman (1997) describe opportunity-based change as change that is not anticipated ahead of time but is introduced purposefully and intentionally during the change process in response to an unexpected opportunity, event or breakdown. Orlikowski and Hofman (1997) do not dismiss the other two types of change but instead posit as a third type of change which may be built on over time. To allow opportunity-based change to occur, the authors observe that, rather than predefining each step and then controlling events to fit the plan, management should create an environment that facilitates improvisation. Opportunity-based change is captured in the improvisational model developed by Orlikowski and Hofman (1997).

2.2.13 Other models of change

Pettigrew et al. (2001) attempted to increase the rigour of researchers investigating change by identifying six key issues that students of change should pay attention to. These are:

- multiple contexts;
- the inclusion of time, history, process and action;
- the link between change process and organisational outcomes;
- the investigation of international and cross-cultural comparisons;

- the study of receptivity, customisation, sequencing, pace and episodic change processes versus continuous change processes;
- the partnership between scholars and practitioners in studying organisational change.

Whilst researchers have attempted to heed the advice on the six issues, most have been unable to accommodate all six at the one time.

Mento, Jones, and Dirndorfer. (2002) produced a holistic 12 steps for implementing change based on the work of Kotter (1995), Jick (1991) and Garvin (2000). The first three steps begin with the change idea and the organisational context into which the change is being delivered. The next five steps are devoted to developing a change plan, providing support for the change and preparing the organisation for the change. The 12 steps finish with a focus on quick wins and measurement, along with integrating what has been learnt while, all the time, communicating with the organisation.

Victor and Franckeiss (2002) looked at change from an integrated organisational perspective and developed the five dimensions of change. The dimensions are direct, describe, define, deliver and develop. Within the dimension of “describe”, the authors include the enabling strategy of communication. The strategy is aimed at providing information that will help employees understand the business and to identify what they, as individuals, need to do to contribute.

Researchers have developed new models of change by integrating existing models. Ruta (2005) developed a model by integrating change management and technology acceptance. Leppitt (2006) developed an integrated model of change based on Theory E, practices driven by economic imperatives, and Theory O, practices to improve organisational capability.

Price and Chahal's (2006) six-step process for implementing change was based on a review of the literature, interviews, and case studies of a live change process. The six steps consist of: preparing the organisation, developing a vision and implementation plan, checking, communication and workforce engagement, implementation, and evaluation.

Whilst there is no universally accepted model of change (Bamford & Daniel, 2005) and no single player has the key to success (Smid, Van Hout & Burger, 2006), models of change continue to be used to explore change in organisations. For example, Fernandez and Rainey (2006) have used the Kotter (1995) model to explore change in the public sector. To add to the complexity of choosing a model, it is recognised that there are different approaches to change such as directed change, planned change and guided change (Kerber & Buono, 2005). However, common aspects of all models are that the change: must be aligned to a vision or strategic direction, must be communicated, and requires leadership.

Still, little advice is provided on the change stage of the process. Models use terms such as implementation (Price & Chahal, 2006) and deliver (Victor & Franckeiss, 2002) to describe the change process.

2.2.14 Drivers for Change

There are numerous reasons why organisations may recognise the need to change. These may include the implementation of new technology, increased competition, changes in the nature of their business, globalisation, and changes in the legislative framework within which they operate.

Changes in technology have resulted in changes to the way organisations are structured, their processes, and their ways of communicating with their staff. Many employees no longer need to be based in the same building, city or country, as a result

of communication technologies such as the internet, computers and mobile phones. Increased globalisation has also prompted organisational change (Burnes, 2004; Cheney, Christensen, Zorn, and Ganesh. 2004). For many organisations, their competitors and consumers were once local, regional, and possibly national. However, increasingly, organisations now have to compete in a global marketplace, with their competitors, consumers, suppliers and employees possibly all being international (Zorn, Page & Cheney, 2000). Organisations need to be able to respond to changes in the requirements of their customers and the actions of their competitors (Quirke, 1995). Associated with globalisation and technological changes is the changing nature of the workforce. Whereas once workforces were relatively homogenous (Preskill & Torres, 1999), the modern workforce is increasingly diverse, creating the necessity to adapt to their needs. Quirke (1995) agrees, also suggesting that changes in employee values and in the roles of employees and managers are encouraging change. These multiple imperatives for change have resulted in most organisations continually undertaking varying degrees of change.

According to Nel and Beudeker (2009, p. 165), there is little doubt that organisations are in this present age operating in a world where their market position is under constant attack by both local and global competitors, where tariff or trade barriers are diminishing, and where the speed of technical innovation can erase any market giant in an instant. Therefore, organisations have to adapt and change or they could die and cease to operate, faster than they might believe. Sangamithra (2011) agrees with such a declaration and adds the following elements to the list of components that may drive an organisation to change. Such components are the nature of the workforce, technology, economic shocks, competition, social trends and world politics.

The realisation is that an organisation may be forced to change at any time, and without warning, to cope with four or five sets of overlapping change requirements.

These can range from:

- new technology being introduced as a result of merging with another organisation;
- one organisation being taken over by another firm;
- changes in consumer preferences to social trends; and even
- new legislation that could have been recently enacted Werner, Bagraim, Cunningham, Potgieter, and Viedge (2007, p. 374).

Connelly (2012) agrees and states that “change is real, it can be radical, individuals every day are faced with change”. People ageing is a typical example of individual change, while market decline, economic meltdown, and industries becoming extinct are some typical examples of organisational change that is occurring regularly.

One universally accepted and recognised finding relating to change management is the forces or drivers of change. Robbins and Judge (2007, p. 645) and Greenfield (2010) are of the opinion that these drivers may be exercised from inside or outside the organisation. Kreitner and Kinicki (2001, pp. 659-663) quoted in Werner et al., (2004, p. 374) distinguish between external and internal drivers of change. External forces are global and national dynamics that impact on the organisation. These dynamics may be technological changes, market, political, social and economic changes, and changes in the general labour market. Internal forces are human resource based problems such as low productivity and high labour turnover rate, as well as managerial behaviour/systems such as autocratic inclinations, clumsy systems and poorly designed jobs.

2.2.15 **Planned Versus Emergent Organisational Change**

A trend in the literature has been to try to classify change according to a dichotomous classification schemes (Pettigrew, 2000). One of the most popular dichotomies used by researchers is the planned versus unplanned (or emergent) organisational change dichotomy. This classification of change strategies as being either planned or emergent is one of the most fundamental dichotomies in the organisational change literature (Bamford & Forrester, 2003; Burnes, 2006; Burke, Lake & Paine, 2009; Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009; Pettigrew, 2000).

Traditional planned change management strategies involve sequential steps for altering organisational and individual behaviour. This method is typically employed once decision makers identify a need for change (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009; Burns, 2006) after analysing the environment's inhibiting and enabling forces (Burns, 2005). The twenty first century, however, has been hailed as one of unprecedented change. Business has never been conducted on such a global, collaborative scale (Kanter, 1999, p. 7) or such speed. Today's widespread, fast-moving and complex change is inherently emergent and unpredictable. "We basically do not know what the world of tomorrow will really be like, except that it will be different, more complex, more fast-paced, and more culturally diverse" states Schein (2004, p. 393). It is therefore considered essential that some attention is given to a comparison of planned versus emergent change.

2.2.16 **Emergent Change**

Differences of thought have long existed in the study of organisational change. Over the past 50 years there has been continued debate between researchers who argue on the virtues of planned change versus those who argue that change is in fact emergent (Burke 2010; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Emergent change has evolved largely as a critical

response to the relatively simple determinism of planned change. A main point of contrast comes from the viewpoint that “organisations are never frozen, changed and refrozen, but instead are fluid entities to the extent that there are stages, in which they overlap and interpenetrate one another in important ways”. (Kanter et al., 1992, p. 10). The emergent view is based on the principle that “change is pervasive and indivisible” (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002, p. 569). Emergent change develops as an ongoing, open-ended adaptation to changing conditions (Burnes, 1996; Dawson, 1994). Experimentation and learning drive progress rather than the accomplishment of a pre-specified plan (Mintzberg, 1987; Bamford & Forrester, 2003). Over a period of time new patterns of organising take shape in response to the subtle variations that are produced in the “improvisations” of daily activities (Orlikowski, 1996). These small, ongoing incremental adjustments can produce a large cumulative effect over time.

In relation to emergent change, managerial control is at best limited. The link between cause and effect is unclear since multiple sources of influence may interact to generate outcomes. Furthermore, predefined plans are generally considered as being inappropriate for dynamic and unpredictable organisational and environmental conditions (Orlikowski & Hofman, 1997). In place of a centralised, top-down strategy formation, emergent change calls for a bottom-up approach since those who are directly involved with the change and change processes are more capable of responding to complex and fluctuating circumstances (Bamford & Forrester, 2003).

An underlying topic that permeates descriptions of planned and emergent change is the nature of control. Planned change is characterised by a high level of control while emergent change is characterised by low levels or even the absence of control. These differences are reflected across multiple domains of organisational life including work roles, activities, and objectives. During planned change, interactions and activities are

managed utilising formal structures, procedures, and targets; whilst during emergent change it is a more of an informal process of responding to issues.

2.2.17 Linking Perspectives of the Planned–Emergent Change Duality

A review of literature shows that research has frequently treated planned and emergent change as independent processes. Whilst this appears to be an obvious understanding, on reflection it could be considered to be unnecessarily restrictive and at the same time a potentially damaging view. In the case of planned change, structure becomes rigidity, focus becomes narrow-mindedness, and direction becomes dictatorial. Likewise, emergent change degenerates as flexibility turns to reactivity, responsiveness becomes an inability to focus, and the freedom to innovate turns to chaos.

In most cases, it is unrealistic to adopt the assumption that change will be either perfectly planned or emergent. Even when change plans are completed after undertaking a detailed analysis of the current situation, unexpected events may force organisational members to spontaneously decide on a new course of action. Alternatively, when emergent change produces beneficial patterns of behaviour, it is natural for managers to want to purposefully apply what they have learned from other areas of the organisation, in a manner likened to continuous improvement. The term “continuous improvement” suggests a duality. Continuous refers to an ongoing, unending process which is characteristic of emergent change. Improvement, on the other hand, implies a direction or specific purpose that focuses attention as in planned change (Weick, 2000). Even though the specific connection between action and outcomes may be unclear, it is not “in absence of explicit a priori intentions” as Orlikowski (1996, p. 65) describes emergent processes. Taking this into consideration, researchers and academics should not be asking which approach to change is the

best, but rather how can an organisation simultaneously encourage both types of change processes to enable continuous improvement?

In an attempt to answer this question, it is possible to refer to the work of Livne-Tarandach and Bartunek (2009), who provide some thoughts and insight on how to answer this question. Whilst reviewing the research on duality and paradox management, they identified five main ways that dichotomies such as planned and emergent change have been handled. These approaches vary based the rigidity of the linkages between the two extremes of the dichotomy. The first is “selection” which focuses on one pole while ignoring the other. As previously discussed, a unilateral approach is problematic. “Separation” recognises both ends of a dichotomy but treats them as independent processes that are used sequentially or are appropriate for specific organisational domains. The latter is representative of the contingency approach in which certain conditions call for a specific type of intervention (Burnes, 1996). Given the above outline, we can consider the following example: a planned change approach is frequently recommended for stable operating environments while an emergent change approach is more appropriate for unstable operating environments (e.g. Dunphy & Stace, 1993). Neither of these approaches to duality is suitable for a multi-paradigm study of change.

The remaining three approaches consider the simultaneous presence of both poles in different configurations. “Integration” combines the two poles through compromise. Duality is treated as a continuum in which a move towards one pole requires a trade-off with its opposing pole. An example of this perspective is Mintzberg and Waters’s (1985) categorisation of strategy formation processes along a deliberate-emergent continuum. “Transcendence” involves reframing dichotomies into a reformulated whole. It implies an ability to think paradoxically, whereby organisations attend to competing tensions simultaneously instead of treating them as a choice (Lewis, 2000; Smith &

Lewis, 2011). Original tensions are replaced by new understandings as they are channelled into a new form, representing a redefinition or a unique synthesis (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009). The final approach is “connection” which embraces differences and gives equal status to each pole. Rather than creating something new as in the transcendence approach, the connection approach respects and seeks to learn from inherent differences. Dualities are treated as mutually reinforcing in that both poles are essential to producing optimal performance (Seo, Putnam & Bartunek, 2004).

2.3 Sustainable Change

It is clear from the literature reviewed in this chapter that change management is an integral part of organisational life – simply because business environments never stand still. Whilst a lot of research has been done on implementing change and on the development of change models there has been minimal attention given to strategies and factors that lead to or result in sustainable change. Buchanan et al. (2007) and Humphreys (2007) identified that the literature relating to the implementation of change did not adequately address the sustainability of change. The sustainability of change and factors associated with it have received considerably less attention than the implementation of change and change management models. Whilst there was no plausible reason given regarding the lack of research and literature, Buchanan et al. (2007) explained that the lack of research could be accountable to the fact that researchers considered that outlining how change should be implemented most effectively provided practitioners with more relevant information rather than understanding how change initiatives could be sustained after they have been implemented.

Sustaining organisational change has been viewed as “new working methods and performance levels which persist for a period appropriate to the setting” (Buchanan et al., 2005, p. 190) or similarly “the point at which new ways of working become the norm

and the underlying systems and ways of working become transformed” (Greenhalgh, 2004, p. 32). Sustaining change is an important and distinct component of the change process, not a one-time event. It begins in the planning stage when the change efforts are first introduced, continues with maintenance after the initial implementation of change, and then extends to capitalise on early successes and spread innovation, where changes become part of the culture (Century & Levy, 2002; Cummings & Worley, 2005; Jacobs, 2002; Scott, 2003). This is an issue that has attracted limited attention (Buchanan et al., 2005, p. 190).

For change to be sustained, it must fit the organisational values and core beliefs. Within a changing organisation, individuals need the knowledge, skills and competence to carry out that change, and to continue until the intended goals have been accomplished (Century & Levy, 2002; Jacobs, 2002). This can be difficult because, according to Senge et al. (1999), organisations have immune systems to change that are geared towards maintaining the status quo. For the purpose of this research, the definition of sustainable change as described by Buchanan (2007, p. 189) is “the process through which new working methods, performance goals and improvement trajectories are maintained for a period appropriate to a given context”.

If an organisation aspires to successfully and effectively implement and sustain its own organisational transformation, then it must adhere to and operationalise the core tenets of change management. Organisations must continuously update themselves and change in line with their environmental conditions (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). The following attributes are recurring themes in the literature and research on actualising effective and sustainable organisational change:

1. Define and understand the problem. Individuals at all levels of the organisation need to have an understanding of the problem and the need for change (Vaccaro et al., 2012).

2. Senior leadership must be actively engaged and visible. Leaders foster change and create an environment where change is the norm (Lewis, 2011).
3. Identify and develop the model for change.
4. Acknowledge and understand the organisational culture. Beliefs, values and behaviours of employees within the organisation contribute to the organisational culture (Lewis, 2011).
5. Establish achievable goals and a forward-thinking vision. A forward-thinking vision outlines what the final results will look like (Lewis, 2011).
6. Functional leaders must be engaged and participative before, during and after transformational implementation.
7. Promote active over-communication of the goals and vision in perpetuity.

2.4 Challenges to Successful Sustainable Change

Change and innovation are processes, not one-time events, and significant time and effort are required to make planned strategic change efforts successful. In the absence of considerable planning and forethought, organisational leaders are in most cases unable to achieve the results which they considered were achievable. According to Grotevant (1998), the chance of successfully implementing change initiatives can be linked to the existence of preconditions within an organisation. Primarily, it is the organisational leader's commitment and sponsorship of the change initiative, people (organisational members), and the culture, that will ultimately determine the success or failure of the project (Hammer, 2004; Peppard & Rowland, 1995).

Specific obstacles to successful sustainable change efforts include lack of sustained top management commitment and support; lack of effective communication; lack of

proper training for employees to attain new skills; failure to cope with resistance to change; lack of flexibility in the organisation; failure to acknowledge the organisational culture; failure to assign the best personnel to work on the project; and failure to understand or use the concepts of change management (Attaran, 2000; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Grotevant, 1998). The existence of any one of these conditions may severely impact on the likelihood of a change initiative being successfully adopted and sustained within an organisation.

2.4.1 Leadership Factors

The support and guidance of organisational leaders is considered essential to the successful planned change initiative. Leadership and support are considered mandatory for gaining buy-in from lower levels of the organisation. Whilst the size and scope of the change initiative will dictate, to some extent, the level of support needed, the necessity for consistent and persistent leadership throughout the process, and beyond, cannot be minimised. Involvement and intervention at critical points will encourage a nurturing environment for change to help sustain the momentum (Burke, 2002; Herkness, Kettinger, and Segars., 1996; Peppard & Rowland, 1995). According to Herkness et al. (1996), the ongoing involvement and commitment of highly influential individuals is important to the endurance of change initiatives.

2.4.2 Human Factors

Change initiatives are influenced more by people and culture than by anything else. People and culture also present the greatest challenges to implementing change (Attaran, 2000; Burke, 2002; Grotevant, 1998; Wellins & Murphy, 1995). Whilst some individuals will embrace and facilitate change, others will try to resist and, even worse, attempt to sabotage change efforts. Resistors and saboteurs may feel threatened or anxious about the planned changes as well as new roles and structures. This is a

difficult and complex managerial challenge and often not enough attention is paid to the human issues. Management must be persistent and proactive in dealing with resistance to change and setting the stage for change (Bergquist, 1992; Burke, 2002; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Herkness et al., 1996).

Training is one of the most important components to supporting employees in new work environments. Fear and uncertainty are most likely to be reduced if individuals have the required skills to perform as expected in new roles or positions (Jacobs, 2002). Employee involvement and participation in the design and implementation of change will prove more effective than an autocratic process in which the managers make almost all the decisions (Cameron & Tschirhart, 1992; Pascale et al., 1997; Fullan & Miles, 1992).

2.4.3 Cultural Factors

The culture of an organisation embodies the accepted norms, expected behaviours, and shared values that create meaning for individuals about their work and their organisation (Bergquist, 1992; Schein, 1985). Brown, Condor, Mathews, Wade, and Williams, (1989, p. 8) defined organisational culture as:

...the pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organization's history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviours of its members...

Schein (1985, p. 9) provided a similar definition of organisational culture:

Organization culture is a pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external integration, and that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.

The techniques and strategies used in change initiatives must fit with the specific program needs and organisational culture, and have value that the stakeholders can understand (Attaran, 2000; Bergquist, 1992; Herkness et al., 1996). Flexibility in the culture and the organisation lays a foundation that is open to planned change.

2.5 Change Within Sporting Organisations

This section of the literature review will briefly introduce the subject of change within sports organisations. The widespread expansion of the sports industry has led to inevitable organisational change for sports organisations (Saeki, 1994). As described by Nicholson and Hoye (2008), change is one of the most visible features of sports organisations. Sports organisations must be able to adapt their structures, products and services, internal processes, use of technology and the way people operate to succeed (Amis et al., 2004). Contemporary sports organisations are required to provide a constantly marketable product to a set of highly demanding external stakeholders (e.g. fans, media, sponsors (Mielke, 2007)) for the organisation to achieve both its short-term and long-term goals.

Major changes have taken place in sport in recent years; for example: radical changes in the way that sport is organised and managed; continuity and change in governance and decision making in sports organisations; the emergence of professionalisation within sport; changes in the delivery of sport; strategic change and the role of interests, power and organisational capability; and the pace, sequence and linearity of radical change. Rationalisation and bureaucratisation are words that have previously been used to describe change in many sports organisations; however, recent research refers more to professionalisation. These three terms can be viewed as a formalisation process of moving from amateur status to a more professional status (Gomez, Opazo, and Marti, 2008). The professional status refers not only to the transition of athletes from amateurs to professionals, but it also refers to the formalisation of activities and

procedures inside sports organisations and the integration of paid professional staff (Gomez et al., 2008).

National sporting organisations (NSOs) represent their respective sports at the national and international level, and provide direction to the state sporting associations (SSAs) (Westerbeek et al., 1995). The professionalisation of sport at these levels is most evident over the past 20 years and is visible through exposure in print and television media (Mills, 1994). Money is injected into some sports through television rights and sponsorship, giving those sports greater leverage at all levels, such as prize money or salaries for athletes in the premier competition. Although, initially it was the players and sport leagues that became professional through competition, professional management was also required to support the players and competitions, especially at the elite/high performance level (Hoye et al., 2006). Money from the professional levels of these sports filters down to become available for the employment of development officers who service clubs and schools on behalf of the sport at the *grass roots* level (Shilbury et al., 2006). Sports like cricket and the National Rugby League (NRL) have the greatest opportunities to pay their athletes and other staff, advertise nationally and provide development officers to expose their sport to the next generation, because of the money available to the sport from television rights and sponsorship endorsements (Shilbury et al., 2006).

Professionalisation is viewed as an internal process for sports organisations. It has developed through sport becoming popular within its environment, and therefore becoming a vehicle used to generate substantial revenues. In turn, organisations such as NSOs have been able to employ professional staff (Stewart, 2007) and apply more sophisticated human and technical resources to their operations. The result for corporate sport organisations is a “transition from purely volunteer-administered

organisations to organisations managed increasingly by professional staff supported by a cadre of volunteers” (Shilbury & Moore, 2006, p. 5).

The commercialisation process refers to emerging commercial opportunities and their impact on sport organisations (O’Brien & Slack, 2004). These opportunities “challenge traditional operations and processes, pushing (organisations) towards the development of new strategies particularly related to marketing” (Gomez et al., 2008, p. 14). While professionalisation refers to the internal development of the organisation, commercialisation exists as an external force, highlighting the evolution of the relationship between the organisation and its environment. This relationship has shifted from “one based on the dependence of the organisation on its environment for survival, to one based on the exploitation of revenue opportunities existing in the environment” (Gomez et al., 2008, p. 16).

The impact of professionalisation and commercialisation has been significant for sport organisations in recent decades. The growth and development of the sport industry and associated “challenges imposed by new characteristics of sport” have encouraged “sport organisations to professionalise their activities and define new relationships with their environment” (Gomez et al., 2008, p. 16). Notably, the “transition of national sport governing bodies (NSOs) from traditional to more professional structures is a recurrent feature of the evolution of national sport systems” (Madella, Bayle & Tome, 2005, p. 207).

A number of studies conducted in the last 10-15 years examined specific aspects of NSOs or SSAs, including decision making (Auld, 1997; Auld & Godbey, 1998), organisational structure and leadership (Amis & Slack, 1996; Frisby, 1986b; Papadimitriou, 1999; Slack, 1985), roles of the organisation (Inglis, 1997a, 1997b), organisational effectiveness in NSOs in Australia (Shilbury & Moore, 2006) and the changing nature of NSOs (Kikulis, Slack & Hinings, 1992; Slack & Hinings, 1992).

Many of these studies investigated and focused attention on the Canadian sports system (Amis, Slack & Berrett, 1995; Frisby, 1986b; Inglis, 1997a; Slack, 1985). In the past, the Canadian system, with its strong club structure, had similarities to Australia. However, with increased government funding, many sport organisations became professionalised earlier in Canada than in Australian (Hall, Slack, Smith, & Whitson.,1992).

In Australia during the 1990s there was a lack of research into “Australian non-profit voluntary sport organizations” (Hoye & Auld, 2001, p. 108). However, from the turn of the twenty-first century, there have been a number of studies published on community sport organisations (Cuskelly, Taylor, Hoye, & Darcy, (2006) ; Doherty & Carron, 2003; Doherty, Patterson & Van Bussel, 2004; Nichols & James, 2008; Papadimitriou, 2002) as this level of sport organisation is recognised as an important domain for research. Gaining an understanding of how change is successfully implemented in a complex sporting environment is expected to add to the ever-expanding body of knowledge on change management.

The increasing interest in understanding and explaining organisational change within sports organisations has seen a growth in academic literature on this topic, accompanied by theoretical perspectives on change (Cairns, 1987; Slack, 1997; Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003; Lyras, 2009). Sport has emerged as an industry sector on its own, with a number of studies and estimates that it makes a major contribution to economic and commercial activity, both within and across national boundaries. There are a multitude of challenges facing managers in sport, many of which have only emerged over the last 10 to 20 years. There is a real need to understand the challenges faced by sport managers, and what are the most effective ways of managing them.

2.5.1 Impact of Commercialism on National Sport Organisations (NSOs)

Both professionalisation and commercialisation have led to change and understanding the impact on sport organisations is relevant to this thesis. Some of the key impacts relevant to NSOs are outlined below. The discussion below highlights facets of change which are considered relevant for this study. Relevant to this research are: strategic processes, structure, change management and operating networks.

2.5.1.1 *Strategic Management in Sport*

Strategic management involves analysing an organisation's position in the market place, determining its direction and goals, selecting an appropriate strategy and then leveraging its distinctive assets to achieve its goals (Hoye, Nicholson & Smith, 2007). For example, one of the biggest challenges in developing an appropriate strategy for a sporting organisation is finding the right balance between two or more divergent obligations: seeking elite team success whilst at the same time growing participation levels. Balancing the allocation of resources between these two is inherently difficult due to the high cost of competing in elite competition and the intensive work required to increase participation levels in sport where competition for an individual's leisure time is fierce.

Developing a strategy is widely regarded as an important element for any organisation to influence the likelihood of success (Miles & Snow, 1978; Porter, 1980). Organisations that develop strategies are more likely to have clear objectives, an ability to cope with changes in their operating environment, enable greater coordination of the efforts of employees and may display improved organisational performance and success (Miller, 1988). Strategic management has been conceptualised as comprising three components: strategy formulation, strategy content and strategy implementation (Stone, Bigelow, & Crittenden, 1999).

Strategic planning is an organisation's process of defining its strategy and making decisions about resource allocation (including its capital and people) to pursue this strategy (Thibault, Slack & Hinings, 1993). Similarly, it has been defined as a "pattern of purposes, policies, programs, actions, decisions, or resource allocations that define what an organisation is, what it does and why it does it" (Bryson, 1990, p. 166). A key factor in the success of any organisation is the development of a viable strategy (Miles & Snow, 1978; Mintzberg, 1987; Thibault et al., 1993). Adequate strategic approaches are allied with better clarity and guidance for employees, improved performance, and an enhanced ability proactively respond to environmental uncertainty (Slack & Parent, 2006).

Within management literature, types of strategies employed by organisations, and the goal setting and strategic processes used within organisations, can be all identified. Much of this research is transferable to sport organisations. However, formal strategy was not considered in sport organisation planning until the 1990s (Slack & Hinings, 1994; Slack & Parent, 2005; Thibault et al., 1991; Thibault et al., 1993). As a result, little academic research had been conducted on strategic processes in non-profit sport organisations (Montarnari & Bracker, 1986; Thibault & Slack, 1994).

2.5.1.2 Structure

Complex sport organisations can be viewed as having multiple sub-environments (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). The evolution of sport organisations allows NSOs to be seen as incorporating such complexity; for example, they now have both sporting and commercial environments. The need to address each of these sub-environments has given rise to new and more diverse sub-units within NSO structures, which, in line with theoretical advances on structure, require enhanced commitment to methods of achieving coordination to produce performance (Blau, 1970).

To illustrate this, the vast differences which exist between NSO functions both in their goals and the environments in which they operate should be considered. For example, a modern NSO is likely to have a structural sub-unit which deals with junior sport programs and development (a traditional sporting function) as well as having a sub-unit responsible for sponsorship or media rights (a commercial function).

The change in NSOs has been most evident is the increased size, scope and depth of their resources, both human and financial. This growth has led to an increased breadth of NSO responsibilities, and a consequence an increase in the number of paid and volunteer staff. Additionally, this differentiation and evolution of governance relationships, revenue sources, stakeholders and operating networks extends the differentiation and complexity of corporate NSO sub-environments, strategies and resultant structures.

2.5.1.3 Operating Network

Presented with a requirement to service multiple environments and accomplish a greater number of performance outcomes, the operating network of the NSO now encompasses numerous external stakeholders. Stakeholders include traditional members such as international, national, state and local organisations as part of sport governance networks, the government itself, sport institutes, drug agencies, athletes, coaches and other support staff, as well as media partners and sponsors.

These stakeholders consist of a diverse network of individuals and organisations, and form highly differentiated sub-environments within NSOs. “The organisational models represented by actors in the sports network are significantly different entities whose origin, mission, structure and outputs traditionally differ fundamentally from one to another” (Wolfe et al., 2002, p. 614). The entities involved (NSOs and partners) have different objectives, roles and functions, and this affects their ability to coordinate

operations within the system or network. Conflict over goals and issues of power distribution among NSO network members therefore become significant issues for corporate NSOs. The need to coordinate organisations within the NSO network places demands on NSO structure.

Numerous authors address the transformation change that relates to small volunteer-based NSOs becoming large professional institutions (Slack & Hinings, 1992; O'Brien & Slack, 2003; Cousens, Babiak & Slack, 2001). An example of this is where they look at accounting for the complex nature of organisational change and suggest that it is best accomplished following a combination of theoretical approaches (Slack & Hinings, 1992; Slack, 1997; Lyras & Welty Peachet, 2011) or determine the direction of change within organisations and suggest determining a balance of “top-down” structural change and “bottom-up” improvements in organisational culture and capabilities as suggested by Beer and Nohria (2000). Slack and Hinings (1992) highlight the role and importance of change agents in organisational change. In other words, they are referring to individuals who are capable of leading and implementing change, and their need to commit to the vision, and overcome pockets of resistance along with having the energy and enthusiasm to drive change and develop a new culture within the organisation. Having transformational leadership provided by change agents is considered critical to the success of change.

Managing a sports organisation at the start of the twenty-first century involved the application of management theories, principles and strategies that are no different for managing organisations in the corporate, government or non-profit sectors (Hoye, Nicholson & Smith, 2007). The management of sport organisations has undergone a relatively rapid period of professionalisation over the last 25-30 years as sport has become a significant industry in its own right (Hoye, Nicholson & Smith, 2008, pp. 501-509). Sport employs many millions of people around the world, is played or watched by

the majority of the world's population and at the elite level, has moved from being an amateur pastime to a significant industry. This growth and professionalisation of sport has led to changes in the way that sport is consumed, produced and managed at all levels.

2.5.2 Strategic Management in Sport

Strategic management involves analysing an organisation's position in the market place, determining its direction and goals, selecting an appropriate strategy and then leveraging its distinctive assets to achieve its goals (Hoye, Nicholson & Smith, 2007). It has been noted that one of the biggest challenges in developing an appropriate strategy for a sporting organisation is finding the right balance between two or more divergent obligations: seeking elite team success whilst at the same time improving participation levels. Balancing the allocation of resources between these two is inherently difficult due to the high cost of competing in elite competition and the intensive work required to increase the participation level in sport where competition for an individual's leisure time is fierce.

Developing a strategy is widely regarded as an important element for any organisation to influence the likelihood of success (Miles & Snow, 1978; Porter, 1980). Organisations that develop strategies are more likely to have clear objectives, an ability to cope with changes in their operating environment, enable greater coordination of the efforts of employees, and may display improved organisational performance and succeed (Miller, 1988). Strategic management has been conceptualised as comprising three components: strategy formulation, strategy content and strategy implementation (Stone et al., 1999).

Viljoen (1994) describes strategic planning as "the process of identifying, choosing and implementing activities that will enhance the long term performance of an organization

by setting directions and by creating an ongoing compatibility between the internal skills and resources of an organization and the changing external environment in which it operates". Barry & Stewart (1997) emphasises the leadership role and management decisions and states that it is "what an organization intends to achieve and how leadership within an organization will utilize its resources to achieve its ends". Salk and Schneider (2009, p. 70) state that leaders are "effective communicators, share information on a consistent basis, and articulate a strong vision to subordinates ... encouraging higher levels of organizational commitment to learning". They identified how important leaders are in getting an organisation to adapt to change.

2.6 Vision

Mission and vision are important elements in setting worth on any institution's work. A mission statement is about why the organisation exists and a vision statement is about where the organisation is going. This distinction amplifies a unique difference between the role of the mission and vision. The researcher examined the role and value of vision for the purposes of this literature review.

It is acknowledged that a vision can play a role in the success or failure of a change initiative. In one of the most well-known change management models, John Kotter's eight-step model, the third step is to develop a change vision and strategy. The change vision and strategy give the organisation a picture of what the future looks like after the change is implemented. The vision paints a picture for key stakeholders of why they should let go of the past, sacrifice and work hard in the present, and follow senior leadership into the future. It creates a sensible and appealing picture of the future, and it provides guidance for organisational decision making.

A vision can provide both a corporate sense of being and a sense of enduring purpose. While incorporating a measure of today's success, a vision transcends day-to-day

issues. And, by providing meaning in both the present and the future, vision can empower and encourage leaders and followers to implement change (Sullivan & Harper, 1996). Hence the topic of vision is being examined in more depth in this literature review.

2.6.1 Vision as an emerging concept

Vision emerged as an organisational concept out of the management by objectives and strategic planning concepts of the 1950s and 1960s ((Bycio, Hackett, & Allen 1995)). By the late 1980s and early 1990s a number of researchers examining management, leadership and change management (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Kotter, 1995) identified and recognised vision as a concept.

Many projects, can be viewed as change management events. The deliver envisaged benefits through the vehicle of a 'project' that has been conceived, designed and delivered. These types of project change the state and level of benefits realization before the project was initiated to that which is evident after the project has been delivered. Turner and Cochrane (1993, p95) Christenson and Walker (2008).

Although present in the literature of the time, vision was not a uniform or unanimously accepted feature of corporate culture. A number of successful and well-known corporations did not have a clear corporate vision or agreement on a clear direction for the corporation to pursue ((Bycio, Hackett, & Allen 1995)). Whilst many organisational leaders were embracing the concept of visioning, there were still some notable corporate leaders who did not. Bill Gates of Microsoft, for example, avoided visioning, preferring instead to focus on the day-to-day running of his business (Quigley, 1994). Kotter and Heskett (1992, p. 84) found that the single most visible factor that distinguishes major cultural changes that succeed from those that fail is competent

leadership at the top, and in particular “a new leader who established a new vision and a set of strategies for achieving that vision”.

By the early 1990s, according to Quigley (1994), vision was a topic that was starting to be discussed by a number of researchers; however, little thought was being given to defining the content of a vision. Within a few years this was changing as vision was gradually being accepted as a must-have in business.

Bennis (2003) noted that by the early 2000s the idea of vision had been widely embraced, not only in the corporate world but among leaders of non-profit organisations such as educational institutions, religious and sporting organisations. Bennis’s research at the time found that one of the most critical elements of successful leadership was a clearly articulated vision, or sense of direction, to focus the attention of everyone associated with the organisation.

2.6.2 The purpose of a vision

This section explores how the purpose of a vision is depicted in literature, including how it appears in the literature on change management and strategic decision making, and its role in capturing the hearts, minds, and energy of the members of an organisation. The need for vision during change initiatives was explored by Jick (1991) and Kotter (1995) and is specifically mentioned in their change models. Yukl (2002, p. 283) states that “during the hectic and confusing process of implementing major change, a clear vision helps to guide and coordinate the decisions and actions of thousands of people working in widely dispersed locations”. Hunt (1999) referred to vision as providing the direction and sustenance for change, something that can assist to navigate through times of crisis, thereby reminding people to look beyond the day-to-day and look forward to the desired end state.

The role of leaders in ensuring that their vision fulfils this purpose is to be the dream-makers, those whose prepare and communicate compelling visions and deeply held values that they hope will inspire and make a difference. These leaders take responsibility for the world they live in and are committed to making it better. Also, according to Hunt (1999, p. 12), these leaders “clearly see the current reality and unflinchingly confront it, they have a deep faith that any challenge can be overcome”.

Peters (1987) analysed and wrote about change initiatives of the late 1980s, about it being a time of chaos, when corporate America suffered declines in both productivity and service. Peters described a need for a management revolution to address the decline, contending that the term “excellence” must be redefined to denote constant improvement and constant change and that “excellent firms of tomorrow will cherish impermanence and thrive on chaos” (1987, p. 4), with vision being one of the key factors that will help firms survive. Peters advanced his definition of vision in an article noting that “to be effective, a vision must be crystal clear. While compromise is necessary to build a consensus for action, the best leaders are adamant that the main theme not get so enlarged or diluted so as to become insipid” (2008, p. 10).

Addressing the role of vision in strategic decision making, Baum, Locke and Kirkpatrick (1998) studied the role of vision in relation to an organisation’s success. Baum et al.’s study examined the properties of vision on the performance of the organisation as a whole, asking whether a vision statement significantly affected organisational performance and, if so, what features comprised an effective vision. In relation to the first question, Baum et al. collected data from 183 entrepreneur-CEOs and evaluated their visions on the features they identified in the literature, and concluded that both vision content and how it is communicated do significantly affect organisational performance and subsequent growth compared with other organisations that do not

have defined visions (1998, p. 43). Addressing this second question, the features that comprise vision, will be discussed below.

Sandstrom and Smith (2008) examined the role of vision in the success of an organisation in their work on Legacy Leadership, advising that “every leader is responsible for establishing and communicating a vision and this is considered to be vital to organizational success”. A vision is what defines success for that organisation and for each individual. Defining a vision is how an effective leader operates. “Great leaders live today the legacy they want to have tomorrow” (Sandstrom & Smith, 2008, p. 36).

Blanchard and Stoner (2004) agree on the important role of vision. They note that, during their studies on leadership and organisations, they discovered that having a clear vision and direction which has been championed by management and implemented by others is one of the critical factors that is driving world-class organisations. “A vision is important for leaders because leadership is about going somewhere. Great leaders prepare others by blending people around a shared vision” (Blanchard & Stoner, 2004, p. 22). Similarly, Kotter and Heskett (1992, p. 40) detail that the results of their study of different firms identified that “organisations with a strong corporate culture based on a foundation of shared values outperformed other firms by large margins (in terms of growth, revenue, higher job creation, rise in stock prices, and profit performance)”.

Snyder and Graves (1994, p. 1) suggested that a vision provides a leader with strategic direction and is a target toward which a leader aims his or her energy and resources. The constant presence of the vision keeps a leader and employees moving despite various forces of resistance such as fear of failure, emotional hardships, or practical difficulties.

Walsh (2008, p. 6) outlined his thoughts on the role of vision, suggesting that “the key purpose of a vision is to ensure that people retain control of their futures”. Walsh (2008) argues that there are only two futures for individuals and organisations – “the one we create for ourselves through proactive actions, including visioning; and the future others create for us”.

Kouzes and Posner (1995, p. 124) stated that “there are many positive results from having a vision statement, among them are significantly higher levels of job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, loyalty, clarity about the organization’s values, pride in the organization, and organizational productivity”.

To summarise, whilst exact definitions and understandings of the purpose of a vision may vary, there seems to be a general consensus that vision has an important role to play in leadership.

2.6.3 A Shared Vision

Bennis (1982), Senge (1990), and Kouzes and Posner (2007) all found that a shared vision is vital to the success of an organisation. In addition, Roueche et al. (1989), Lappas (1996), and Martin, McCormack, Fitzsimons and Spirig (2014) confirmed the importance of shared vision.

In organisations, having a shared vision is vital to success. Business thought leaders such as Kouzes and Posner (2002) share this notion. For instance, one of the five practices of exemplary leadership in Kouzes and Posner’s *Leadership Challenge* is “inspiring a shared vision”. The researchers found that the second most important characteristic of a leader, next to honesty, is the ability to be forward-thinking and they stated: “The only visions that take hold are shared visions...” (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, para. 6). A shared vision is one in which others can see themselves in the future the leaders have painted (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Senge (1990) introduced the concept of a shared vision in his work on learning organisations. In his work on learning organisations, Senge challenged leaders to develop an organisational vision based on the individual, personal visions of the people who work in the organisation rather than imposing a vision from the top down. Senge clearly articulated the point of a shared vision, noting that “few, if any, forces in human affairs are as powerful as shared vision” (1990, p. 206). Senge noted that utilising a shared vision approach requires that people first have their own individual vision; if not, all they can do is sign up to implement someone else’s vision, an action of compliance rather than of commitment (1990, p. 211). Senge expanded on this latter point by commenting further on commitment – that is, having others buy into the vision – suggesting that there is a large difference between selling a vision and enrolling others in that vision. Senge (1990) suggested, that in general, selling a vision meant getting people to do something they might not do if they were not in possession of all of the facts or providing hope to people; enrolling, on the other hand, implies free choice, “placing one’s name on the roll”, becoming part of something by choice and therefore committed to making the vision happen (Senge, 1990, p. 218). While enrolment exceeded “being sold” in terms of commitment to the vision, Senge advocated that a vision that is developed together, a shared vision, is the ideal.

The need for vision may have been specifically required when Senge (1990) was studying the learning organisation, as the 1990s was a period in which decentralisation and “flattening” of work units became organisational trends. Referring to these trends, Collins and Porras (1991) posed the question, “How can a company decentralize and at the same time have a coherent, coordinated effort?” (Senge, 1990, p. 30). Their response to the question involved the development of a shared organisational vision.

Kouzes and Posner (2007) agreed with shared organisational visions, refuting the idea that a leader’s individual visions are what inspire others, and suggesting that, while

followers expect a leader to be forward-looking, they do not expect to hear “divinely inspired revelations” (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p. 208). Instead, followers want to hear about their own aspirations, how their own dreams will come true and how their own hopes will be fulfilled. “They want to see themselves in the picture of the future the leader is painting. The best leaders then understand that they must inspire a shared vision, one that emphasizes we vs. I” (Kouzes & Posner, 2007, p. 208).

2.6.4 Features of an effective vision

While there is general accord in the literature that leaders need a vision, there is less consistency when it comes to recommending the various elements or features that a leader should have in his or her vision. This section synthesises the specific features that the literature suggests must be present in an effective vision

2.6.5 A Vision as Issuing a Challenge

One recommendation that appears strongly in the literature is that of a vision needing to contain a challenge or a goal that is issued from leaders to followers. Nanus (1990, p. 17), for instance, suggested that leaders incorporate a statement in their visions presenting a challenge or a worthwhile long-range target towards which people can direct their energies. The importance of issuing such a challenge in the vision is explained by Quigley (1994), who noted that leaders understand that life is a process of competition and selection, “leaders must compete for attention in their followers who will (or will not) then decide to engage in the leader’s vision”. Leaders compete for the hearts and minds of those who follow them and therefore those who will (or, again because of competition and selection, will not) join in the vision. The leader’s vision provides a road map to the future, suggesting guidelines on how people are to act and interact to attain what they regard as desirable. Quigley (1994, p.37) concluded that “a

leader's vision is the bedrock of success for meeting the twin tests of competition and selection”.

Randall (2010, p. 12) related that vision and goals should be challenging in order to force managers and co-workers to think differently. The leader's role is to set the tone, making it clear that being average is not good enough. In identifying the goals that are more than “good enough”, Collins and Porras (1991, p. 43) coined the phrase “big, hairy, audacious goal” (or BHAG, pronounced Bee-hag) that became part of organisational vernacular of the time. Finally, Sandstrom and Smith (2008, p. 51) gave an example of an effective challenge issued in a vision statement issued by John F. Kennedy in the 1960s. Kennedy challenged the United States' space program to put a man on the moon within the decade and bring him home safely, a formidable task at the time when there was no knowledge or technology to support the vision.

2.6.6 Vision as a Destination

Thornberry (1997, p. 30) states “the crux of the vision concept embodies purpose, values and mission, in a picture of how the future organisation will look and operate”. This vivid description is a state to be aspired to, not yet real but what the organisation would aspire to be in the future. The concept of a vision as a road map to a future destination was suggested by Toffler, Toffler and Gibson (1998):

Blanchard and Carey (2006, p. 156) stated “great leadership is about going somewhere. Great leadership both leads and focuses first on developing a compelling vision, a vision that tells people in your organization who you are (your purpose), where you are going (your picture of the future), and what will guide your journey to get there (your values).”

Senge (1990) argued that the most effective visions, which he called positive visions, are those that challenge people to change and grow. Positive visions address the

questions of What do we want? and Where to we want to be in the future? Senge (1990, p. 4) stated “two sources of energy motivate organizations: fear and aspirations. The first of these, fear, can produce extraordinary changes in short periods, but the second, aspirations, endures as a source of learning and growth over time.”

Kouzes and Posner (1995, p. 94) state “if leaders are going to take us to places that we’ve never been before, they should have a sense of direction”. This statement probably sums up the concept of vision as a destination clearly and succinctly.

2.6.7 Vision and Shared Values

Another feature of an effective vision in the literature on leadership is the concept of vision as a shared value. Collins and Porras (1991) referred to a vision as having a guiding philosophy that serves as a system of motivating, assumptions, principles, values, and tenets. Kolzow (1999), writing about vision in the context of strategic planning, agreed that a vision must contain a picture of the future that includes shared values. Kolzow (1999, p. 45) details that “a vision encompasses values that are worthwhile and important to people. They are abstract ideas that influence thinking and action. They the deep-seated, pervasive standards that influence almost every aspect of our lives: our moral judgments, our responses to others, and our commitments to personal and organizational goals.”

2.6.8 Visions Span Timelines

Within the leadership literature, there are recommendations that leaders refer to the past, the present and the future. This same idea was also identified when researching information on visions (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Finkelstein, Harvey & Lawton, 2008; Yukl, 2002). In the early literature, Peters (1987, p. 404) outlined that “an effective vision can assist people to prepare for the future but not totally forget the past. The vision will

draw upon enduring themes to make people feel more confident about stepping out in new directions so as to be able to deal more confidently with a brave new world.”

2.6.9 Communicating the Vision

It may seem intuitive but leaders need to communicate their vision, if for no other reason than to ensure that followers understand it, will commit to it and, especially, that they will act to implement it. Although references to leaders needing to have a vision appear frequently in the literature, there is little attention paid to or focused on communicating the vision. Bennis (1994, 2010), Bennis and Nanus (2003) and Kotter (1995) do note that a vision must be communicated to be effective.

2.6.10 The Need to Communicate the Vision

There is general agreement in the literature among those who address the need to communicate vision that communicating a vision is a critical component of having a vision. Blanchard and Carey (2006, p. 157) state, “a clear vision and direction starts at the top with management and must be communicated throughout the organization by the leader”. Kotter (1995) in step 4 of his eight-step change model details the need to communicate the vision. Kotter notes that what you do with your vision after you create it will determine your success. Your message will probably have strong competition from other day-to-day communications within the organisation, so it is important that it is communicated frequently and powerfully, and is embedded within everything that you do. Don't just call special meetings to communicate your vision. Instead, talk the vision every chance you get. Where possible, use the vision daily to make decisions and solve problems. When you keep it fresh on everyone's minds, they'll remember it and respond to it.

Conger and Kanungo (1998) supported the importance of a leader communicating a compelling vision through personal communication, and Bennis (1999) noted that a

leader must to be able to impart the vision to the whole organisation and that he or she must have the capacity to clearly articulate his or her vision. Kouzes and Posner (1995, p. 124) highlighted the need for communicating vision, stating “it isn’t just enough for a leader to have a vision for an organization, they need to realise its potential so as to be able to successfully implement change; its members must understand, accept, and commit to the vision”.

2.6.11 Summary of Vision

In summary, while there is way to guide and manage people, it is considered important for leaders to have an understanding of the critical importance of having a vision and on leaders needing to be able to communicate the vision, there is very little in the literature to guide leaders on how specifically to use language to communicate vision. Having established that vision is important to leaders, what seems to be missing in the literature is the need for vision to be articulated clearly and in a way that is easily understood.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the areas of change management, change management models, the implementation of change, the sustainability of change, change within sporting organisations and the role of vision in guiding an organisation from where it currently is to its desired future state. The primary aim of this chapter was to provide an overview of relevant literature and to critically reflect on how the literature has contributed to the framing of the research questions and how this will influence the empirical work that will be performed. An organisation, and especially a sports organisation, needs to consider these areas when implementing change, especially if they require the change to be sustainable. Having an understanding and appreciation for each of these areas bolsters the likelihood of success of the change initiative.

In summary, the key change management sources and insights identified were:

- Change management focusing on the planned approach to change (Lewin, 1952; Jick, 1991; Kotter, 1995) provided a useful starting point for a structured framework for examining change. A planned approach to change has been debated as no longer being relevant. However, for the most part Cricket Australia have chosen to adopt a planned approach to change and this planned approach will be investigated in this thesis.
- The role of leadership, human factors and cultural factors (Buchanan et al., 2007; Stewart & Kringas, 2003; Martin, Jones & Callan, 2005) were identified as key factors for successful, sustainable change. Leadership in a complex sporting environment such as Cricket Australia (a hierarchical organisation) results in change being driven from the top. Strategic alignment of the organisation (Bruch et al., 2005) highlighted a link between leadership, strategic alignment, human factors and cultural factors and successful, sustainable change. Cricket Australia have articulated a strategic direction and a shared vision for Australian cricket which are both considered critical in driving the organisation forward and achieving its goals

Combined, these key information sources on change and vision provide a useful insight that will assist in sensitising the approach to be utilised in this research. This research aims to explore the approaches adopted by Cricket Australia in implementing sustained change. The literature has provided useful insights into the factors identified as significant in implementing sustained strategic change in Australian cricket. Namely, reviewing the suitability of a planned change approach for an organisation such as Cricket Australia.

Sustaining organisational change was viewed as the point at which new ways of working become the norm and the underlying systems and ways of working become

transformed. Understanding and appreciating how change can be sustained in a complex sporting environment was considered to be key if Cricket Australia wanted to achieve its vision for cricket becoming and remaining Australia's favourite sport.

The next chapter provides a detailed overview on the history of Australian cricket.

3. History of Australian Cricket

Cricket is a unique game because it has such an influence on so many levels of society, even though it began in the villages of Sussex and Kent years ago. It always needs to be borne in mind that without village cricket and club cricket, there would be no Test cricket. Hundreds of thousands play the game, only an elite group play in internationals. Prime Ministers have been heard to say that they hold the second-most important job in the world behind whoever is captaining the national cricket team. (Richie Benaud, 2007)

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of Australian cricket. The primary purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with an understanding of the game of cricket, how the game is played, who plays the game in Australia, along with how the game is run, its origins, and where it is played. In order to identify the current state of play within Australian cricket, this chapter is considered essential so as to provide the reader with an understanding of the game and the challenges facing administrators.

This chapter is structured in the following sections:

- Section 3.2 presents an overview of the game of cricket
- Section 3.3 presents historical information on the sport of cricket
- Section 3.4 presents the history of cricket in Australia
- Section 3.5 provides details on Cricket Australia – the national governing body and custodian of cricket in Australia

- Section 3.6 provides an overview of the move towards professionalism in the sport
- Section 3.7 provides details of the strategic planning process for Australian cricket
- Section 3.8 presents the vision of Cricket Australia
- Section 3.9 provides details of the five key strategic pillars
- Section 3.10 the Argus Review
- Section 3.11 the Governance Review
- Section 3.12 Twenty20 cricket and the re-launch of the Big Bash League (BBL)
- Section 3.13 Women's cricket in Australia
- Section 3.14 Drivers for Change in Australian cricket
- Section 3.15 Key Stakeholders
- Section 3.16 Talent Managers and Cricket Operations
- Section 3.17 Chapter Summary

3.2 The Game of Cricket Explained

Every game of cricket must be organised. In this sense, the administration of cricket in Australia commenced with the first matches in the settlement of Sydney at the end of the eighteenth century and beginning of the nineteenth century.

Modern cricket is a team sport originating in England and popular mainly in areas that formerly made up the British Empire. The major international Test teams are England, Australia, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, South Africa, New Zealand, Zimbabwe and the West Indies. The language of cricket is particularly idiosyncratic and tends to reflect the somewhat complicated and eccentric nature of the game itself. The majority of the terms used in cricket originated in England and Australia; however, these terms have generally been adopted by the majority of playing nations and their cricketers.

Cricket is a bat-and-ball game played between two teams of 11 players each on a field, at the centre of which is a rectangular 22-yard-long (20.1 metres) pitch. Each team takes its turn to bat, attempting to score runs, while the other team fields and bowls. Each turn is known as an innings (used for both singular and plural).

The bowler delivers the ball to the batsman, who attempts to hit the ball with his or her bat away from the fielders so he or she can run to the other end of the pitch and score a run. Each batsman continues batting until they are out. The batting team continues batting until ten batsmen are out, or the captain decides to declare the innings closed, or a specified number of overs of six balls have been bowled, at which point the teams switch roles and the fielding team comes in to bat. The team that scores the highest number of runs wins the match. If a match is not completed, then teams are considered to have drawn the match. If both teams end up scoring the same number of runs then the match is a tie.

3.3 Cricket Historical Information

3.3.1 Background Information

Cricket is a sport which is currently undergoing a rapid and dramatic transformation. Traditionally thought of as an English summer game, limited in appeal to Britain and its Commonwealth, cricket has, in the past a few years, achieved a global profile. This is largely due to the development of a new TV-friendly format of the game: Twenty20 cricket. Indeed, through the economic and media interests promoting the Indian Premier League (IPL), the world's richest Twenty20 tournament, cricket has belatedly "gone global". The rapid rise of the IPL underlines that the economic and political characters within cricket are no longer the traditional elites in metropolitan centres but the businesspeople of India and the media entrepreneurs world-wide who seek to

shape new audiences for the game and create new marketing opportunities on a global scale.

3.3.2 Test Cricket

The first official international match of Test cricket was played between Australia and England at the Melbourne Cricket Ground (MCG) in 1877, with Australia winning by 45 runs. Test cricket is the longest form of the sport of cricket and is considered its highest standard. Test cricket is played between two teams of 11 players, with each test lasting up to five days. For close to 100 years, test cricket was the only form of international cricket that was played.

Friday 13 August 1976 saw England play the West Indies in test match number 781. The first Ashes Test between Australia and England played in 2013 was test match 2090. Since 1976 through until the present day there have been twice as many test matches played as there were before that date. As outlined by Mike Jakeman (2013, p. 8), “It is hard to think of a game that sits at greater odds with the speed of the times it is played in. It was created in an era of leisure, its durations designed to fill tours when men crossed the world by boat.”

Test cricket is subject to external, societal forces of commerce, time and multimedia. As much as it is loved in some competing nations, others can be ambivalent to it. Test matches have co-existed peacefully with one-day internationals (ODIs) since 1971. The rise of Twenty20 (or T20) cricket – an excitement filled and action packed version of the game – presents challenges to test cricket and ODIs. Whether test cricket, the five-day game, ODI’s can withstand the competition from T20 is still to be determined.

3.3.3 One-Day Internationals (ODIs) and Twenty20 Cricket

In 1971 the first official ODI match was played, once again between Australia and England at the MCG. While ODI cricket is still played between two teams of 11 players, as the name suggests, the duration of the match is for one day only and is sometimes referred to as limited overs cricket. Twenty20 cricket is the shortest form of cricket. At the professional level, it was originally introduced by the England and Wales Cricket Board (ECB) in 2003 for the inter-county competition in England and Wales. In a T20 game the two teams have a single innings each, which is restricted to a maximum of 20 overs. A typical Twenty20 game is completed in approximately three hours, with each innings lasting approximately 75-90 minutes with a 10-20-minute interval. This is much shorter than previously existing forms of the game, and is closer to the timespan of other popular team sports such as rugby and soccer. The T20 game was introduced to create a fast-paced and exciting form of the game which would be attractive to both spectators at the ground and viewers watching the match on television.

It is generally considered that Test cricket is the most complete examination of a team's playing ability and endurance. In the words of former Australian Test Captain, Greg Chappell, "Test Cricket is the ultimate test. Test cricket is really a test of skill and a test of both mental and physical endurance."

There have been various rule changes since the initial ODI was played; however, the general principles have remained the same. Both sides bat once for a limited time (maximum 50 overs) with the aim in the first innings to score as many runs as possible, and in the second innings to score more than the set target of the team that batted first. An ODI match is comprised of two different stages (batting and fielding) and teams are selected in order to maximise their performance in both areas. Generally, a team will consist of specialist batsmen and specialist bowlers, with better batsmen batting higher up the order. Several constraints are imposed upon the fielding team, with no player

being allowed to bowl more than ten overs, ensuring that at least five different bowlers are used to bowl the required 50 overs. In addition, during the first 15 overs, no more than two players are allowed to field outside a specific ring placed approximately 30 metres from the centre of the pitch, and two fielders must field in what are considered to be catching positions rather than run saving positions. Once the fielding team has bowled the first 15 overs, restraints are relaxed and up to four fielders are then allowed to field outside of the inner circle and catching fielders are no longer compulsory. Rules of T20 cricket are much the same as those of ODI cricket. Given the rules are much the same, a detailed explanation of the rules is deemed as not required.

Cricketing purists and former Australian captains such as Greg Chappell and Mark Taylor will almost always argue that Test match cricket is a truer form of the game than ODI or T20 cricket. However, there can be no denying the increased popularity of the shorter versions of the game. In the 34 years since its inception, in excess of 2200 ODI matches have been played. In comparison, only 1732 official Test matches have been played in 128 years. Whilst T20 is still only its infancy, it has in a short period of time generated a great deal of interest, with domestic leagues commencing in a number of countries such as England, India and Australia. T20 cricket in Australia has also attracted a number of record crowds at venues around the country.

3.4 The History of Cricket in Australia

Like any organisation, Australian cricket over the years has experienced a number of highs and lows. The following is a brief overview outlining the history of Australian cricket.

The history of Australian cricket can be traced back over 200 years. The first recorded cricket match in Australia is reported as taking place in Sydney in December 1803 and

a story in the Sydney Gazette newspaper on 8 January 1804 suggests that cricket was already well established in the settlement.

The first tour by an English team to Australia was in 1861-62, and reports indicate that the tour was popular with both spectators and the touring players. In 1868, a team of Aboriginal cricketers was the first Australian team to tour England. Further tours by English teams took place in 1873-74 (featuring one of the most notable cricketers in that era: W.G. Grace; and he toured again in 1876-77 (Wynne-Thomas 1989). The 1876-77 cricket season in Australia was notable for a match between a combined XI from New South Wales and Victoria against the touring Englishmen at the MCG. This match was played on 15-19 March. The match was later recognised as the first Test match played between Australia and England, and was won by Australia by 45 runs. The result of this match was seen by both the Australians and the English as a reflection of the rising standard of Australian cricket (Piesse, 2003).

As explained by Haigh and Frith (2007, p. 16), "the commencement of inter-colonial cricket entailed the constitution of colonial associations. The NSW Cricket Association was ushered into being by a meeting of club secretaries in May 1859, the Victorian Cricketers' Association followed in October 1864. By the time of what is routinely regarded the inaugural Test match in March 1877, when XI cricketers from NSW and Victoria first met a team from England on equal terms, there were associations running pennant competitions and picking representative teams in each colony other than Western Australia."

The Sheffield Shield competition, the first-class cricket competition in Australia, was established in 1892 by the Australian Cricket Council (ACC). The ACC was the initial national cricket board (Pollard, 1986), and was formed with initial representation from New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia. The ACC had as one of its main

responsibilities, the aim of regulating inter-colonial cricket and organising international tours (Pollard, 1986).

The era from the mid-1890s to 1914-18 has been described as one of Australian cricket's golden ages. This era saw the emergence of players such as Monty Noble, Clem Hill and Victor Trumper (Haigh, 2006). The Great War (World War I) led to the suspension of both international and Sheffield Shield cricket and the enlistment of many cricketers in the Australian Imperial Forces (AIF). After the war, a team of cricketers consisting of enlisted men in the AIF toured the United Kingdom. The AIF cricket team was strong, and included cricketers such as Bert Oldfield and Jack Gregory. Between the two world wars, international cricket recommenced with a tour by an England team in 1920-21. A strong Australian team, led by Jack Armstrong won the series 5-0, the first time this was achieved in an Ashes series (<http://www.foxsports.com.au/cricket/australia/inspirational-ashes-no13-australia-1920-25/story-fn2mcu3x-1225948995353>).

3.4.1 The 1920s to 1940s

The 1920s was an era of batting dominance. The Victorian opening batsman Bill Ponsford being one of the chief destroyers of bowling attacks. In one match Ponsford scored 429 against Tasmania in 1922-23 and in 1927-28 made a score of 437 against Queensland. In between these two innings, in 1926-27, his Victorian team made 1,107, in one first class innings with Ponsford's contribution being 352.

The 1928-29 season will be remembered as it was the season which saw the debut of Don Bradman, who is still regarded as Australia's greatest cricketer. Bradman was born in Cootamundra NSW and raised in Bowral NSW and was only 20 when he made his Test debut in the first Test of the 1928-29 series against England (Wynne, 1989). In his first Test, Bradman made scores of 18 and 1 and was dropped for the next Test of

the series. Following his omission from the second Test he was then recalled for the third Test in Melbourne, where he scored 112 in the second innings and went on to establish his place in the Australian Test team for the next 20 years (Williams, 1996). Throughout his cricket career, Bradman held numerous cricketing records: he held records for the highest individual Test innings and the most centuries in Test cricket and when he retired in 1948 he had and still has the highest Test batting average of 99.96. He scored 117 first class centuries. He is still the only Australian to score a century of centuries. Bradman was knighted for his services to cricket in 1949. War again brought a stop to Shield and Test cricket because of Australia's involvement in World War II. Immediately after the end of World War II in 1945, an Australian Services team played a series of matches in England. The team was captained by Lindsay Hassett. It was during this series that an all-rounder by the name of Keith Miller made his debut. The series was drawn 2-2.

3.4.2 The 1940s to 1960s

The year 1948 saw the retirement of Australian cricketer Sir Donald Bradman. Following the retirement of Bradman, Lindsay Hassett, Keith Miller and all-rounder Ray Lindwall formed the nucleus of the Australian team. Shortly after, these players were joined by Richie Benaud and Neil Harvey. These players then formed the nucleus of the Australian team for a number of years.

Richie Benaud went on to captain the Australian Test Team and was considered to be one of the most astute captains to have played the game and lead his country. In the summer of 1958-59, Benaud lead the Australian team to a series win over England to regain the Ashes.

The summer of 1960-61 saw Australia hosting the West Indies. This test series is regarded as one of the most memorable series ever played. Prior to this time, cricket

had been experiencing declining attendances at matches; however, this series was instrumental in reviving lagging interest in the sport. The series is famous for the first tied Test, which was played in Brisbane. Australia went on to win the series 2-1 and became the holders of the inaugural and newly commissioned Frank Worrell Trophy.

3.4.3 The 1970s to 1990

The 1970s saw players and administrators come into conflict a number of times and the late 1970s saw one of the greatest upheavals the sport has experienced. Poor scheduling was responsible for Australia visiting South Africa immediately after a tour to India in 1969-70. As it would turn out, this would be the last tour to South Africa prior to the application of international sporting sanctions which were designed to oppose the policy of apartheid. The Australians in this series faced a very strong South African team in and were beaten 4-0.

In the summer of 1970-71 in a home series against England, Bill Lawry was sacked as captain and replaced by South Australian batsman Ian Chappell as captain of Australia. Bill Lawry remains the only Australian captain to be sacked in the middle of a Test series (Robinson & Haigh, 1996). Ian Chappell was a younger player and was considered by many at the time to be a more aggressive and fierce competitor and was ready to replace Bill Lawry as captain of the Australian cricket team. Ian Chappell during his time as captain of Australia had players such as Dennis Lillee, Rod Marsh, Jeff Thompson and his younger brother Greg establish themselves and cement their places in the Australian cricket team.

Greg Chappell, Ian's younger brother, succeeded him as Australian captain in 1975-76, and lead the Australian team in the 1977 Centenary Test that was played at the MCG in March. The match was held and staged as a celebration of 100 years of Test cricket.

As it happened, Australia won the Test by 45 runs, which was the exact margin of the victory of the first Test some 100 years earlier.

It was during 1977 that the Australian media tycoon Kerry Packer commenced making plans to wrest away the television rights for Australian cricket. During the 1977 Ashes tour of the United Kingdom, the cricket world became aware that Packer had signed 35 of the world's top cricketers for a series of matches, including 18 Australians, 13 of whom were part of the Australian touring party (McFarlane, 1977).

World Series Cricket (WSC), as the breakaway group was known, split Australian cricket in two for nearly three years. Former Australian captain, Bob Simpson, was recalled from retirement to lead an inexperienced team in a home series against India in 1977-78, which they won 3-2, and then a tour to the West Indies (Pollard, 1986). The 1978-79 Ashes series saw Simpson replaced by a young Victorian, Graham Yallop. The Australian team suffered a humiliating loss and were thrashed 5-1 by England. The loss to England and the success of World Series Cricket forced the Australian Cricket Board to concede to Packer's terms and the warring parties reunited.

The settlement between the Australian Cricket Board and WSC led to the introduction of a series of innovations including night cricket, coloured clothing and an annual limited-overs tri-series called the World Series Cup. The re-uniting of the two parties also saw the return of champion cricketers Greg Chappell, Dennis Lillee, Rod Marsh and Doug Walters to the Australian team.

The 1983-84 season saw players Greg Chappell, Dennis Lillee and Rod Marsh all retire from test cricket at the end of the test series. Their retirement was followed by a cricket series to South Africa by a rebel Australian team which was at the time in breach of the sporting sanctions imposed on the apartheid regime. The combined effect of the retirement of three legends and players being banned from playing

because of their involvement in the rebel tour left Australian cricket in a weak position, with an inexperienced team playing under a rather reluctant captain, Allan Border. The Australian Test team suffered a series loss to New Zealand, losing at home (2-1) and away (1-0) in 1985-86 (Coward, 2004).

The long road back for Australian cricket after the losses to New Zealand started in India in 1986-87. Allan Border, who was at that time captain, along with Bob Simpson in a new role as coach, set out to identify a group of players around whom a team could be built (Simpson & Brindle, 1996).

These players began to gel as a team and started to display some of the steel necessary to be successful; for example, in a tied test played at M.A. Chidambaram Stadium in Chennai. Australia returned to the subcontinent for the World Cup in 1987 and surprised the cricket world by defeating England at Eden Gardens in Kolkata to win the tournament with a disciplined brand of cricket. The 1989 Ashes tour of the UK saw the development of players such as Steven Waugh, David Boon, Mark Taylor and Ian Healy. The 4-0 drubbing of England was the first time since 1934 that Australia had recovered the Ashes away from home and marked the resurgence of Australia as a cricketing power. Australia would hold the Ashes for the next 16 years (Haigh, 2006).

3.4.4 The 1990s to 2000s

In the season of 1991-92, one of the most successful leg spin bowlers in the history of the game, Shane Warne, made his debut in the third Test against India at the Sydney Cricket Ground (SCG). His debut was anything but successful, taking 1/150 off 45 overs, and recording figures of 1/228 in his first Test series. Following on from his debut, Warne went on to become a very successful leg spin bowler and dominated Australian cricket for 15 years. When Warne retired from Test cricket he had taken 708 wickets at an average of 25.41 (Shane Warne Player Profile, Cricinfo). Another

outstanding player of the modern era was fast medium bowler, Glenn McGrath. McGrath was first selected in the Australian team for the Perth Test against New Zealand in 1993-94. McGrath went on to become one of Australia's best fast bowlers of all time. McGrath and Warne together were a very good and highly successful bowling attack for Australia. During the season 1994-95, under new captain Mark Taylor, the Australians defeated the then dominant West Indies in the Caribbean to regain the Frank Worrell Trophy for the first time since 1978. At this time Australia was considered to be the best team in the world (Simpson & Brindle, 1996).

Australia had a rather disappointing World Cup in 1992 despite the tournament being played on home soil; however, Australia was then more successful in future World Cup campaigns; being runners up to Sri Lanka in 1996, winning the World Cup in England in 1999 against Pakistan despite a poor start to the tournament and then unbeaten on their way to victory in the World Cup played in South Africa in 2003. In the 2003 World Cup, Australia beat India in the final.

In 1999 Mark Taylor retired from international cricket and was replaced by Steven Waugh. The change in captain from Taylor to Waugh made little difference in the results achieved and the continued success of the Australian team. Waugh made a slightly rocky start to his term as captain, drawing 2-2 with the West Indies in the Caribbean and losing to Sri Lanka 1-0 away. A victory in the Australian team's first ever Test match against Zimbabwe saw the start of an unparalleled 16-Test winning streak. The streak was ended in 2001 in Kolkata with a remarkable victory by India after being asked to follow-on in a Test match.

Australia, whilst being a very successful cricketing team also had to deal with some controversies (e.g. accusations of racism were made against the team; doubts about dealings of players with illegal bookmakers sparked accusations of hypocrisy; and Warne was suspended from cricket for 12 months after testing positive to banned

diuretics). Throughout all of this, the Australian cricket team was continually praised for their aggressiveness and the spirit in which they played the game.

When Steve Waugh retired from international cricket, he was replaced by Ricky Ponting as captain. Acting captain Adam Gilchrist, who was filling in for Ponting, led the team to a series victory against India in India; the first Australian series win in India since Bill Lawry's team in 1969-70. A 2-1 defeat in the 2005 Ashes series in England was quickly avenged at home with a 5-0 whitewash of England in 2006-07 in Australia. The whitewash was the first in an Ashes series since Warwick Armstrong's team in 1920-21 (Roebuck, 2007).

3.4.5 2005 to 2013

Following the 2006-07 series, the successful bowling combination of McGrath and Warne retired from Test cricket along with other players Justin Langer and Damien Martyn. The years following the 2006-07 whitewash saw the Australian cricket team achieve mixed results with some series wins at home and losses recorded when playing overseas.

Australia won the 2007 Cricket World Cup that was held in the Caribbean and was unbeaten through the tournament. In the years following, whilst Australia did have some series wins, they also suffered losses to England in Ashes series both away and at home. England went on to win three Ashes series in row. The Ashes series of 2009, played in England, saw Australia beaten 2-1. The series of 2010-11, played in Australia, saw Australia beaten again by England 3-1; and then in the 2013 Ashes series, played in England with Michael Clarke as captain and Darren Lehmann as coach, Australia was beaten 3-0. A return series played in Australia during the summer of 2013-14 saw Australia once again complete a whitewash over England, winning the series 5-0 with Michael Clarke leading the team.

3.5 Cricket Australia

Cricket Australia (CA) is the national governing body and custodian of cricket in Australia. Cricket Australia's vision is to develop the game of cricket in Australia with the aim of cricket being "Australia's favourite sport in terms of viewership, fan passion, participation and team success".

Cricket Australia is a not-for-profit company limited by guarantee, whose members are the six state cricket associations, being Cricket New South Wales, Queensland Cricket, the South Australian Cricket Association, Cricket Tasmania, Cricket Victoria and the Western Australian Cricket Association.

The first central administrative body for cricket in Australia was established in March 1892, when delegates from the state associations of New South Wales, South Australia and Victoria established the Australasian Cricket Council.

The Council disbanded seven years later, and the Australian Board of Control for International Cricket was formed in 1905. Its first meeting was attended by two representatives from each of New South Wales and Victoria. A delegate from Queensland attended its second meeting later that year, and its constitution was amended in 1906 to formally allow for one representative from Queensland and three from each of New South Wales, South Australia and Victoria.

Tasmania was permitted one representative from 1907, while Western Australian representation became a reality from 1913. The only other changes to the number of delegates provided by the states were made in 1914 and 1974 respectively, when Queensland and Western Australian representation increased to two each.

The organisation changed its name in 1973 to the Australian Cricket Board (ACB) then on 1 July 2003 it became Cricket Australia when the ACB merged with the Women's Cricket Association.

3.6 The Move Towards Professionalism

The late 1990s saw Australian cricket commence the move from being a largely amateur sport to a professional sport. This coincided with the establishment of the Australian Cricketers' Association (ACA) in 1997 as the move towards professionalism commenced. The ACA was established to:

- safeguard the rights of both present and past first class cricketers;
- provide for and improve the welfare of its members;
- provide advice, services and assistance where deemed appropriate;
- pursue initiatives that will ultimately benefit the membership;
- promote the sport of cricket (<http://www.auscricket.com.au/about-us/aboutus>).

One of the major accomplishments of the ACA was the signing of the first memorandum of understanding (MOU) between the ACB and the ACA, covering matters such as contracts and agreements of method of remuneration for all first-class cricketers.

3.7 Cricket Australia – Strategic Planning

In 1998 Cricket Australia's first ever strategic plan (From Backyard to Baggy Green) was developed. In 2004 the first strategic plan for "Australian Cricket" was developed. The development of this plan was completed in consultation with 20-30 key people across Australian cricket. The strategic plan has since been updated several times to ensure it remains appropriate and assists the organisation to achieve its goals and objectives. Further details outlining the development of strategies for Australian cricket can be found in Section 8.1: Australian Cricket Timeline.

3.8 Vision for Australian Cricket

Cricket Australia has set a vision for the organisation and Australian cricket. The original vision was to be “Australia’s Favourite Sport”. Cricket Australia’s vision is to develop the game of cricket in Australia with the aim of cricket being Australia’s number one sport in terms of viewership, fan passion, participation and team success. The vision has been revised in the last 12-18 months and is now “Australia’s Favourite Sport – A Sport for All Australians”.

Without fans and spectators, the game would struggle to exist. Key elements in Cricket Australia’s strategic plan are to put fans first, to grow the level of participation and to inspire the next generation.

3.9 Five Key Pillars

Cricket Australia, in developing and implementing its strategy for Australian cricket, has five pillars that are critical to achieve the vision to be Australia's favourite sport. These pillars are outlined below and displayed in Section 8.2:

1. Put fans first.
2. Produce the best teams, players, competitions, coaches and officials in the world.
3. Increase participation substantially and inspire the next generation of players, fans and volunteers.
4. Work as one team across Australian Cricket by providing world-class leadership and management to deliver our strategy.
5. Grow investment and allocate resources to deliver our strategy.

3.10 The Argus Review

Cricket Australia's vision is for cricket to be "Australia's Favourite Sport". To help achieve this, one of CA's strategic pillars is to "Produce the best teams, players and officials in the world". This includes two objectives for the Australian Cricket Team:

- To be the number one ranked team in all game formats.
- To be the favourite team in Australian sport.

Recent performances by the Australian Cricket Team during the period 2007-10, however, witnessed the Australian Cricket Team slide to No. 5 in the International Cricket Council (ICC) Test Rankings and convincingly lose the 2010-11 Ashes series to England in Australia. Therefore, the Cricket Australia board commissioned the Argus Review of Team Performance to arrest and reverse this decline.

The primary objective of the Review was to make recommendations to the Cricket Australia Board that would position the Australian cricket team to return to leadership in all three formats of international cricket – Tests, ODIs and Twenty20.

Following the presentation of the Argus review report into Australia's team performance, the Cricket Australia board announced a number of short-term and long-term steps to be followed as they aim to push the side back to No. 1 in the world rankings. The decisions include:

- The immediate creation of a new senior management position, the general manager team performance, who will be responsible for the team, coaching, selection, Centre of Excellence, and will work with state cricket performance and talent managers.

- The general manager operations, Michael Brown, will continue to be responsible for scheduling, memorandum of understanding negotiations, security and anti-corruption, state and other competitions, umpires and coaches.
- The introduction of a five-person selection panel, including a full-time chair, two part-time selectors monitoring state cricket, and the Australian team captain and coach. The national talent manager will not be a selector.
- The head selector will be responsible for performance management, including communication of selection policy and strategy, evaluation of and communication with individual players, including outside the national squad, co-ordination of player development plans, and succession planning.
- A new coaching structure will be introduced, with a head coach who is also a selector. The coach will have an expanded role with greater authority and accountability, and will work with the Centre of Excellence and state associations to direct Australian cricket's overall coaching strategy.

The Argus review also recommended a number of other moves, which the board has not ratified but will consider in the near future. They include:

- Retaining a ten-round Sheffield Shield competition with multiple Shield rounds before the first Test each year.
- Reviewing the Futures League and recognising grade cricket as a vital part of the pathway, reviewing the composition and structure of under-age competitions and placing more focus on Australia A and using it as a genuine second XI.
- Reviewing Australian cricket's first-class pitch strategy, with each pitch to offer a balance between bat and ball, and each pitch to be unique to local conditions, offering Test-equivalent conditions.
- Improving injury management.
- Improving national coaching systems.

- Aligning cricket's incentive systems, including the MOU, to give greater emphasis to linking reward with performance and to ensure player payment incentives for Test cricket reflect its position as cricket's premium format.
- Reviewing the number of CA contracts.
- Carefully assessing Big Bash League (BBL) private ownership implications to ensure private ownership does not incentivise BBL expansion in a way that could compromise Australia's goal to be the No.1-ranked Test nation.

3.11 Governance Review

The Board of Cricket Australia in 2010 consisted of 14 Board members, with all Directors appointed by State Cricket Associations – with some states having a greater representation than other states as depicted in Figure 3-1. The board of Cricket Australia is a 105-year-old governing body which has a history of wanting everything about cricket to improve, except itself. While they may be known as the Board of Cricket Australia, they were in fact an assembly of 14 members, representing six separate state cricket boards and each state representative is expected to protect that state's interest. The parochial character of the board in the past has often been considered to be an obstacle to cricket's progress and agility.

Old Structure

- » 14 Member Board
- » All Directors appointed by State Associations



Figure 3-1 - Old Structure of the Board of Cricket Australia

When the management of Cricket Australia presented various proposals to the old board, this involved consultation not just with the 14 Cricket Australia board members but also with the further 55 state cricket Board members that they represented, ensuring that progress was almost impossible.

Whilst individual state Boards choose which of their members represented them on the Cricket Australia board, it remained unlikely that the skills and experience of the Board overall would bear any resemblance to the specific strategic challenges faced by Cricket Australia.

The governance review remit as outlined by Crawford and Carter (2011) was “to review the governance structure of Australian cricket which essentially meant the role and composition of the Board, and its relationship with the various State cricket organizations”.

Following the completion of the review in August 2012, Cricket Australia announced that it would undergo the biggest shake-up in its 107-year history. At that time Cricket Australia announced that it had been resolved to introduce three independent directors and reduce the state-based board of 14 directors to just six as depicted in Figure 3-2, thus reducing the board of Cricket Australia a nine-person membership.

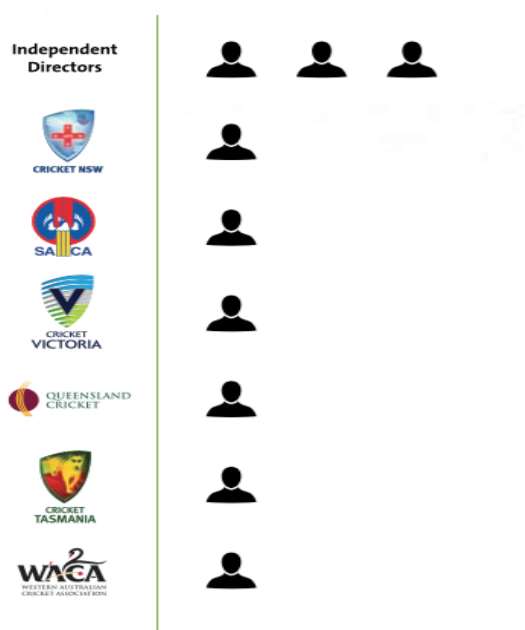


Figure 3-2 - New Board Structure for Cricket Australia

Cricket Australia considered it important that they were to be seen as being increasingly thinking and acting as one unified national sport facing increasing competition for the public's attention and support.

3.12 Twenty20 Cricket in Australia

The KFC Twenty20 Big Bash was the domestic Twenty20 cricket competition in Australia. The original Twenty20 competition was organised by Cricket Australia, and sponsored by fast food chicken outlet KFC with teams from each state. The competition initially commenced with one team from each of the states. Whilst the competition was not a failure, it was not as successful as Cricket Australia may have

hoped. The competition was re-launched in season 2010-11 as the Big Bash League (BBL). Instead of teams from each state, the competition was re-launched with eight city-based teams rather than the traditional state-based teams – two teams from both Sydney and Melbourne and one team from each of the other capital cities: Adelaide, Brisbane, Hobart and Perth.

Now entering its sixth season, the competition is continuing to attract record crowds and attracting a new fan base to the game.

3.13 Women's Cricket in Australia

In December 1934, the Australian women's team played the English women in the first women's Test match at the Brisbane Exhibition Ground. The English women's cricket team won the match by 9 wickets.

In 2003 the then Women's Cricket Australia (WCA) and the then Australian Cricket Board (ACB) merged to form a national cricket board, known as Cricket Australia, which still remains to this day. This merger of the two organisations has been successful and has had a positive influence on women's cricket as it has provided more financial support, while also gathering more exposure for women's cricket.

3.13.1 Women's Big Bash League

On 19 February 2015, Cricket Australia announced that a Women's Big Bash League (WBBL) would commence in season 2015-16, with teams aligned to the current men's BBL competition. The teams will share the same names and colours of the existing men's BBL teams, meaning that there will be two teams from each of Sydney and Melbourne with one team from each of Adelaide, Brisbane, Hobart and Perth. At the time of writing this thesis the format and draw of the tournament are yet to be revealed.

3.14 Drivers for Change in Australian Cricket

Drivers for change are considered to be events or issues that lead to or have led to change taking place. There are a number of drivers of change in Australian cricket:

- the realisation that participation figures had plateaued and revenue was not increasing;
- the introduction of Twenty20 cricket and the re-launch of the (BBL);
- performance reviews and recommendations made at the conclusion of the review;
- the review of governance and recommendations made at the conclusion of the review;
- Cricket Australia's strategy for Australian cricket and steps to be taken to implement the strategy;
- Cricket Australia's vision for Australian cricket, for cricket to be "Australia's Favourite Sport – A Sport for All Australians".

3.15 Key Stakeholders

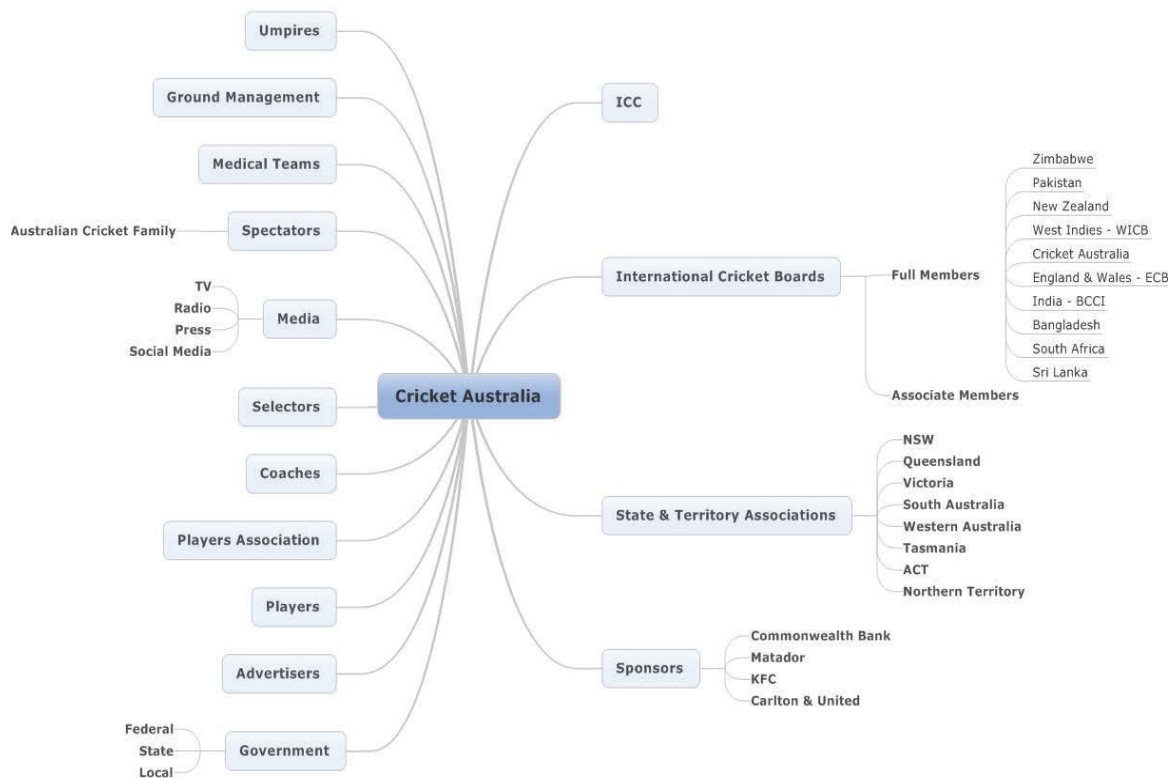


Figure 3-3 – Australian Cricket Key Stakeholders

Cricket in Australia is a game that has a number of key stakeholders that have some form of interest in the game. Key stakeholders include: players, the player’s association, cricket administrators, media, sponsors, Cricket Australia, State Cricket Associations. Key stakeholders, have in the past and will continue in the future to shape the short-term and also the long-term ways in which the sport is run. Figure 3-3 identifies these key stakeholders.

3.16 Talent Managers and Cricket Operations

In 2009-10 state talent managers were appointed. A national talent manager was appointed during 2010. Talent managers have the responsibility of identifying new talented players who are coming through the ranks and entering into the pathway system.

Following the Argus Review of Team Performance, a restructure occurred within the Operations Department at Cricket Australia. In 2012 two new roles were developed. The two roles were Executive General Manager Team Performance and Information Manager Team Performance. Both roles worked closely with the national selection panel and the sports science department.

3.17 Chapter Summary – The Challenges and Changes

Since the start of the century and during the period 2000 to 2015, Australian cricket has experienced a time turbulence and had somewhat of a rollercoaster ride from being the world's number one side in Test and One-Day cricket and then dropping to number five and then working hard to reclaim the number one ranking. During this period, Australian cricket has experienced governance reviews, high performance reviews and upheavals and has witnessed the introduction and growth of a new form of the game.

Despite the upheavals that have been experienced, Cricket Australia has:

- established and clearly defined its strategy and accompanying vision and goals;
- transformed the organisation from a traditional volunteer-based sports organisation into a professional organisation;

- developed organisational capability with a more holistic view of the sport and increasing alignment with state cricket associations;
- intervened into cricket at a community level to revitalise the game in clubs and schools;
- increased revenue from sponsorship and media rights.

These are the challenges and changes that have confronted Australian cricket and are the focus of the research that has been conducted and discussed in this dissertation.

4. Research Methodology

Research is to see what everybody else has seen, and to think what nobody else has thought. (Albert Szent Gyorgi)

4.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the research methodology used for this study and how it has guided the data collection, analysis and development of theory. This chapter makes the argument for the choice of using a qualitative exploratory case study methodology. The chapter begins by restating the research questions and then moves to explore the qualitative epistemological and methodological foundations of the study. Following that, it proceeds to discuss the methodology and the appropriateness of the qualitative exploratory case study used in the study. After this discussion, the specific research strategies of the exploratory case study are examined. Finally, the authenticity and reliability of the study, its ethical considerations, and limitations are respectively considered.

This chapter is structured in the following sections:

- Section 4.2 outlines the research questions that guided this research study
- Section 4.3 provides justification for using a qualitative case study approach
- Section 4.4 presents an overview of research paradigms
- Section 4.5 describes characteristics of qualitative research
- Section 4.6 details why a qualitative research approach was appropriate for this study
- Section 4.7 describes the Case Study methodology which was used for this study
- Section 4.8 provides the rationale for using the Case Study methodology
- Section 4.9 details the rationale for adopting a three-case approach
- Section 4.10 outlines methods used for capturing data

- Section 4.11 provides an overview of how NVivo was used in this study
- Section 4.12 provides information on ethical considerations that were required for and during the course of the study
- Section 4.13 is the chapter summary providing a summary of the topics covered in the chapter

4.2 Research Questions

Whilst a number of qualitative researchers claim to disassociate themselves from the preconceptions of what they will discover, most qualitative researchers still advocate that having a flexible research design which is based on theoretical assumptions, on data collection traditions and on generally stated substantive questions (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995). The design is used as a general guide on how to process the research, but it is open to change during the process of study. In order to present an in-depth description of the implementation of change and the factors that influence sustainable change in a complex sporting environment (Cricket Australia) two main research questions were developed for this study.

The research questions that were used to guide the research are listed here. The two primary research questions were:

RQ1 - How and why do sports organisations implement strategic change?

RQ2 - What factors contribute to the sustainability of change in sports organisations?

The secondary questions that were used that informed the main two research questions were:

- How did Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote change throughout Australian cricket?
- What strategies are used to create sustainable change?

To keep to the openness of the research design, broad themes that cover these two research questions were developed to assist data collection. These themes encompass (a) the implementation of change, (b) factors that influence the sustainability of change. These themes, research questions and conceptual framework are intimately connected. The two research questions are at the centre of this structure.

4.3 Justification of a Qualitative Case Study

To address the questions of the study, a qualitative case study was undertaken. Within this section, an overview of qualitative research is initially discussed, and then the researcher explores the case study methodology, as well as the rationale of pursuing a case study.

4.3.1 A Brief History of Qualitative Research

Qualitative research is a field of inquiry with a blending of diverse disciplines, theories, and subject matters, which include traditions mainly associated with interpretivism, constructivism, critical theory, and cultural studies (Chase, 2005). As a research approach, its importance was established by the work of the “Chicago school” in sociology and the works of the scholars such as Boas, Mead, Benedict, and Malinowski in anthropologies in the 1920s and 1930s (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 1). Since the late 1960s, the term “qualitative research” has been used in the social sciences (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Although there are still a number of controversies associated with this approach to research, it has over the years become a significant approach with its multiple research paradigms, methodologies and specific methods.

The development of qualitative research was and continues to be influenced by ideological and political practices (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Furthermore, its development may have been the result of the blending of disciplines and the

prevalence of many theories, such as symbolic interactionism, constructivism, critical theory, neo- Marxist theory, and feminism since 1970s (Chase, 2005). In different disciplines, researchers conduct qualitative inquiry on the phenomenon in their disciplines from a certain theoretic or several integrated theoretic perspectives.

Yilmaz (2013) reviews qualitative research traditions, which can be viewed as the basic form of qualitative research.

- The first group of inquiries investigates lived experience, which is usually conducted in cognitive psychology, phenomenology, phenomenographic research, and life history research.
- The second group focuses on investigating society and culture, which takes the form of action research, ethnography, cultural studies and critical theory research, ethnomethodology, and symbolic interactionism research.
- The third type embraces the investigated phenomena of language and communication. Under this group, several research traditions are employed, for instance, narrative analysis, ethnographic content analysis, ethnography of communication, hermeneutics, semiotics, and structuralism and poststructuralism (Yilmaz, 2013).

While Yilmaz. (2013) does not offer an exhaustive classification about qualitative research, their categorisation research echoes the claim of Denzin and Lincoln (2005) about the multiple paradigmatic and multiple formed complexity of qualitative research. Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p. 1) point out “qualitative research reform encompasses multiple paradigmatic formulations” and “it also includes complex epistemological and ethical criticisms of traditional social science research”.

4.4 Qualitative Research Paradigms

As qualitative research is an “interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary, and sometimes counter disciplinary field” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p.3), it is almost impossible to highlight each research approach under it. However, as Crotty (2003) indicates, the assumptions about reality that the researcher brings to his/her studies decide the selections of methodology and methods and therefore it may be helpful to examine the basic assumptions of qualitative researchers.

Examining the frequently thought of assumptions of qualitative researchers, can assist in understanding the diverse research approaches that are possible under the banner of qualitative research. In Denzin and Lincoln’s (2000) edited handbook of qualitative research, Guba and Lincoln (2005) use the term *paradigm* to refer to the basic belief systems of researchers. They suggest a paradigm which includes the ontological question, epistemological question, and methodological question. Revolving around the three levels of questions, they bring forward four paradigms, which represent the basic assumptions of various qualitative research approaches. The paradigms include the

1. positivist paradigm,
2. post positivist paradigm,
3. constructivist paradigm, and
4. a paradigm from critical theory and related ideological positions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The positivist paradigm represents the dominant view in natural science and social science, where researchers who follow this paradigm assume there exists an objective reality that can be apprehended by experimental and manipulative procedures. During the procedures, investigators are required to detach their subjectivities. Sharing a set of basic beliefs as positivism, the post positivist paradigm represents those efforts to

respond to the criticisms of positivism. The researchers following this paradigm believe reality can only be “imperfectly apprehended due to the fundamentally intractable nature of phenomena” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.110). These two paradigms are mainly the basic assumptions of quantitative research. However, during the early years of qualitative research inquiry, qualitative researchers conducted their research under the traditions of positivist and post positivist traditions. They attempted to “do good positivist research with less rigorous methods and procedures” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p.5). The use of quantitative, positivist and post positivist assumptions has been rejected by researchers who are proponents of constructivism, post structuralism, and postmodernism (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

As an alternative to positivism and post positivist paradigms, Guba and Lincoln (1994) conclude that the constructivist paradigm and paradigm under critical theory are normally viewed as central for most qualitative research traditions. The constructivist paradigm denotes assumptions such as there is no objective reality and social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it. The meaning of social reality is the product of the interaction of investigators and the investigated. Apart from the constructivist paradigm, Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.109) use the term “critical theory” to cover those qualitative research traditions under poststructuralism, postmodernism, and a blending of these two. For the paradigm of critical theory and related ideological positions, reality is assumed to be known in a series of structures which are formulated as *real* by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender factors in certain historical periods. Similar to the constructivist paradigm, a paradigm of critical theory and related ideological positions requires a dialectical dialogue between investigators and the subjects of investigation and the findings of research are value mediated. However, different from constructivism, researchers following critical theory and related ideological positions emphasise transforming injustice of social structures and struggle for a better world (Kincheloe & McLaren, 1994).

From the above discussion on assumptions of qualitative research traditions, an insight can be gained that although qualitative research manifests multiple forms, essentially most studies under qualitative research share basic epistemological orientations. In general, qualitative researchers assume there is no objective reality and the meaning of objects can be obtained with the engagement of the consciousness of human beings, that is to say “what can be known is intertwined with the interaction between a particular investigator and a particular object or group” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.110). Social reality is constructed in a social environment by different individuals (Yilmaz, 2013). Based on these assumptions, qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed reality embedded in the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied. In accordance with these assumptions, qualitative research traditions generally exhibit some common characteristics.

4.5 Characteristics of Qualitative Research

Reviewing the statements of Morrison (2002) and Bogdan and Biklen (2007) about the features of qualitative research, the main characteristics of qualitative research can be summarised as the following. One idea, however, should be kept in mind that not all qualitative research exhibits all the features to an equal degree (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

4.5.1 Interpretive

In qualitative research, is underpinned by observation and interpretation, thus to observe is to collect information about events, while to interpret is to make meaning of that information by drawing on inferences or by judging the match between the information and some abstract pattern (Aikenhead, 1997). It attempts to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them (Deetz, 1994).

4.5.2 Inductive

Qualitative research tends to be inductive. This means theory emerges from the bottom up, and “from many disparate pieces of collected evidence that are interconnected” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p.6). Different from quantitative research which has prior hypotheses before the research is conducted, qualitative research may merely begin with some “sensitizing concepts” (Bunmer, 1954, cited in Morrison, 2002) and a “conceptual framework” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.18).

4.5.3 Intersubjectivity

In qualitative research, the subjectivity of research participants is of concern, which means the researcher needs to empathise with research subjects and understand the research phenomenon from inside (Morrison, 2002). Instead of being detached from what is investigated, researchers reflect and interpret research phenomena from their perspectives on the basis of collected data. Reflexivity is one of the crucial components of qualitative research (Mortari, 2015, Yilmaz, 2013).

4.5.4 Naturalistic

Qualitative research underscores exploring phenomena in naturalistic settings. That means qualitative researchers assume that human behaviour is significantly influenced by context (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007).

4.5.5 Descriptive

Qualitative research assumes that nothing is trivial and everything has the potential of being a clue to assist in understanding what is investigated (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Therefore, data gleaned in qualitative research takes the form of words or pictures so as to present the thick description of the investigated phenomenon. These four characteristics have relevance for the current study because educational research

deploying the methodology of the case study is essentially qualitative in nature (Merriam, 1998).

The current study investigated the approaches to implementing change within three distinct areas of Australian cricket. The research was conducted with participants drawn from Cricket Australia and State Cricket Associations. Hence, the study was naturalistic. In other words, the research was conducted in a natural setting and was not contrived in a laboratory context. Furthermore, gaining insights from a number of different people within Australian cricket was necessary for a naturalistic approach in order to accurately assess the implementation of change and the sustainability of change in an authentic manner. Second, inter-subjectivity was critical to the current study. Because of the inseparability of context of the implementation of change and the sustainability of change it was critical that in order for the researcher to understand the change events that had taken place it was necessary to immerse himself in the Australian cricket system so as to gain an in-depth understanding of Australian cricket. Having an understanding of Australian cricket was required so the researcher could accurately reflect on each study participant's statements that were made in interviews in relation to changes made within Australian cricket.

The inductive nature of the current study allowed for flexibility so as to explore the phenomenon without pre-conceived hypotheses or propositions. Furthermore, qualitative research understands that it is impossible to identify all the possible variables ahead of time (Merriam, 1998). Qualitative research is mainly concerned about "...insight, discovery and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing" (Merriam, 1998, p. 10). This is an accurate summation of the intention of the current study. That is, it was to inductively identify how change has been implemented in Australian cricket and to gain an understanding of the factors that enabled change to be sustained. Finally, the descriptive nature of the current research study needs to be acknowledged.

In order for the phenomenon (the implementation of change and the sustainability of change) to be fully understood, it must be contextualised in as detailed a manner as possible. Such “thick description” provided an important base from which to interpret the statements made by study participants.

4.6 The Appropriateness of Qualitative Research to this Study

It is acknowledged that every research tradition has its shortcomings as well as having strengths; therefore, the guiding rule for selecting the methodology is the appropriateness of the methodology to research questions (Yilmaz, 2013). Guided by the research questions and the characteristics of qualitative research, the current study follows qualitative research traditions with constructivist epistemological orientations.

The purpose of the current study is to present the change approaches adopted to implement change and to understand how changes implemented are sustained within Australian cricket. Specifically, the study aims to understand what were the drivers of change, and how the change was implemented and what contributed to the successful implementation of the change. The study also aimed to understand what factors were present and required to ensure the sustainability of the change. In terms of the paradigms of Guba and Lincoln (1994), the study falls within the interpretive paradigm.

To sum up, in order to have a better understanding the change implementation and sustainability of change process and to holistically present how change is approached within Australian cricket, a qualitative exploratory case study has been promoted. It combines the research methods of qualitative inquiry and the research techniques of the exploratory case study. In the next section, the rationale for using a qualitative case study methodology is outlined.

4.7 The Case Study Methodology

Yin (2003) notes that using case study approach refers to a comprehensive research strategy with an all-encompassing method, which includes the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis. As a comprehensive research method, it has been used in the social sciences, and been widely used in educational research (Yilmaz, 2013). Although quantitative researchers who have positivist or post-positivist epistemological orientations also employ case study research, case studies are more likely to be used in qualitative inquiry. Almost any topic or type of phenomenon in qualitative inquiry can be explored by case studies (Yilmaz, 2013). The case study methodology has been described as a basic form of qualitative research. In terms of educational research, the qualitative case study is an ideally-suited means of investigation (Merriam, 1998).

Furthermore, a case study approach can be defined as a research strategy which is used to examine one or more instances of phenomena in certain settings (Yilmaz, 2013). It is about the particularity and complexity of a single case within important circumstances, which is used to explore the detail of interaction of subjects in their contexts (Stake, 1995). Yilmaz, (2013) concluded that case studies have explicit characteristics: the study of particular instances, the in-depth study of the case, and the study of a phenomenon in its real-life context.

Due to the characteristics listed above, the sample sizes used in case studies are often small. It is because of the small sample size in case study research that the reliability of case study has been questioned. The findings of case study research frequently cannot be generalized to the larger population. However, as Stake (1995) has suggested, the qualitative case study is concerned with exploring phenomena at length and its purpose is not the pursuit of generalization.

As outlined by Erickson (1986) one of the most distinctive characteristics of qualitative inquiry is its emphasis on interpretation, Stake (1995, p. 12) further argues that a “good case study is patient, reflective, willing to see another view of case”. Case studies under the umbrella of qualitative research share these characteristics, whereby continuous reflective interpretation is carried out throughout the whole research process to maximize an understanding of the research.

Stake (1995) categorised case studies into different types and these include intrinsic case study, instrumental case study, and collective study. Intrinsic case study is the intent to explore the particularity of the case itself; instrumental case study aims to accomplish something more than just understanding of the case itself; and collective case studies concern the investigation and coordination of individual instrumental cases. Stake’s (1995) classification explains the possible purposes of the case study. Additionally, some academics and research scholars divide case studies into several types, such as historical organisational case studies, situational analysis, clinical case study, life history case study, and multi-case studies (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Burns, 2000). These classifications manifest that with different combinations of research techniques, case studies may exhibit various forms.

4.8 Rationale for the Use of the Case Study

The case study methodology is one of many research strategies used in the social sciences, such as experiments, surveys, histories and the analysis of archival documentation (Yin, 2003). The appropriateness of each of these research strategies is contingent upon (a) “the types of research questions posed”, (b) “the degree of control the investigator has over the behavioural events”, and (c) “the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events” (Yin, 2003, p. 5).

In terms of (a), the research question is pertinent to the adoption of any methodology as a strategy to investigate a phenomenon. Yin (2014, p. 5) categorises research questions into three main types: “explanatory”, “descriptive” and “exploratory”. Essentially, when research questions focus on *how* and *why* questions then the preferred methodology is the explanatory case study or histories and experiments. *Who* and *where* questions are most suited for descriptive case studies or histories, while research questions focusing on *what* questions the preferred strategy is the exploratory case study or experiments or surveys (Yin, 2014).

The two main research questions postulated in the current study are composed of “how” and “what” questions, i.e., “how have changes been implemented in Australian cricket” and “what factors contribute to the sustainability of changes”? Following from Yin (2003) an exploratory approach is the preferred research strategy. Additionally, the exploratory case study is recommended when very little prior research has been conducted on a phenomenon (Mayer & Greenwood, 1980). In the current study, very little research has been conducted on the implementation and sustainability of change in complex sporting environments. Hence, the adoption of an exploratory approach here is well justified.

In terms of the degree of control an investigator has over the behavioural events, the case study is the preferred research strategy for the current study. Specifically, in order to explore how different people within Australian cricket understood change the researcher had no control over the behavioural events, and consequently, in these circumstances, the case study is the preferred research option (Yin, 2003).

In terms of the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events, the current study involved the examination of contemporary events, that is, people who had a detailed understanding of Australian cricket. Even though case studies and histories can overlap to a certain degree (Yin, 2003), the case study is the preferred

option in this context because the techniques of direct observation and interviews can be applied. Indeed, these techniques are considered the strengths of case study research (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2003).

Additionally, Yin (2003) argues that the case study should be utilised when context is highly important. In the current study, which explored the implementation and sustainability of change, the phenomenon of leadership and vision was strongly embedded within the context of Cricket Australia, as such, the phenomenon under study and the context in which it occurred were not easily separated. When the phenomenon and the context cannot be clearly distinguished then the case study again is the preferred research methodology (Yin, 2003). In the current study, the boundaries of the phenomenon and the context were not apparent.

In summary, the case study methodology ranked as the most appropriate methodology for the current study for a number of reasons.

1. the research questions were geared toward an exploratory approach.
2. the researcher was limited in the degree of control she could exert over the behavioural events under investigation (the study participants from Cricket Australia).
3. the current study involved a contemporary context allowing for the use of observations and interviews (the strengths of case study research)

Hence, a case study was conducted on each of three key changes made by Cricket Australia. In the next section, the rationale for adopting multiple case studies will be outlined.

4.9 The Rationale for Adopting a Three Case Study Approach

As a basic form of qualitative inquiry, most research techniques which are usually employed in qualitative inquiry, such as interview, participant observation, document and artefact analysis, can also be well integrated into case study research to maximize the research purpose. Burns (2000) notes the major strength of the case study approach is the use of multiple sources. When planning the research, it was decided instead of focusing on just one case study, efforts would be made to investigate three case studies. The selection of case studies was decided upon after initial meetings with my project supervisor and a representative from Cricket Australia. Studying multiple cases provides evidence from three sources which can be compared and contrasted to each other, thereby providing the researcher more opportunity to reach conclusions.

The purpose of the current study was to holistically present an in-depth description of changes and the approach which was adopted to introduce change into a somewhat conservative and complex sporting organisation – Cricket Australia. Some researchers have noted that multi-case studies can reveal more adequate findings than merely a single case study. Consequently, in this study, three key change projects were selected for review and analysis. The use of three cases here allows for the possibility of replicating the findings to increase the validity of the study.

In addition, the researcher proposes that by integrating exploratory research approaches with three-case studies, an in-depth description of the implementation and sustainability of change through the study will be achieved. The following statement of Yin (2003) justifies the use of multiple case studies for the study.

4.10 Methods of Data Collection and Sources of Data

Data collection was dependent to some extent on Cricket Australia's activities, particularly during the "off season". Ellen (1984) advises that any research timetable should have a contingency for lost time because of the uncertainty of personnel and documentation being available. In the case study of Cricket Australia, the researcher remained flexible to interview whenever the person required to be interviewed was available. This did mean that the sequence of interviews was dynamic, but repeat interviews were granted in the two cases where it was deemed necessary, and otherwise the sequence adopted did not compromise the research.

The techniques by which data were collected were determined by the interpretivist case study strategy which relies on interviews, document analysis and observations which are all used in similar research projects (Corley, 2004; Hinings et al., 1996; Yin, 2014).

Dunphy & Stace, (1993) lists interviews, document analysis and observations as means by which to determine "what is going on here?", describing the process as a diagnostic approach, the same as methods used for cultural research in other organisations (Schein, 1993b).

4.10.1 Interviews

Interviews are used to access the life-worlds of individuals (King, 1994), and to explore organisational situations that explain behaviour within Cricket Australia (Hartley, 2004).

Therefore, two critical issues had to be addressed:

- Who to interview?
- How to interview?

4.10.1.1 *Who to Interview*

Creswell (1998) suggests interviews are a series of procedural steps, the first of which is to determine who is to be interviewed. A judgement was made about who to interview by investigating Cricket Australia's organisational structure. Hartley (2004) suggests doing this through initial "orientation interviews" which were conducted with Cricket Australia's senior executives whilst obtaining their agreement to participate. The sample was selected using the purposive sampling technique (Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Sarantakos, 1998). Some iteration of the list occurred since, as with the data collection, issues emerged and interviews then had to be conducted with the relevant organisational member or stakeholder.

The initial sample consisted of respondents who could best provide data concerning Cricket Australia's culture and identity across its history. Senior management, Board members and past and present players were included.

Generally, those people who were asked to participate were selected based on their positions and known interactions and dealings with Australian cricket. This effectively meant that they had to have spent an extended time working with Cricket Australia or state cricket associations and needed to know how the organisation went about its business and how it ran Australian cricket.

The interviews were conducted with members of Cricket Australia's Board of Directors, senior management of Cricket Australia, CEOs of state cricket associations and staff throughout Cricket Australia, state associations and BBL franchises.

Perry (2001) proposes that the number of interviews that should be conducted should range from 10 to 60, as appropriate, but suggests that somewhere around 30-35 should suffice for a doctoral thesis. In total, 28 interviews were conducted, with only one potential respondent declining to be interviewed. However, this study also used

documents obtained from Cricket Australia to supplement the information collected from interviews. Respondents' answers required coding for anonymity. It was recognised that a case study of a single, high profile organisation could enable identification of certain people, particular situations, or events that had occurred. Some information that was collected was already in the public domain and, as a result of interviews or stories, written about in the press. Even though this was the case, there were potential ethical problems about people being identifiable and all interviewees were addressed by asking participants to signify their consent to the interview, which also indicated the researcher's responsibilities to the interviewee. A copy of the consent form is included in the Appendices.

4.10.2 **Conducting the Interviews**

Interviews were conducted in a location of the respondent's choice, usually in their offices in Sydney; however, some interviews were conducted on interstate visits to Melbourne and Brisbane and consequently there was little to no opportunity for a second attempt even if it was desired. Interviews and people used for data collection are not like documentary data or even observed data and cannot be continually revisited for explanation, clarification, or more information (Booth, Colomb & Williams, 1995). Interviews conducted with people in other states were conducted by way of phone calls. Interviews were qualitative and semi-structured in nature. Interviews generally lasted between 45 and 90 minutes depending on how the interviewee answered questions. On the whole most interviewees provided great amounts of detail on the questions that were asked. All interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. During the interview, the researcher supported the recording by taking notes throughout the interview. Each interviewee signed a consent form prior to the start of the interview to allow the interview to take place, and they all agreed to allow the interview to be recorded.

Interviews conducted were slightly different, depending on the title and position of the person being interviewed. Cricket Australia Directors and the CEO of Cricket Australia and CEOs of state cricket associations who took part in the research were asked a set of questions that were closely related to their position in the respective organisations. These interviews were focused on strategic change within Australian cricket. Staff at other levels in the organisation were interviewed using a slightly different set of questions. People more closely aligned with the Big Bash League (BBL) were asked questions more specifically aligned to Twenty20 cricket and the impact that the short format of the game has had on the image of Australian cricket. As to be expected, each interviewee provided a slightly different viewpoint, although many answers given provided similar information.

Semi-structured interviews, derived from the literature review, were developed for the purpose of this study. Four types of interview protocols were developed, and all interviews were similar, with slight differences. The four interview protocols developed were for the following groups:

1. An interview protocol for the Cricket Australia Directors and CEOs.
2. An interview protocol for the senior executives of Cricket Australia.
3. An interview protocol for staff linked to the BBL franchises
4. An interview protocol for staff closely aligned with game development and high performance.

Each interview protocol provided a slightly different viewpoint and the reason for conducting slightly different interviews was to capture the unique viewpoint that each interviewee was able to provide. For example, the Board members and CEOs were asked to provide more information on the background of strategic change and change management etc. Another example is that staff were asked how they were influenced by the organisation vision statement and strategic changes being made throughout the

organisation. These differences in questions were due to the unique nature of the particular individuals' point of view on Australian cricket.

The interviews were framed within the researcher's conceptual frame, which meant it was a case of probing and prompting the respondents for information during interviews, and the responses were interpreted by the researcher (Coopey, Keegan & Emler, 1998). Consequently, interviews were semi-structured individual interviews and regularly represented the primary source of data from which many further investigations were initiated.

4.10.3 **Semi-Structured Interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were selected as the primary tool for collecting information. The rationale for selecting the semi-structured interview technique was essentially due to the aim of encouraging the interviewees to freely discuss their own opinions on what had happened and what was happening in Australian cricket. This method, with open-ended questions, provided the opportunity to adjust questions depending on the answers that were being given. According to Darmer (1995), the semi-structured interview is neither a free conversation nor a highly structured interviewing technique. Semi-structured interviews provide the opportunity to regulate the order of the questions and the respondents have the possibility to expand their ideas and speak in great detail about diverse subjects rather than relying only on concepts and questions defined in advance of the interview. In other words, semi-structured interviews are more flexible than standardised methods such as the structured interview or survey.

One general problem when conducting qualitative interviews, with open-ended questions, is that the interview is "flavoured" by the interest and opinions of the interviewer. Semi-structured interviews are rather organised in terms of what issue(s) will be discussed during the interview but the follow-up questions will depend to some

extent on the opinions of the interviewer. Another problem that can occur is misunderstandings and misinterpretations of words. In order to increase the reliability of the answers, all interviews were recorded (with permission of the interviewees) and subsequently transcribed material was sent to the respondents, statements were amended according to the respondents' comments, and finally the material was approved by the interviewees.

The primary aim of the interview is to probe and delve more deeply into the experiences of individuals (Cohen, Manion, and Morison, 2007). Most participants are familiar with and tend to be comfortable with qualitative interviews in comparison to other research techniques (Cassell & Symon, 1995). Using the interview as a tool to capture information provides the interviewer with an opportunity to "have a conversation" with the interviewee about something of mutual interest, and this can be less threatening than other techniques such as observation.

Semi-structured interviews have some of the disadvantages that focus groups have, in that they create a lot of data that can be difficult to analyse, there is a risk that the interviewee will try to take over, and that the reliability and validity of the data are reduced when every interviewee is not being asked exactly the same questions in exactly the same order. Cohen et al. (2007) note other validity issues in the possible biases of the interviewer. Their particular concerns are that the biases of the interviewer can influence both how the interview proceeds and how it is analysed through their own personal characteristics. They suggest that the best way of improving the validity of the data is to minimise the possibility of bias, and one of the most effective ways to do this is to have a highly structured interview where each interviewee has exactly the same experience. However, in this research project, the richness of the data gathered was seen as adequate compensation for the possible reduction in validity. Also, the nature of the research, in assessing the success of

communication, meant that there was less focus on validity as an external construct – there were no “right” answers.

The interviews for this project were semi-structured, in that the interviewer sought answers to a particular set of questions but was able to deviate from them, or re-order them, if for some reason it was considered necessary. Following a semi-structured interview approach also allowed further questions to be asked if new themes emerged during the interview that needed to be explored. This approach also allowed the raising of issues of concern to the interviewee that may not have been thought of prior to commencing the interview. Following the semi-structured interview approach ensured that the interviewer was free to explore more deeply the participants’ individual experiences. The set of questions that were used to frame each interview is included in Section 8.5.

Important aspects of interviewing were addressed, such as ensuring adequate preparation was undertaken for the interviews to cause minimum disruption to the interviewee. These were conventional interviewing preparations and techniques that entailed use of recording equipment, establishing the location of the interviews, consent of the interviewees, punctuality by the researcher, and a protocol for the interviews (Creswell, 1998). The interview preparation ensured the focus of the interview was on the subject matter and not the conduct of the interview, as well as minimising disruption or lost time. Preparation prior to the interview increased the opportunity of obtaining the required data, first time. It was important that the interviewees were confident that the interview was a one-off event, with the data collected at the first attempt and they would not be continually interrupted for the benefit of the research.

The achievement of gaining good data was heavily dependent upon the skills and experience of the researcher. To gain experience, the researcher conducted two trial

interviews that were considered to be of less significance, so that some practice was gained prior to those interviews likely to provide rich data or were limited for time. The risk of such a strategy is that it is never certain where the best data might emerge. The risk was mitigated by the researcher framing questions that elicited the information required with subsequent probing for further elaboration when required (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). From the researcher's perspective, it appeared that all interviewees were conducive to the interview process and the experience was positive for the researcher and interviewees alike.

4.10.4 **Organisational Documents and Document Analysis**

The researcher obtained artefacts and materials from Cricket Australia, state cricket associations, Big Bash League franchises and from the internet. Forster (1994), Atkinson and Coffey (1998), Creswell (1998) and Van Maanen (1998) all discuss the importance of document analysis as a basis for interviews, to verify other information collected. Documents are part of the culturally standardised discourses within organisations that associate the organisation with its value system. Hence, the documents themselves as well as the content of the documents provide an insight and direct connection to the culture and identity of the organisation.

Access to Cricket Australia's documentation (annual reports, board reports & minutes, strategic plans (Cricket Australia and state associations) cricket census data, and BBL season highlights & metrics reports) was agreed to and permitted by the organisation, and was conducted with minimum disturbance to the organisation. Cricket Australia documents not only provided a source of data in their own right but also assisted in engaging with informants and eliciting information about issues already identified (Forster, 1994). Importantly, documents are not analysed as stand-alone pieces of information or for portrayals of particular circumstances. The documents (e.g. strategic plans and annual reports) are analysed and interpreted with other data in the context of

their authorship, readership, rhetoric and other documents. Cricket Australia, for example, produces annual reports. These are for consumption by key stakeholders and supporters and are consequently read in the context of being a review of the events of the previous 12 months and events planned for the coming 12 months. Cricket Australia had many such types of documentation that were invaluable as a source, and verification, of data. Even so, documents should be considered to be artefacts and social facts because they are used and shared throughout the organisation (Atkinson & Coffey, 1998).

The documents were analysed and reviewed for their content through a standardised process advocated by Sarantakos (1998). In this process, Sarantakos advises the summarising of content to reduce the data so that it can be examined for explanations of its meaning. Once meanings are developed, the data can be structured through ordering it into categories or defined criteria. Through such structures, it was easier to explore and analyse the data through computer software using QSR NVivo 11, which is explained in sections 4.11.

The document analysis was extended to the archival analysis of Cricket Australia documents from the late 1990s through until 2015. Documents reviewed included strategic plans, annual reports, internal publications and a range of books on cricket (e.g. *Whitewash to Whitewash* (Brettig, 2015), video footage, media articles, interviews, speeches, handbooks, mission statements, media releases, emails, policies, procedures, minutes of meetings, and various other documents that the club generated). Archived data of Cricket Australia was also explored, although this was surprisingly limited, and mainly consisted of the annual reports and census data. The analysis included corporate documents such as formal financial statements for corporate regulators as well as databases and statements by Cricket Australia

representatives for the media and supporters. The document analysis also included research on Cricket Australia, state cricket associations and BBL franchises.

The documentation was quite voluminous and at times did not provide the information that was required for the research. It was difficult and time consuming but useful for interpreting in the context of the organisation and other data, since many of the documents could not be taken at face value. Document analysis is the least intrusive data collection method of those proposed, although it was important not to rely on it because it was easier to obtain (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).

4.10.5 Observations

Yin (2014) views observations as an important means of data collection for a case study and it was particularly suitable for the review of Cricket Australia and state cricket associations because it took place in the real world, in real time and allowed data to be understood in its organisational context (Lee, Mitchell, and Sablynski, 1999). Waddington (1994) notes that different research projects require certain levels of observation. There are degrees of participation for the observer based upon the amount of participation in the organisation by the researcher (Lee et al., 1999). This research involved participation through the interviews, forums, road shows, observations and document analysis, which was closely aligned with the role of a “Complete Observer” i.e. being a researcher who aims to observe actions first hand.

Taylor and Bogdan (1994) suggest that most observers minimise their effect on the organisation they are studying, until they have a basic understanding of how it operates. However, they nearly always influence the setting they are studying. Waddington (1994) explains that he saw this as a compromise to enable researchers to get to “the heart of human experience”. If the researcher is to become intimate with their subject, there has to be recognition of the role of the researcher in that intimacy.

The access provided to the researcher allowed a large amount of data to be collected through observations, meetings, visits, waiting time and conversations during the time spent in at Cricket Australia and state cricket associations.

Observations were done openly and the research was explained to the staff to make them aware of what the researcher was doing and why. The amount and timing of observation required was more difficult to determine than interviews. Detailed observations and field notes began once there was an acceptance of the researcher in the organisation and familiarity within the environment. This lessened the impact of the researcher on the reactions of those being observed and was less intrusive.

Like other data collection methods, observations required validation and interpretation, in context, to see if they were properly understood (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). This involved interpreting them in the context of who was doing what, or what was happening where and why. Certain aspects of undertaking observations had to be resolved, such as the degree to which the researcher was admitted into Cricket Australia and state cricket associations and the frequency and duration of observations (Lee et al., 1999). These matters were addressed with the people participating in the observed activities but as it transpired, it was not a significant issue once the staff were aware of the researcher's presence and purpose. The opportunity to observe what was going on was presented whilst waiting to conduct interviews, attendance at meetings and the generally free access provided to the researcher to move about the organisation's premises. In this research, general access was granted by Cricket Australia and state cricket associations but permission for departmental access, or access to sensitive areas, was sought separately and was provided.

Observational data were collected through field notes with detailed descriptions, avoiding tendencies to be judgemental on what was observed. Observation was undertaken, principally to discover patterns of behaviour and relationships amongst

Cricket Australia staff and staff at state cricket association offices so as to assist with interpreting the complex human interactions that exist in social settings such as sporting organisations, which was fundamental to the purpose for the research. The observations included of staff going about their daily activities to see if their actions supported what they said they do and of meetings of internal groups concerned with running the Australian cricket.

4.10.6 Data Management

It was important to set up a good storage and retrieval system for keeping track of data to conduct this research systematically and to meet the requirements of the University of Technology, Sydney.

Whilst undertaking this research, NVivo 11, a qualitative data management and analysis tool, was used to manage and code interview transcripts and electronic documents. The program allowed for electronic storage of all transcribed material, provided methods for coding data and relatively easy data search and retrieval functions. Early in the data storage process, attributes were allocated to the data which provided the possibility for a cross-site analysis. NVivo software is useful for managing unstructured information such as interviews or reports and it helps researchers in finding themes and extracting meaning (QSR International Pty Ltd., 2011). The use of the NVivo software does not make the analysis less time consuming, as a coding process for qualitative content analysis has to be done manually (Pope et al., 2000), but it does help to interpret and examine textual data systematically (Pope et al., 2000; Sinkovics, Penz & Ghauri, 2008). In addition, it enabled the creation of memos and annotations related to specific theoretical and methodological aspects of the data analysis process, especially for cross-site analysis and interpretation of findings. Finally, queries and matrices were created in NVivo 11 to help identify patterns in the data, as well as to present, analyse, and discuss similarities and differences in the

change process between the different change initiatives studied. Such patterns would otherwise be difficult to observe due to the specific nature of qualitative data and limitations to process them by only reading the transcribed material. All data and information used in this study will be retained for five years from the date of publication of this dissertation.

4.10.7 Reliability and Validity

The two concepts of reliability and validity are very important to take into consideration when carrying out qualitative research since they help to determine the objectivity of the research. Reliability and validity could be seen as two different measurement instruments that illustrate the level of trustworthiness and credibility of a piece of research. Bryman and Bell (2007) explain that reliability and validity are separated into internal and external concepts. Internal reliability refers to whether there is more than one researcher within the study group, thus the observers can agree with regard to what they see and hear. External reliability means to what extent research can be completed again, with results comparable to the original study. It might be difficult to achieve high external reliability since the scene and the setting is likely to change from the time of the original research to the time of a second one. However, a strategy mentioned by Bryman and Bell (2007) is to adapt a similar role as taken on by the original researcher in order to be able to replicate the initial research. Subsequently, to achieve high reliability in this thesis, this chapter describes in detail the process of gathering data as well as how the interviews were performed. In addition, interview questions used during the research are attached in Section 8.5.

Internal validity refers to what degree the researchers are able to agree and come to the same conclusions (i.e. if there is a good match between their observations and theoretical thoughts that they expand throughout the research (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Internal validity is usually perceived as a strength within qualitative research since the

researchers tend to observe the social setting over a long period of time which generally results in excellent correspondence between observations and concepts (Bryman & Bell, 2007). External validity, on the other hand, can be seen as a problem within qualitative research, since it refers to the extent that findings can be applicable in other social settings, and qualitative researchers generally make use of small samples and case studies (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In this thesis interviews were recorded (after permission was granted by the interviewees) and after transcribing the interviews the material was sent back to the interviewees to receive their approval of the transcript material in order to increase the validity and to decrease the possibilities of using the author's own interpretation of the data.

4.10.8 Requests for Participation

The researcher contacted Cricket Australia and state cricket associations through a formal letter and a follow-up phone call to respective offices. The letter provided details of the researcher's intent and the scope of the study, outlined the involvement of the research supervisor, and requested participation by specific individuals in Cricket Australia and state cricket associations. A sample letter can be found in Section 8.6 of the thesis. The researcher submitted requests to each participant to obtain their permission to conduct the research and the interview. Upon obtaining approval to conduct the interviews, the researcher scheduled the two-day visits, and booked interviews, and began collecting documentation.

4.11 NVivo in Qualitative Research

The NVivo 11 software package was utilised whilst conducting this qualitative study. Qualitative analysis software has gradually been accepted as a tool that can be used in many of the social science disciplines (Fielding & Lee, 1991).

The NVivo 11 software package provides a number of tools that can be utilised for handling rich data records and associated information. NVivo 11 can also be used for recording and linking ideas in many ways, and for searching and exploring patterns of data and ideas. Through using NVivo 11 a number of other ways of connecting parts of the project were identified. The reason for choosing the NVivo 11 software was that it helps to manage and synthesise ideas and offers a range of tools for pursuing new understandings and theories about the data and for constructing and testing answers to research questions.

4.11.1 Steps Taken to use NVivo in this Project

A project was set up in NVivo 11 called “The Dynamics of Change in Complex Sporting Environments”. Within the NVivo 11 system, four separate parts of the system were used:

- NVivo 11 was used as a *repository for documents* that had been collected throughout the project. Documents included interview data, transcribed notes, voice recordings and additional documents that had been obtained such as Cricket Australia’s annual reports and strategic plans.
- The next part of the system that was used was the section of the software where *classification of nodes* was completed. In NVivo 11 coding and categorising of work can be completed and classifications are recorded as nodes. A node in NVivo 11 can represent any category, concept, person or abstract idea or any other element that could matter within a project. Two types of nodes were used in NVivo 11: free nodes and tree nodes. A free node in NVivo 11 is an area in the software tool which allows coding and categorising similar to brainstorming.
- Following on from classifying data it was necessary to try to *organise the categories* in a way that provided insight about the data. This process took place within the tree node section of NVivo 11. Existing categories were split into groups.

- The last section that was used within the NVivo 11 system was *data analysis*. Data analysis within NVivo 11 was performed by running queries. NVivo 11 allows the running of various types of queries on the data that is available in the system. Queries were run for example on word frequencies and sentences in the interview notes stored in the system.

Additional to interview notes entered into the system, external documents collected have been used to support any observations made during the course of the study.

4.11.2 **Transcribing Interviews and Importing into NVivo**

The use of the NVivo software facilitated the process of organising, re-arranging and managing the considerable amount of data. For example, after coding the interviews in NVivo, all passages assigned a specific code could be viewed on screen and printed. In the same manner, searches for specific text strings could be conducted across all interviews, and relevant paragraphs containing the search string could be compared on screen or printed.

Interview transcripts were formatted in a particular way in Microsoft Word to facilitate importing into NVivo. This meant that the interview questions were assigned a “Heading 1” format. When importing the transcript into NVivo, this resulted in the questions being displayed in the content panel in the NVivo explorer. Hence, when selecting a question, it was possible to jump to this section in the interview transcript. Furthermore, meaningful information about the interview was placed into the first two paragraphs of each transcript. This enabled the information to be automatically put into the properties of the interview document when importing the interview into NVivo. Formatting the interview transcripts appropriately from the beginning helped in the efficient organisation of the data and thus facilitated the analysis of the interviews.

One useful and helpful feature of NVivo is that the software keeps a log of all data that has been entered, which meant that codes and memos were automatically assigned a date and time stamp. This feature helped to trace the development of codes. After coding the interviews in NVivo, passages assigned a specific code could be viewed on screen and printed.

4.11.3 Memo Writing

The process of coding and developing categories is supported by writing memos. Memos are a set of notes, that are kept continuously, to support the researcher by providing a record of thoughts and ideas. Memos enable the researcher to reflect on the interviews and given codes to enter into a dialogue about the collected data. Initial thoughts are of high relevance as they often spark the best ideas. Hence it was considered important to write the memo immediately when reading and coding the interview. At later stages in the research process, initial thoughts that were represented through memos can be revisited, reflected upon and considered for the overall analysis. Memos were used to ask questions, philosophise about potential meanings of interviewees' statements and compare concepts identified in interview transcripts to each other and to the literature. Memos were created manually using post-it notes and they were also utilised within the NVivo software package.

4.12 Ethical Considerations

Prior to and during the research it was important to take into consideration ethical concerns. As the research was conducted in most parts by use of semi-structured interviews, it was considered important that participants were informed of the nature of the research that was being completed and gave their consent to being involved.

Participants who agreed to be interviewed were advised that information gathered would be used in this research project. In this research project all participants were

provided with a brief overview about the study that was being undertaken prior to agreeing to be involved. Participants who were interviewed were asked to sign a consent form to ensure that they understood the research process and the confidential nature of the research, to protect both the researcher and the participants.

Ethical considerations included:

- A consent form was signed by all interviewees prior to the interview after they had been carefully informed about the research.
- Participants were asked if they gave their consent to have the interview recorded.
- All participants have the right to privacy, which protects the identity of the interviewer and interviewees.
- Protection from harm – protecting interviewees from any physical, emotional or any other kind of harm.
- The interviewer did not have any personal relationship with any of the people who were interviewed.

Whilst the study involved participants providing information, no personal or identifying information was collected. However, ethical consideration was still given to preserving where necessary the confidentiality and privacy of the participants. Cohen (2007) notes “the greater the sensitivity of the information, the more safeguards are called for to protect the privacy of the research participant”. People who were asked to participate were given an overview of why the research was being completed. People were given the opportunity to decline the invitation to participate if they chose to. If they did agree to participate, people were also advised that if they wanted to they could withdraw at any time. Several times during interviews, if and when sensitive issues were being discussed, the researcher assured the interviewees of the confidentiality of the process.

All interviews did provide meaningful insights into people's worlds rather than treating interviewees merely as subjects or numbers which would then need to be manipulated at some stage during the data analysis. Methods adopted enabled all interviews to be conducted in a relaxed and friendly manner. Essentially, common sense and moral responsibility did play a part in obtaining meaningful and useful responses so as to be able to gain an in-depth understanding of the subject areas being discussed. For further information on ethical considerations refer to Ethics application number: UTS HREC 2015-000169.

4.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced and discussed the choice of adopting a case study approach as a suitable research methodology for this study. Because the study was exploratory, a qualitative approach was used. A theoretical model of factors that influence the sustainability of organisational change was used as a framework (Buchanan et al., 2007).

The primary data-gathering source was semi-structured interviews with 24 participants from within Australian cricket who had led or been involved in implementing strategic organisation change initiatives.

The qualitative research design employed a case study approach. The design consisted of the selection of projects / initiatives along with the participants to be interviewed. Three projects undertaken by Cricket Australia were chosen for analysis in this research study. The three case studies are each projects that relate to organisational change, with each project different from the other in terms of product, purpose and nature. All three projects, however, were critical to Cricket Australia.

The chapter discussed the tools and techniques for the collection of data. Data was collected through a series of semi-structured interviews, reviews of annual reports and

strategic plans. In order to control as many factors as possible in the chosen projects, and to increase the validity of the findings, the projects were selected based on a set of criteria. The criteria which the three match are that: each project had an impact on both Cricket Australia and state cricket associations and each project had a specific measurable objective.

The next chapter provides an overview of some of the debacles, dilemmas and success that Cricket Australia have experienced since 2005 along with providing an overview of how the study has been performed.

5. Australian Cricket – Debacles, Dilemmas and Successes

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is a preamble to the next chapter on data analysis and provides an overview of the multiple case studies undertaken in Australian cricket to answer the research questions (Australian cricket includes Cricket Australia and state cricket associations). The primary purpose of this chapter is to provide details of some of the debacles, dilemmas and successes that Australian cricket has faced and dealt with during the period 2005-16. The chapter then provides an overview of the current study, the objectives behind undertaking the study along with an outline of the approach followed for undertaking the study.

This chapter is structured in the following sections:

- Section 5.2 presents an overview the debacles, dilemmas and successes Australian cricket has face during the period 2005 through to 2016
- Section 5.3 provides a short description of the current study that is being undertaken
- Section 5.4 presents an analysis of how interview data was collected and handled
- Section 5.5 provides an overview of the objectives of the data analysis that was performed as part of this research study
- Section 5.6 provides an outline of the steps followed in undertaking this research study
- Section 5.7 presents an overview of the drivers and the delivery of change within Australian cricket

- Section 5.8 is the chapter summary and summarises what has been covered in this chapter

5.2 Debacles, Dilemmas and Successes

This section provides an outline of some of the debacles and dilemmas that Cricket Australia has been faced with and had to deal with and also some of its successes during the years 2005 through to 2015. Further information relating to key events in Australian cricket are displayed in Section 8.1.

5.2.1 Debacles

Cricket debacles have included:

- England defeating Australia 3-1 in Australia in a 5-Test Ashes series in 2010-11.
- Boxing Day, 26 December 2010, when Australia was bowled out for a total of 98 in 42 overs.
- Thursday 6 August 2015, when Australia was bowled out for a total 60, in 94 minutes and in less than 19 overs. For the record books – this was the quickest first innings in terms of balls faced in the history of Test cricket and Australia's lowest total against England since 1888.

5.2.2 Dilemmas

Cricket dilemmas have included:

- How to successfully restructure the Board of Cricket Australia and improve the governance structure without damaging relationships with state cricket associations.

- In early 2004 Cricket Australia became aware of plateauing participation figures and needed to design, develop and implement strategies to address this alarming trend.
- From 2008 to early 2011 the Australian men's cricket team had won only five out of 11 Test series. This was the team's worst series win:loss ratio since the retirements of Greg Chappell, Dennis Lillee and Rodney Marsh in 1984. The team's international ranking also slipped in 2010-11 from number one to number five.
- There was pressure on Cricket Australia to introduce a Twenty20 competition into an already hectic and packed summer cricket schedule without affecting other forms of the game (Tests and One-Day Internationals).

5.2.3 Successes

Cricket successes have included:

- In 2003 Australia won the ICC Cricket World Cup, defeating India in the final.
- A 5-0 whitewash over the English team in the Ashes series of 2006-07.
- In 2007 Australia won the ICC Cricket World Cup, defeating Sri Lanka in the final.
- A 5-0 whitewash over the English team in the Ashes series of 2013-14.
- In 2015 Australia won the ICC Cricket World Cup, defeating New Zealand in the final.
- Big Bash League (BBL), which attracted a crowd of 80,883 to the Melbourne Stars–Melbourne Renegades clash (the biggest crowd ever recorded at a domestic cricket match in Australia)
(Source: <http://www.foxsports.com.au/cricket/big-bash-league-five-incredible-facts-from-bbl-record-crowd-at-mcg-for-starsrenegades/news-story/830d8d16fd99f554354b47c9f6f70b83>).
- Cricket became Australia's number one participation sport. Cricket is Australia's current number one participation sport after record numbers picked up a bat and

ball in 2015-16, while the National Cricket Census has revealed that almost one-quarter of all players are female.

- A record 1,311,184 people played cricket across Australia in 2015-16, an 8.5 per cent increase on 2014-15 – placing cricket as the current top participation sport in Australia

(Source: <http://www.cricket.com.au/news/cricket-australia-census-participation-numbers-women-men-children-james-sutherland/2016-08-23>).

- Cricket Australia have made a significant investment in establishing a digital team. The digital team have created a number of key websites and apps for running on mobile phones. As reported by (www.roymorgan.com) www.cricket.com.au is the third most popular sports website in Australia with over 890,000 visitors per average four weeks. Social media such as facebook and twitter is used more frequently to engage with fans and supporters.
- Cricket Australia also has a mycricket application which is used by most clubs around Australia. This site is used to engage with players and administrators around Australia
-
-

Whilst there are numerous change events that could have been examined in detail with regard to Cricket Australia, three major and significant change initiatives were examined and analyzed in detail in this study. The decision to focus on these three cases was taken after discussing the availability of sufficient data to meet the intent of the study with the senior management of Cricket Australia, and my doctoral supervisors. The three cases are:

1. Cricket Australia's involvement in the planned intervention and delivery of programs to increase participation levels in the sport.
2. The change in corporate governance and restructuring of the Board of Cricket Australia.
3. The introduction of Twenty20 cricket and the re-launch of the Big Bash League (BBL) in Australia.

These three significant undertakings provided an opportunity to study key “change projects” that have occurred in Cricket Australia over a period of time (2005 to 2015) to enable an evaluation of change management in one context. Other changes that happened at the same time which were also related to these three changes are mentioned where relevant within the context of the three cases examined.

5.3 The Current Study

Participants in this study have either led a change initiative or were following the leadership of others during the implementation of a change initiative. A number of views were offered from a variety of participants reflecting on their experiences with different types of change initiatives undertaken throughout Australian cricket. Views were obtained from participants who held different positions in Australian cricket. These views provided a diverse perspective on the factors associated with sustainable change.

In this current study, the terms executive, senior manager and manager refer to directors and senior management who were interviewed who were considered to be the initiators of organisational change. The term staff member refers loosely to both employees and volunteers not in management roles but who contributed views about executive and managerial performance, and their perspective on organisational changes.

Most interviews were initially captured via digital recordings and note taking during the course of the meetings. The researcher then transcribed digital recordings of interviews. Data was analysed through conducting a detailed review of the interview transcripts, secondary and archived data and general observations and involvement in related associations (e.g. the NSW Cricket Umpires & Scorers Association). Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggest researchers need to be sensitive to what messages are contained in the data to identify any subtleties and connotations, so as to see beneath the obvious, to discover the new and to give meaning to events during organisational change.

5.4 Analysis of Interview Data

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 59), “performing a microanalysis is a key step in theory development, in conjunction with careful scrutiny of the data to generate ideas, to get the researcher deep into the data, and to focus in on pieces of data that seem relevant but whose meaning remains elusive. It also assists to prevent early foreclosure because it forces a researcher to think outside of his or her frame of references.” Essentially performing the microanalysis is a key step to uncovering new concepts, relationships and dimensions. Interviews were hand coded and the categories identified and described.

As outlined above, most interviews were digitally recorded and then fully transcribed by the researcher and double-checked with the respondent for factual accuracy. The transcribed interview was then manually coded in conjunction with the existing literature on change management and sustainable change. Coding was completed by reference to literature on both change management and sustainable change.

5.5 Key Objectives of the Data Analysis

The key objective of the data analysis consisted of examining, categorising, tabulating, or otherwise to obtain usable and useful information. The analysis was performed in an attempt to identify common patterns within the responses and critically analyse them in order to achieve research aims and objectives.

Specifically, for this study the data analysis was performed to:

- determine the approach followed for implementing change initiatives into Australian cricket
- define the types of changes the participants considered sustained change efforts
- discover the conditions associated with creating sustainable change and rank these conditions by the number of times they were reported by participants
- identify the effect causal conditions had on the organisation and the relationship to the sustained change
- establish specific strategies used to create sustainable change and to rank the responses to the question.

In this chapter I will outline how the research questions for this study were instrumental in obtaining key information from participants involved in the study. Additionally, I will explicitly give details of the data collection process, the findings, and analysis process and the conclusions drawn from this study.

5.6 Steps Involved in the Study

The study was conducted in phases as outlined below:

- Pilot study: consisted of 3 interviews to test the research questions to be asked and also gauge the responses provided, along with determining approximately how long each interview would take to complete.

- Research study: the actual study consisted of 21 semi-structured interviews with executives, senior managers, managers, staff and volunteers associated with Australian cricket (Cricket Australia, state cricket associations, Big Bash League franchises, district associations, clubs and volunteers).
- Processing and record keeping: this included recording and note taking during semi-structured interviews with study participants. Digital recordings were later transcribed and stored on secure media.

5.6.1 Pilot Study Interviews

The study was initially launched by conducting three preliminary (pilot) interviews to test the questions and to obtain feedback on the general interview process. The preliminary interviews were intended to be exploratory in nature (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 28). Explaining this stage of the research process to the first three participants and requesting their feedback provided confirmation to the researcher that the interview questions to be used were adequate to assist in determining the dynamics and properties of causal factors during change initiatives, and the impacts of sustained change efforts.

The pilot study interviews consisted of the original draft questions which were developed during the study's proposal phase. During the first two pilot interviews, each of the 11 questions (refer to Section 8.5) were initially asked in sequence. During the third pilot interview, it became apparent that the flow of conversation after the first two or three questions did not require rigid adherence to the original sequence of interview questions. Whilst the original interview questions were retained as framework for the entire investigative stage, interviewees were only asked specific interview questions if it was considered the participants did not cover off the topics of interest during the fact-finding interviews.

During the pilot phase, interviews were timed and were completed in between 60 and 90 minutes. Having more knowledge on the time required to complete the interview and elicit the information from participants permitted the setting of an estimated time frame required to conduct the remaining interviews. Providing the estimated time frame was helpful information to convey to other potential participants considering taking part in the study during the participant recruitment phase.

5.6.2 Research Study Interviews

In total, the study consisted of 21 semi-structured interviews with executives, senior managers, managers, staff and volunteers spread across Australian cricket who had experienced an event resulting in a sustained change. Originally, the intent was to interview people face-to-face. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with participants in Sydney, Brisbane and Melbourne. It was, however, considered more practical and economical to conduct phone interviews with people who were located in other capital cities such as Adelaide, Perth and Hobart. Interviews took place between 15 May 2015 and 31 August 2015. Interviews were completed for the most part in approximately 50 to 75 minutes.

The study proposal identified a target group of participants from Australian cricket (Cricket Australia, state cricket associations, BBL franchises and two volunteers). Participants contacted agreed to the invitation to take part in the study, which resulted in a wide variety of perspectives from executives, managers and staff who resided in all states across Australia. The sustained change efforts took place throughout Australian cricket and also specifically within Cricket Australia.

Each interviewee discussed the initiation of change efforts taking place between 2005 and 2015. For most of the respondents, identifying a specific sustained change initiative was a simple task. Overall, the majority of respondents described positive

aspects of change initiatives. There were very few participants who described negative experiences with the sustained change initiatives and these comments have been included in the data analysis.

Interview questions were structured to assist participants to identify the change initiative, their respective role in the initiative, the goals of the change initiative and how the change was executed and managed. It was the description of the execution of each goal that highlighted the strategies, causal factors and the impacts of each sustained change initiative.

The study focused on the relationship between the change initiative activities and their impacts leading to the effort's sustainability. These data were gleaned from the responses to the interview questions, but mainly from the last set of questions where participants were asked to describe the lessons they had learned through the sustained change effort they were describing for this study. The lessons learned through a sustained change effort were arguably the most thoroughly described aspects of the interview. Almost all the efforts described were driven by Cricket Australia's vision. This latter point will be disclosed as a significant element later in this chapter.

5.6.3 Interview Questions

Two main questions were asked in the interviews, and were consistent for each interviewee:

- How does Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote sustainable change within Australian cricket? What have been the major drivers for change within Australian cricket? Can you think of and describe a change initiative that you either lead or were involved in that was sustained and has had a positive impact on Australian cricket in the last 5-10 years?

- I am looking to gain an understanding of how Cricket Australia and/or state cricket associations handled communication, team building, inter-group conflict, and resistance to change during organisational change. Can you provide an overview of how each of these specific areas has been managed during the implementation of a strategic and sustained change initiative?

Interviewees were asked the following questions to focus their responses on change initiatives in Australian cricket.:

- What do you understand of the term sustainable change? and Can you think of and describe a change initiative that you lead or were involved in that was sustained?
- What was the role that you performed during the sustained strategic change event that you described?
- What indicators did you detect that suggest that the change initiative was sustained?
- What factors led to the change initiative being undertaken and what were the desired goals and outcomes to be achieved?
- What did you observe that led to the successful sustainability of the change?
- Can you describe the impacts that you observed on the organisation from the created conditions?
- Can you identify key strategies that you observed that were successful and lead to the implementation of sustainable strategic change?
- What lessons did you learn from the change initiative that you have described?
- Have you noticed that lessons learned have been taken on board when starting on or working on other sustained strategic change initiatives?

Throughout the interviews, where necessary, additional probing questions were utilised to continue the dialogue and give respondents an opportunity to fully describe the changes in Australian cricket, Cricket Australia and/or state cricket associations.

5.6.4 Unstructured Components of the Interview

A sample of the probing questions used to elicit additional information from respondents includes:

- How has Cricket Australia been able to change and introduce new structures, products and services?
- Can you provide an example of the types of communication utilised in Australian cricket, Cricket Australia and state cricket associations? and What sort of communication methods would you like to see utilised in Australian cricket, Cricket Australia and state cricket associations?
- How has Cricket Australia communicated its vision to key stakeholders and people involved in cricket around Australia?
- Is there diversity and involvement of women in the organisation? How important is this and how has Cricket Australia worked to ensure the success of the integration of men and women to become an integrated national body?
- How has Cricket Australia worked with state associations to align them to the organisation vision and strategy?
- What is viewed as a major critical element that will allow cricket to continue to be Australia's favourite sport?
- What impact does the success of the Australian Men's Team have on the image of the game?
- What has been the major impact of Twenty20 cricket on the image of Cricket Australia and to what extent have public relations, strategic use of technology and social media been adopted to grow the game of cricket in Australia?

- What measures have Cricket Australia put in place for all three formats (i.e. Shield/Tests, one-day matches and Twenty20) to co-exist at both domestic and international levels?
- How is change and change management addressed within Cricket Australia when implementing new projects or systems?

5.6.5 Evidence of Quality

The nature and methodology for this study meant that most data were collected from study participants; however, there was an opportunity to validate the quality of the data through review of publicly available information on some of the specific change efforts as discussed in the interview sessions. I validated many of the data captured using the internet and searching the data over the years and during change initiatives described by participants.

5.6.6 Steps Taken to Ensure Credibility

Credibility is defined as the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings (Holloway & Wheeler, 2002; Macnee & McCabe, 2008). Credibility establishes whether or not the research findings represent plausible information drawn from the participants' original data and is a correct interpretation of the participants' original views (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Qualitative research data collection requires the researcher's self-immersion into the participants' world view (Bitsch, 2005). The immersion of the inquirer into the participants' world helps the researcher to understand the context of the study and minimise the distortions of information that might arise due to the presence of the researcher. Extended time in the field improves trust with respondents and also extends understanding of participants' local construction and culture context (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007).

Study participants in the pilot phase of the study continued to be a resource for me to verify data and to check my assumptions as they developed during the course of the research. In fact, study participants not part of the pilot phase were also asked to verify my assumptions. When I asked participants for feedback on my assumptions, I was applying a constant comparison process and the interplay between the researcher and study participants. (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 42).

5.7 Drivers and Delivery of Change – Cricket Australia

The following section provides a high-level overview of how Cricket Australia has acted as an agent of change as well as outlining why Cricket Australia has acted to promote change within Australian cricket.

5.7.1 Perspectives on the Game of Cricket in Australia

Australian cricket is currently at the strongest point in its history. There are currently more players, both men and women, playing the game now than ever before. Additionally, the game is followed by more people on television and the internet now than ever before. Cricket is now the most popular sport in Australia (Sweeney Sports Report, 2015). However, this has not always been the case. Cricket Australia, with assistance from state cricket associations, has worked hard over the last ten to 15 years to deliver sustainable strategic change to Australian cricket.

5.7.2 Strategic Management in Australian Cricket

Delivering a strategy is widely accepted as an important element for any organisation to influence the likelihood of it being successful (Miles & Snow, 1978; Porter, 1980). Organisations that develop strategies are more likely to have clear objectives, an ability to cope with changes to their operating environment, enable greater coordination of the

efforts of their employees and may have improved organisational performance (Miller, 1988).

Since the late 1990s Cricket Australia has moved through different phases of strategy development. As outlined by the CEO of Cricket Australia:

Cricket in Australia at the turn of the century really did not have a strategic focus until 2002 when the first strategy for Australian cricket was developed. The Strategy titled “From Backyard to Baggy Green” started to shape Australian cricket by establishing business practices and behaviours.

The CEO stressed the importance of being overt about the fact that it was not a strategy for Cricket Australia but that it was a strategy for Australian cricket.

It is really important to talk about Australian cricket in a holistic sense – about the component parts of Australian cricket and how they contribute – Cricket Australia and also the state associations to start with, but for them to understand that they all contribute in special ways – to the delivery of a successful sport in Australia.

5.7.3 Development and Delivery of the Strategy for Australian Cricket

The strategic management process utilised by Cricket Australia is considered to operate in three parts:

- **strategy formulation** which involved extensive consultation with key stakeholders and followed with the development of the strategy for Australian cricket;
- **strategy content**, where Cricket Australia has identified and highlighted five key pillars that are critical to achieve the vision to be Australia’s favourite sport: put fans first; produce the best teams, players, competitions, coaches and officials in the world; increase participation substantially and inspire the next generation of players, fans and volunteers; work as one team across Australian cricket by

providing world-class leadership and management to deliver their strategy; grow investment and allocate resources to deliver their strategy;

- **strategy implementation**, where the focus is on determining the most appropriate approach to be undertaken to transfer strategies from ideas to reality.

5.7.4 The Shared Vision

Cricket Australia has developed a vision for cricket to be “Australia’s favourite sport – a sport for all Australians”. This is considered to be a shared vision built upon a collective, unwavering commitment for all parts of Australian cricket (Cricket Australia and state and territory cricket associations) to aspire to ensuring that cricket is considered and recognised as being Australia’s favourite sport.

The strategy and vision together have been viewed as being key and critical elements in assisting Cricket Australia to start lifting its sights and become more aggressive and believe in the potential of cricket. Throughout the last decade, Cricket Australia has continually reviewed and updated the strategy to ensure that it remains relevant for directing and guiding the sport in an ever changing and evolving word.

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides an overview of a number of major debacles and dilemmas that Australian cricket faced during the period 2005 through to 2016. A summary of some of the major successes achieved during this period was also provided.

This chapter then provided the reader with an overview of the key objectives for undertaking this study along with outlining how the study was undertaken. A brief overview of where Australian cricket considers itself to be positioned presently in terms of popularity in Australia is provided. Two key tools utilised by Cricket Australia during the period 2005 through to 2016 that have assisted them in preparing the organization

for change are mentioned: (1) the strategy for Australian cricket and (2) the organisation vision Cricket to be Australia's Favourite Sport.

In the next chapter, the discussion chapter the intention is to analyse statements from directors, executives, managers, staff and volunteers and links these findings to the literature described in Chapter 2. The chapter also aims to investigate how the approach to change has been undertaken and how change has been sustained in a complex sporting environment.

6. Results, Discussion and Interpretations of the Cases

Cricket in Australia has arguably never looked healthier. For the governing body, the challenge remains to capitalise on this period of unparalleled commercial and sporting success.

(Gideon Haigh)

6.1 Introduction

The previous five chapters have introduced the topic of this research, discussed literature reviews related to change management and sustainable change in complex sporting environments and identified gaps from previous studies and introduced the research questions. The overview of the research methodology demonstrated what ontology and epistemology was adopted and the methods that were utilised, and justified and why they were considered the most appropriate for this study. This chapter will explore the patterns and themes that were derived from the qualitative content analysis along with presenting a discussion of key points identified. The chapter is structured in the following sections.

Section 6.2 presents an analysis of the interview data where a detailed account of the findings from the primary data collection phase – interviews with research study participants. This section is structured into two parts; the first part focuses on the analysis of the in-depth interviews and the second part presents findings from the analysis and review of artifacts such as strategic plans, annual reports and cricket census data.

Section 6.3 presentation of the change approach taken and the changes that resulted within game development and increasing participation levels in Australian cricket

Section 6.4 presentation of the change approach taken and the changes that resulted in the area of Corporate Governance restructuring the Board of Cricket Australia

Section 6.5 presentation of the change approach taken and the changes that occurred during the re-launch of the Big Bash League (BBL)

Section 6.6 data analysis using the software tool NVivo

Three distinct cases have been examined in this research project. Whilst the projects can stand alone, and to some people they probably do, the cases can easily be linked and related to each other.

6.1.1 Restatement of the Research Questions

This section revisits the research questions to focus the discussion and interpretation presented in this chapter. The main focus of this research was to understand how Cricket Australia implemented change within Australian cricket and to identify factors that enabled change to be sustained. The research questions that guided the study were:

1. RQ1 - How and why sports organisations implement strategic change?
2. RQ2 - What factors contribute to the sustainability of change in sports organisations?

The secondary questions that informed the main two research questions were:

1. How did Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote change throughout Australian cricket?
2. What strategies are used to create sustainable change?

The primary research questions are focused on exploring the key reasons for how and why sports organisations implement sustainable strategic change and the secondary

research questions explore the unique factors that contribute to sustain strategic change in sports organisations.

Having a detailed understanding of the reasons, processes, factors and their associated properties should contribute to the body of knowledge on change management and it should contribute to the development of a theory related to sustainable change so as to serve researcher and practitioner needs alike.

This study emerged for two primary reasons:

- i. it emerged in response to the absence of literature available on implementing strategic change within complex sporting environments and
- ii. it emerged in response to the absence of literature available to guide practitioners interested in creating sustainable change within complex sporting environments.

The research and literature in both these areas is developing and thus there is the need for further investigation on these two topics.

The properties and dimensions of the strategies and conditions contributing to implementing strategic change and creating sustainable change were investigated by obtaining the views and opinions of persons involved in strategic change initiatives. In addition, the impacts of strategies and conditions used as part of the change initiative were identified. Sustainable change is defined as ‘the process through which new working methods, performance goals and improvement trajectories are maintained for a period appropriate to a given context’ (Buchanan et al., 2007, p. 23).

6.2 Interview Analysis Findings, Interpretations and Discussion

This section of the chapter provides an overview of interview findings using the main questions asked in the interview, and reports on changes experienced by the

participants who took part in the research study. This section is further subdivided into five sections:

- a. Cricket Australia acting as a change agent;
- b. Definitions and understanding of sustainable strategic change;
- c. Causal conditions and factors that contribute to ensuring change is sustainable
- d. Phenomena resulting from causal conditions and factors that ensure change is sustainable
- e. Strategies and factors that are utilised to sustain strategic change.

(Refer to Figure 6-1) for additional information on these five sections and primary questions asked in interviews with research study participants.

Three initial pilot interviews were conducted. These interviews were conducted primarily to validate the interview questions to ascertain appropriateness and contribute to construct validity. The interview questions were tested to determine if they were appropriate. Another reason as to why pilot interviews were completed was because of the limited availability of some of the study participants. The results of all interviews, including the pilot interviews, are analysed and discussed below.

Memos were written during the entire process of collecting and analysing data, as this facilitated reflection on the collected data. A number of memos are shown throughout the chapter to demonstrate their importance for the development of the final categories. Participants' names have been replaced by codes to maintain anonymity as required by the ethics approval. Study participants have been assigned codes from S1-S25. For further information on research study participant codes refer to Section 8.3.

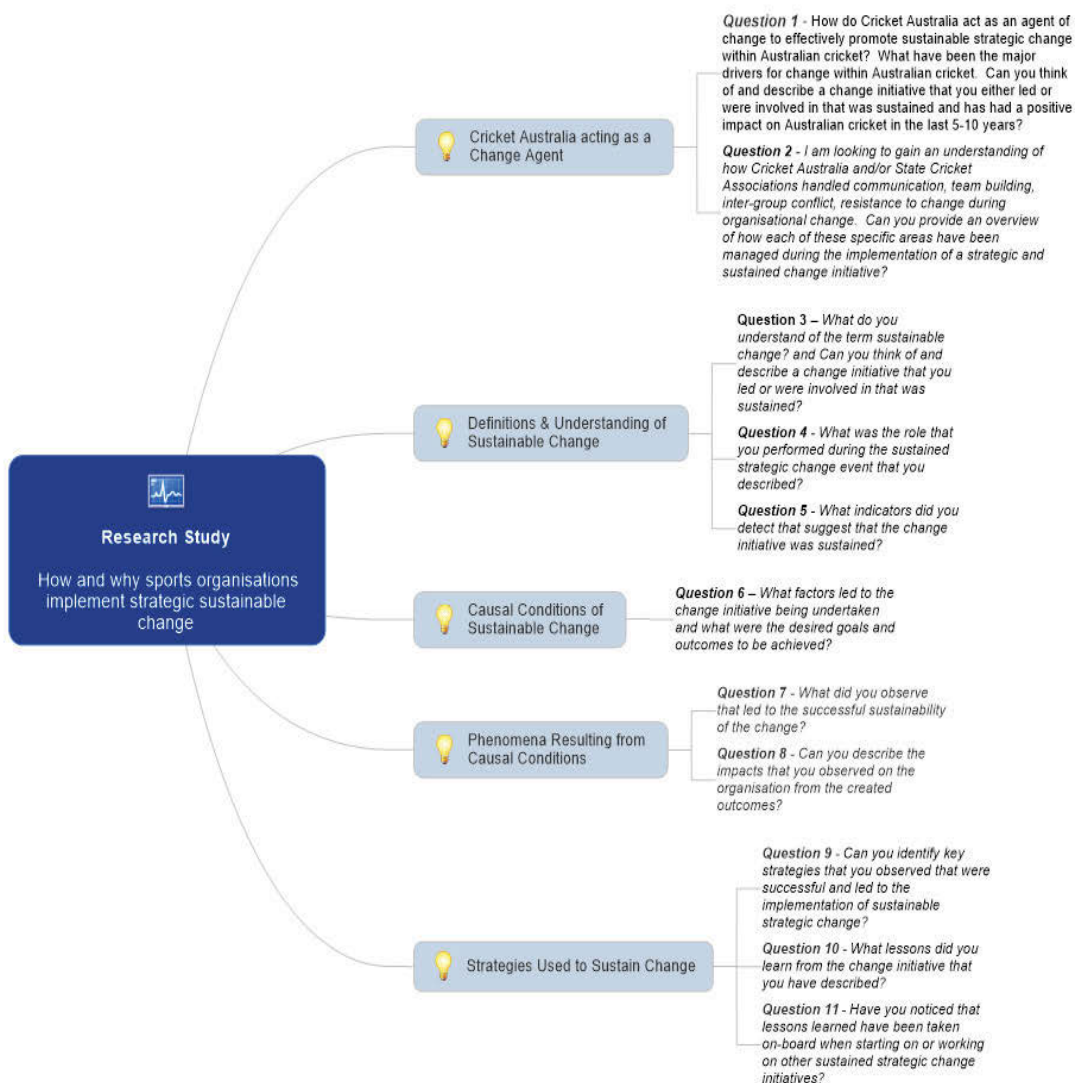


Figure 6-1 – Groupings of Research Questions Related to Change Initiatives

The research study focused on examining how and why sports organisations (in this case Australian Cricket) implemented strategic sustainable change. The 11 primary questions that were to be asked were grouped into 5 main sections in an attempt to ensure that interviews were focused on both implementing change and sustainable change.

6.2.1 Cricket Australia Acting as a Change Agent

Question 1 - How did Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote sustainable change within Australian cricket? What have been the major drivers for change within Australian cricket? Can you think of and describe a change initiative that you either lead or were involved in that was sustained and has had a positive impact on Australian cricket in the last 5-10 years?

These questions were aimed at gaining a broad understanding of the range of change initiatives that study participants could recall that Cricket Australia had undertaken during the period 2005 to 2015. The range of responses were very diverse due in part to the wide range of areas and roles that participants occupied within Australian cricket as well as the broad nature of questions asked. Study participants came from Cricket Australia executives and senior management located in Sydney, Melbourne or Brisbane as well as management and staff from each state cricket association and each BBL franchise. The interview respondents held roles as CEOs general managers, managers and staff in game development, high performance, and managers of leagues (BBL), strategy and scheduling. Change had occurred in the areas of organisational restructuring, game development, increasing participation levels, high performance and corporate governance.

Major drivers for change that were identified from the responses were:

- 'having a detailed understanding of the environment in which Australian cricket operates, and have planning and clarity about what we (CA) were trying to achieve';
- 'increasing levels of participation – a key goal was to increase the numbers participating in the sport of cricket (both outdoors and indoors). In relation to juniors, it was a lot about striking the right balance of giving kids a great time but also giving them a feel for the game so they can develop their skills';

- ‘the national team was very much the flagship of the sport in the country, the success of the Australian cricket team was important, but it wasn’t the only thing that was important – to some extent it is a means to an end’;
- ‘diversity – there were a whole lot of people in Australia who didn’t necessarily relate to the Australian cricket team in the way that many cricket fans did. That was largely because of their background, culturally in terms of coming from a different country or alternatively just that they didn’t grow up with cricket as a sport and had not developed an affinity with the team’;
- ‘growing the game – the BBL was a great opportunity to take that step of having a league that engaged cricket fans as well as broadening CA’s reach to a wider audience to make the sport more popular. One of the critical initiatives of putting fans first was realising a vision to be Australia’s favourite sport, and to be a sport for all Australians. If CA wanted to lay claim to that, then it needed to be able to boast a fan-base that was diverse and covers males and females, young and old, family groups and people from all backgrounds and cultures’.

When asked specifically about how Cricket Australia acted as an agent of change, the responses were varied. Frequently, participants struggled with identifying the methods that were used to effectively promote change initiatives. Strategic plans for Australian cricket, engagement with key stakeholders, senior management sponsorship, and improved communications were identified as key factors that enabled Cricket Australia to successfully introduce and implement change into Australian cricket. Leadership and having an understanding of people and cultural issues were viewed as key factors for effectively achieving sustainable change.

The following excerpt illustrates how one participant (the CEO of Cricket Australia) viewed the importance of the strategic plan:

The Cricket Australia (CA) Board approved a Strategy for Australian Cricket for 2011-2015. As the name suggests, this strategy is not just for CA but also for the state and territory associations in Australia, as it was developed in extensive consultation with these key stakeholders.

Central to this strategy is the vision for cricket in this country: “To be Australia's Favourite Sport”. To achieve this vision, the strategy contains both short-term targets and long-term aspirations. In the short-term (by 2015), cricket aims to be number one in the country for:

- *viewership*
- *fan passion*
- *participation*
- *team success.*

In the longer term, cricket aspires to be number one in the country for:

- *share of all sports media voice*
- *attendance*
- *investment in the game.*

Further to this, the plan outlines the following strategic imperatives for Australian cricket over the next four years:

- *“Thinking big”. This means recognising cricket is in competition for fans, participants and the title of Australia's Favourite Sport, and therefore aiming to achieve significant long-term growth, rather than growing incrementally.*
- *Diversifying cricket's fan base. We need to grow interest in cricket among young people and females especially, and increase their passion for the game. At the same time, we need to preserve cricket's traditional strengths and audience.*
- *Increasing the performance, efficiency and agility of Australian cricket administration.*

The strategy has five pillars that are critical to achieve the vision to be Australia's favourite sport:

1. *Put fans first.*
2. *Produce the best teams, players and officials in the world.*
3. *Increase participation substantially and inspire the next generation of players and fans.*
4. *Provide world-class leadership and management and unify Australian cricket.*
5. *Grow investment in the game.*

One of the most prominent comment was related to having all states and territories collaborating and working together. For example:

S2 indicated that Australian cricket is continually changing and improving – “there continue to be improvements in the way Cricket Australia and state cricket associations communicate and work together collaboratively. We as members of the Australian cricket family try to work hard to provide cricketers and fans with a sport that they can enjoy as they are the ultimate owners of the game.”

S6 stated that state cricket associations and Cricket Australia have in the last ten years become more united – “there are now more nationalised programs to ensure everyone is working towards a common goal”.

S8 stated – “off the field we are working as one team to put together an exciting cricketing concept aimed not just at sports fans but also aimed at exciting entertainment so as to attract new fans to the game. Off the field we act as one team – on the field of play the teams are competitive so as to try to be the best.”

S3 tried to point out that both the states and Cricket Australia realise you can't be successful independently – “we need to work together as a team – with strong leadership but also with everyone working together to help cricket realise its vision”.

It was emphasised by the CEO of Cricket Australia, and Directors of Cricket Australia, that there is an understanding that ultimately cricketers and cricket fans are really the owners that Cricket Australia and state cricket associations should serve.

This importance of having all states and the territories aligned and collaborating is consistent with Lewin's emphasis on staff and stakeholder engagement during any change effort (as cited in Burke, 2010). It is apparent that this study supports Lewin's assertion about the importance of engagement and it clearly illustrates the importance of the engagement factor throughout all phases of a sustainable strategic change initiative and evolution throughout Australian cricket. In particular, Lewin's study emphasised the prominence of leadership when leading and sustaining change.

The real health, and the real indicators of how strong and healthy cricket is, cannot be assessed purely on the performance and the success of the national cricket team. It is true that the health of Australian cricket may often be judged by the success of the

national team; however, the real indicators of how healthy the sport is should consist of a number of factors such as performance of the national team, the number of players playing the game, and the number of fans attending matches and/or watching matches on television. In the last five years the national team has performed well, especially in Australia, there have been significant increases in participation numbers and there has been a dramatic increase in the number of fans attending matches throughout the Australian cricket season. Ultimately, it is more the extent to which cricket engages with the Australian community and how it does that on all sorts of levels, not just through the Australian team. Whether it's a junior participation program or the BBL or the Boxing Day Test, engaging with cricket fans and the Australian community is really what Australian cricket is all about.

The following excerpt is again from the CEO of Cricket Australia:

I'm a great believer in teams and I believe the best teams get results because they identify with what they're trying to do, set goals for themselves and then coordinate themselves in a fashion that gives them the greatest chance of success, and they work that way. That's one of the great challenges for Australian cricket, we are set up organisationally in the way that we are, but one thing we have done is set ourselves a strategy for Australian cricket, a shared, agreed goal with extensive consultation with the states, and through boards and management, to arrive at this plan. It has its pillars; it has its vision. The next step from there is to implement it. That might mean along the way there are certain things that were seen to be important in the past that no longer crack the list of priorities. Very important that we dedicate resources in a prioritised fashion to deliver on these outcomes. That's one of the things I like about the strategy is that it is very clear and very pointed and gives an opportunity to filter some of the things we do, to say "this is important and nice to do but not as important as the big picture".

I firmly believe that as leaders we need to teach and coordinate people around the country to have a strategic mindset. So it's not just about "this is the strategy" and then you go and put it in the bottom drawer, it's about having a permanent mindset around strategy that says "this is the big picture, this is why we're doing it and if what I'm doing today isn't helping us to achieve our vision, then maybe I shouldn't be doing it, maybe I should be putting my hand up here and saying is there a different way or a better way". I really

believe it is important for everyone who works in cricket, everyone involved in cricket, and that includes the players and down to community level where players are amateur and volunteers are the same, we all have a line of sight to our vision for cricket and what we want it to be. We want it to embrace the community, be a place for people to go to have a good time and enjoy friendships and enjoy the virtues of the game.

S7 stated clearly it is very important to understand what the consumer wants: "We conduct regular surveys and polls during the season and work collaboratively as a team to ensure that we deliver a product that exceeds what the fans want to see".

The above statements clearly indicate that the leadership and support of senior management is critical to the success of any change efforts. As outlined by Burke (2010), Herkness et al. (1996) and Peppard and Rowland (1995), the support and guidance of organisational leaders is essential to successful planned change management efforts and for gaining buy-in from lower levels of an organisation. Additionally, the involvement and intervention at critical points will encourage a nurturing environment for change to help sustain the momentum. This thought is further supported by Herkness et al., 1996, who noted that the ongoing involvement and commitment of highly influential individuals is important to the endurance and sustainability of strategic change initiatives.

Question 2 - I am looking to gain an understanding of how Cricket Australia and/or State Cricket Associations handled communication, team building, inter-group conflict, resistance to change during organisational change. Can you provide an overview of how each of these specific areas has been managed during the implementation of a strategic and sustained change initiative?

Cricket Australia communicated through different department meetings and conferences held throughout the course of each year. For example, there are four CEO conferences held each year and conference calls between departments each month. The CEO conferences are essential and have a clearly established agenda and format in which achieved results and new initiatives are discussed. It is then up to each of the state cricket association CEOs to filter information down to staff and volunteers. Study participants indicated that for major projects which are aimed at increasing participation

and diversity or increasing the fan base a number of road shows and presentations were held in each state to provide information to districts, clubs and schools so that they had an understanding of what was taking place and what they could expect both in the short-term and also in the long-term.

S4 stated:

We engage with people around the state by holding roadshows to provide local club administrators and coaches with updates of what Cricket Australia and the state cricket association are doing to grow the game and support them in their efforts. We will fly people in to conduct roadshows in different areas or regions. We also encourage feedback and then take on board feedback so as to implement change if required.

S3 also indicated that the state cricket association aims to:

... keep sponsors and key stakeholders informed of important events such as player and/or coach movement so that they receive information through proper channels rather than hear information via the media. It is all about engaging with stakeholders regularly.

6.2.2 Defining and Understanding Sustainable Change Initiatives

Question 3 – What do you understand of the term sustainable change? and Can you think of and describe a change initiative that you lead or were involved in that was sustained?

Most participants were able to provide some form of definition of change and came up with an answer similar to or the same as – “to make or become different”, but struggled with the term *sustainable change*. To assist, a definition of sustainable change was provided. Sustainable change is:

... the process through which new working methods, performance goals and improvement trajectories are maintained for a period appropriate to a given context. (Buchanan et al., 2007, p. 23).

This question followed the initial question and was specifically aimed at identifying what participants understood about sustainable change. To assist in narrowing the scope of answers and to identify specific sustained change initiatives, participants were asked to

recall a change initiative that they had led or were involved with and describe the initiative fully for the purpose of this study.

S14 stated that “the re-launched BBL competition, the decision to have city based teams and holding the competition during the main holiday season does work. The continued growth of the competition year by year in terms of fan attendance at matches and increased television audiences indicates that the change has been sustainable.”

S11 said that “the decision to relaunch the BBL and the impact that it has had on cricket in Australia has led to a number of other changes: changing the structure of the season, establishment of ‘icon’ events, and changing the way that social media is utilised to engage with fans”.

Participants were requested to attempt to give an example of a change initiative that fitted with the study’s definition of sustainable change (“the point at which new ways of working become the norm and the underlying systems and ways of working become transformed”). The two examples outlined above indicate that through the re-launch of the BBL there has been sustained change throughout Australian cricket – for example traditional “icon” events. Whilst still a relatively new concept, the match played on New Year’s Eve is always between the Adelaide Strikers and one other team and is played at Adelaide Oval. Also the restructure of the cricket season – this has only happened in the last three to four years. It has been done for a number of reasons: to ease players back into the cricket season and also put some more structure into the season so fans can understand the season a little more.

Referring to the definition of sustainable change, a few participants struggled to provide an answer immediately. However, most of the participants were able to identify a change initiative that they were comfortable in discussing. Providing the definition of sustainable strategic change did assist in triggering examples of sustainable change initiatives. The examples referred to most often were change initiatives aimed at increasing levels of participation both in terms of boys and girls playing and being

involved in the sport and the introduction of the Big Bash League (BBL). During the summer of 2015-16 there was the introduction of the Women's Big Bash League (WBBL). Due to the popularity of the BBL and the WBBL, regional BBL competitions in different states have been established. It was also noted that there has been a sharp increase in females participating in the sport and this, according to study participants, can be linked to the introduction of the WBBL competition.

S24 stated that since the start of the Women's BBL in 2015-16 participation figures of women and young girls playing the game have increase substantially.

S24 also indicated that plans are in place to have players from state teams and BBL franchises to head to regional areas to introduce the game to children and continue taking the game to regional areas.

Question 4 - What was the role that you performed during the strategic change event that you described?

Due to the nature of roles that study participants held in within Cricket Australia, state cricket associations or BBL franchises, most participants had at some stage of their career led or been involved in a change event and all had been involved in a sustainable strategic change initiative. An example received from participants that had led change initiatives included S5's statement that a key role in the change was to continually make people aware of the change, to:

... engage key stakeholders and communicate often (through memos, focus group meetings etc) about the change initiative ... it was important to be positive and keep going at all times ... believe in the change and constantly remind others of the vision.

Another study participant S24, who was not leading the change initiative but was instead affected by the change initiative made the comment:

I was a participant and had no choice!!! Whilst it was not stated, it appeared from the tone of the conversation that there could have been some resistance to an initiative for one reason or another but this was addressed through regular communication during and about the change and why it was being introduced

Whilst reviewing the transcripts it was noted that there were a number of one-line descriptions explaining roles during the implementation of sustainable strategic change. However, most participants in the study identified themselves as either managers, change leaders, or consultants. One staff member and a volunteer identified themselves as being people who had to accept and work with the change. Consideration has been given to determining why there was not the variety of responses one would have expected had the study been conducted in commercial organisations. This has been attributed in part to study participants mainly all holding manager, senior manager or executive roles, with few exceptions.

The majority of the participants expressed positive opinions and thoughts relating to sustainable strategic change, as they were generally involved in leading the change. One staff member and the volunteer involved and affected by change initiatives stated clearly that improvements had been made especially in the area of communication so that they felt that they clearly understood the need for change and they were also kept informed of how the change was to be made. S1 suggested that increased use of social media and websites assisted in enabling sustainable change:

Cricket Australia and most state cricket associations had invested heavily into developing and improving communications with communication managers and commercial and events managers communicating regularly with participants, key stakeholders and sponsors.

S22 outlined that:

... in recent seasons there had been an increased and sustained level of communication going out to country areas and regional areas of the states to outline what changes were being made across the board as far as cricket was concerned.

As outlined on the Cricket NSW website:

NSW's best players will head to regional NSW next week, as part of the NSW Country Blitz. The annual program sees players from the NSW Blues and

Breakers as well as Sydney Sixers and Sydney Thunder players travel throughout the state, visiting schools and community groups.

The Blitz is part of Cricket NSW's ongoing support of the sport in regional NSW and the ACT, and aims to increase participation at a grassroots level.

During the three-day Blitz players will attend MILO T20 Blast clinics, with the format one of the earliest steps in the Cricket Australia pathway by providing a link from MILO in2CRICKET to junior cricket as a fun, safe and affordable way to begin playing cricket.

Another thing that was mentioned frequently was that communicating the vision "Australia's favourite sport" was very important. Every person involved in cricket had a role and assisted in some way when it came to the implementation of sustained change and especially in assisting in cricket achieving its vision. Figure 6-2 outlines the number of responses from study participants indicating the role that they held on change projects that they were involved with. It should be noted that some participants indicated during the interviews that they had worked on some change projects and they had also led other change projects. This figure indicates that most of the study participants considered that they were either managers and/or leaders of change. This is understandable given the roles that study participants held within Australian cricket. Whilst this study was not a quantitative study and analysis, having an understanding of the roles that study participants filled assisted in the analysis of the data collected.

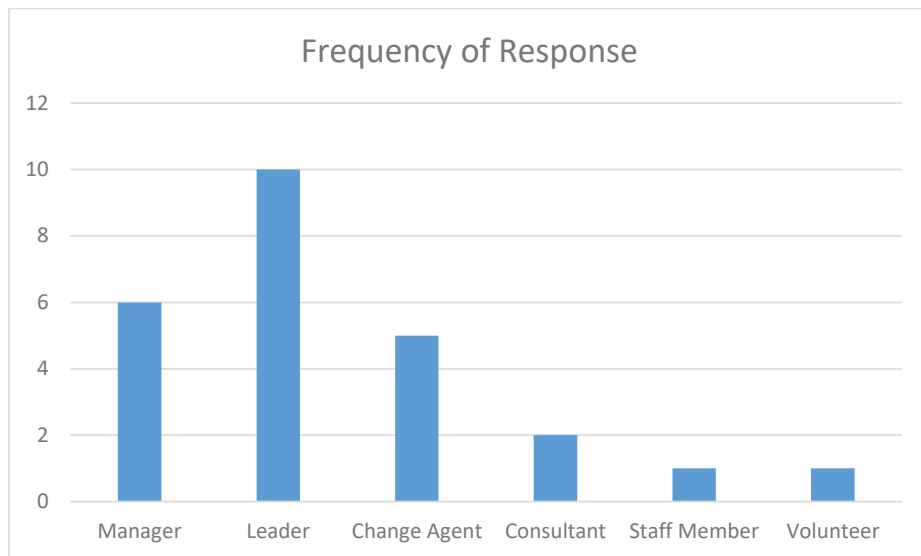


Figure 6-2 – Roles Played During Change Initiatives

Question 5 - What indicators did you detect that suggest that the change initiative was sustained?

This question was asked of participants to see if they could identify reasons which suggested why the change initiative they were describing was sustained. The responses received generated a large number of factors, which were grouped into three categories. Some of the comments were short; however, there were a number of responses that were lengthy, detailed and full of explanation. Some of the prominent quotes made by participants during the interviews and underlying factors are outlined below in Table 6-1.

Participant	Quote	Underlying factor(s)	Further Analysis
P2	Change is one of the most visible features of all sport organisations.	It has been recognised for some time _ the importance of having a strategic plan for Australian cricket. Having a strategy in place is one way to ensure that we can achieve change and increase performance in a complex environment that is continually changing.	As outlined by Toor & Ofori (2008) there is a need for a new type of leadership style. In Australian cricket, teams need to be organised to deliver distinct, though often inter-related projects. Leadership for this type of approach can be referred to as Authentic Leadership
S18	The move to franchises did not come from the result of extensive research, but it was a considered to be a way of attracting bigger and fresher markets.	People were not passionate about state cricket.	
S17	Cricket and in particular women’s cricket in Australia is probably at its strongest point ever.	In recent times and especially the last five years there has been an increasing focus on diversity to include females into each of the five pillars. New structures had to be put in place when Cricket Australia and Women’s Cricket merged to come under the one banner	According to Scott (2008), institutional theory considers the processes by which regulative, normative and cultural cognitive structures are established as ‘authoritative guidelines’ for social behaviour. The theory explains how these elements are created, diffused, adopted and adapted over space and time (i.e. institutionalised); and how they fall into decline and disuse (i.e. deinstitutionalised).
S14 & S24	There has been a substantial increase in the number of people playing the game and also a substantial interest in the number of fans attending matches and interested in the game.	The introduction of the BBL was intended to attract young people and young families to the game. New structures had to be put in place when the BBL was re-launched.	As above
P2	This is an entertainment package and it’s going to	People with more entertainment options, but looking for something that	

Participant	Quote	Underlying factor(s)	Further Analysis
	compete with all other franchise sports.	the whole family can follow.	
S13	The time frame and non-stop action makes it a winner.	The game’s changing environment in Australia, i.e. people with more entertainment options, people time poor, and a changing demography with more migrants.	<i>Strategic management is one of the areas of greatest impact on the functioning and development of an organization.</i> The strategy is one of the main instruments with which the managers operate to harmonize the environment around them with the organization's internal resources and skills. On this basis it seeks to develop competition, so the products / services to satisfy well-defined recipients. (Jinga, 2015)

Table 6-1 - Quotes Made by Participants

Changes were made by Cricket Australia to put fans first, to increase participation levels in the game and to improve pathway structures to produce the best teams in all formats of the game. It was detected that the term *change* was mentioned frequently during the interviews. This suggests that areas mentioned are new or changed and different to what they were before.

S1: “In 2010 the Australian Cricket Conference was held. This event brought together a large number of management and staff from Australian cricket along with key stakeholders to discuss important things that needed to be considered and undertaken by Cricket Australia and state cricket associations to ensure that Australian cricket achieved its vision of becoming Australia’s favourite sport.

This event was critical in engaging with key stakeholders to show that Australian cricket was keen and eager in gaining a detailed understanding of what people considered to be key issues that had to be addressed and undertaken correctly.

The conference was an important event for engaging with key stakeholders, and for ensuring that Cricket Australia understood the environment in which it was operating so as to develop the strategy for Australian cricket for the short-term, medium-term and the long-term.

Through the Australian Cricket Conference Australian cricket gained the support and confidence of key stakeholders. Shortly after the conference, Cricket Australia released an updated strategy for Australian cricket. The updated strategy had taken into account the thoughts of key stakeholders.

Some key indicators that pointed to the success of sustainable strategic change included:

The KFC Big Bash in 2015/16 had television ratings reaching an average audience of more than 1 million Australians tuning in to watch each match of the tournament on Network TEN. Fans across Australia flocked to the BBL with a record breaking 1,030,495 people attending all matches throughout the season. Additionally, seven out of eight venues set all-time domestic cricket attendance records, including 80,883 fans attending the Melbourne Cricket Ground (MCG) for a Melbourne Stars vs. Melbourne Renegades clash on 2 January 2016.

The Rebel Women's Big Bash League (WBBL) achieved impressive results in just its first season, with more than 70,000 attendees attending the tournament and an average television audience of 231,000 people watching matches. The TV audience peaked to 398,642 viewers during one of the matches that broadcast on free-to-air television. (Cricket Australia, 2016)

These figures, especially the crowd figures for the BBL attendance and television ratings, appear to indicate that the decision to re-launch the BBL with city-based teams has been successful and the change has been sustainable. Whilst not presented here, figures relating to attendances indicate that there have been increased attendances in each year that the competition has been held.

6.2.3 Causal Factors

Question 6 – What factors led to the change initiative being undertaken and what were the desired goals and outcomes to be achieved?

In this question, participants were asked to explain what led to strategic change initiatives being undertaken and what outcomes were expected of the sustained change effort. Having an understanding of the reasons of why the change initiative was being undertaken and knowing what outcomes were expected, according to participants, assisted in establishing a strong foundation and the building blocks that cemented and sustained the change.

6.2.3.1 Change Drivers

Key factors that led to change initiatives being undertaken include putting fans first (the introduction of a new league – the BBL which was aimed at increasing the fan base and giving fans what they wanted); the introduction of a digital department to provide fans with up-to-date information on cricket (national, BBL and state cricket updates and news stories; changes to increase participation levels in the game (the introduction of programs such as MILO in2CRICKET and T20 Blast); changes to corporate governance and changing the structure of the Board with the view to moving to a “Best Practice” model of corporate governance, and changes to pathway structures to produce the best teams in all formats of the game. Some significant quotes noted in the interview transcripts included:

S18: “The BBL is an entertainment package and it’s going to compete with all other franchise sports. It is a competition for the fans to embrace and support.”

S24: “The primary aim of the game development department is to increase participation substantially and inspire the next generation of players and fans. This is achieved through the continual modification of entry level programs and new initiatives to ensure that learning and playing the sport is fun and exciting for all involved.”

The overriding drivers for each of these changes being introduced could be linked to both the strategy for Australian cricket and the corporate vision – the vision outlining where Australian cricket wanted to be and the strategy setting out how it will get there in the short-term and how it will remain there in the long-term – so that it is Australia’s favourite sport and continues to be Australia’s favourite sport. Study participants were asked during the interview which were the strategic pillars that they considered were most impacted by the change initiatives discussed in the interview. Figure 6-3 shows the responses given by study participants. In analysing the results carefully, it was noted that depending on the part of the organisation in which the study participant worked there tended to be a leaning towards answers that most closely related to the goal that they were trying to achieve. Senior executives and senior management appeared to be more focused on improving governance and corporate structures, and steering the organisation to achieving its corporate vision, while those closely involved in management and running the BBL tended to be more focused on putting fans first and diversifying the fan base, and those involved in high performance were more focused on producing the best teams possible.

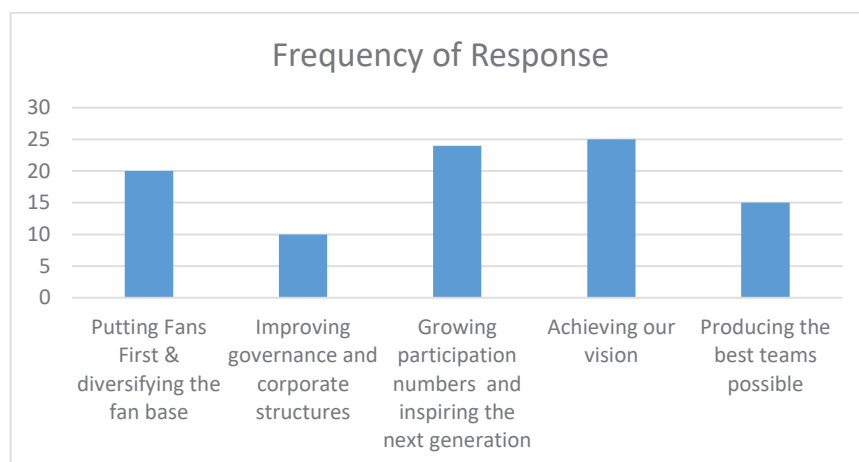


Figure 6-3 – Change Drivers for Change Initiatives

6.2.3.2 *Desired Goals and Outcomes of Sustained Change*

There were a number of different responses given to this question.

Goal / Expected Outcome	Frequency of Response
Increased participation	20
Increasing the fan base	21
Improved governance	15
Restructuring & alignment of states	12
Attitude & understanding	6
Open communication	13
Establishing priorities	2
Client-centred change	18

Table 6-2 - - Desired Outcomes of Change Initiatives

The goals and expected outcomes according to respondents is documented in Table 6-2. The table shows the number of responses given to each of the goals / expected outcomes of the strategic change initiatives introduced by Cricket Australia. The phenomena resulting from the identified factors are now described.

6.2.4 **Phenomena Resulting from Identified Factors**

Question 7 – What did you observe that led to the successful sustainability of the change?

In answering this question, most participants selected and described one of the three main strategic change initiatives undertaken by Cricket Australia in the years from 2005 to 2015-16. It was therefore relatively easy for participants to provide detail on the factors that they considered led to the sustaining change initiatives, as recollections were recent and fresh in their minds. Additionally, there were two recent very successful changes in the eyes of the study participants.

Responses received to this question were detailed and provided a comprehensive explanation of the observations made. Several observations were noted numerous

times by the different participants. The majority of participants noted and elaborated on engaging with key stakeholders. This assisted Cricket Australia in establishing a consultative process to enable the development of the strategy for Australian cricket.

S2 outlined that the Australian Cricket Conference was held to be a consultative process to gain input from stakeholders to develop the strategy for Australian cricket "... roadshows around the country communicated key messages to states and district cricket associations ... outlines of programs were provided and this continues every season".

To explain why sustaining change was considered to be so important and the constant effort that was required, one participant was able to clearly describe the situation:

S1: "Cricket cannot just sit back and relax ... once you do that, you really start to lose momentum and people start to settle into roles that aren't as conducive to change ... keeping fans and participants in the forefront of our minds ... because it's easy to lapse back into old habits ..."

Other responses revealed that some of the change initiatives were part of a longer-term plan, which was incremental in nature and that changes were still ongoing and would be finalised in the next 12 to 24 months. This was partly undertaken to minimise the likelihood of resistance to the proposed changes.

S16 indicated that changes were made incrementally to ensure commitment and continuity "... The change was sustained to ensure that the organisation moved successfully to the 'best practice governance structure'. CA will successfully have reduced the size of the Board from 14 down to nine ... these are subtle changes that CA have had to sell to State Cricket Associations ..."

It was considered that sustainability was dependent on having the right mix of skills and experience on the Board (Crawford & Carter, 2011 – external consultants used in determining the approach to be taken in restructuring the Board of Cricket Australia).

Step 6 of Kotter's model outlines the importance of planning for short-term wins. A complete transformation takes an extensive amount of time so the loss of momentum is a major factor. Most people will not continue to work hard for change if they see no

evidence of the success of their efforts. Hence it is important to plan for visible improvements, create those improvements, and recognise and reward those involved. This appears to be very much the approach taken in restructuring the Board of Cricket Australia – make changes in small incremental steps so that each of the state cricket associations is comfortable with the new governance structure as they are the owners of Cricket Australia.

Sustaining organisational change was a process throughout Australian cricket. Once a major change initiative was commenced, it required attention to continue to make it work, and to create modifications that focused on the ultimate goals, values and vision.

S20 stated: "... the ability to create the change, to implement it, establish it (which does tend to take a couple of years) and then to continually evaluate it, make changes to what has been created and then to rethink it."

Concepts of sustaining a culture of change, rather than achieving or sustaining particular outcomes, emerged from the interviews. Study participants noted the importance of a system and structure that could be responsive to a constantly changing environment. As noted by the CEO of Cricket Australia and confirmed by several state CEOs:

S1, S5, S6: What existed in Australian cricket in the late 1990s and into the early 2000s was wonderful and we did have one of the best, if not the best, Test teams of all times; what worked well then was good, but if we were still doing that, where would we be now ... we have to be continually looking at and evaluating what we are doing ... understand the environment that we operate in and be agile and open to change as required.

The environment and continuous improvement within Cricket Australia and State Cricket Associations had several characteristics:

- sustaining leaders and managers that champion realistic plans;
- establishing flexibility and fit;
- expending significant time and effort;

- preventing resistance.

Question 8 - Describe the impacts that you observed on the organisation from the created conditions.

Initially participants were a little reluctant to comment on this. However, when probed further, participants exposed a number of impacts that were related to the change(s). Data obtained from this question revealed not only the impacts, but it also showed how the organisation was understanding and learning and how it was seen to be handling the questions being raised.

Whilst some of the changes took place in an “emergent” unplanned manner, especially in relation to the re-launch of the BBL, and this was seen to some degree as creating an environment of uncertainty, participants acknowledged that most challenges were handled well and eventually overcome with the environment improved significantly. During the recollection of difficulties experienced with the change initiatives, participants disclosed a number approaches that had been utilised to develop solutions to resolve the issues that had arisen.

Several BBL General Managers made the comment:

S16 & S9 were noted as saying - there was transparency, and everyone had to work together, it was essential that there was sharing of information. Even though teams were to be competitive on the field, we had to be a cohesive team off the field.

S16 & S7: We operated and continue to operate in an agile and fast changing environment ... consideration had to be given to other external and cultural factors ... don't ignore other initiatives and be aware of other needs and requirements

Initially change was introduced in an emergent unplanned manner ... the ability to be responsive was required ... more open and regular dialogue assisted.

CEOs and a general manager responsible for game development indicated that there is a performance dashboard that is reviewed regularly so that Cricket Australia and

individual state cricket associations can measure themselves. At the end of each season a detailed Cricket Census is completed which provides management with a detailed understanding of how many participants have played the sport during the last season and how many people attended matches played during the season.

Outcome measurement procedures have been advocated recently as a means of eliciting better accountability and more effective program evaluation (Buckmaster, 1999). Cricket Australia and state cricket associations reviewing participation figures and attendance figures are in effect reviewing the outcome of strategic change initiatives regularly.

6.2.5 Strategies for Creating Sustainable Change Initiatives

Participants responded to a number of questions specifically designed to capture information that described strategies that were used to achieve sustainable change, how the strategies were set up and executed successfully and what lessons have been learned during the process of achieving sustainable strategic change. Participants were also asked to describe their own experiences and the lessons that they had learned.

Question 9 – Can you identify key strategies that you observed that were successful and led to the implementation of sustainable strategic change?

Strategic plans, change plans, communication plans, sharing a vision, engaging stakeholders, relationship building, and aligning states were the key strategies participants identified that were required to successfully deliver sustained strategic change throughout Australian cricket. These strategies that were identified were taken from interview transcripts and are outlined below in Figure 6-4. The figure displays the most commonly named strategies and the number of times each was mentioned in the interviews held with study participants.

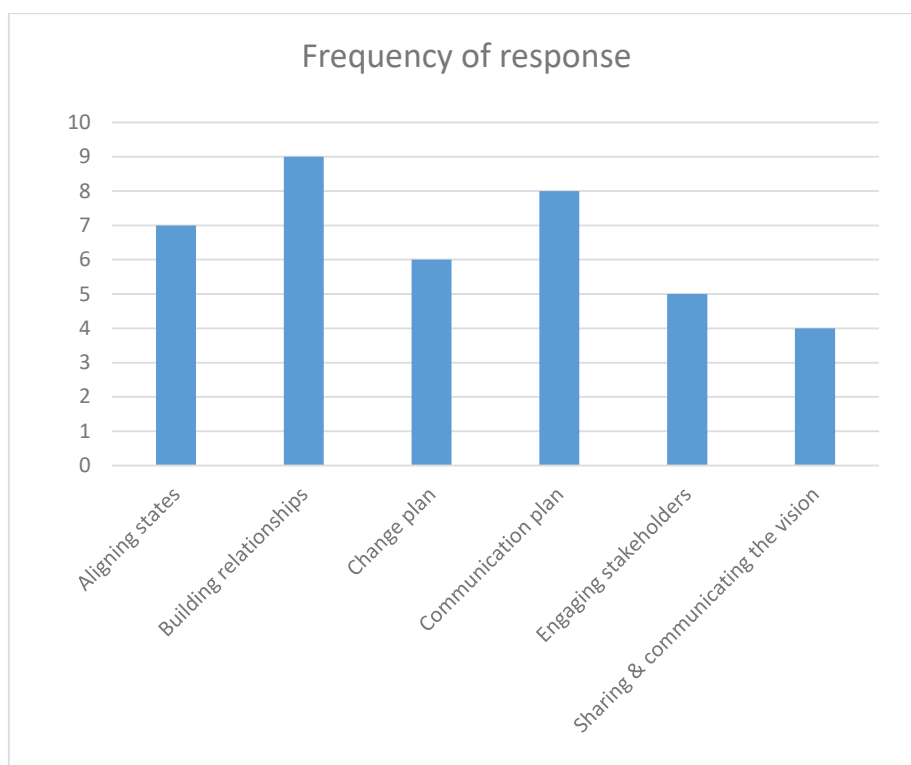


Figure 6-4 – Strategies Utilised for Creating Sustainable Change Initiatives

Other factors that study participants identified that they considered key to the success of sustained strategic change included having appropriate leadership, having access to people, maintaining flexibility to make necessary adjustments when required, setting and having realistic expectations, anticipating challenges that lie ahead and having solutions on how to handle them, having the required tools in place and providing training as practices change, having professional relationships built on trust, and having established networks of people that can be called on for advice when required.

The importance of having established relationships was discussed several times whilst discussing the concept of overcoming unexpected challenges. One participant indicated clearly that efforts taken to develop and establish relationships were often underestimated. One State Cricket Association CEO (S6) stated:

There are regular quarterly CEO meetings where we discuss challenges and achievements ... it is a forum where we can air our thoughts without fear of being judged ... it is a positive forum for discussing ideas. (This was confirmed by all state cricket association CEOs)

Leadership factors, human factors and cultural factors are three key factors identified by (Buchanan et al., 2007) that influence the success of sustained strategic change initiatives.

Question 10 – What lessons did you learn from the change initiative that you have described?

Before responding to this question, participants were requested to provide details of both positive lessons and negative lessons. The data captured from the responses to this question is considered to be rich, with many trends emerging from it. The majority of participants indicated that they would do most things the same way again as they felt that the approach that they had taken produced satisfactory results. Some participants indicated that there was room for improvement and if they experienced a similar situation in the future they would approach the task slightly differently with the hope that they would achieve a better outcome.

S4 and S11 indicated that thought is being given to change their state model in relation to their Shield team (coaches, players and support staff) and the structure for the BBL team (coaches, players and support staff). Currently there are two distinct groups – whilst this is not wrong in any way and in fact it is the model used in most cases – consideration is being given to having the one coach for both the state team (Sheffield Shield and Matador Cup) and the BBL franchise. It is felt that this could assist in the coach having a little more knowledge about the strengths and weaknesses of players who are in both squads.

It became evident that human elements involved in change were considered to be linked, as being the most important lessons that could be learned regarding sustainable strategic change. Several quotes in the transcribed notes provide supporting information on some of the lessons that could be learned. A transcript from one participant included the following statements:

S5: "Ensure we communicate the vision clearly and frequently so that people know where we are heading and what we want to achieve ... ensure that there is appropriate leadership ... do not underestimate the value of engaging with people at all levels of the organisation ... you will experience lots of challenges, learn from these and continue to work hard ... be open to different thoughts ... reinforce details of those things that are really important ... communicate with people at all levels of the organisation clearly and frequently."

Other participants also reinforced the requirement of having strong and effective leadership as well as strong stakeholder engagement and support. One participant made it very clear and stressed the importance of stakeholder engagement as early as possible in the change initiative.

S22 stated that on the whole " Club administrators at grassroots level feel valued when asked for their views ... involve people at the beginning, not just at the end."

Another participant, a state cricket association CEO (S4), commented specifically on agreement of all the states:

S4: "Gaining support for an initiative is much easier if all states have aligned on the same concept."

People are considered to play an important role in the implementation of a sustained change initiative. There is usually a strong link between human factors and lessons to be learned. This was identified in one transcript where the participant stated:

S1: "Continually scan the environment of where to implement change next ... constantly scan for new opportunities ... there is a need to be agile and be flexible."

For the most part, decisions on policy direction and resources for change initiatives were considered to come from the national sporting organisation (NSO) – Cricket Australia. An assumption was made that direction for the change was dictated as a result from the NSO in terms of financial and human resources and to support the change, availability of these resources was decided upon by the NSO. It is evident that leadership within Cricket Australia has adapted to meet the constantly changing and at

times demanding environment in which Australian cricket operates in. Authentic leadership enhances the chance that dialogue and discussion can lead to mutual goals and aspirations being realised.

S2 stated that: “Leaders need to be involved; however, it is also important that leaders are seen to be listening and do listen to people involved with and who will be impacted by the sustained strategic change initiative ... we need to have people at the grassroots level that have confidence in the change approach being implemented.”

In relation to timing, pace of change and frequency of change, the following comment was noted:

S24: “Change is inevitable ... provide timely and clear communications regularly ... the organisation is always changing and evolving ... it is important to achieve a win early so that people can see that the change will be sustained ...”

Question 11 – Have you noticed that lessons learned have been taken on board when starting on or working on other sustained strategic change initiatives?

To understand and really appreciate enablers of sustainable strategic change, participants were asked to consider lessons learned from working on the implementation of change initiatives and to relay if lessons learned were considered when being involved in other projects.

Data gathered from this question did provide a number of insights into what participants considered to be key to the successful implementation of strategic change within Australian cricket.

Participants continually mentioned three factors and these emerged as being primary to sustaining strategic change: *leadership factors* – without strong and supportive leadership, participants agreed that change in Australian cricket would never have happened; *human factors* – those factors related to people management that can either enable or disable sustainable strategic change; and *cultural factors* – those

factors related to sharing a common resource and a system of shared values and norms that define appropriate attitudes and behaviours of organisational members.

Thoughts on leadership and communication can be seen in the statements below:

S2: "Leaders need to be involved; however, it is also important that leaders are seen to listen and do listen to people involved with and who will be impacted by the sustained strategic change initiative ... we need to have people at the grassroots level that have confidence in the change approach being implemented."

S21: "Leaders need to be involved, to guide and direct people and to motivate people; however, they also need to be seen to be understanding and appreciate what others are thinking."

S14: "It is fair to say that there was a great deal of apprehension about the re-launching of the BBL ... resistance to change from both internal and external ... effective communication – how were messages delivered to franchises from CA ... overall HR management."

Specific comments made about change initiatives and sustainable change are noted below:

S1: "In relation to planned change initiatives, once they are implemented, they then tend to be viewed as the 'normal' way to function, then we consider that change has shifted the organisation ... change becomes sustained when it becomes part of the culture ... Cricket Australia may be seen from afar as an organisation that has a lot of tradition ... Australian cricket now is receptive to change and continuous improvement ... where the culture once did not exist for change – implementing a change initiative was far more challenging ... the culture within the organisation is one which is agile and adaptable and generally open to change."

S19: "Cricket Australia have changed a lot in the last 10-15 years – we have achieved a great deal – we are not perfect but we are continually improving."

Literature on change and culture supports culture as being a primary factor associated with achieving sustainable strategic change. Deal and Kennedy (1982) define culture change as something about real changes in people's behaviour throughout the

organisation. Schein (2004) regards culture as a natural evolution as there is always constant pressure, which is the changing external environment, given on any culture for growth and evolution, and may lead the organisations to become more competitive. Hofstede (2003) believes cultures are extremely stable over time and it is not easy to change a culture; however, it is an essential factor to enable sustainable strategic change.

There were a number of other factors mentioned by study participants; however, these factors were not considered to be as important for sustaining change and were considered to be more aligned to the implementation of change – these factors are: general organisational factors which participants considered to be systems or frameworks that needed to be in place for change to occur; communication factors – ongoing and frequent communication were considered to foster and develop commitment to change; procedural factors which included processes used and followed for change; and contextual factors which related to the substance and context of change initiatives.

6.3 The Change Process for Increasing Participation in Australian Cricket

The change approach adopted by Cricket Australia to intervene in game development involved major organisational change. By 2010 Cricket Australia had recorded a profound impact on the future sustainability of the game following their decision to involve themselves in community cricket. Cricket Australia for the most part utilised a top-down approach and utilised cross-functional teams in a way to develop the new processes, structures, set-ups, and training materials required to introduce the changes. The approach adopted by those involved in game development is constantly

being reviewed to ensure its appropriateness given the constantly changing environment.

Sports organisations are in a constant state of change (Slack, 1997). Although change is a complex and continuous process, the magnitude, speed and impact of specific changes varies considerably. According to Parent, O'Brien and Slack (2012, p. 116) “throughout the lifecycle of a sport organisation, it will move through long periods of convergent, gradual change that will be punctuated by short periods of frame breaking, radical organisational change”. While it is acknowledged that most change in sport is subtle and continual, this section of the research focused on radical or frame-breaking change; in this case, the planned sequence of changes that arose from the systematic intervention by Cricket Australia to revitalise and integrate the development and delivery of cricket at a community level. The effect of this series of integrated incremental changes lead to substantial overall change in the sport's delivery system over a prolonged period. “The pressures for such change may be generated externally in the sport organisation's environment or they may originate from within the organisation itself” (Slack, 1997, p. 213). The organisational change arising from the design and introduction of Cricket Australia's National Game Development Program was a response to a collection of both internal and external challenges.

To be effective, the scale of such significant change has to be accepted by most, and pervade the entire sporting organisation from top to bottom. “All parts of the organisation need to be involved and committed to the process of change” (Eady, 1993, p. 10). For this to be successful, there must be a clearly articulated and agreed vision of the change and its intended objectives, outputs and outcomes; capable and credible leadership; sufficient resources; a coordinated plan and implementation schedule; and an understanding of the value proposition for volunteers in clubs and schools. The vision needs to be regularly communicated to ensure engagement and

collaboration at all levels of a sport organisation. Because of the whole-of-sport magnitude of such organisational change and its pervasive intent, the timeframe for this progressive implementation needed to be long-term as well as being sustainable.

According to Slack (1997), organisational change is an alteration or modification in a sport organisation's technology; strategies, structures and systems; people, including their mindsets and behaviours; and/or products and services.

The scale and complexity of the change introduced by Cricket Australia saw all these areas as mentioned by Slack (1997) positively impacted by its intervention. These were evident in the creation of a coordinated set of national playing, coaching and capability development pathways, initiatives and resources (products and services); deployment and training of state cricket association game development managers to facilitate the delivery with assistance from a large and diverse number of volunteers in clubs and schools; utilisation of laptops, mobile phones, internet and websites to communicate easily and regularly within the delivery network, facilitate reporting, gather data, and disseminate information about the objectives, content and value of the new products and services (technology); and establishment of a more vertically integrated and collaborative sport organisation that was collectively engaged in achieving an agreed set of clearly defined development objectives, outputs and outcomes to improve the delivery of cricket in clubs and schools (structures and systems).

Figure 6-6 is a model developed from having examined the data and comparing it to change models as outlined in the literature that were developed by both Lewin and Kotter. Lewin's model, as described in Chapter 2, is a simplistic model which has three steps – these being unfreeze, change and re-freeze. Kotter's model, also described in Chapter 2, is a model where all steps are considered to occur in a linear sequence. The proposed model as depicted in Figure 6-6 is a six-phase model which has a series of

responses that represent specific actions. The actions underpin and contribute to the effective implementation of the planned change. The phases in the change model are:

1. Understand the need for change.
2. Readiness for change.
3. Planning for change.
4. Preparing stakeholders.
5. Implementing the change.
6. Evaluating the change.

Unlike Kotter's eight-step model, which is considered to be linear, with steps occurring and happening in a defined sequence, and just once, within a sporting organisation the model is considered to be more circular with regular ongoing feedback and positive reinforcement of the change becoming accepted as new organisational practice. Feedback from interviews with study participants indicated that the speed with which the national sporting organisation (NSO) moves through these phases can and does vary with other initiatives and programs that are being run (e.g. the introduction of the WBBL resulted in a substantial increase in the number of female participants taking up cricket and hence during the summer of 2015-16 changes were required to programs for young girls taking up the sport).



Figure 6-5 - Players and children taking part in Milo In2Cricket sessions

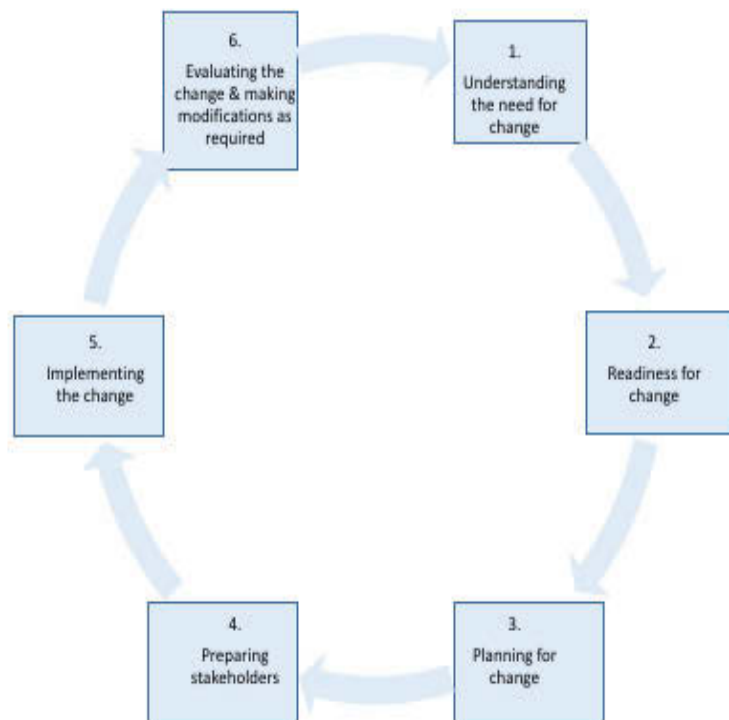


Figure 6-6 – Simplified Change Model Followed for Increasing Participation in Australian Cricket

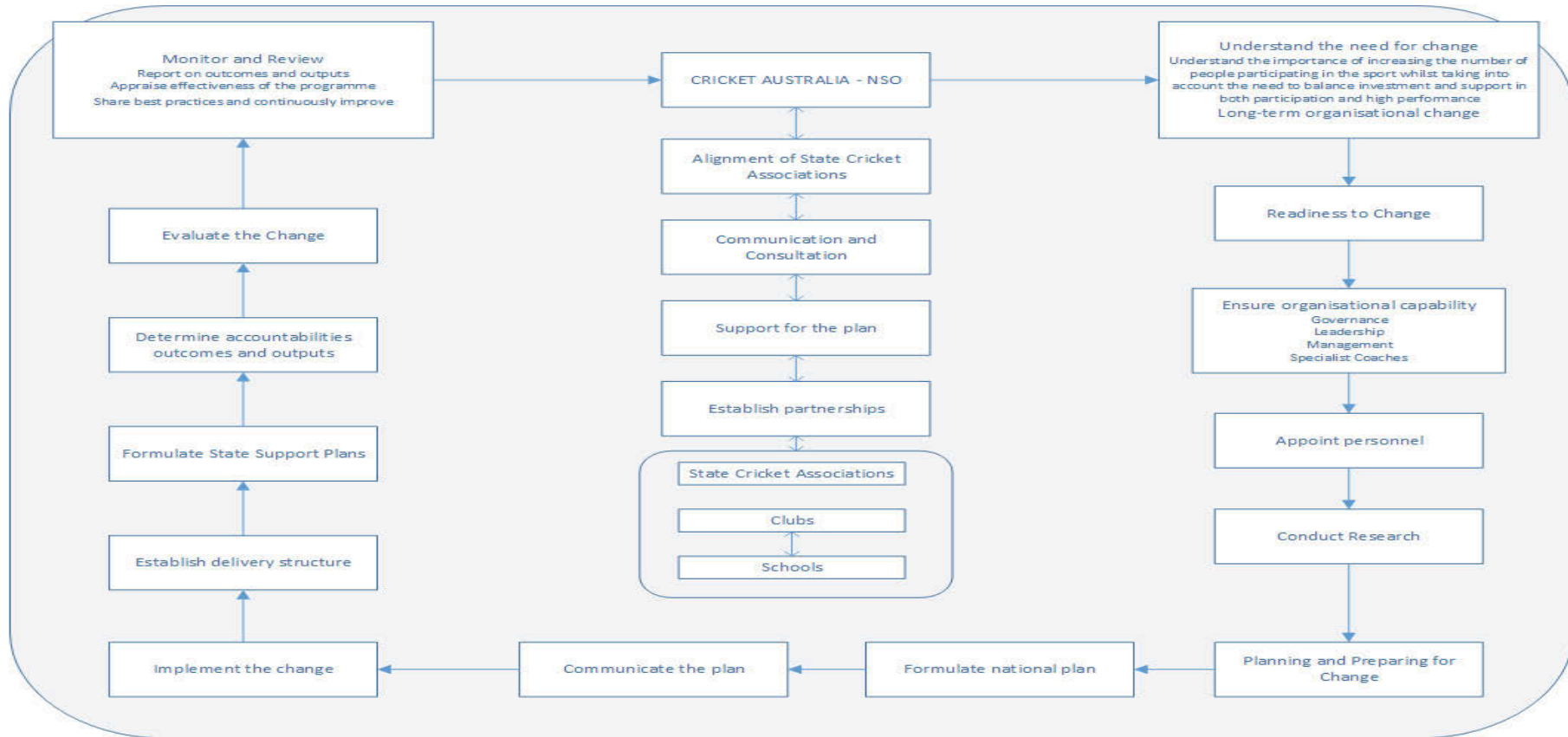


Figure 6-7 – Overview of the Change Management Model Underpinning the Initiative to Increase Participation Levels in the Game

6.3.1 The Change Process Associated with Increasing Participation

The change management process was influenced and guided by Cricket Australia's objectives, strategies and various initiatives. In practice, it was the state cricket associations who promoted and facilitated the actual change. It was the states who persuaded volunteers in clubs and schools to accept and institute the proposed initiatives, overcome obstacles to their introduction, and where necessary, devise practical solutions to achieve the desired change

The change management process associated with increasing participation levels in Australian Cricket is now elaborated utilising the change model (Figure 6-6) with the steps and corresponding responses and outcomes described and shown in Table 6-3.

Steps	Explanation
<p>Step 1 – Understanding the need for change</p>	<p>In 2004-05 there were 478,326 participants (as defined by the Australian Cricket Census) in Australian cricket competitions. Of those participants, 90.14% (431,179) were males and 9.86% females (47,147).</p> <p>Cricket Australia set itself a target to have 550,000 registered participants by 2009 (Australian Cricket Census).</p> <p>In 2004, information had been received by Andrew Jones – business consultant, later Cricket Australia Head of Strategy and now Cricket New South Wales CEO that participation figures had plateaued.</p> <p>The strategic plan was developed to be a strategy for Australian cricket; however when it was first developed it was not necessarily subscribed to by all state cricket associations.</p> <p>Create a sense of urgency As outlined above, in 2004-05 there were 478,326 participants (as defined by the census) in Australian cricket competitions. Cricket Australia set a target of having 550,000 registered participants by 2009. In aiming to reach the target Cricket Australia will focus on increasing participation and strengthening ties at the school, club and community levels.</p> <p>An understanding of the need for change Cricket Australia's first strategic plan in 2004 for Australian cricket recognised why it needed to influence cricket in Australia. Initially this was to increase participation and involvement in the game. Cricket Australia had become aware of plateauing participation figures. There was no clear indication of what was required and how it would be accomplished.</p> <p>As outlined by most CEOs – strong leadership was required to change the approach to game development and what was required to achieve increased participation levels.</p>
<p>Step 2 – Readiness for change</p>	<p>A willingness to change It was highlighted in 2004 that there had been a plateauing and small decline in the number of people participating in cricket right across Australia. Cricket Australia had highlighted the need to change to increase the level of participation</p>

Steps	Explanation
	<p>in the game.</p> <p>Cricket Australia – Capability and Capacity</p> <p>In developing the Strategic Plan for Australian Cricket, Cricket Australia was acknowledging that plans needed to be in place at a national level which were aimed at increasing participation. It signified for the first time Cricket Australia’s acknowledgement of the importance of community cricket and increasing the level of participation in the game. CA acknowledged that cricket is a game for all boys and girls and that Cricket Australia and state/territory associations run various programs and activities for young cricketers.</p> <p>Weiner (2009) completed a review of change management in a healthcare environment and identified readiness for change as a critical precursor to the successful implementation of a change initiative. Weiner (2009) considers readiness for change within an organisation to refer to a “shared resolve to implement change (Change commitment) and a shared belief in their collective capability to change”.</p> <p>This study summarises in many ways the situation that Cricket Australia was in prior to attempting to implement change initiatives to increase participation levels. There was dissatisfaction with the current situation in which participation in cricket was plateauing and possibly even declining and making people aware of the situation was important if successful change was to be achieved.</p> <p>A proposed National Development Plan was created which included an overview of the scope, objectives and pathways. The plan was underpinned by an integrated series of development strategies which consisted of a number of initiatives designed to grow and sustain participation levels.</p> <p>A top-to-bottom delivery structure was proposed to implement the strategies and initiatives. Each initiative was supported by implementation procedures and resources. Work efficiently in our federal system and align state cricket associations to form a powerful coalition</p> <p>Develop and create an understanding of the need for change.</p> <p>As outlined above Cricket Australia was aiming to increase the level of participation in the game from 478,326 to 550,000 by 2009. To achieve this, a great deal of work would need to be completed not only by Cricket Australia but also by state cricket associations. Cricket Australia’s strategic plan was shared and discussed with all state cricket associations. Without alignment there would have been little chance of achieving success. Regular meetings were established with CEOs from each state association and Cricket Australia. This measure was established to ensure that states were in agreement with the overall strategy and direction being taken within Australian cricket.</p> <p>The game development plan and the plan to increase participation was presented to state cricket association CEOs who, despite some initial reservations due some extra work involved, accepted the plan and the emergent game development program.</p> <p>Each state association appointed game development managers and state talent managers who would begin work on implementing the plan in each state.</p>
<p>Step 3 – Planning for change</p>	<p>Planning for Change – Creating a Vision and Outline what the Program is</p> <p>Creating the vision and having a program in place outlines what needs to be done. The program uses a simple metric to explain to staff within Cricket Australia and also to state associations what the vision is, and where Cricket Australia wants to see itself in the future. They want to have moved from having less than 500,000 participants to having at least 550,000 participants.</p> <p>The vision was to have an increased and sustainable level of participation.</p>

Steps	Explanation
	<p>Developing and communicating the vision was a very important step and continues to be very important – the vision is what all people in Australian cricket should look to and understand that in what they are doing they are contributing to making cricket Australia's favourite sport.</p>
<p>Step 4 – Preparing stakeholders</p>	<p>Preparing Stakeholders</p> <p>Outlining the vision and the program that will be run to increase the level of participation was important in ensuring alignment with state cricket associations. Communicating the plan was achieved through regular CEO meetings (at least twice a year) and also a number of roadshows in each state at local clubs etc.</p> <p>The plan would be shared with state cricket associations to ensure that they were aware of the initiative that was being undertaken.</p> <p>A number of small pilot programs were introduced in each state. These pilots were used in establishing the program and also were useful in assessing the success of the proposed program.</p> <p>Once results achieved from the pilot programs provided administrators with a clear indication that the program was successful, it became easier to sell benefits of the program to a much wider audience.</p>
<p>Step 5 – Implement the change</p>	<p>Implement the change</p> <p>Following the successful implementation of a number of pilots in each state, it was necessary to commence the task of rolling out the plan in each state. Because of the enormity of the project it was not going to be possible to roll the plan out in its entirety in one go.</p> <p>Each state cricket association was required to formulate a regional development plan that addressed the delivery of the initiatives. The regional development plan was to be a fully inclusive plan to indicate how and where outcomes would be achieved and assessed.</p> <p>The state cricket associations and sub-associations in each state were the primary agents of change. It was the state associations that had overall responsibility for marketing and implementing the National Program and its initiatives and ensuring volunteers and others were aware of the goals and objectives and were also familiar with the merits of the program and facilitating the introduction of the program into clubs and schools.</p> <p>Overall, state cricket associations were successful in achieving the desired change through the introduction of new initiatives and their commitment to the program.</p> <p>Once underway, the program has evolved as a result of annual reviews and annual collection of Cricket Census figures relating to participation figures which are used to gauge trends and identify areas which may require further attention.</p> <p><i>Other measures:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Conduct roadshows in all areas of the state(s). ▪ Conduct training sessions. ▪ Issue data packs for use by clubs and schools.
<p>Step 6 – Evaluate the change and modify program as required</p>	<p>Evaluate the changes</p> <p>The opportunities to measure, evaluate and reflect on the program and its effectiveness provide a constant impetus for further innovation, change and continuous improvement in both the program and scope of its impact on sustainable participation levels.</p>

Table 6-3 - The change management process associated with CA's planned intervention into cricket in Australia to increase participation levels

6.3.2 Effects of Strategic Change on Participation Levels within Australian

Cricket

Cricket Australia made the enlightened move to introduce changes to revitalise its sport by commencing a systematic process of developing cricket in clubs and schools. The programme challenged the status quo of existing practices and promoted change to game and its providers in clubs and schools. An executive of Cricket Australia indicated that:

S11 stated "While there are still areas of need and much more that needs to be done, the effort to at least attack the problem and get some altered thinking in place has proved beneficial. Cricket is on the move from the area of its greatest resource – if it can be maintained it could prove to be one of the most sustained change initiatives ever undertaken within Australian cricket."

By 2015, the intervention by Cricket Australia into game development had significantly impacted the game and there had been a significant increase in number of participants (both boys and girls) playing the game. The changes were not ad-hoc changes, but were the consequence of carefully planned interventions into game development.

6.3.3 Drivers for the Change in Game Development and Increasing Participation

The primary driver for change within game development was initially the revelation that participation figures were at best plateauing and there was a genuine desire to revitalise the sport at grassroots level. Leaders wanted to increase the numbers both playing and involved in the game.

Cricket NSW CEO Andrew Jones in 2004 was one of the first to realise that participation figures should be of concern. It was reported and documented that Andrew Jones made the following comment:

... we (Cricket Australia) are alarmed by plateauing participation figures and revenues. My view is that cricket was asleep ... we have taken our position for granted ... we have been a summer monopoly for too long and we are doing what monopolies do ... be lazy and do nothing ... we have to wake up ... there is a war on and we are losing ... go out and fight it. S6 stated that: "... during the last 5-10 years, entertainment generally has been considered to be in opposition to cricket and participation levels, it is not just other sports ... the greatest competition is other forms of entertainment and also ourselves ... if we do not keep focus on our goals and objectives ... we need to promote our sport and promote cricket in all facets of life..."

6.3.4 Effects of Strategic Change on Game Development and Participation Levels

Cricket Australia and state cricket associations have all embarked upon planned strategic change initiatives in the area of game development, which have been primarily aimed at increasing participation levels of those playing and involved in the sport.

S2 commented that: "We have placed a strong emphasis on putting additional resources into the game development area and have focused attention on increasing participation levels."

The CEO of Cricket Australia pointed out that: "... in the last five years there were increases in participation levels ... five years ago participation was sitting at around 60,000. At the end of the last season (2014-15) this has increased to over 138,000. Five years ago 8,000 females were recorded as playing the game and this year over 41,000 females are now playing the game ... we are continuing to work closely with Cricket Australia to continue to drive these numbers up."

S25 stated: "... in the last five years there were increases in participation levels ... in the last 12-24 months especially there have been significant increases in the number of participants registering and playing in introductory participation programs ..."

Figures provided by both Cricket Australia and Cricket NSW support the statements made by CEOs and game development managers. Cricket NSW have witnessed substantial increases in the number of participants playing the game during the last 10

years through until the 2014/15 season. Participation rates rose 10.94% in the 2015/16 season to 393,082 participants. Refer to Figure 6-8

These figures indicate that the change initiatives undertaken by Cricket Australia and in particular within Cricket NSW have led to substantial increases in participation levels since 2006. As outlined by the CEO of Cricket NSW Mr Andrew Jones 'increases in participation have been substantial since 2011 when the re-launched BBL was first televised on free-to-air television. Additionally, figures indicate that there was a substantial increase in participation numbers with more females having started playing the game since the introduction of the Women's BBL in season 2015/16'.

Key findings from the 2014-15 National Cricket Census include:

- 1,208,360 total participants (up 9% on 2013-14)
- 628,826 school participants
- 415,104 club & community participants
- 164,430 indoor participants *in club & community* cricket
- 24,961 teams
- 23,111 traditional 11-a-side teams
- 1,850 modified teams
- 10% growth in the Junior Participation Pathway
- 37,683 MILO in2CRICKET
- 13,227 MILO T20 Blast
- 73,686 junior age 9-12 *years*
- 15% growth in school cricket *diversity*
- 290,566 female participants
- Growth of 18% from 2013-14
- Women and girls make up 24% of all participants
- 26,427 *Indigenous* participants

- 146,658 multicultural participants
- 10,292 participants with a disability

(Source: Cricket Australia – Annual Census 2014/15)

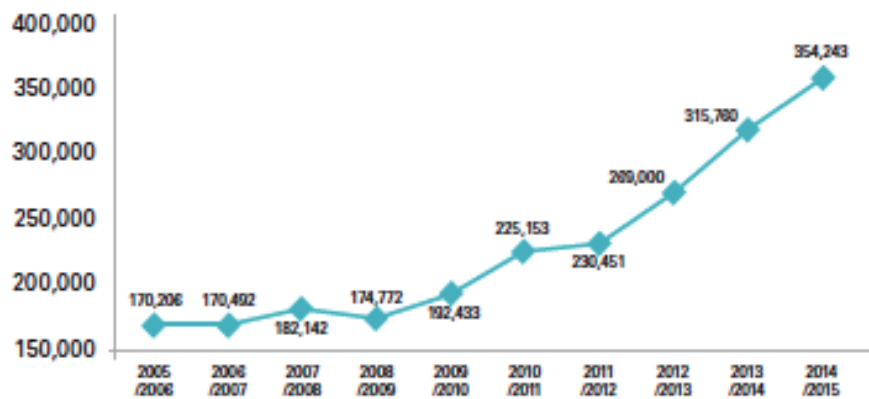


Figure 2: Participation rates from 2005/06 to 2014/2015

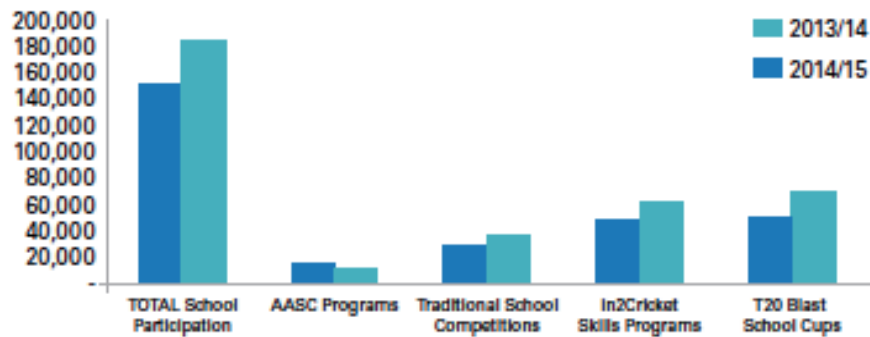


Figure 6-8 – Participation Figures for Cricket NSW

(Source: Cricket NSW Annual Report 2014/15)

6.4 The Change Process – Corporate Governance

6.4.1 Corporate Governance

The term “corporate governance” was coined in the 1980s, even though the practice is ancient (Tricker, 2000). Defined by Turnbull (1997, p. 181) corporate governance is “all the influences affecting the institutional processes, including those for appointing the controllers and/or regulators, involved in organising the production and sale of goods and services.” The view that governance involves a set of relationships would appear to be particularly relevant to not-for-profit organisations.

In reviewing the history of governance in not-for-profit organisations, Dubnick and Justice (2004) outline that boards were created because of the increasing complexity of city life and governments were unable to govern everything, so special boards were developed for public goods such as libraries, schools, health services and museums.

6.4.2 Sport Governance and Governance in Non-Profit Organisations

The increasing research interest in the governance of not for profit organisations has in many ways mirrored the research into the governance of the for profit business. Whereas there are many differences between the two types of entities, there are also many similarities and indeed, many of the governance processes of the for profit organisation have been adopted by or adapted to the non-profit environment.

The term “sport governance” is commonly referred to as the practice of governance applied to the sport context (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2007). In lay terms, sport governance is the responsibility for the functioning and overall direction of an organisation and is a necessary and institutionalised component of all sport codes from club level to national bodies. To govern is to steer an organisation, and to make decisions that are consequential, strategic and impactful, usually on behalf of others (Shilbury, Ferkins &

Smythe, 2013). There are only a few studies that have been undertaken on the topic of sport governance. It is not the intention of this thesis to examine in detail corporate governance or the composition of the structure of the Board. It is however the intention of this thesis to examine the change approach adopted to ensure that there is a good governance structure in place for Australian cricket.

6.4.3 The Need for Change

In 2011 it was noted that the governance structure for Australian cricket was assessed to have fallen well short of what is regarded as best practice. The governance of CA was still founded on a delegate model where representatives of the states formed the Board, based on a formula which gave more voting power to the three foundation member states of the 1905 Australian Board of Control (Shilbury, Ferkins, Smythe, 2013). The Board in 2011 was considered to be far too large with 14 Board members all from the different state cricket associations (Refer Figure 3-1). The Board was considered to have embedded conflicts of interest that too often came into play when key decisions had to be made. Other deficiencies identified include:

- the process of appointing directors did not take adequate account of the Board's skill needs;
- there was lack of clarity around respective roles of the CA Board, the states and management;
- there was a need to convert the Board from being hands-on and operationally focused to a more strategically oriented Board;
- Board and management roles overlapped, leading to confused accountability;
- decision making roles of management, the Board and the states lacked clarity, which lead to indecision and conflict and the constant re-opening of issues.

Crawford and Carter (2011, p. 5) stated that "cricket's best interest will be best served by adopting the governance structure now regarded as 'the best' throughout the world.

This is an ‘independent and well skilled’ board that is clearly accountable to the owners and which doesn’t confuse its own role with that of management.”

6.4.4 Changes to Australian Cricket’s Governance Structure

Reviews carried out identified a number of flaws within the existing governance structure. This section provides an overview of the new governance structure in Australian cricket.

1. Clarity around the states’ role as owners.
2. A smaller Board.
3. Removal of conflicts of interest.
4. A skills-based Board.
5. Reconsideration of voting rights.
6. Clarity of Board relative to management.
7. A partnership with management.
8. The chairperson’s role.
9. Other attributes of a high performing Board.
10. A workable financial model.

6.4.5 Acceptance of the Need for Change

Cricket Australia commissioned Crawford and Carter to undertake a review of the governance structure of Cricket Australia. Whilst at first there may have been some apprehension, since the commencement of the review there appears now to be acceptance that governance practices have a significant effect on:

- the effective operation of an organisation’s business;
- the ethical conduct of an organisation’s operations and public perceptions of organisations being corporately responsible;

- the confidence of shareholders and stakeholders in the operations of an organisation.

Governance is a critical component of the effective management of a sport organisation. The last 10-20 years have seen noticeable changes in sport organisations; most notable has been the adoption of business models of operation. At the same time this has raised questions relating to appropriate forms of governance. As outlined by Ferkins, Shilbury and McDonald (2005):

Governance is a critical component of managing a sport organisation since it is concerned with issues of policy and direction of the performance of the organisation.

Hoye (2006, p. 125) states “when an appropriate system of governance is in place, organisational activities can be monitored to deliver benefits to sports organisations, members and society”. Chelladurai (2005) states that “sports organisations exist to provide sport products and services in the sport industry”.

One of the most recent evolutions in Australian sporting organisations has been the need to adopt modern forms of governance and administration to reflect modern business practices. The importance of good governance cannot be more evident.

As a result of the professionalism of sport, the complexities of running a sporting organisation and the associated levels of commercial risk have increased dramatically over the past 20-25 years. In 2011 Cricket Australia commenced a project aimed at examining corporate governance and the structure of the Board. A project was commenced, with David Crawford and Colin Carter appointed as external consultants to review the governance structure and the composition of the Board. The following is taken from their report titled “A Good Governance Structure for Australian Cricket”:

A Board's main role is to agree strategy and appoint and oversee highly competent management on behalf of the owners. The owners appoint the Board as their representatives and are able to dismiss the Board if necessary. A good

Board will be comprised of Directors who understand that their primary duty is to act on behalf of all owners and not sectional interests. A good Board will be of a workable size and its members will be chosen for their complementary skills, experience and their capacity to contribute. A good Board understands that its role is different to that of management. The Board's delegations to management will be clear and those major decisions that are retained by the Board will also be clear. Similarly, the Board's accountability to the owners will be understood and those few matters that must be referred to the owners for approval will be clearly defined.

The governance structure for cricket in 2010 was considered to fall well short of what is today regarded as “best practice”. The Board of Cricket Australia in 2010 consisted of 14 men and that was considered to be far too large to be effective. The Board was widely perceived to have embedded conflicts of interest that too frequently came into play when decisions were being made. The process for appointing directors did not adequately take account of the Board's skill needs. There was a lack of clarity around the respective roles of the Cricket Australia Board, the states, and management. Board and management roles may have overlapped, leading to confused accountability. The decision-making roles of management, the Board and the states was considered to lack clarity which could lead to indecisions and conflicts and the constant re-opening of issues.

6.4.6 The Change Process – The Impact of Best Practice Governance on Australian Cricket

Despite Australia's achievements in relation to Cricket, it was clear that the game needed to redefine itself to meet new challenges. The Australian sporting landscape is arguably the fiercest and most competitive in the world and the major professional sports now find themselves in the mass entertainment business. Billion-dollar broadcast deals recently completed by the AFL and Rugby League are an example of just how high the stakes have become for sport in Australia.

Australian Cricket finds itself vying for elite athletes and grassroots participants, members and viewers, sponsors and broadcast revenue, volunteers and administrators along with government funding for programs, events and infrastructure with Australian Football League (AFL), National Rugby League (NRL) and the A-League (Soccer) in what is essentially a relatively small domestic market. Internationally, the competition to be a leading cricket nation has never been tougher, with Australian cricket required to pit itself against other National Cricket playing countries that enjoy bigger budgets, have more participants and face less domestic competition.

More challenging still, the current environment is continuing to rapidly evolve and the pace of change is increasing. The challenges sports face from the convergence and the growth in online media are a clear example of just how quickly things are moving for sports administrators.

To remain competitive, Cricket Australia, had to change or risk being left behind.

The most recent evolution in Australian sporting organisations has been the need to adopt modern forms of governance and administration to reflect modern business practices. In part, this has been driven by the desire of governments to encourage greater levels of accountability and transparency in sporting organisations.

Crafted in the amateur era and designed for an amateur game, the previous governance structure of Cricket Australia was simply not up to the task of conducting the business of Cricket in these challenging times.

6.4.7 The Change Process Associated with Implementing Best Practice

Corporate Governance

Table 6-4 below provides details of how Kotter’s Model has been utilised in changing the structure of governance and the structure to the composition of the Board.

Kotter’s Eight Step Model	Approach
<p>Step 1 – Create a Sense of Urgency</p>	<p>Creating a Sense of Urgency – Corporate Governance Creating a sense of urgency involves making people believe that the change is necessary.</p> <p>The Board of Cricket Australia realised that there was a need for change. It was recognised that there were and are challenges facing Cricket Australia, both on and off the field. The sporting landscape in Australia is arguably the fiercest and most competitive in the world and major professional sports now are not just engaged in the sporting industry but are also finding themselves in the mass entertainment industry.</p> <p>Cricket Australia’s Board and management require great insight and wisdom if they are to deliver the vision which is to be “Australia’s favourite sport”.</p> <p>Cricket Australia in appointing Crawford & Carter to perform a governance review indicated that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ there was an understanding of the need for change – to adopt a new governance structure that would be able to address and meet new challenges ▪ there was a willingness to change – be prepared to change to be better positioned to conduct the business of cricket in challenging and evolving times ▪ challenges exist and change is required are points that are agreed by all. <p>In December 2011, it was reported by Crawford and Carter that “the current governance structure for cricket (in Australia) falls well short of what is required as best practice. The current Board is far too large to be effective. The Board is widely perceived to have embedded conflicts of interest that too frequently come into play when decisions are being made. The process of appointing Directors does not take adequate account of the Board’s skill needs. There is a lack of clarity around the respective roles of the CA Board, the States and management.”</p>
<p>Step 2 – Form a Powerful Coalition</p>	<p>Forming a powerful coalition – Aligning the State Cricket Associations A powerful coalition is a group of members who are required to lead the change.</p> <p>Changes to the governance structure of Cricket Australia were going to impact <i>all</i> state cricket associations. <i>Having</i> representatives from state cricket associations sit on the Board would not happen in the future.</p>

Kotter's Eight Step Model	Approach
	<p>It was necessary to work with state cricket associations to ensure that they understood the need for change and what the impact would be.</p> <p>Boards are designed, as far as possible, to remove conflicts of interest and attract relevant skills. <i>The proposed new Board structure was designed to improve the overall competencies of the Board and make it "more professional" and to remove potential conflicts of interest.</i></p>
<p>Step 3 – Create a Vision for Change</p>	<p>Creating a Vision – Understanding the need for change Creating a vision refers to producing a picture of the future with the change in place along with clarification of why people should strive to create the future.</p> <p>While there may not have been a clearly defined vision for change to corporate governance, Crawford and Carter recognised the organisational vision and the fact that cricket required a Board and management that had insight and wisdom if they were to deliver the vision which is for cricket to be Australia's favourite sport.</p>
<p>Step 4 – Communicate the vision</p>	<p>Communicating the Vision – Communicating the need for change Communicating the change includes using every existing channel and opportunity available for communication.</p> <p>Communicating the vision: <i>Crawford and Carter stated clearly, that cricket's interests will be best served by adopting a governance structure which is now regarded as "the best" throughout the world. This is an "independent and well-skilled Board that is clearly accountable to the owners and which doesn't confuse its own role with that of management".</i></p> <p>Crawford and Carter clearly stated what the changes to Australian cricket's governance structure would achieve. This message was clearly communicated to <i>senior executives of Cricket Australia and also to state cricket associations which are the owners of Cricket Australia.</i></p>
<p>Step 5 – Remove Obstacles</p>	<p>Removing Obstacles Empowering people to act when they are provided with the necessary resources. An important step in implementing change in corporate governance was to remove obstacles. The major obstacle would appear to be the states <i>which could perceive that they would be losing control over the way that they were controlling the game.</i></p> <p>The recommendation that Crawford and Carter were to make was that states would no longer have representatives on the Board. They should have responsibility for the appointment of <i>directors</i> to the CA board.</p>
<p>Step 6 – Create Short-Term Wins</p>	<p>Creating Short-Term Wins Short-term wins allow people to see that their efforts are paying off. <i>The changes to the structure of the Board would be implemented gradually.</i> Also the Board would assemble a mix of relevant skills and experience.</p> <p>Previously the CA Board did not take into account the needed skills that were required on the Board. Each state appointed their own representatives to the Board with little consideration for whether appointees added to, or duplicated existing skills.</p>

Kotter's Eight Step Model	Approach
	Three independent CA Board members had been appointed. Each of these people had unique skills which were considered appropriate and required by the Board. This can be considered to be short-term win for changing the governance structure and the composition of the CA Board.
Step 7 – Consolidate Improvements	Consolidate Improvements This step involves making sure that changes already made continue to be followed while tackling additional changes and bringing more people on board to help. While the CA Board is still in transition from the old structure to the new structure – the Board is beginning to take shape as fully independent <i>nine-person</i> Board.
Step 8 – Anchor the New Approaches in the Corporate Culture	Anchor the new approaches The last step involves making the change a part of the organisation's culture. Once the Board is fully independent, <i>it</i> will be part of a redefined Board that is ready to meet new challenges.

Table 6-4 - Analysis of Change in Corporate Governance

The approach to implement change in the area of corporate governance and restructuring the Board of Cricket Australia has been carefully reviewed and analysed. The approach taken appears to map closely to the 8-step change model as proposed by Kotter. The example shown here in implementing a good governance structure for Australian cricket and restructuring of the Board is an example of a sporting organisation (Cricket Australia) showing leadership and a guiding coalition demonstrate exceptional commitment to establishing a 'best practice' corporate governance structure.

6.4.8 Implementation of Kotter's 1995 Change Model

Kotter's change model has been used by many major corporations around the world that have undertaken change initiatives. Some of the major corporations that have implemented change in the last four to five years include Coca-Cola, Merrill Lynch, Pepsi and Estée Lauder.

Nestlé, a large international food company, is another company that follows Kotter's eight-step model when introducing change. Nestlé recently commenced a change

initiative during 2015 to improve the management of human resources in factories spread across the world through the implementation and deployment of the Kronos Time and Attendance system. I was involved in the process of developing a change strategy and a change plan that would accompany and align with the project management plan for implementing the Time and Attendance system. The change plan that was developed included tasks such as:

- 1) Creating a sense of urgency through completing an evaluation of time and attendance issues and integration with the SAP payroll system.
- 2) Forming a guiding coalition which consisted of key business executives, factory managers, supervisors, information systems staff who met regularly regarding the change initiative.
- 3) Developing a vision that was designed to change employee mentality about time recording and payroll processing. Incorrect timesheet processing and payroll errors were costing the business money as well as frustrating employees and had to be eliminated so as to improve the whole process and lower costs.
- 4) Communicating the vision through workshops and daily operational meetings.
- 5) Employees were empowered by being asked to think about how they would feel about getting rid of paper-based timesheets and replacing these with electronic time clocks. This created a high-level of engagement.
- 6) Short-term goals were set – six months for the first factory to go live on the new system. The goal was achieved and staff were accepting of the new system as it led to efficiencies right across the board.
- 7) Don't let up – continue with the implementation of the system into other factories and into other countries.
- 8) Make sure the changes are kept and that people throughout the organisation continue to use the system.

The project and the change initiatives were deemed to be a success.

6.4.9 Implementation of Kotter's Change Model in a Sporting Organisation

After completing extensive searches of sports management journals, change management journals and searches on the internet, it is acknowledged that there has been some research undertaken on the topic of change in sports organisations and specifically the use of Kotter's model for implementing change, research is considered to be limited.

This section of the study focused on the implementation of the change to corporate governance and restructuring of the Board. To explore and analyse the change, the Kotter's 1995 eight-step change model was overlaid to analyse how the change had been completed and to determine the usefulness of the model in guiding the implementation of change. The result of the analysis has shown that a sporting organisation and specifically its leadership team and guiding coalition have demonstrated exceptional commitment to putting in place a "best practice" corporate governance model along with incrementally restructuring the Board.

With a social, economic and business environment that is evolving continuously and rapidly, sports organisations are required to meet these challenges that are being presented by the fast-moving changes if they are to continue to be successful. The importance of sports organisations as agents of social action, providers of services, and contributors to social health is evident throughout society, but the reality is that for some of these organisations survival remains a constant challenge (Medley & Akan, 2008). This section of the research analysed an organisational change initiative that was started by the leadership team and a guiding coalition of Cricket Australia that have demonstrated a deep commitment to putting in place a "best practice" corporate governance structure along with incrementally restructuring the Board of Cricket

Australia. Successfully managing sustainable strategic change is therefore not only a necessity of the private sector, but it is integral to the life of sporting organisations as well (Stewart & Walsh, 1992).

6.4.10 Analysis and Conclusion

Governance is a critical component of managing sport organisations: how to best monitor organisational activities, deliver benefits to organisations and guide an organisation are critical to organisational sustainability. The board plays a significant role in a governance system because decisions made by the board can affect the entire organisation. The analysis of the change initiative using Kotter's eight-step change model allowed the researcher to overlay this model to Cricket Australia's change to corporate governance so as to observe the model's applicability.

6.5 The Change Process for the Re-launch of the Big Bash League

Cricket Australia was somewhat slow in jumping on board the move to introduce Twenty20 cricket into the domestic cricket calendar, partly because of the fact that they were somewhat unsure of what impact Twenty20 cricket would have on other forms of the game within Australia. In the summer of 2005-06 Cricket Australia introduced the initial KFC Twenty20 Big Bash competition as the domestic Twenty20 cricket competition in Australia. The competition was organised by Cricket Australia, and sponsored by fast food chicken outlet KFC. Teams involved in the competition between 2005-06 and 2010-11 came from the existing state associations: NSW, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia.

Whilst undertaking research it was revealed that although Australia's initial BBL attracted some large crowds, the bottom line was that it still ran at a loss for state cricket associations. It was noted that one key priority of any re-launched competition was that it had to be established differently so that it was not another loss-making elite cricket competition that was a drain on the income of the state associations and Cricket Australia. Future loss-making ventures would not be tolerated.

6.5.1 The Re-Launch of the Big Bash League (BBL)

The re-launched version of the BBL in 2011/12 was a significant event in Australian cricket. It would be the first time since inter-colonial cricket commenced in the 1850s that major domestic cricket matches would not be played between traditional state teams.

The re-launched competition consisted of eight city-based teams – two teams from both Sydney and Melbourne and a team from each of the following cities: Adelaide,

Brisbane, Hobart and Perth. The Indian Premier League (IPL) was used as a template for the re-launch of the BBL in Australia. The BBL was re-launched in the summer of 2011-12 by Cricket Australia in order to revitalise domestic cricket and to try to generate a new fan-base for the sport

As noted previously, Cricket Australia has a vision for cricket to be “Australia’s Favourite Sport – A Sport for All Australians”. A further part of Cricket Australia’s strategy is “Diversifying cricket’s fan base. Cricket Australia considers that it is important that it continues to grow interest in cricket among young people and females especially, and increase their passion for the game. At the same time, they need to preserve cricket’s traditional strengths and audience.”

Cricket Australia’s Executive General Manager, Operations Mike McKenna outlined:

Whilst the establishment of city-based franchises took place, it was not as a result of extensive research, but it was viewed as a way to attract newer, bigger and fresher markets. Over time it had become apparent that people were not passionate about state cricket and state competitions in general. People relate better to club-based competitions. In order to be able to provide a product to appeal to a different audience that cricket already had, Cricket Australia had to do something different. Having different teams, new brands, the ability to basically start again and target specific audiences was considered to be very important.

The BBL was viewed as being a colourful and exciting product that would persuade both the public and the general sports fans that cricket was a game that had something to offer. In India, at least, it had been found that women seemed to prefer the glamorous sporting extravaganza of the Twenty20 IPL to the more conventional format of one-day cricket and Test cricket. The re-launched BBL was viewed as a vehicle that hopefully would attract a new audience to cricket. It was hoped that new fans to the BBL would include both women, young families and younger people in general.

As outlined by S18:

The primary single purpose of the BBL is to diversify cricket's traditional fan base and to attract new fans. Focus on younger audiences and females. This is the key reason for existing – everything undertaken attempts to revolve around this as an objective... Has opened up a new audience. As a product it has more of an entertainment focus. This has possibly changed the perception of traditional cricket – maybe traditional cricket is viewed as a little slow and boring? BBL is considered to be innovative and creative as an entertainment product. BBL has to be more than just a sport – it is important to have a balance between a credible contest on the field and enhance the moments by activities going on.

6.5.2 Planned Change Approach Versus Emergent Change Approach

6.5.2.1 Planned Change

Traditional planned change management strategies involve sequential steps for altering organisational and individual behaviour. This method is typically employed once decision makers identify a need for change (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009; Burns, 2006). Planned change models consist of a pre-defined number of steps that an organisation will pass through in implementing change. As outlined in the literature review, Lewin's three-step model and Kotter's eight-step model are examples of well-known planned change models.

6.5.2.2 Emergent Change

Emergent change is described as unpredictable, often unintentional. It can come from anywhere, and is relatively informal and self-organising (Weick & Quinn, 1999). The world is changing at a faster pace than ever before and people have less time to devote to leisure activities as well. Stacey (2005) suggests that numerous organisations these days operate at the "edge of chaos and far-from-equilibrium" with instability and stability intertwined and difficult to separate. Organisations need to understand and learn to operate with this in mind. If an organisation has numerous policies and procedures in place, there may be too much stability and control which will

cause the organisation to become unresponsive to its environment and decline. As outlined by Mike McKenna:

The move to city based franchises was not as a result of extensive research, it was considered to be a way to attract bigger and fresher markets of fans ... people were not passionate about state cricket ... people relate better to club-based competitions ...

As outlined by the BBL League Manager, Anthony Everard:

Cricket Australia had to do something different. Having different teams, new brands, the ability to basically start again and target specific audiences was considered to be very important ... we still have work to do – whilst we have a strong following – it is really important for us that we continue to drive passion and engagement with people to follow and support a particular club.

As outlined by S11:

Cricket Australia conducts the national campaign to promote the BBL and the clubs are responsible for their local market engagement. We are left to our own devices in terms of marketing and advertising ... we tested the water so to speak and now have established some icon matches.

Emergent change occurs “in real time” (Burns, 2006, p. 363) and therefore fosters ongoing re-alignment with the environment, ongoing learning and strategy making. Further benefits of emergent change are: “sensitivity to local contingencies, learning and sense-making, comprehensibility and manageability, proneness to swift implementation, resistance to unravelling, ability to exploit existing tacit knowledge; and tightened and shortened feedback loops from results to action” (Weick, 2000, p. 225).

As outlined by the BBL League Manager, Anthony Everard:

The current finals system has received a lot of criticism ... we are open-minded about different finals systems into the future ... we are starting to consider a future approach to growth for BBL, which contemplates a variety of options – more games, more teams, finals etc.

Emergent change theories emphasise the processes and the nature of organising (Hosking & Morley, 1992). Thus people's interactions lead to unpredictable outcomes and difficulties in predicting and therefore planning beforehand the path that change initiatives will take.

Summing up, it is possible to consider the Emergent Change approach as being one which stems from the idea that change is "continuous, unpredictable, and essentially political in nature" (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009, p.5). The emergent change approach evolved in response to the traditional planned change approaches such as Lewin's 3-step change model or Kotter's 8-step change model that seemed to be lacking and/or insufficient in a time characterised by a dynamic and unpredictable environment.

As outlined by S11:

We have focused on a series of initiatives to attract families ... we are always searching for new approaches to market and make the event more attractive to families.

As outlined by the BBL League Manager, Anthony Everard:

We have icon matches scheduled into the season – the New Year's Eve match in Adelaide in a short period has become a tradition. What has worked in sport in the past is not what the fans want in the future, and that's the philosophy we are adopting at the BBL.

The second comment is considered to be a very prominent statement. Cricket Australia as a sporting organisation is aware that what fans want is changing all the time. Cricket Australia must be prepared to change to provide the fans with what they want.

6.5.2.3 Planned Versus Emergent Change Arguments

The importance of Lewin's work on organisational change is indisputable. Accordingly, several authors have developed similar approaches, such as Kotter's (1995) eight-step

change model or Bullock and Batten's (1985) four-phase model of planned change (Bamford & Forrester, 2003, p. 547).

Whilst many academics and researchers support planned change models, there are those who consider that there are weaknesses and flaws associated with a planned change approach, especially at a time in which the environment becomes more and more unpredictable. Thus, there have been a number of opponents to the planned change approach. Questions were raised especially in regard to the efficacy and appropriateness of the established approaches. The main points of criticism seemed to stem from the culture-excellence school, and the post-modernists. These questions and thoughts are outlined by Burnes (2006).

The planned change perspective is reproached for its neglect of environmental factors that might be incompatible with the planned change e.g. Stickland (1998) draws on systems theory, emphasising the role of internal and external influences as "drivers" for organisational change (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009, p. 4)). Another point that should be carefully considered is, as is especially brought out by those that follow defined processes, implementing change is not as simple as following a series of "pre-identified discrete and self-contained events", but is more often an "open-ended" and "continuous process" where it is often unfeasible or unwanted to define a precise end state (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009, p. 5). Another criticism outlined by Pfeiffer (1992), is that planned change models often ignore the role of power and politics. This criticism claims that, in addition, the advocated assumption of easily recognisable and resolvable conflicts is unrealistic in most organisational settings (Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009, p. 5).



Figure 6-9 - The BBL excitement and attracting record crowds

6.5.3 A Change Approach for Re-Launching of the Big Bash League (BBL)

The re-launch of the BBL is seen to have followed an emergent change approach and not a defined, planned change approach. This is evident by the following:

- the accelerated re-launch of the Big Bash League;
- re-launching the competition with city-based teams rather than traditional state-based teams;
- Cricket Australia is responsible for the BBL competition and clubs are left to their own devices in regard to marketing and engaging with fans;
- there is an ability to change – subject to local contingencies (e.g. salary cap limits, number of players in each playing roster);
- the ability for swift implementation (e.g. modifying the tournament to provide the public with what they want to see).

Through the use of new technologies such as social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter), organisations are starting to leverage stakeholders' input quickly and effectively. This feedback, however, is largely unpredictable and might lead to the recognition of a felt need for change in a direction that the company had not considered before. This is relevant to the BBL franchises as they are responsible for engaging with their supporters and fans. In today's mobile communications environment, engaging with fans on Facebook and Twitter is seen as a way of connecting with younger people.

6.5.3.1 The Re-Lauched BBL – Sportainment

One of the primary reasons for creation of the BBL is to diversify cricket's traditional fan base to attract new fans. The key focus is on younger audiences and females. This is the key reason for the existence of the BBL and everything undertaken attempts to revolve around this as a key objective. As a product, it has more of an entertainment focus and this has helped to change the perception of traditional cricket which was often viewed as being slow and boring. The BBL is viewed as being innovative and creative as an entertainment product. The BBL has to be more than just sport, although it is important that it maintains a balance between a credible contest on the field and enhancing the moments with activities that are going on around the boundary

The idea behind the re-launched BBL was that this competition would change the way cricket in Australia was traditionally played and viewed, not only as a sport but also as a form of entertainment. New elements were added off the field to compliment the excitement and thrill of the action that was taking place on the field. The combination of exciting and fast moving cricket and the off-the-field entertainment elements makes the BBL a unique event. The BBL is "sportainment".

6.5.3.2 Cricket Experience

The BBL has seen a number of innovations being introduced, all with the intention of making this format of the game faster and more exciting for the fans. Innovations include the introduction of dugouts for players near to the boundary, with the purpose of increasing the visibility of players for both stadium and broadcast audiences. This innovation also increases the pace of the game, facilitating quicker changes of batsmen. Team kits were enhanced to be more colourful and more visually appealing. A significant rule change was also introduced to encourage a more expansive batting style – this was the introduction of a free hit following a no-ball.

6.5.3.3 Stadium Experience

The stadium experience is also a very important consideration if the BBL is to be highly successful. Given that the BBL is promoted as being a fast and furious version of the game of cricket, a number of off-the-field entertainment elements have been linked directly to on-the-field action.

6.5.3.4 Broadcast Experience

Whilst nothing can really beat the experience of being at the game, this is not always possible. Therefore, the broadcast experience is also another key element that can make the BBL hugely successful. A number of changes have been introduced to the coverage of the BBL. Commentators for the broadcast are no longer sitting in commentary boxes in the grandstand – they are instead located in a re-designed facility that affords them the opportunity to be in a more laid-back position. The commentators are also dressed casually to match the more relaxed style of presentation. Additionally, one member of each team is provided with a microphone and in the case of the batsman they have a camera built into their helmet. Umpires are also provided with a camera so more “on-field” action can be captured up close.

6.5.3.5 Integrated Marketing

Marketing of each of the franchises is important. The BBL has its own dedicated website and each club also has their own dedicated website. The work undertaken by each of the franchises is important also in establishing the BBL. Initiatives undertaken by clubs include:

- offering membership packages to fans;
- making players available to attend coaching clinics and schools to assist in game development;
- offering special packages to fans (e.g. family tickets at discounted prices);
- signing star international cricketers to play for the franchise;
- running special game day promotions;
- providing opportunities for young kids to get autographs from players at the ground;
- establishing their own club websites;
- encouraging the use of social media to engage with fans.

The development of new communications technology has brought with it a range of communication channels which all require specific planning.

6.5.4 Establishing the Big Bash League into the Australian Summer of Cricket

At the end of the first season of the re-launched BBL, there was a review performed and now at the end of every season a review is completed to highlight things that have worked successfully and things that have not been as successful as competition organisers and BBL team CEOs would have liked. Whilst the change method initially resembled an undertaking that followed an emergent change approach, the now established BBL now follows more of the planned change approach, similar to that outlined in Section 6.3 of this chapter.

Figure 6-10 shows the cricket attendance figures since the year 1979-80 through to 2013-14. The graph clearly shows the attendance figures for the three different formats of cricket. Attendances at Test matches in Australia have tended to remain relatively stable with the occasional significant increase. In examining the years when there was a significant increase it was detected that they included summers when an Ashes series was held (i.e. in 2006-07 and again in 2013-14), the two summers when Australia defeated England 5-0. The graph clearly shows the increase in attendances at BBL matches throughout the summer, with attendance figures generally increasing substantially.

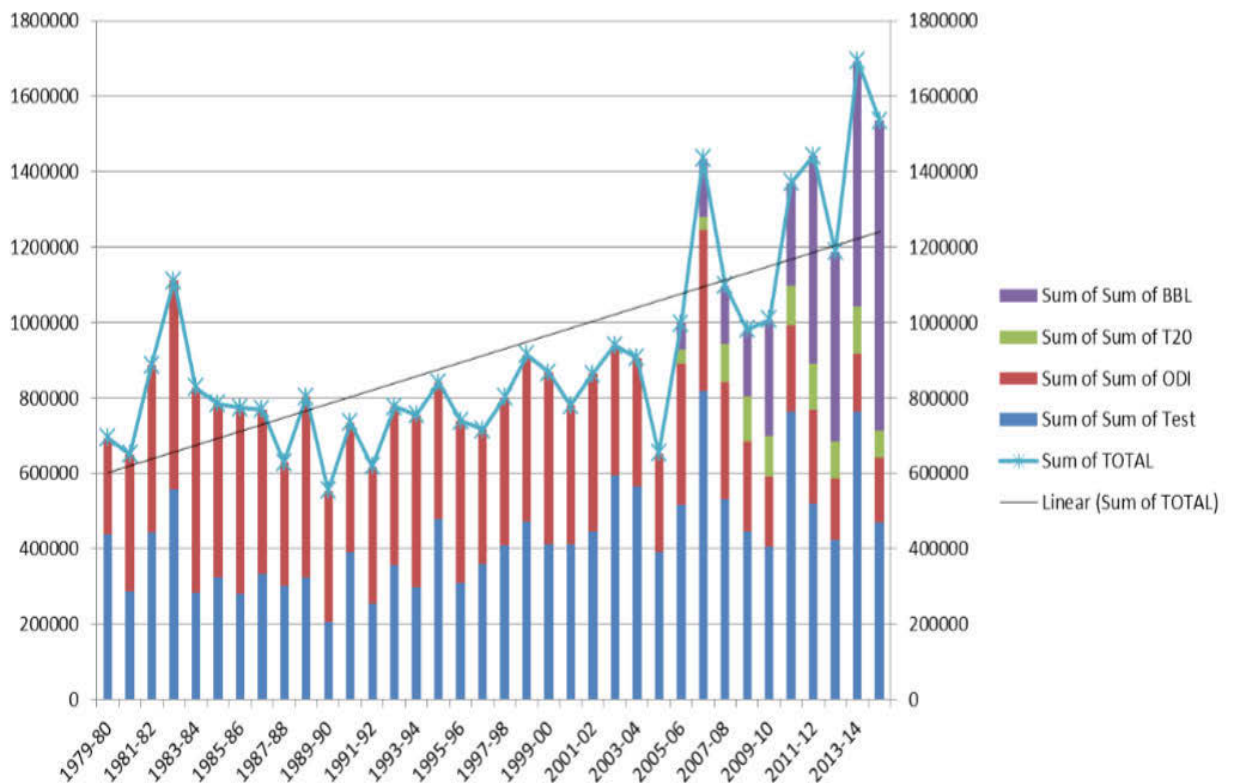


Figure 6-10 – Australian Cricket Attendance Figures

Figure 6-11 and Figure 6-12 both clearly show the increases in attendance figures, along with projected attendance figures.

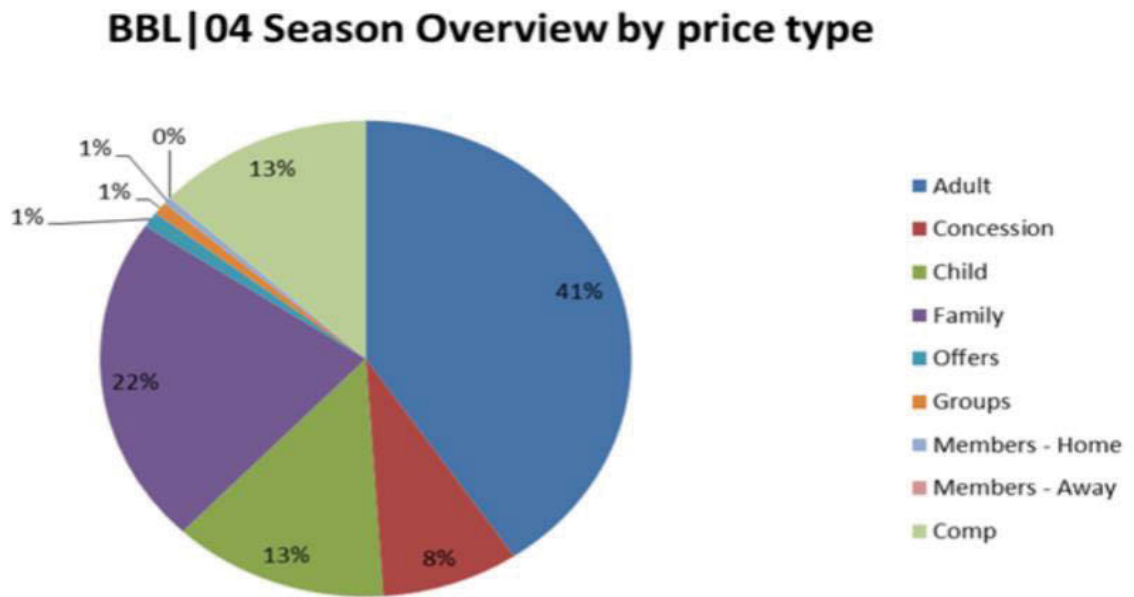


Figure 6-11 – BBL Attendance Groups

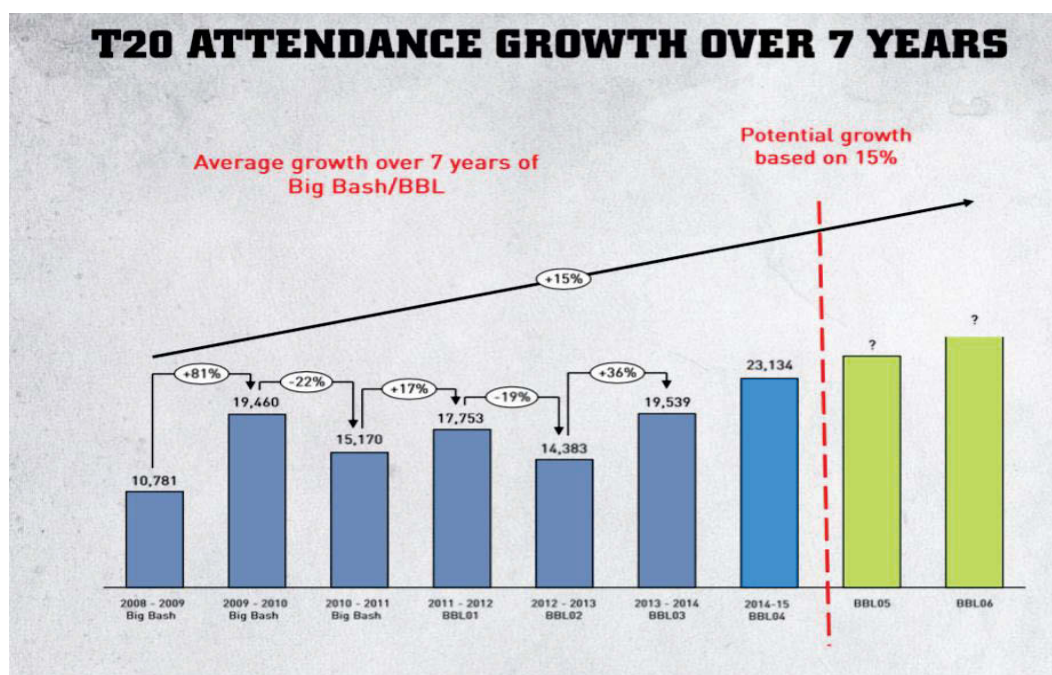


Figure 6-12 – BBL Attendance Growth & Projected Growth

6.5.5 BBL Challenges and Change Initiatives in the Future

With all the hype of record crowds (over 80,000 people attended a match at the MCG in January 2016) and record TV ratings (with over 1,000,000 viewers on average tuning into each match on television), it could be expected that if the opportunity to increase the number of teams or the number of games played was available, then Cricket Australia would be interested in pursuing the option. But this is not necessarily the case.

As outlined by the BBL League Manager, Anthony Everard:

Like any growth company, the Big Bash at this stage is focused on building its customer base rather than targeting a certain income level ... at the moment the priority is investing in the BBL so as to ensure we are still establishing the competition ... the BBL is here to safeguard cricket by attracting new audiences and getting kids involved in the game.

A comment by S9:

We have regular meetings throughout the season and regular planning meetings during the off season as a team to plan and understand changes that are required and can be implemented to the BBL. Initially there was not a lot of planning undertaken ... now with an established league changes made are done in a more planned way.

Taking this comment on board, a detailed analysis of comments and data taken from interview notes with senior management, BBL managers and general managers of franchises it appears that whilst an emergent approach to change was adopted when first establishing the competition, the BBL now follows a change model similar if not identical to the proposed change model used in game development and increasing participation.

6.5.6 Conclusion

The initial KFC Big Bash launched in 2005-06 was not a failure but again it did not capture the attention of the public and it was gradually becoming a financial burden on state cricket associations and Cricket Australia.

The re-launched BBL in Australia entered the market as an untested product in 2011-12 following an emergent change approach. The BBL has been utilised effectively to rebrand the image of cricket (e.g. both as sport and entertainment). The approach to change now that the competition has been established appears to follow a planned change approach as described in section 6-3 and shown in Figure 6-13.

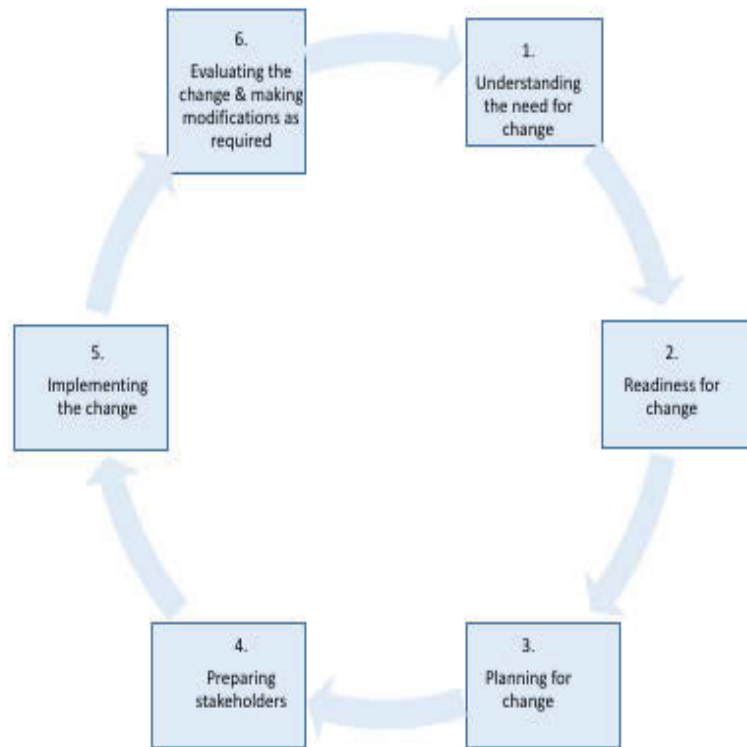


Figure 6-13 – Planned Change Model for Introducing Change into the Established BBL

Planning undertaken now for the Big Bash appears to follow the model outlined below.

For example:

Planning was done prior to the introduction and announcement of the establishment of a women's Big Bash League.

As outlined by Mike McKenna, CA's Executive GM (Operations):

In December 2015, Cricket Australia revealed that they are looking into the possibility of hosting a Christmas Day BBL match in the coming years, possibly after the next season. If the proposal is passed, it would be a first in the history of Australian sport since no professional matches are played in Australia on Christmas Day.

Initially, the Big Bash and the first two years of the re-launched BBL were broadcast in Australia on pay TV. Whilst the re-launched competition was successful, only being

broadcast on pay TV limited to some extent the success of the BBL. Once TV rights were granted to a free-to-air television network the promise of the re-launched BBL started to be realised.

The BBL has assisted in raising the image of the game of cricket in Australia. It has been instrumental in attracting young families and younger people to the game and has also seen a massive increase in total attendance at cricket matches during the Australian summer. (Ref: Figure 6-11).

What Cricket Australia has worked hard on since the re-launch of the BBL is using the BBL to create an entertainment experience for spectators, be they in attendance or watching the game broadcast on TV.

6.5.7 The BBL and Emergent Change Conclusions

Unlike planned change models (e.g. Lewin's three-step model and Kotter's eight-step model), emergent change can be considered to be change that happens randomly and is not necessarily the intention of the organisation (French, and Bell: 1999, p. 577). The dynamic and uncertain business environment may be one important factor that leads to the development of this emergent approach to change, where an organisation may be required to act quickly and in a timely manner to respond to changing or unpredictable conditions.

The relaunch of the Big Bash League in the view of the researcher has not followed a defined planned change model, but has instead followed an emergent change approach. An emergent approach was undertaken as there was no predictable and stable environment on which proposed changes could be based. A well-planned change program may have seemed logical to follow but in reality may not have proved appropriate as there may have been both internal and external factors that would make the situation become totally different.

Planned change, which outlines schedules, processes and objectives in advance, has been criticised at times for being rigid. As Dawson (2003) described, even in a stable environment, change can at times appear to be unpredictable. Managers should bear in mind that change plans should have a degree of flexibility, as they can be influenced by a number of internal and external variables. Pettigrew (1987) says that change can happen throughout an organisation, at any time, without clearly defined starting and ending points. Change models such as Lewin's three-step model and Kotter's eight-step model may be considered to be planned change models which tend to have a clearly defined starting and ending point and follow a linear path provided events happen in a planned way, but may not make sense if there is a degree of uncertainty associated with the environment where the changes are happening. In this case linear plans to manage change may not make any sense and in this case what is needed is an emergent change approach where a change-enabling environment and people who are ready and willing to make change whenever a situation requires (Burnes et al., p. 292).

According to Boddy and Paton (2011), the emergent approach is best suited where the change initiative can be affected constantly by many emerging factors, which demonstrates that a rigid, sequenced model for change may be not very helpful. This approach emphasises the need for organisations to always be alert to their environment and maintain their best state by quickly adjusting, shifting and maintaining the equilibrium whenever it is disturbed (Senior, 2002, p. 44).

To be able to identify and respond quickly to variations, it is suggested a more "bottom-up" approach rather than a "top-down" approach should be considered. Staff closest to the environment where the change is being made and those who have access to events and detailed information will be more likely have a sense of where change is being successful and where it is not. There is more likelihood that they can be the

earliest ones to recognise problems in the system. Thus, empowering employees is a good way to encourage staff to take action whenever it is needed. However, for “bottom-up” change to emerge successfully, employees who take actions need to have sufficient skills, motivations and courage to deal with change. The practice of “self-organisation” and continuous innovation were promoted to support change emergence through empowering employees and creating a climate of receptiveness to change. It proposes that managers should be less command-control in their style; and instead, they should develop a culture for innovation and creative thinking that enables people to experiment and adopt new ways of doing things wherever and whenever appropriate. The emergent change approach seems to pay more attention to the “two-way” relationship between the organisation and its environment than the planned approach.

The emergent approach is also not perfect as it looks. It also is considered to have limitations such as:

- this approach is not laid in clearly and is thought to lack coherence and validity;
- it is not very systematic and consistent;
- the validity and universal application of this approach is also another controversial point;
- it is not appropriate for organisations that operate in a simple environment;
- the emergent approach is suited for organisational change rather than individual or group change.

6.6 Data Analysis using NVivo

The NVivo 11 software tool was used as part of the case study data analysis phase. Specifically, NVivo 11 was used as an aid in analysing and interpreting interview

responses. Steps taken in setting up NVivo to assist with the case study analysis were as follows and are listed in Table 6-5:

Steps Taken	Work Completed in NVivo	Outcome
Create a new project in NVivo	Open NVivo and select the option to create a new project	Project created successfully in NVivo
Import data and set up folders in NVivo	Import interview data, journal articles into NVivo	Material imported into NVivo
Node creation	Create specific nodes within the NVivo project	Nodes created so that data can be assigned to nodes
Code text and interview transcripts	Interview transcripts coded and assigned to a node	Material coded – sources coded to gather material about themes and topics
Memo creation	Memos created within NVivo to record goals, assumptions and key decisions	Memos created

Table 6-5 - Steps Taken in Setting up and Using NVivo 11

6.6.1 Study Participants

There were 24 study participants who took part in this research study. The following pie chart Figure 6-14 shows the distribution of the respondents and the organisations that they represented. Figure 6-15, Figure 6-16 and Figure 6-17 are screen shots that have been captured to show how NVivo was used during the course of the study.

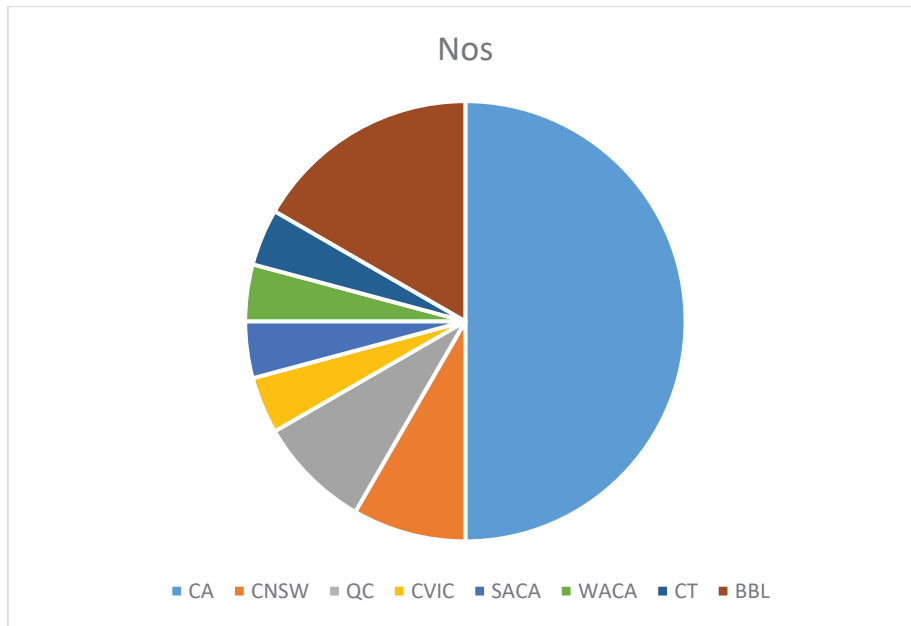


Figure 6-14 – Pie Chart Showing Which Part of Cricket Study Participants Came From

For further information on research study participants, refer to Section

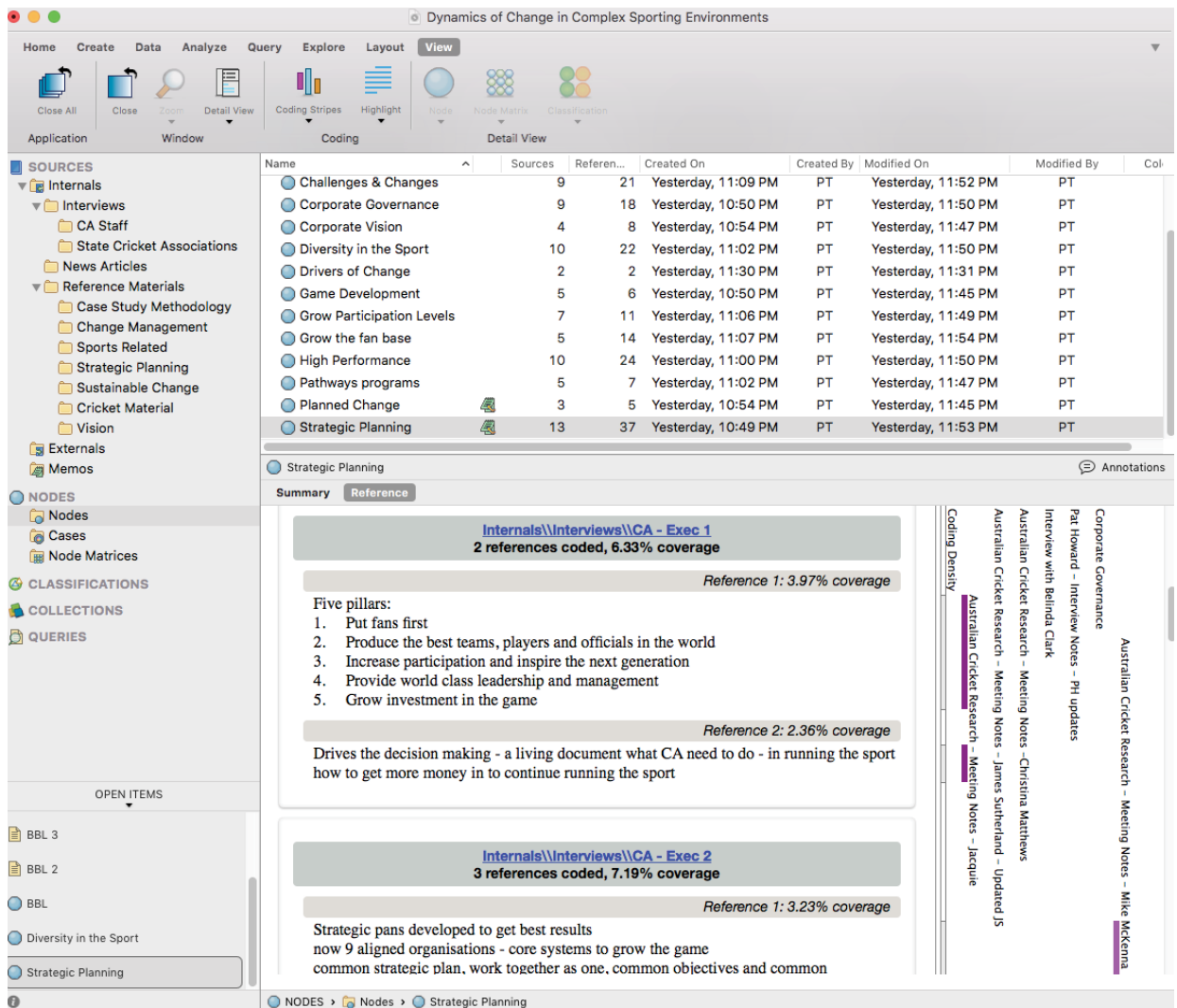


Figure 6-15 – NVivo Software Showing Key References

The screenshot shows the NVivo software interface for a query named "Query 1". The main workspace displays a "Node Matrix" table with the following data:

	A : Corpor...	B : Corpor...	C : Diversi...	D : Game...	E : Grow P...	F : Grow t...	G : Planne...	H : Strate...
1 : Corporate Governance	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
2 : Corporate Vision	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0
3 : Diversity in the Sport	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	0
4 : Game Development	0	0	0	6	2	0	0	0
5 : Grow Participation Levels	0	0	0	2	11	0	0	0
6 : Grow the fan base	0	0	0	0	0	14	0	0
7 : Planned Change	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0
8 : Strategic Planning	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	37

Figure 6-16 – NVivo Software Showing Key Responses

have been utilized to assess how changes were implemented and also how changes made have been sustained.

The factors and strategies and associated properties was used to describe how the reported change efforts were sustained. This is consistent with Buchanan et al.'s (2005, p. 201) list of factors affecting sustainability: substantial, individual, managerial, financial, leadership, organizational, cultural, political, processual, contextual, and temporal. Furthermore, when linked and described in sequence, most of these factors could be identified within the context of Kotter's eight-step change model.

An analysis of interview responses was used to respond to the research questions and the goal of developing a theoretical framework relating to sustainable change. The theoretical framework was achieved through the review and detailed analysis of responses and reflections regarding sustained strategic change efforts as described by the participants that took part in this study. The data revealed that sustained change efforts, first described by type of change and originating source, provided insights into the process facilitating and leading sustainable change initiatives.

For Australian cricket, the organisation's vision statement 'To be Australia's Favourite Sport' was found to be a critical factor that drove people which is essential to being able to successfully implement sustainable strategic change. The vision statement was viewed as a key tool to drive both staff and volunteers whilst undertaking any task. In this study, the centrality and dominant thrust of change, when initiated by Cricket Australia, was established as a consistent and driving factor for the delivery of sustainable strategic change. When this factor was combined with Kotter's eight-step change model (Appelbaum et al., 2012), the steps creating urgency, forming a powerful coalition, creating a vision for change and building on the change and making it stick were steps that maintained a dynamic quality through the vision and consistent, central direction.

The centrality of the driving force for change was also found to make certain secondary factors available to enable the change to be consistent through the other parts of change initiative. It was revealed that key stimuli required to facilitate sustained strategic change are time, human factors, and the resources to carry out the change. If not for the continued support and distinct drive from a central point, these enablers may not be available.

The next and final chapter will present a summary of the findings along with the contributions this research has contributed to the change management discipline. Some recommendations, limitations and further options for research will also be presented.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Work

A goal is not always meant to be reached, it often serves simply as something to aim at. (Bruce Lee)

7.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an overview of the study that has been undertaken and a discussion on the need for change in a complex sporting environment (Australian cricket). It then provides a recap of the research questions, and an overview of the methodology utilised. The change processes and obstacles inhibiting change are reviewed, and the responses to the research questions are summarised. The chapter ends with a presentation of the resultant model, which was developed based on the research findings. The model provides an outline of the factors necessary for sustaining change in complex sporting environments. The chapter is structured in the following sections:

- Section 7.2 presents an overview of the research study
- Section 7.3 presents an overview of the findings identified in the study
- Section 7.4 presents the conclusions and implications for researchers and practitioners
- Section 7.5 outlines the limitations of this research
- Section 7.6 identifies opportunities for further research.

7.2 Overview of the Research Study

Sports organisations are in a constant state of change (Slack, 1997). Although change is a complex and continuous process, the magnitude and impact of specific changes varies considerably. According to Parent, O'Brien and Slack (2012, p.116) *'throughout*

the lifecycle of a sport organisation, it will move through long periods of convergent, gradual change that will be punctuated by short periods of frame breaking, radical organisational change'. It is acknowledged that most change in sport is considered to be subtle and continual. This present research focused on three significant strategic change initiatives which were more frame-breaking or radical, in this case, the first two were planned change initiatives that arose from:

1. The systematic intervention by Cricket Australia to revitalize and integrate the development and delivery of cricket at a community level into clubs and schools.
2. The initiative to adopt a governance structure now regarded as 'the best' throughout the world. This is an independent and well skilled Board that is clearly accountable to the owners and one which doesn't confuse its own role with that of management.

The third change initiative implemented, initially to start with, displayed characteristics more commonly considered to be emergent change:

3. The re-launch of the Big Bash League (BBL) in 2010/11 into the Australian summer of cricket.

The constantly changing environment is stimulating sporting organisations to be more creative and proactive in developing new methods and approaches for adapting operational practices, processes, and decision-making models. Sports organisations must be able to adapt their structures, products and services, internal procedures, use of technology and the way they operate to succeed (Amis et al., 2004). Achieving change that delivers increased performance within a complex business environment is arguably the goal of most modern commercialised sport organisations (Nicholson & Hoye, 2008).

7.2.1 Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide this study:

RQ1 - How and why sports organisations implement sustainable strategic change?

RQ2 - What factors contribute to sustainable strategic change in sports organisations?

The secondary questions that were used that informed the main two research questions were:

1. How did Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote change throughout Australian Cricket?
2. What strategies are used to create sustainable change?

7.3 Findings Identified in the Study

The planned strategic change initiatives launched by Cricket Australia were innovative, comprehensive, creative, and resulted in significant improvements such as increasing the number of participants playing the sport and increasing the number of spectators attending cricket matches. The initiatives brought cultural, structural, and technological changes to Australian cricket across multiple departments that once operated as independent silos or may in fact not have existed previously.

These are the types of change initiatives that may be considered to be frame-breaking or radical change and are identified in the literature as revolutionary, because they created a paradigm shift and transform the delivery of services along with how the organisation operated and was governed (Burnett & Oblinger, 2002; Grotevant, 1998; Kezar & Eckel, 2002).

Each of the strategic change initiatives examined in this research had been initiated by Cricket Australia and were designed, as the study points out, to have a positive and

significant impact on Australian cricket in the short-term, medium-term and long-term and would contribute to Cricket Australia becoming and continuing to be ranked as Australia's favourite sport and a sport for all Australians.

7.3.1 Addressing the Research Questions

The two primary research questions were answered by study participants through the course of open discussion guided by the series of interview questions.

The first research question established how and why sports organisations implement strategic change through experiences described by the study participants. Participants mainly described change initiatives that were highly visible and that were linked with service delivery, governance reform, a change of practice or an attitudinal change. These change initiatives and their descriptors were further elaborated upon and illustrated clearly that managing complex sporting organisations in a strategic manner will yield better results through the implementation of strategic change.

The second research question pertaining to factors that contributed to sustainable change in sports organisations was answered by defining the goals and objectives specific to the change initiatives described by each study participant. Most often, the factors identified were derived and linked to increasing the level of participation, increasing and diversifying the fan base, governance reform and most significantly, the desire of achieving the organisational vision.

Specific answers to the secondary questions are incorporated into the remaining sections of this chapter. Overall the study participants almost unanimously stated that stimulus for the change was driven by the organisational vision to become Australia's favourite sport.

7.3.2 Challenges to Change

Although Cricket Australia has been successful in implementing and sustaining change, each change initiative was susceptible to or experienced some obstacles or barriers that were described in the literature (Attaran, 2000; Peppard & Rowland, 1995). Challenges included lack of commitment to the corporate vision, lack of involvement by senior management, failure to deal with resistance, poor ongoing communications, insufficient training, an approach that was inflexible, and unrealistic goals and/or deadlines. Despite these challenges, Cricket Australia (including state cricket associations) was able to overcome obstacles and put plans in place to mitigate risks.

Change management required coordination and teamwork. To be effective, the scale of the change initiatives had to be accepted by most, and pervade the entire sporting organisation from top to bottom. “All parts of the organisation need to be involved and committed to the process of change” (Eady, 1993, p. 10). Kotter (2007) advises that “nothing much worth-while happens’ without a critical mass willing to encourage others to engage in change. It takes a guiding coalition as outlined in Step 2 of Kotter’s eight-step change model to create transformational change such as the intervention of Cricket Australia into game development to increase the level of participation and the re-launch and establishment of the Big Bash League.

Within Australian cricket, differing needs and perspectives were taken into consideration when planning and implementing the change initiatives. By addressing the challenges on an ongoing basis, the strategies employed helped maintain a focus on continuous improvement and laid the groundwork for sustaining change. Most important was having an understanding of issues and challenges that could arise at any time that needed constant monitoring and attention. What was necessary to

sustain a culture of change was examined by Cricket Australia and state cricket associations and discussed through responses to the research questions.

7.3.3 Factors Related to Sustaining Change

Information presented here on factors relating to sustained change have been derived from interviews with study participants, reviews of organisational documentation such as annual reports and strategic plans and information contained within literature on change management. Information that has come from the study suggests that factors that affect sustained strategic change within sports organisations could be designated to be either primary or secondary. In a similar manner, institutional theory considers the processes by which regulative, normative and cultural structures are established as 'authoritative guidelines' for social behaviour and explains how these elements are created, diffused, adopted and adapted over time (i.e. institutionalised). Primary factors are those factors that are considered to be significant in sustaining organisational change in sporting organisations. Secondary factors are considered to be those that are not significant, but do contribute to the sustainability of the strategic change.

7.3.4 Primary Factors

Three factors emerged as primary and, therefore, are considered to be critical factors for enabling continuous improvement and sustained change within a complex sporting environment. These three factors may be summarised as being **leadership factors**, **human factors** and **cultural factors**. Successful change initiatives undertaken within Australian cricket have therefore been influenced more by people and culture than by anything else. There was consistent, if not unanimous, agreement among the study participants on these themes. Literature reviewed supported the findings that emerged from the research study (Attaran, 2000; Burke, 2002) and detailed that change efforts

are influenced more by people and culture than anything else, whilst at the same time people and culture present the greatest challenges to implementing change. Cultural management and change is a pressing issue and core activity of performance leaders in high performance sports organisations (Cruickshank, & Collins, 2016, Sotiriadou, 2013). Cricket Australia since 2013 has focused a great deal of attention on establishing harmony within cricket – by outlining that cricket is a game for everyone, regardless of their cultural background, religion, gender, age or ability.

7.3.5 Leadership Factors

Strong leadership and engagement of key stakeholders were critical factors in successful change in Australian cricket. Authentic leadership enhances the chance that dialogue and discussion can lead to mutual goals and aspirations being realised. (Lloyd-Walker & Walker, 2010)

As outlined by the CEO of Cricket Australia:

In 2010 senior management of Cricket Australia set up the Australian Cricket Conference, with over 250 key stakeholders attending. The conference was to be a consultative process to enable CA management and staff to work closely with key stakeholders to determine where cricket was at and where cricket needed to be in the future so that the next strategy for Australian cricket could be developed.

The establishment of the Australian Cricket Conference illustrates clearly strong leadership within the organisation. Sponsorship and ownership of the change initiatives by leaders throughout Australian cricket were essential from the start and for a period of time after the implementation. Leadership commitment and engagement is considered to be an essential component of organisational change and this was emphasised in the literature (Attaran, 2000; Herkness et al., 1996). Constant, regular monitoring from leaders has had the greatest impact on the success of the change initiatives and has assisted Cricket Australia in achieving the intended outcomes and

realising its stated organisational vision. Additionally, monitoring assisted in eliminating or reducing obstacles and resistance.

It was articulated several times in the interviews that managers and leaders utilised coalition power and influence to maintain the focus on sustaining change and continuous improvement. Commitment to continuous improvement by Cricket Australia and state cricket associations required a willingness to consider and align new organisational structures, when needed, and to support service delivery improvements. Further, senior management as leaders needed to be the primary communicators of the vision, purposes, priorities, and goals for the new initiatives that were being implemented.

7.3.6 Human Factors

A number (over 40%) of study participants outlined the importance of the human factors and identified them as being almost as important as strong leadership in sustaining organisational change. The commitment of game development managers, staff members and volunteers was necessary to reshaping the culture for delivering a change initiative which was aimed at altering the delivery of the sport at a grassroots level. Of prime concern was resistance to change from club administrators and coaches, hence why a number of states held workshops and training sessions for people so as to reduce and minimise any resistance to the change initiative being implemented. The commitment of state cricket associations in agreeing to Cricket Australia's proposal to adopt a new governance structure regarded as "best practice" throughout the world, as well as agreeing to work more collaboratively together and with the national body Cricket Australia was viewed as being key to successfully implementing change to the corporate governance of Australian cricket. Cricket Australia committed to relaunching the Big Bash League and allocating resources that were considered necessary to ensuring that the new league would be successful.

Cricket Australia was attempting to show its strong belief in the new Twenty20 competition and tried to ensure that all of the franchises had CA support if they wanted to try new initiatives in promoting the games further.

Human resource factors required deliberate and purposeful strategies from senior executives, senior management and other managers, to encourage and ensure alignment with the change initiatives. Fear at times had created an obstacle to change, therefore it was essential that frequent and constructive communication was issued to people who could be affected. Managers and staff members alike experienced anxiety as job requirements changed and new knowledge and skills were required. Changes were not necessarily an easy shift for anyone involved in the change initiatives. However, over time, through training and experience, operations settled down and people grew to accept the changes.

7.3.7 Cultural Factors

For organisational change within Australian cricket to take hold, a climate receptive to change, with continuous improvement as a priority, was required. Cultural management and change is a pressing issue and core activity of performance and change leaders in a complex sporting environment such as Cricket Australia. Change cultures were created within Australian cricket, although it should be noted that this was more in the form of convergent gradual change achieved by establishing a clear, articulated purpose for change; by training managers and staff for change; by encouraging teamwork and innovation around change; and by making needed resources available for change. Many participants noted that a culture of change was created when change was understood and accepted as a constant.

7.3.8 Secondary Factors

During the research, a number of factors emerged as secondary factors or contributors to sustained organisational change: organisational factors, procedural factors, contextual factors and communication factors. The secondary factors surfaced as being more significant during the implementation of the change initiative rather than sustaining the change initiative. Organisational factors represented the policies and systems put in place that supported change and were often modified as a result of the change. Procedural factors encompassed the change management methods and approaches utilised, such as project teams, change teams, steering committees, and the timing of the change. Contextual factors described the concept of change in terms of fitting organisational circumstances so as to meet internal and external environmental pressures. Communication factors were articulated as an ongoing component necessary for fostering an understanding of the change vision, for promoting commitment to continuous improvement, and for providing information in support of informed decision-making.

7.3.9 Sports Organisation (Australian Cricket) Characteristics

To implement and sustain change successfully, leaders within Australian cricket faced challenges, some which were endemic to Australian cricket, some endemic to sport and some endemic to business. Professionalisation and subsequent commodification of sport have driven high performance sport to adopt corporate models, where athletes are employees accountable to contracts and line managers, the team manager, coaches or CEO (Frey & Eitzen, 1991). The existence of many long-term employees and volunteers has both facilitated and hindered change efforts. Despite being viewed as conservative and steeped in tradition, cricket has been far from stable and has had to adapt to shifting value systems. The shifts in rules, rituals and understandings of cricket mark social changes, none more so than the globalisation of culture that can be

seen in cricket's commercialisation, commodification and revamping as spectacle. The management of the game itself is arguably more complex than for any other team sport in the world. Designing fixtures and contracting is particularly complicated because elite cricketers can play in many teams throughout a year.

This unique sporting setting creates an environment unlike that in other types of business. Organisational leaders within Australian cricket and state cricket associations have recognised and addressed potential roadblocks by knowing and understanding how Australian cricket operates successfully, and by employing strategies and tactics that would work to bring about change and keep improvements flowing.

7.3.10 Factors With Minimal Influence

Buchanan's (2007) model contains a further two factors which he considers to be essential to sustaining change. These two factors are financial factors and political factors; however, in the research study interviews neither received a mention. Whilst being important factors to most corporations, they were found to have little or no influence on sustaining the three change initiatives that have been examined in this research project.

Financial factors were not discussed at length, if at all, as they were considered not significant because cost/benefit analyses generally were not applied to the change initiatives; cost savings were not expected though increased participation numbers were. One BBL GM did mention the fact that the BBL was attracting record crowd figures, and as a result of this and new contracts with TV and radio broadcasters Cricket Australia and state cricket associations were now enjoying a much brighter financial position. Political factors were deemed to be more important for implementing change than sustaining change. Additionally, political factors were considered a strong component of leadership, not a stand-alone factor.

7.3.11 Overlapping and Intermingling Factors

There was evidence of factors overlapping and intermingling that are considered to have an influence on sustained strategic change. It was obvious that leadership factors and managerial factors overlapped, probably due to the evolving role of managers being accountable for sustained strategic change initiatives and the approach geared more toward change at the department level. Overlapping of procedural and contextual factors was also viewed as strong, especially during the early stages when implementing change. Contextual factors were also considered to be closely linked to the cultural factors because of the need for the proposed change initiatives to contribute to achieving the organisation vision, goals and mission.

Political factors were considered to more closely overlap with leadership factors. This can be attributed to leaders requiring a certain degree of political power and influence so as to be effective agents of change and to be in a position to manage resistance or uncertainty which could detrimentally affect the change initiative if not handled carefully. It was detected that there was some overlapping of political and cultural factors; however, it was generally considered that political factors were entrenched in the leadership and managerial factors.

7.3.12 The Process of Implementing Change in Australian Cricket

There has been increasing interest in understanding and explaining organisational change within sports organisations. This has seen a growth in academic literature on the topic and within it a number of new theoretical perspectives on change (Slack, 1997; Lyras, 2009). A number of studies have been completed based on Canada's sports system where the studies have been undertaken from a public policy perspective or from an organisational theory perspective (Macintosh, Bedecki, & Franks., 1987; Slack & Hinings, 1992, 1995). Other studies have addressed the

transformation of small volunteer-based national sporting organisations (NSOs) into large professional institutions (Slack & Hinings, 1992; O'Brien & Slack, 2003; Cousens & Slack, 2005). The studies have considered and taken into account the complex nature of organisational change and suggest this is best accomplished using a combination of theoretical approaches (Slack & Hinings, 1992; Slack, 1997; Lyras, 2009; Lyras & Welty Peachet, 2011); or identify the directions of change within organisations and recommend the maintenance of a balance between “top-down” structural change and incremental “bottom-up” improvements in organisational culture and capabilities (Beer & Nohria, 2000). Overcoming sustainability blunders requires explicit choices

The leadership provided by Cricket Australia and state cricket associations has been critical to the success of the three sustained change initiatives that have been examined as part of this research. This has not been a case of Cricket Australia coming in, making sweeping changes and then leaving. Instead it has been about introducing and managing ongoing change to ensure that the change was sustained, and that it was internalised throughout the organisation.

Whilst theoretical perspectives on organisational change such as Lewin’s three-step change model or Kotter’s eight-step change model provide new ways of looking at change and at how the implementation of change can be undertaken, they offer limited practical solutions to the change process required by sporting organisations. Change within Kotter’s model is essentially conceptualised to be a linear process in which organisations clearly move from one phase to the next (Slack, 1997, p. 224).

These models appeal to practitioners as a means of explaining the process of change; however, they have drawn criticism from researchers because “there is no provision in these models to capture the temporal dynamic of change, or to address the fact that change is rarely a smooth or sequential process” (Slack, 1997, p. 224).

Change within a traditional, conservative sport, such as cricket, is not easily achieved, even if the change is perceived as advantageous. Cricket is a sport which is defined by its traditions, values and etiquette, and changing one or all of these is likely to alter the fabric of the sport (Astle & Clinton, 2008). The introduction of programs which were aimed at improving game development and increasing participation levels and the introduction of a Twenty20 competition into Australian cricket would challenge the status quo. Proposed change would require better alignment and cohesiveness, improved communication and collaboration through cricket as a sporting organisation; improvement in the capability and capacity of state associations, clubs and schools if they are to successfully implement the program's initiatives and the new opportunities they present; and the alteration of the mindsets and behaviours of stakeholders to accept and deliver these to participants and to fans.

The process of change within Australian cricket involved a sequence of phases and responses that originated within Cricket Australia (the NSO) and then diffused through to state associations and then the entire sporting organisation Australian cricket. The model that outlines the change process adopted for increasing participation numbers and the change approach for implementing change in the BBL is depicted in Figure 7-2.

The model shown in Figure 7-1 (Change Management Process for Implementing Change in a Sports Environment) identifies six phases of change, together with responses that represent specific actions. The responses underpin and contribute to the effective implementation of change within a complex sporting environment such as Australian cricket. The change process comprises:

1. Understanding the need for change.
2. Readiness for change.
3. Planning for the change.

4. Preparing stakeholders.
5. Implementing the change.
6. Evaluating the change and making modifications as necessary.

The phases were not perceived to be linear, but were considered to be more circular in that they provide ongoing feedback and positive reinforcement of the change becoming accepted as new practice. It was suggested by S24 that the speed with which NSOs such as Cricket Australia moved through the phases and sequence of these can be variable. The variability is dependent upon a number of factors such as the commitment of Cricket Australia; the support of leaders and the time frame; available investment; degree of vertical alignment within the sport; current level of capability and capacity; timeliness and quality of planning; design of the program; completion; relevancy and appeal of initiatives; receptivity by the volunteer base; coverage and skills of the delivery network; and effectiveness of national and regional partnerships as well as other strategic initiatives which are being worked on. Collins (2010b) indicates that major change in complex sports organisations is inevitably slow and incremental, especially as it diffuses down through the loosely linked, volunteer-based and community levels.

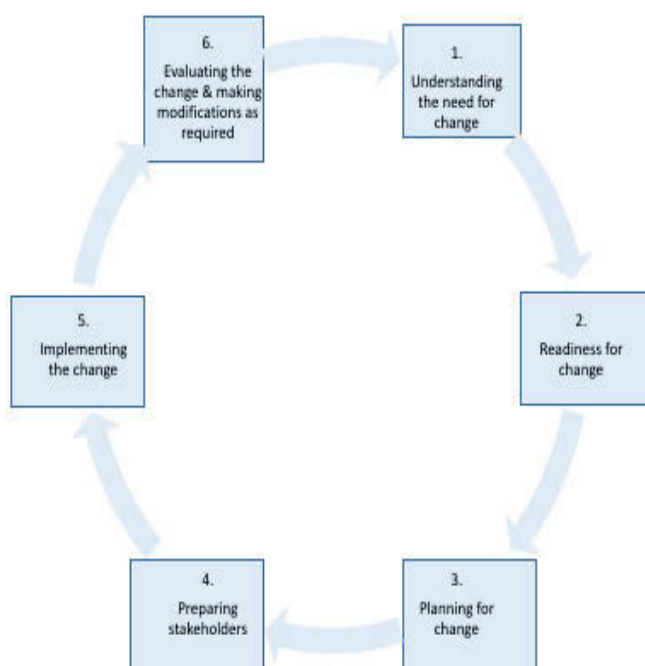


Figure 7-1 - Change Management Process for Implementing Change in a Sports Environment

7.3.13 Development of a Model for Sustaining Strategic Change

Another principal study outcome was the development of a model of factors for sustaining strategic change in complex sporting environments. This model has been developed and was based on the Buchanan (2005) model. The developed model is considered to be specific to a complex sporting environment. Buchanan’s model contains a comprehensive list of factors which he considers to be significant in relation to sustaining change. This research study has not identified all of the factors mentioned as being critical to achieving sustained change. Whilst not being critical to sustaining change it is still considered that factors mentioned do have some relevance.

The model (Refer: Table 7-1) differentiates both primary factors and secondary factors which are considered to be mandatory to sustaining strategic change within a complex sporting environment.

The model starts with detailing the primary factors considered to be required to implement sustainable change within a complex sporting environment. A short summary provides the reader with additional information on suggested tasks to be completed. Following the primary factors are the secondary factors which are considered to sustain strategic change within a complex sporting environment. Again, a short summary provides the reader with additional information on suggested tasks or areas to consider to assist in achieving sustained strategic change in complex sporting environments.

Primary Factors	Significant Influence on Sustaining Change
Leadership Factors	Commitment to Cricket Australia’s vision, purposes, priorities and realistic goals: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Utilise coalition power to maintain the focus on sustaining change and continuous improvement. ▪ Secure the necessary resources (i.e. people, place and technology). ▪ Communicate vision, purposes, priorities and goals to support understanding and commitment. ▪ Display a willingness to consider new organisational models that are needed to support improved student services. <p><i>Authentic leadership enhances the chance that dialogue and discussion leads to mutual goals and aspirations being realised.</i></p>
Managerial Factors	Commitment to continuous improvement at national, state and district/association level: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Persistent support of the Cricket Australia vision, purposes, priorities and realistic goals. ▪ Build high-trust relationships, collaborate, and communicate with leaders, other managers and individuals across Australian cricket. ▪ Support individuals by providing ongoing training and communication, encouraging teamwork and innovation, and dealing with difficult issues.
Individual (Human) Factors	Participation in and acceptance of a climate of change and continuous improvement: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Participate in training for development of knowledge and skills. ▪ Involvement in decision-making and teamwork.
Cultural Factors	Development of an environment of shared beliefs, norms, values and priorities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Being receptive to change. ▪ Displaying commitment to change and continuous improvement is a priority. ▪ Being collaborative, agile and flexible.
Secondary Factors	Factors Considered to be more Relevant for Implementing Than Sustaining Change
Organisational Factors	Organisational policies, practices, systems or structures to support change, or are modified as a result of change.
Procedural Factors	Change methods and timing which may affect implementation of change into the culture.
Contextual Factors	Change fits the organisational/ culture and meets the expectations of both internal and external stakeholders.
Communication Factors	Commitment to issuing regular communications throughout Australian cricket and other key stakeholders to foster an understanding of the strategic organisational change vision, commitment to continuous improvement, and support informed decision-making.

Table 7-1 - Model for Sustaining Change in Complex Sporting Environments

7.3.14 The Process of Sustaining Change in Australian Cricket

Implementing change into a sporting organisation, as previously outlined, is far from an easy task. The research study has shown that the change process cannot easily be dissected into clearly defined steps.

7.3.15 Conclusions and Implications for Researchers and Practitioners

The research has produced comprehensive information on implementing and sustaining strategic change in complex sporting environments. Whilst the existing literature is comprehensive in relation to the topic of implementing organisational change, literature focusing on the topic of sustaining strategic change is considered to be limited. Additionally, there is a lack of literature focusing on the domain of change management practices in complex sporting environments or for supporting sustained improvements (Buchanan et al., 2005; Pettigrew, 1985). This study contributed to the body of knowledge on change management, both in general and specifically in relation to change management in complex sporting environments.

Specific findings from this case study of Australian cricket are similar to those reported in existing literature; however, they do differ slightly due to the environment where the study was conducted. Clear themes emerged from this research as being critical for sustaining organisational change in complex sporting environments:

- Transformational leadership is crucial – it is important to have leaders who can stimulate and inspire followers to achieve great outcomes.
- The ownership of change by key stakeholders, departmental managers and staff members is essential for maintaining sustained change and performance improvements.
- An organisational culture with an openness and willingness to adapt to change is required.

- A clearly and well-articulated vision that inspires others is essential.

The strategic change initiatives that have been examined within Australian cricket were all initiated in the last ten to 15 years. First-hand experiences of those interviewed provided detailed descriptions of influences for sustaining change, expressed through stories about the change initiatives undertaken within Australian cricket and implemented by state cricket associations. The interviews provided the opportunity for gathering in-depth information that would otherwise have been unavailable or inaccessible.

The lessons learned from undertaking this research based on a case study using Cricket Australia should assist organisational leaders of other sport organisations to acquire a better understanding and greater clarity about the factors that influence sustaining change in complex sporting environments. The findings should reinforce or promote revisions to existing or contemplated organisational change initiatives and plans, and thereby improve practices involved in change management in sport organisations.

Application of the model can assist leaders in determining the readiness or likelihood of success for sustaining change in complex sport environments. Leaders of sport organisations can compare the existence of sustainability factors to those identified in the proposed model. The examination and assessment can assist in identifying gaps that may exist that could prevent the sustainability of the change.

With the development of plans to mitigate risks and the creation of opportunities for capitalising on positive factors that exist, proactive strategies can be developed to support successful and worthwhile change efforts. The model can therefore become a tool, or a component, for change management planning and review. Additionally, the

findings of this study can provide useful information and insights that can be of assistance in training future change leaders in sporting organisations.

The findings and results of this study have been derived from completing the analysis within a complex sporting environment (Cricket Australia) and may be transferable and applicable to other not-for-profit organisations. Therefore, the lessons learned may be applicable and provide guidance to other organisations contemplating the implementation of change initiatives which they plan to be sustainable into the future.

7.4 Limitations of This Research

The three change initiatives that have been examined in detail were commenced during the period 2005 through to 2016. Whilst all the study participants were extremely cooperative, open and helpful about their experiences, some of the details pertaining to events that occurred and led to the commencement of the change initiatives could have affected the accuracy of their reporting on what took place during the earlier years. Detailed stories delivered by study participants provided a considerable amount of information and similar thoughts emerged from a number of participants, therefore it appears as though the information was consistent.

In addition to the lapse in time since the initial commencement of the change effort, a majority of participants taking part in this study held managerial or leadership positions within Australian cricket. Perspectives provided were predominantly from a management perspective rather than from the trenches of staff and volunteers involved in the daily activities and operation of the sport at a grassroots participation and fan or supporter level.

Another limitation is that the findings cannot be generalised to other organisations given that this has been a qualitative research study that focused attention on Australian cricket. Additionally, the research was performed utilising an Australian

sports organisation (Cricket Australia) so findings may not be applicable to a sports organisation based outside of Australia

7.5 Recommendations for Further Research

This research has focused attention on how change has been implemented and how change has been sustained within Australian cricket. The research was conducted through a number of semi-structured interviews with a diverse group of individuals who are involved in Australian cricket. The study investigated three key projects that had been recently completed and/or were still ongoing with emphasis placed on examining and analysing how change had been implemented and then examining and analysing how change had been sustained. The study culminated with the identification of key factors that were identified as being required to sustain strategic change within Australian cricket. Whilst this research was specific to Australian cricket, the findings may be applicable to other sports organisations, however applicability to other organisations would require further evaluation and analysis.

The findings of this study have laid the groundwork for further investigation into the study factors that influence whether strategic change is sustainable. This research was exploratory; with a qualitative approach being utilised to determine what factors impact the sustainability of change initiatives. From the resultant model, a quantitative methodology could be considered in the future to further validate and measure the presence of emerging factors that influence or impact in any way the sustainability of changes in sporting environments.

Due to the lack of available quantitative data for describing the sustainability of change in complex sporting environments, future studies should include the generation, collection and analyses of data that actually measures improvement in changes that have been successfully implemented. Sport organisations considering applying this

model should give consideration to incorporating a component to measure the value added from the implementation of the change initiative.

7.6 Chapter Summary

The primary purpose of the study was to gain an increased knowledge and understanding about sustaining organisational change in general and, more specifically, to seek an enhanced understanding of the factors that influence sustaining change in complex sporting environments.

The literature on implementing planned change is prolific, is being constantly reviewed and updated and covers various organisational environments, while the literature on strategic change and sustaining change is considered to be limited. Further research indicated that with the exception of some studies completed that related specifically to change within the Canadian sporting environment, there has been little research completed relating to the implementation of change or the sustainability of change in sport environments.

One reason for the lack of research on change initiatives within sport environments is considered to be a timing issue and also the fact that sports all over the world have evolved considerably over the last two decades due to their increased popularity, and so they are in a constant state of change. The paradoxical nature of change stems from the fact that for any sport organisation to remain competitive in the current environment it must continually make changes. Sport organisations need to be adaptable but they also need to be stable.

Organisational change has received a great deal of attention in the field of organisational design and management and structure. It is essential to understand why organisations might change within the sport industry. It was considered important to learn from investigating successful strategic change initiatives and examine what was

required to ensure sustainability of the change and what was required to continue the momentum for change over a sustained period of time.

A theoretical model of factors that affect sustained organisational change (Buchanan et al., 2007) was used as the framework for the study and the model was examined based on the experiences of those involved in successful strategic change initiatives. Based on the information gathered through first-hand knowledge of the study participants, annual reports and strategic plans and cricket census data reviewed, and the available literature, the original model was modified to be specific to complex sporting environments.

Themes that emerged from the views of individual study participants from across Australian cricket were consistent with those reported in the literature (Buchanan et al., 2007). Managers, leaders, staff members and volunteers, along with organisational culture and a clearly articulated vision, were considered to be the key factors that impacted on the sustainability of strategic change initiatives more than anything else. Factors that contributed to this outcome are outlined below:

- Leadership factors – requires consistent and sustained commitment to achieving Cricket Australia’s vision, purposes, priorities and realistic goals.
- Managerial factors – requires consistent and sustained commitment to achieving continuous improvement so as to meet service and operational needs throughout the organisation.
- Individual human factors – requires consistent and sustained commitment to the acceptance of change and continuous improvement to achieve the vision of Cricket Australia.
- Cultural factors – requires consistent and sustained commitment to understanding shared beliefs, norms and values and is committed to change to achieve the vision of Cricket Australia.

In addition to the factors outlined above, there are secondary factors which are: organisational factors, procedural factors, contextual factors and communication factors. Each of these secondary factors contributes to the successful implementation of strategic change more than they do to sustaining the change.

The model delivers a tool that can be utilised for examining the likelihood of sustaining organisational change. Additionally, the model could be utilised as one component of change management planning by a sports organisation that is contemplating the implementation of a change initiative, or a sports organisation currently undertaking the implementation of a change initiative.

Initiating and sustaining change is by no means simple, it requires significant time and effort, and because many change initiatives have been known to have failed in the past, sports organisations should utilise all available resources and tools to support the achievement of positive outcomes. Failed organisational change efforts in sports organisations might result from any traditional issue involved in change management, such as resistance to the change, or from something unique to a sporting organisation, such as the culture. Ultimately, sustaining change represents a commitment to continuous improvement where change is a priority, and where those responsible for the operation – managers, leaders, and staff members and volunteers – are willing and able to carry out and continue change, as required.

Study participants spread throughout Australian cricket in the interviews described lessons that would be helpful to leaders in other sport organisations about ways of fostering better understanding and adopting factors that influence sustaining change. Current and future planning for change initiatives in sport organisations should be reinforced or modified as a result of understanding and following these research findings.

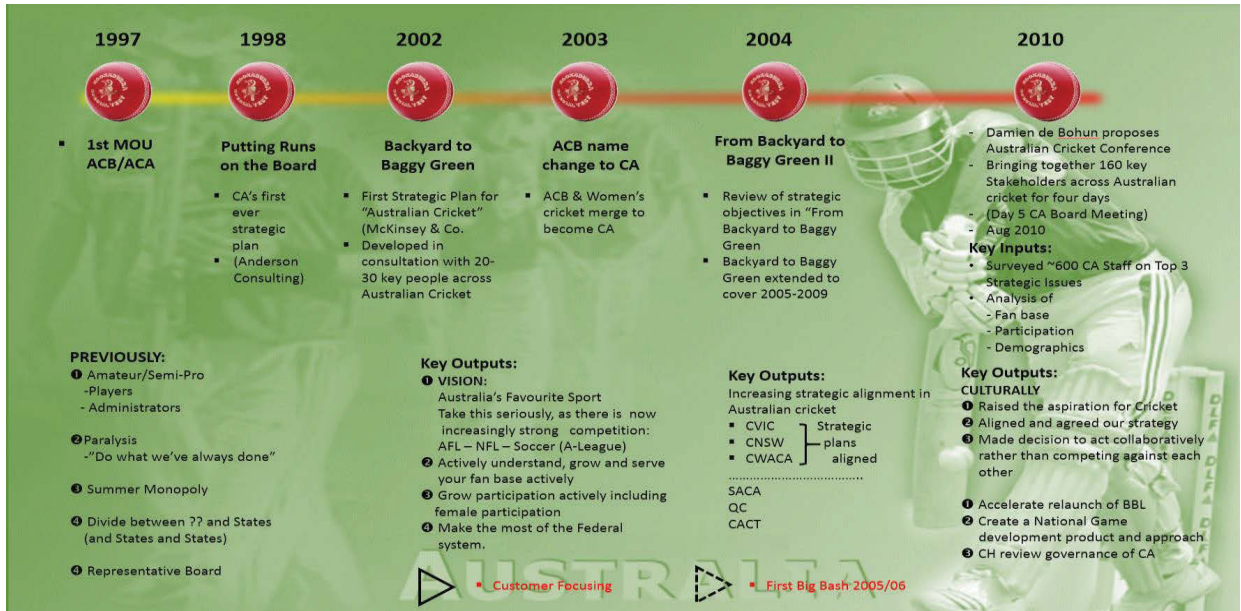
Managers and leaders and others involved in implementing change initiatives could compare the existence of sustainability factors in other sporting environments. Completing an analysis of the sustainability factors could be utilised by sport administrators tasked with implementing sustainable change.

The usefulness of this model and research was best expressed by one participant who commented, “I wish I had this information when we launched our change efforts”. Yet change management practitioners should be aware that the simplicity of the model does not signify simplicity of change management work.

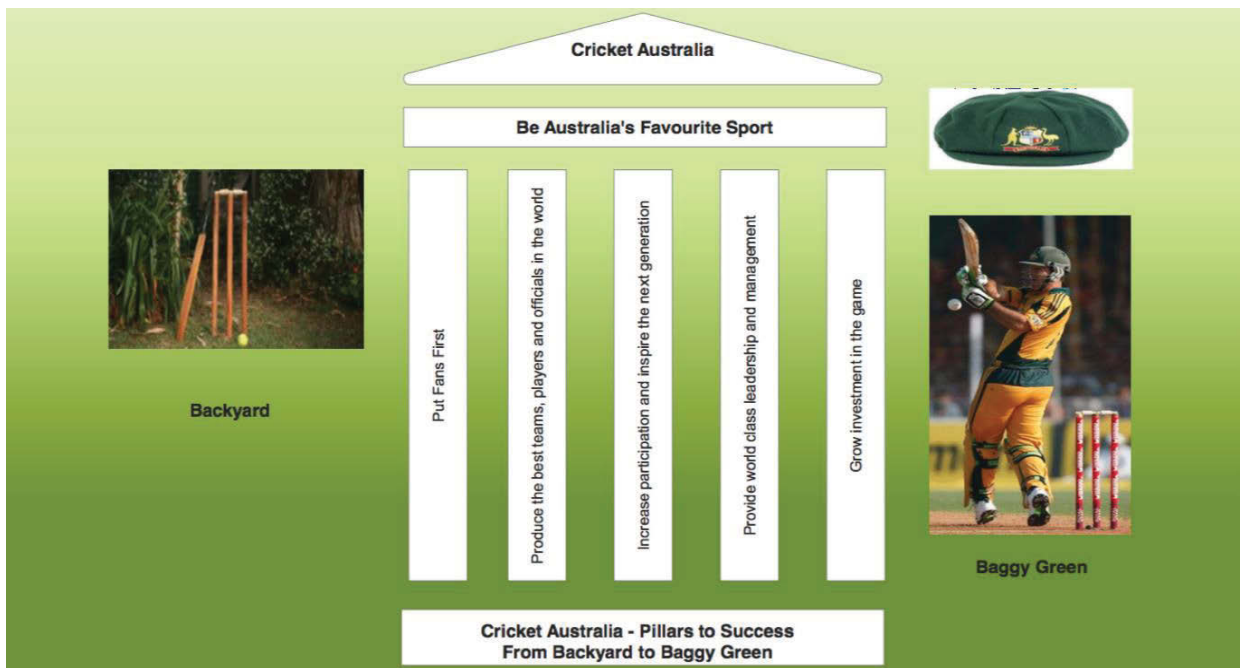
Sporting organisations in Australia are under significant pressure from different sources, both internal and external, to implement and sustain strategic change; this however is often difficult to achieve. Professional standards, a unique organisation structure or resource constraints may limit the organisation’s capability to respond to these pressures. Successful change, particularly in Australian cricket required shifts in resources or policies as well as requiring strong leadership and commitment of employees and volunteers to ensure that the implementation and sustainability of strategic change was and continues to be successful.

8. Appendices

8.1 Australian Cricket Timeline



8.2 Five Pillars to Success



8.3 Respondent Participation Codes

Respondent Codes	Respondents Positions in Australian Cricket
S1 – S9	Directors of Cricket Australia & Chief Executives of Cricket Australia and State Cricket Associations
S10 – S17	Executives and senior Manager of Cricket Australia
S18 – S21	CEO's and General Managers Big Bash League Franchises
S22 – S23	Senior Managers – High Performance & Game Development
S24 – S25	ICC/CA Umpires Panel, NSWCUA

Selecting Study Participants

Study participants were selected based on their knowledge and position within Australian Cricket. Study participants consisted largely of CEO's, Senior Executives and Managers from Cricket Australia and State Cricket Associations. Participants were issued with invitation to participate in the proposed research study along with receiving details of the proposed study and were then given the opportunity to take part or if they wanted to they could decline to be involved. Only one person declined the invitation to participate and this was due to the timing of when the research was being conducted.

Each participant that took part in the study had been involved in Australian Cricket for a minimum period of 5 years. Some participants had been involved in Australian Cricket for considerably longer than 5 years.

8.4 From the National Cricket Census 2015

More Australians choosing cricket, including significant growth in female participation

Well over a million people are now playing cricket in Australia, cementing it as the country's highest participation sport.

New independent figures released by Cricket Australia today revealed that a record 1.2 million Australians participated in cricket in the past year, an almost 10 per cent jump from 2013-14.

Female, schools and junior programs experienced the highest rates of growth according to the Australian Cricket Census, with nearly one in four of cricket's participants now female, up around 20 per cent on the previous year.

Specialist researcher Street Ryan also found participation among Indigenous Australians and multicultural populations also grew, reaching 26,427 and 146,658 participants, respectively.

Cricket Australia Chief Executive Officer James Sutherland said the results demonstrate that cricket is a sport of choice across Australia and the approach to attracting, developing and keeping people in the game is continuing to improve.

"We are very pleased with the nine per cent overall increase, to a total of 1.2 million Australians who are now playing cricket," Sutherland said. "With an aspiration to be Australia's favourite sport, and a sport for all Australians, it is pleasing to see the continued increase in diversity across our sport.

"Female participants are now nearly a quarter of our playing base and whilst this growth is something that we are particularly proud of, diversity will continue to be an

area of strong focus, including the desire to see significant increases in Indigenous and multicultural participant numbers.”

Key findings from the 2014-15 National Cricket Census include:

- 1,208,360 total participants (up 9 per cent on 2013-14)
- 628,826 school participants
- 415,104 club & community participants
- 164,430 indoor participants club & community cricket
- 24,961 teams
- 23,111 traditional 11-a-side teams
- 1,850 modified teams
- 10% growth in the Junior Participation Pathway
- 37,683 MILO in2CRICKET
- 13,227 MILO T20 Blast
- 73,686 junior age 9-12 yrs.
- 15% growth in school cricket diversity
- 290,566 female participants
- Growth of 18% from 2013-14
- Women and girls make up 24% of all participants
- 26,427 Indigenous participants
- 146,658 multicultural participants
- 10,292 participants with a disability.

The release of the 2014-15 Census coincides with Australian cricket’s annual participation campaign that calls on Australians to sign up to play cricket in 2015.

Sutherland paid tribute to the volunteers right across the country who had helped grow the sport.

“We are incredibly grateful for the work of cricket’s 50,000 plus volunteers who contribute millions of hours each year to meet the day-to-day challenges of supporting and growing our participant base,” he said.

“We firmly believe that our participant base is the lifeblood of our sport – and we remain committed to supporting and growing our participant base so as to build cricket’s strong connection to the Australian community.

“Among other things, cricket plays an important role in helping men, women and children from all different backgrounds to lead healthy, active lifestyles.”



The Australian Cricket Census

The 2014-15 Australian Cricket Census is the 13th analysis of cricket participation.

A 'participant' is defined by the Australian Cricket Census as someone who participates in at least four sessions of a formal cricket program.

The 2014-15 census has been compiled by specialist researcher Street Ryan, with the cooperative efforts of Cricket Australia and each of the eight states and territory cricket associations.

The organisations are responsible for recording the number of programs, teams and registered players within their state/territory for each cricket program area.

Street Ryan is responsible for the collection of participation figures for Australia's major sports, including AFL, NRL, ARU, basketball, hockey and golf.

Cricket Australia's junior participation programs are supported by Nestlé and the Australian Government.

Cricket Australia works closely with the Australian Government, through the Australian Sports Commission (ASC), to maximise participation opportunities.

As part of the ASC's new participation investment model, developed under its Play Sport Australia strategy, cricket has been categorised in the highest funded group of sports because of its significant participation footprint.

Cricket Australia has also partnered with the ASC's Sporting Schools program to help provide a quality sporting experience for children and to foster a lifelong interest in the sport.

8.5 Australian Cricket Census Data 2002/03 to 2013/14

Cricket is acknowledged as the nation's main summer sport in terms of participants, spectators, media coverage and contribution to the economy.

Cricket Australia understands that support for and development of grass roots, community, and indoor cricket is fundamental to the maintenance of a healthy future for the game.

Each year the National Census of Australian Cricket is undertaken by independent auditor Street Ryan.

Cricket in collaboration with Cricket Australia and each of the State and Territory Cricket Associations

In the census, participants are defined as playing in a minimum of four games/sessions in the one season.

2013-14 Census results

- **[Click here to download a detailed infographic of the 2013/14 Australian National Cricket Census](#)**

The release of the 2013-14 National Cricket Census, shows 1.106 million Australians participated in cricket during 2013-14, cementing cricket as the number one participation sport in Australia as measured by independent research firm, Street Ryan.

Key findings include:

- The 1.106 million cricket participants in Australia in 2013-14 represent 16 per cent growth from 2012-13
- The overall participation rates for cricket across 2013-14 are broken down as follows:
 - 537,000 School participants
 - 400,000 Club/community participants
 - 169,000 Indoor participants

2012-13 Census results

- **[Click here to download the full version of the 2012/13 Australian National Cricket Census](#)**

The Australian Cricket Census has revealed that a record 951,933 participants played cricket at local grounds, schools and indoor centres across Australia in 2012-13.

The overall national growth of 8.2% is underpinned by significant growth in female, club cricket and entry-level participation.

- In the shadow of the recent success of the Commonwealth Bank Southern Stars, female participation grew a further 18.8% to 178,416. Females now make up almost 19 per cent of cricket's participants – and the number of female participants has more than doubled in the last four years.

- After a small dip last year, club cricket rebounded with a growth of almost two per cent (1.7%), with 318,830 participants across 577 associations and 3,737 clubs.
- Entry-level participation grew by a sensational 47.9%, while indoor cricket numbers remain strong at 177,962.

2011-12 Census results

[Click here to download the full version of the 2011/12 Australian National Cricket Census](#)

The Australian Cricket Census has revealed a record 880,291 participants picked up a bat and ball in 2011-12, making cricket the number one participation sport in Australia.

A huge jump in the number of women and girls playing cricket propelled the sport to record participation figures. Female participation is up 26.93% to 150,178 in cricket's latest national census and women and girls now account for 17.1% of Australia's 880,291 participants.

The 880,291 participants in 2011-12 is a 3.54% increase on the previous year. Of these, 682,109 (+2.98%) participants played outdoor formats, 198,182 (+5.53%) played the game indoors and 163,329 boys and girls aged five to ten took part in entry level MILO in2CRICKET programs, a 28.32% increase on 2010-11.

Participation grew in each of the major categories except club cricket, which recorded a 3.5% decrease. 313,536 people participated in club cricket in 2011-12 across 570 associations and 3,820 clubs. 2,359 coaches and 257 umpires administered the game in 2011-12.

2010-11 Census results

[Click here to download the full version of the 2010/11 Australian National Cricket Census](#)

The 2010/11 Australian Cricket Census reveals there were 850,155 cricket participants in Australian Cricket competitions and programs (of at least four games/sessions). This was an increase of 5.73% and is made up of 662,364 outdoor and 187,791 indoor participants.

Of those 662,364 outdoor participants:

- 1 560,019 are male (84.55%)
- 2 102,345 are female (15.45%)
- 3 317,309 played in traditional 11-a-side club cricket competitions
- 4 7,608 played in modified club cricket programs
- 5 121,174 played in 11-a-side school cricket competitions
- 6 88,993 played in modified school cricket programs
- 7 127,279 participated in in2CRICKET entry level programs
- 8 54% of participants come from Metropolitan regions
- 9 46% of participants come from Country Regions

There were:

- 1 580 cricket associations
- 2 3,990 cricket clubs
- 3 39,441 club and school cricket teams

Of those 187,791 indoor cricket participants:

- 128,771 were senior (19+) cricketers
- 26,839 were youth (13-18 years) cricketers
- 32,181 were junior (5-12 years) cricketers

2009-10 Census

There were:

804,100 Cricket participants 651,871 outdoor and 152,229 indoor in Australian cricket competitions and programs (of at least 4 games/sessions). For outdoor cricket, this was an increase of 7.76%. 2009-10 was the first time that Indoor Cricket figures have been counted in the Australia Cricket Census.

Of those 651,871 outdoor participants:

- 564,284 were male
- 87,587 were female
- 326,813 played in traditional club cricket competitions
- 10,723 played in non-traditional club cricket programs
- 133,434 played in traditional school cricket competitions
- 83,545 played in non-traditional school cricket programs
- 97,356 participated in 2CRICKET entry level programs
- 54% of participants came from Metropolitan regions
- 46% of participants came from Country regions

There were:

- 527 cricket associations
- 4,010 cricket clubs
- 41,403 club and school cricket teams

Of those 152,229 Indoor Cricket participants:

- 113,399 were Senior Cricketers
- 8,019 were Junior (5–12 years) 8,954 were Youth (13–18 years) 21,857 were Social and Corporate Participants

2008-09 Census

There were 604,933 participants in Australian cricket competitions and programs, an increase of 3.61%.

Of those 604,933 participants:

- 532,348 (88.0%) were male
- 72,585 (12.0%) were female
- 309,080 played in traditional club cricket competitions
- 8,434 played in non-traditional club cricket programs
- 131,511 played in traditional school cricket competitions
- 85,551 played in non-traditional school cricket programs
- 70,357 participated in 2CRICKET entry level programs
- 54.5% of participants came from Metropolitan regions
- 45.5% of participants came from Country regions

There were:

- 527 cricket associations
- 4,085 cricket clubs
- 39,151 club and school cricket teams

2007-08 Census

There were 583,859 participants in Australian cricket competitions and programs (of at least 4 games/sessions), an increase of 4.16%.

Of those 583,859 participants:

- 88.2% were male
- 11.8% were female
- 320,987 played in traditional and non-traditional club cricket competitions/programs
- 203,301 played in traditional and non-traditional school cricket competitions/programs
- 59,571 participated in 2CRICKET entry level programs
- 54.3% of participants came from Metropolitan regions
- 45.7% of participants came from Country regions

There were:

- 454 cricket associations
- 4,142 cricket clubs
- 37,592 club and school cricket teams

2006-07 Census

There were 4,155 cricket clubs, 36,628 club and school cricket teams and 560,554 participants in Australian cricket competitions and programs (of at least 4 games/sessions).

Of these participants:

- 499,471 (or 89.10%) were males
- 61,083 participants (or 10.90%) were females
- 310,045 participated in traditional club cricket competitions (including women's competitions)
- 8,968 participated in non-traditional club cricket programs
- 126,913 played in traditional school cricket competitions
- 67,070 players in non-traditional school cricket programs
- 47,558 players in entry level skills development programs, comprising 38,050 in the MILO Have-a-Go Program 3,857 in Kanga Cricket 1,498 in CricHit 4,153 in other entry level programs.

2005-06 Census

There were 543,433 participants in Australian cricket competitions and programs:

- (89.55%) were male (486,639)
- 10.45% were female (56,749)
- 46.8% played in country Australia (254,354)
- 53.2% played in metropolitan-based competitions (289,089)

2004-05 Census

There were 478,326 participants in Australian cricket competitions and programs in 2004-05.

- 90.14% were male (431,179)
- 9.86% were female (47,147)
- 53.3% played in country Australia (255,144)
- 46.7% played in metropolitan-based competitions (223,182)

2003-04 Census

There were 471,329 participants in Australian cricket competitions:

89.9% were male (423,549)

10.1% are female (47,078)

47.8% played in country Australia (225,235)

52.2% played in metropolitan-based competitions (246,094)

2002-03 Census

There were 436,325 participants in Australian cricket competitions and programs.

90.7% were male (395,880)

9.3% were female (40,445)

48.23% played in country Australia (210,436)

51.77% played in metropolitan-based competitions (225,889)

8.6 Interview Questions

Background Information

The interviews conducted were largely semi-structured interviews with the primary goal being to research the subject - change, especially strategic change and the sustainability of change in Australian Cricket. Questions 1-11 were the primary questions asked in the interviews with study participants.

Cricket Australia acting as a change agent

1. How do Cricket Australia act as an agent of change to effectively promote sustainable strategic change within Australian cricket? What have been the major drivers for change within Australian cricket? Can you think of and describe a change initiative that you either led or were involved in that was implemented and sustained that has had a positive impact on Australian cricket in the last 5-10 years?
2. I am looking to gain an understanding of how Cricket Australia and/or State Cricket Associations handled communication, team building, inter-group conflict, resistance to change during organisational change initiatives. Can you provide an overview of how each of these specific areas have been managed during the implementation of strategic and sustainable change initiatives?

Definitions and understanding of Sustainable change

3. What do you understand of the term sustainable change and can you think of and describe a change initiative that you led or were involved in that was sustained?
4. What was the role that you performed during the strategic change event that you described?
5. What factors do you think were important in ensuring that the change initiative was sustained?

Causal conditions of sustainable change

6. What factors led to the change initiative being undertaken and what were the desired goals and outcomes to be achieved. How was the desired future state going to be different to the existing current state?

Phenomena resulting from the causal conditions

7. What did you observe that led to the successful sustainability of the change?
8. Can you describe the impacts that you observed on the organisation from the created outcomes?

Strategies adopted and utilised to sustain change

9. Can you identify key strategies that you observed that were successful and led to the implementation of sustainable strategic change?
10. What lessons did you and Cricket Australia learn from the change initiative that you have described?
11. Have you noticed that lessons learned have been taken on-board when starting on or working on other strategic change initiatives?

Additional Questions

Additional questions that could be asked if information received from the first 11 questions was not sufficient.

- a. What has been the major driver for change within Cricket Australia?
- b. How have Cricket Australia been able to change and introduce new structures, products and services?
- c. How have Cricket Australia communicated their vision to key stakeholders and people involved in cricket around Australia?
- d. Diversity and involvement of women in the organization? How important is this and how has Cricket Australia worked to ensure the success of the integration of men and women to become an integrated national body
- e. How have Cricket Australia worked with state associations to align them to the organization vision and strategy?
- f. What is viewed as a major critical element that will allow Cricket Australia to continue to be Australia's favourite sport?

- g.** What impact does the success of the Australian Men's Team have on the image of the game?
- h.** What has been the major impact of Twenty20 cricket on the image of Cricket Australia and to what extent have public relations, strategic use of technology and social media been adopted to grow the game of cricket in Australia
- i.** What measures have Cricket Australia put in place for all three formats i.e. Shield/Tests, One Day Matches and Twenty20 to co-exist at both domestic and international level?
- j.** How is change and change management addressed within Cricket Australia when implementing new projects or systems?

8.7 Ethics Information Sheet

INFORMATION SHEET

Change Management: Challenges Facing Cricket Australia

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?

My name is Peter Tanswell and I am a student at UTS. (My supervisor is Dr Shankar Sankaran a Professor from the Faculty of Design Architecture and Building.)

WHAT IS THIS RESEARCH ABOUT?

This research is to find out about Change Management and how changes have been introduced into Cricket Australia. The time period that will be examined will be 2006/07 through until 2013/14, although mention of significant events prior to this time period may be mentioned in the thesis.

IF I SAY YES, WHAT WILL IT INVOLVE?

I will ask you to *set aside a time when I can meet with you to discuss Cricket in Australia and the Challenges that Cricket Australia has faced and how they have addressed the challenges.* As a guide the interview and fact finding session will take approximately 1-2 hours of your time.

ARE THERE ANY RISKS/INCONVENIENCE?

There should be no risks to anyone agreeing to take part and being interviewed. Interviews will take place in a suitable and agreed location (most likely in an office environment but this will depend on the person being interviewed and their schedule.

WHY HAVE I BEEN ASKED?

You have been asked to participate due to your knowledge and expertise either being directly linked to Cricket Australia or are linked to Cricket Australia as a key stakeholder and therefore are able to provide information that will assist in the research collection stage of this project

DO I HAVE TO SAY YES?

You don't have to say yes. It is appreciated if you agree to say yes and take part in the study, however, if you do not have the time due to other commitments you do not have to say Yes.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF I SAY NO?

Nothing. I will thank you for your time so far and won't contact you about this research again.

IF I SAY YES, CAN I CHANGE MY MIND LATER?

You can change your mind at any time and you don't have to say why. I will thank you for your time so far and won't contact you about this research again.

WHAT IF I HAVE CONCERNS OR A COMPLAINT?

If you have concerns about the research that you think I or my supervisor can help you with, please feel free to contact me (us) on 0412404644 (Peter Tanswell) or 0406 137 325 (Dr Shankar Sankaran).

If you would like to talk to someone who is not connected with the research, you may contact the Research Ethics Officer on 02 9514 9772, and quote this number (*UTS HREC Approval Number – to be confirmed*)

9. References

- Aikenhead, G. 1997. "A framework for reflecting on assessment and evaluation". Paper presented at the Globalization of Science Education: International Conference on Science Education., Seoul, Korea. May 26-30.
- Alexander, L.D. 1985 "Successfully implementing strategic decisions", *Long Range Planning*, 18, 91-97.
- Amis, J., Slack, T. & Berrett, T. (1995). The structural antecedents of conflict in voluntary sport organizations. *Leisure Studies*, 14, 1–16
- Amis, J. & Slack, T. (1996). The size–structure relationship in voluntary sport organisations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 10, 76–86.
- Amis, J., Slack, T. and Hinings, C.R. 2004 "Strategic change and the role of interests, power and organizational capacity", *Journal of Sport Management*, Vol. 18, 158–198.
- Andriopoulos, C. and Dawson, P. (2009) *Managing Change, Creativity and Innovation*. London: Sage.
- Ansoff, I.H. (1990), *Implanting Strategic Management*, Prentice Hall International, Ltd. London
- Appelbaum, S.H., Hasby, S., Malo, J., and Shafiq, H. 2012 "Back to the future: revisiting Kotter's 1996 change model", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 31, Iss. 8, 764–782
- Ardichvili, A., Cardozo, R., & Ray, S. 2003. A Theory of entrepreneurial opportunity identification and development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(1): 105–123.

- Armenakis, A. and Bedeian, A. 1999 "Organizational change: A review of theory and research", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 25, No. 3, 293-315.
- Armenakis, A.A., Harris, S.G., Mossholder, K.W., 1993 "Creating readiness for organizational change", *Human Relations*, June, vol. 46, no. 6, 681-703.
- Astle, A. and Clinton, P., 2008 *Game on! New Zealand Cricket's playing guidelines and policies*. Christchurch: New Zealand Cricket.
- Atkinson, P. and Coffey, A. 1998 "Realism and its discontents: The crisis of cultural representation in ethnographic texts". In B. Adam and S. Allen (Eds.), *Theorising culture*. London: UCL Press (pp.103-139).
- Attaran, M. (2000). Why Does Reengineering Fail? A Practical Guide for Successful Implementation. *Journal of Management Development*, 19(9/10), 794-801.
- Auld CJ 1997, 'Professionalisation of Australian sport administration: the effects on organisational decision making', *The European Journal for Sport Management*, vol. 4 no. 2 pp.17-39
- Auld C J and Godbey G 1998, 'Influence in Canadian national sport organisations: perceptions of professionals and volunteers', *The Journal of Sport Management*, vol.12 no.1 pp. 20-38
- Australian Cricket Board, 2000 *Annual report 1999-2000*. Jolimont Australia.
- Australian Rugby Union, 2012, "Strengthening the governance of Australian rugby", The Hon. Mark Arbib, August.
- Australian Sports Commission, 2005, *Australian Sports Commission, Annual reports 2003-2005*. Australian Sports Commission: Canberra.

- Avison, D.E., Lau, F., Myers, M.D., Nielsen, P.A., 1999 "Action Research"
Communications of the ACM, Vol. 42 No. 1, Pages 94-
9710.1145/291469.291479
- Bachrach, S.B. and Aiken, M. 1977, "Communication in administrative bureaucracies",
Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 20, pp. 356-77.
- Bamford, D.R. and Daniel, S. 2005 "A case study of change management
effectiveness within the NHS". Journal of Change Management, Volume 5, Number
4,
- Bamford, D.R. and Forrester, P.L., 2003 "Managing planned and emergent change
within an operations management environment", *International Journal of Operations
& Production Management*, Vol. 23, Iss: 5, 546-564.
- Barker, R.T. and Camarata, M.R., 2004 "Current and potential importance of qualitative
methods in strategy research", *Research Methodology in Strategy and
Management (Research Methodology in Strategy and Management, Volume 1)*.
Emerald Group Publishing Limited (pp.165-188).
- Barret, D.J., 2002 "Change communication: Using strategic employee communication
to facilitate major change", *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 7-
4.
- Barry, B., & Stewart, G. L. 1997. "Composition, process, and performance in self-
managed groups: The role of personality". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82: 62-
78.
- Bass, B.M. 1990 "From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share
the vision", *Organizational Dynamics*, (Winter), 19-31.

Bass, B.M. 1985 *Leadership and performance beyond expectation*. New York: Free Press.

Baum, J.R. 1994 "The relations of traits, competencies, vision, motivation, and strategy to venture growth", Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland.

Baum, I. R., Locke, E. A., & Kirkpatrick, S. A. 1998. A longitudinal study of the relation of vision and vision communication to venture growth in entrepreneurial firms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 4354.

Beer, M. and Nohria, N., 2000 "Cracking the code of change", *Harvard Business Review*, May/June, 133-141.

Benbasat, I., Goldstein, D.K. and Mead, M. "The Case Research Strategy in Studies of Information Systems," *MIS Quarterly* (11:3) 1987, pp. 369-386.

Bennis, W. (1990). *Managing the dream: Leadership in the 21st century*, Training: The Magazine of Human Resource Development, 27(5), 44-46.

Bennis W. 1989 *On becoming a leader*, Britain: Arrows.

Bennis, Warren (2006), "Leadership – To translate vision into reality", University of Maryland Symposium, USA. Jan 21, available at; <http://www.Quoteland.com>

Bennis, W. and Nanus, B. 1985 "Leaders: The strategies for taking charge", USA: Harper and Row.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (2003). *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge* (2nd ed.). New York: HarperCollins.

Berg, B.L. 2009 *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*, Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

Berger, L.A., Sikora, M.J. and Berger, D.R. 1994 *The change management handbook: A road map to corporate transformation*, Burr Ridge, Ill.: Irwin Professional Publishers.

Berger, P. L. and Luckman, T. 1967 *The social construction of reality: A treatise in sociology of knowledge*, New York: Irvington Publishers.

Bergquist, W. (1992). *The four cultures of the academy*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Biech, E., (2007), "Thriving Through Change: A Leader's Practical Guide to Change Mastery," Published by American Society for Training and Development ISBN 1562864645, 9781562864644

Bititci U. S., Carrie A. S., McDevitt L G, (1997), Integrated Performance Measurement Systems: A Development Guide, International Journal of Operations and Production Management, Vol. 17, No. 6, MCB University Press, pp. 522-535.

Bitsch, V. (2005). Qualitative research: A grounded theory example and evaluation criteria. *Journal of Agribusiness*, 23(1), 75-91

Blanchard, K. and Carey, D. 2006 *The leader of the future 2: Visions, strategies, and practices for the new era*, (p. 165).

Blanchard, K. and Stoner, J. 2004 "The vision thing: Without it you'll never be a world-class organisation" *Leader to Leader* 2004(31)

Blau, P. (1970). A Formal Theory of Differentiation in Organizations. *American Sociological Review*, 35(2), 201–18

Block, P. (1989), "Flawless consulting", in McLennan, R. (Eds), *Managing Organisational Change*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

- Bloodgood, J.M. and Morrow, J.L. 2000 "Strategic organizational change within an institutional framework", *Journal of Managerial Issues*, Vol. 12, No. 2 (Summer), 208-226.
- Boddy, D. and Paton, R. 2011 *Management: An introduction*, Financial Times/ Prentice Hall.
- Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S.K., 2007 *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon
- Booth, W.C., Colomb, G.G. and Williams, J.M., 1995 *The craft of research*, 2nd ed, The University of Chicago Press.
- Bordia, P., Hobman, E., Jones, E., Gallois, C. and Callan, V.J. 2004 "Uncertainty during organizational change: Types, consequences and management strategies", *Journal of Business and Psychology*, Vol. 18, No. 4, 507-532.
- Bourne, L.M., 2009. *Stakeholder Relationship Management*. UK Gower, Farnham, Surrey
- Bradshaw, P., Murray, V. and Wolpin, J 1992 "Do nonprofit boards make a difference? An exploration of the relationships among board structure, process, and effectiveness", *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 21(3), 227-249.
- Brettig, D. 2015 *Whitewash to whitewash: Australian Cricket's years of struggle and summer of riches*, Melbourne: Penguin Random House.
- Brewerton, P. and Millward, L 2001 *Organizational research methods*. –London: Sage.
- Brown, R., Condor, S., Mathews, A., Wade, G. and Williams, J. 1989 "Explaining intergroup differentiation in an industrial organization", *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, Vol. 59, 273-286.

Bruch, H., Gerber, P. and Maier, V. 2005 "Strategic change decisions: Doing the right change right," *Journal of Change Management*, 5/1 (March), 97-107.

Brundtland, G. 1987 *Our common future: The world commission on environment and development*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Bryan, Lowell. "Enduring Ideas: The 7-S Framework." McKinsey & Company. N.p., Mar. 2008. Web. 24 Feb. 2014.

<http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/strategy/enduring_ideas_the_7-s_framework>

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. 2007a "The nature of qualitative research". In *Business Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press (pp. 154-177).

Bryman, A. and Bell, E., 2007b "Planning a research project and formulating research questions". In *Business Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press (pp. 75-92).

Bryson, L. (1990). Challenges to male hegemony in sport. In M.A. Messner & D.F. Sabo (Eds.), *Sport, men, and the gender order* (pp. 173-184). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Books

Buchanan, D., Claydon, T. and Doyle, M. 1999 "Organisation development and change: The legacy of the nineties", *Human Resource Management Journal*, 9(2), 20.

Buchanan, D., Fitzgerald, L., Ketley, D., Gollop, R., Jones, J. L., Lamont, S. S., et al. 2005. No going back: A review of the literature on sustaining organizational change. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7(3), 189-205.

Buchanan, D., Fitzgerald, L., & Kelty, D., 2007 *The sustainability and spread of organisational change : modernising healthcare*. London: New York : Routledge.

- Buckmaster, N. (1999). Associations between outcome measurement, accountability and learning for non-profit organisations. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 12, 186–197.
- Bullock, R.J. and Batten, D. 1985 "It's just a phase we're going through: A review and synthesis of OD phase analysis", *Group and Organization Studies*, 10, 383-412.
- Burke, W.W., 2010. *Organisational Change: Theory and Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications
- Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Salas, E., Pierce, L., Kendall, D. L. (2015). Understanding team adaptation: A conceptual analysis and model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*
- Burke, W. Warner, Dale G. Lake, and Jill Waymire Paine, eds. *Organization change: A comprehensive reader*. Vol. 155. John Wiley & Sons, 2008
- Burnes, B. 2009 *Managing change: A strategic approach to organisational dynamics*. 5th edn. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Burnes, R.B., 2000 *Introduction to Research*. London ; Thousand Oaks, Calif. : SAGE,
- Burnes, B. 1996 *Managing change: A Strategic approach to organisational dynamics*, 2nd edn, London: Pitman.
- Burnes, B. 2006 "Kurt Lewin and the planned approach to change: a Reappraisal" In: Gallos, J. (Ed.) *Organisational Development*. p. 133-157. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishing
- Burnes, B. & James, H., (1995) "Culture, cognitive dissonance and the management of change", *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, Vol. 15 Iss: 8, pp.14 – 33

Burnett, D, and Oblinger, D 2002 “Innovation in Student Services: Planning for Models Blending High Touch/High Tech”, Society for College and University Planning, Ed 471, 746

By, R.T. 2005 “Organizational change management: A Critical Review”. *Journal of Change Management*, 5(4), 369-80.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. 1995. “Further assessments of Bass’s (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership”. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 468–478.

Cairns, J. 1987 “Evaluating changes in league structure: The organisation of the Scottish football league,” *Appl. Econ.*, 19:2, 259-275.

Cameron, E. and Green, M. 2009 *Making Sense of Change Management*, 2nd edn. Philadelphia: Kogan Page.

Cameron, K. S. & Quinn, R. E. 2006. *Diagnosing and changing organizational culture: Based on the competing values framework*. (Rev. ed.). San Francisco, CA: Wiley (Jossey Bass).

Cameron, K. S., & Tschirhart, M. 1992. Postindustrial environments and organizational effectiveness in colleges and universities. *Journal of Higher Education*, 63,87-108.

Cassell, C. and Symon, G. 1995 *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*, London: Sage Publications.

Century, J.R. and Levy, A.J. 2002. “Sustaining your reform: Five lessons from research. Benchmarks”: The Quarterly Newsletter of the National Clearinghouse for Comprehensive School Reform, 3(3), 1-7

- Chase S E 2005 'Narrative inquiry: Multiple lenses, approaches, voices' in N K Denzin and Y S Lincoln (eds) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA: 651-80
- Chelladurai, P. 2005 *Managing organizations for sport and physical activity: A systems perspective* (2nd edn). Scottsdale, AZ: Holcomb Hathaway.
- Cheney, C., Christensen, L.T, Zorn, T.E. and Ganesh, S. 2004 *Organisational communication in an age of globalisation: Issues, reflections, practices*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.
- Cherry, K. (2011). What is a theory? Retrieved March 19, 2014, from <http://psychology.about.com/od/tindex/f/theory.htm>.
- Chesbrough, H., 2010 "*Business Model Innovation: Opportunities and Barriers*". Long Range Planning, 43(2-3), pp 354-363.
- Chin, R. and Benne, K.D. 1976 "General strategies for effecting changes in human systems". In: *The planning of change*. 4th edn. Bennis, W.G., Benne, K.D. and Chin, R. (Eds). Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc. (pp. 22-45).
- Christenson, D. and Walker, D.H.T. (2008) 'Using vision as a critical success element in project management', *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 1(4), pp. 611–622
- Clark, I., Coiling, T., 2005. The management of human resources in project management-led organizations. *Personnel Review*. 34 (2), 178–191
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morison, K. 2007 *Research methods in education*. 6th edn. London: Routledge.
- Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great*. Sydney: Random House

- Collins, I. and Porras, J. 1998 “Organisational vision and visionary organisations”, *Californian Management Review*, 34, Fall.
- Collins, I. and Porras, J. 1994 *Built to last: Successful habits of visionary companies*. London: Century.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. 1998. Charismatic leadership in organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Connelly, M. 2012 *Benefits of change management*. Available from <http://www.change-management-coach.com/benefits-of-change-management.html> (accessed 14 October 2015).
- Cooke, R.A. & Lafferty, J.C. 2005 Organisational Cultural Inventory, Human Synergistics, 56-58
- Coopey, J. Keegan, O. and Emler N. 1998 “Managers' innovations and the structuration of organizations”, *Journal of Management Studies*, 35((3), 263-284.
- Corley, K.G. 2004, “Defined by our strategy or our culture? Hierarchical differences in perceptions of organisational identity and change”. *Human Relations*, 57, 1145-1177
- Cousens, L., Babiak, K. and Slack, T. 2001 “Adopting a relationship marketing paradigm: The case of the National Basketball Association”, *International Journal of Sport Marketing and Sponsorship*, 2(4), 331-355.
- Cousens, L. and Slack. T., 2005 “Field-level change: The case of North American major league professional sport”. *Journal of Sport Management*, 19, pp. 13-42
- Coward, M. 2004 *Rookies rebels and renaissance: Cricket in the '80s*. Sydney: Australian Broadcasting Corporation. ISBN 0-7333-1446-5.

Crawford, D.A. and Carter, C.B. 2011 “A good governance structure for Australian cricket”, December.

Creswell, J.W. 1998 *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cricket Australia 2015 *Annual report 2014-2015*. Jolimont, Australia: Author.

Cricket Australia 2014 *Annual report 2013-2014*. Jolimont, Australia: Author.

Cricket Australia 2013 *Annual report 2012-2013*. Jolimont, Australia: Author.

Cricket Australia 2012 *Annual report 2011-2012*. Jolimont, Australia: Author.

Cricket Australia *Strategic Plan 2011-2015* (<http://m.ca.staging.cricket.com.au/about-us/our-strategy>) (accessed 9 September 2016).

Croasdell, D. T., Jennex, M., Yu, Z., Christianson, T., Chakradeo, M., & Makdum, W. (2003). A meta-analysis of methodologies for research in knowledge management, organizational learning and organizational memory: Five years at HICSS. Paper presented at the 36th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Hawaii, USA.

Crotty, M. 2003 *The Foundation of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*, London: Sage Publications

Cruickshank, A. & Collins, D. *Sports Med* (2016) 46: 1199. doi:10.1007/s40279-016-0513-1

Cumming, T.G., & Huse, E.F. (1989). *Organizational development and change* (4th ed.) St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.

Cummings, T.G. and Worley, C.G. 2005 *Organization development and change*,
Mason, OH: Thomson.

Cuskelly, G., Taylor, T., Hoyer, R. & Darcy, S. 2006. The relationship between volunteer management practices and volunteer retention in community sport organisations. *Sport Management Review*, 9(2), 141-163.

Daft, R. and Lengel, R. 1984. Organizational information requirements, media richness and structural design. *Management Science*. 32. 554-571.

Dainty, A.R.J., Cheng, M.I., Moore, D., 2005. A comparison of the behavioural competencies of client-focused and production-focused project managers in the construction sector. *Project Management Journal*. 36 (2), 39–49

D'Aprix, R. 1982 "The oldest (and best) way to communicate with employees", *Harvard Business Review*, Sept-Oct, 30-32.

Darmer, P. 1995 "Qualitative interviews". In: Darmer, P. and Freytag, P. V. (eds), *Business administration survey methodology*, Lund: Studentlitteratur, (pp. 252-272).

Davies, A. and Brady, T. (2000), "Organisational capabilities and learning in complex product systems: Towards repeatable solutions", *Research Policy*, Vol. 29 No. 7-8, pp. 931-953.

Dawson, P 1994, *Organizational Change: A Processual Approach*, Paul Chapman Publishing, London.

Dawson, P. 2003 *Understanding organizational change: The contemporary experience of people at work*, London: Sage (pp. 173-177).

Deal, T.E. and Kennedy, A.A. 1982 *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life*, Harmondsworth: Penguin.

- Deetz, S., 1994, "The Future of the Discipline: The Challenges, the Research, and the Social Contribution," in S. Deetz (Ed.), *Communication Yearbook 17*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, pp. 565-600.
- Deetz, S., Tracy, S. J., & Simpson, J. L. 2000. Leading organizations through transition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.*
- Dent, E.B. and Goldberg, S.G. 1999 "Challenging 'resistance to change'", *Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 35, 25. DOI: 10.1177/0021886399351003
- Denton, D.K.1994, "*Empowerment through employee involvement and participation: Ford's development and training programs*", *Empowerment in Organizations*, Vol. 2 No. 2, pp. 22-28
- Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y. 2000 *Handbook of qualitative research*, Sage Handbooks.
- Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y. 2005 *Handbook of qualitative research*, Sage Handbooks.
- Dicke, C., Holwerda, J. & Kontakos, A.M. (2007). Employee Engagement. What do we really know? What do we need to know to take Action? Paris: CAHRS. Available at: <http://www.uq.edu.au/vietnampdss/docs/July2011/EmployeeEngagementFinal.pdf>.
- DiFonzo, N. and Bordia, P 1998 "A tale of two corporations: Managing uncertainty during organisational change", *Human Resource Management*, 37(3), 295-303.
- Doherty, A., & Carron, A. 2003. Cohesion in volunteer sport executive committees. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17, 116–141.
- Doherty, A. J., Patterson, M., & Van Bussel, M. 2004. "What do we expect? An examination of perceived committee norms in non-profit sport organisations". *Sport Management Review*, 7, 109-132.
- Dubnick, M., and Justice, J. "Accounting for Accountability.

Dunphy, D. and Stace, D. 1993 “The strategic management of corporate change”,
Human Relations, 46(8), 905-918.

Dunphy, D.C. and Stace, D. 1990 *Under new management: Australian organisations in transition*, Sydney: McGraw-Hill.

Eady, J. 1993 *Practical sports development*. London: Pitman.

Eisenbach, R., Watson, K., Pillai, R. (1999). Transformational leadership in the context of organizational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12, (2), 80-89.

Ellen, R., 1984 *Ethnographic research: a guide to general conduct* Academic Press, London

Erickson, F., 1986 Qualitative methods in research teaching, In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.). *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 119-161). New York: Macmillan.

<http://www.espnricinfo.com/australia/content/player/8166.html>

Ferkins, L., Shilbury, D. and McDonald, G. 2005 “The role of the board in building strategic capability: Towards an integrated model of sport governance research”,
Sport Management Review, 8, 195-225.

Fernandez, S. and Rainey, H.I G. 2006 “Managing Successful Organizational Change in the Public Sector”. *Public Administration Review*, March/April 2006, 168-176. ‘

Fielding, N. G. and, Lee, R.M. 1991 *Using computers in qualitative research*. Newbury Park, London: Sage.

Fincham, R. and Rhodes, P. 2005 *Principles of organisational behaviour* (5th edn). New York: Oxford University Press.

Finklestein, S., Harvey, C., and Lawton, T. 2008 "Vision by design: a reflective approach to enterprise regeneration". *Journal of Business Strategy*, Vol 29, No 2, pp 4-13

Flamholz, E. and Kurland, S. 2006 "Making strategic planning work: A case study of country-wide financial", *Handbook of Business Strategy*, 7(1), 187-193.

Ford, J.D. and Ford, L.W. 1994 "Logics of identity, contradiction, and attraction in change", *The Academy of Management Review*, 19, 756-785.

Ford, J.F. and Ford, L.W. 1995 "The role of conversations in producing intentional change in organisations", *Academy of Management Journal*, 20(3), 541-570.

Forster, N. 1994 "The analysis of company documentation". In: Cassell C. and Symon G. (eds). *Qualitative methods in organizational research: A practical guide*. London: Sage Publications (pp. 147-166).

<http://www.foxsports.com.au/cricket/australia/inspirational-ashes-no13-australia-1920-25/story-fn2m3u3x-1225948995353>

French, W.L. and Bell, jun., C.H. 1999 *Organization development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement*, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Frey James H, Eitzen Stanley D. 1991 Sport and Society. *Annual Review of Sociology*. 1991;17:503–22.

Frisby, W. 1986 "Measuring the organisational effectiveness of national sport governing bodies". *Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Science*, 11(2), pp. 94-103

Frisby, W. (2005). The good, the bad, and the ugly: Critical sport management research. *Journal of Sport Management*, 19, 1-12.

Fullan, M. G., & Miles, M. B. (1992). Getting reform right: What works and what doesn't. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 73, 745-752.

Garvin, D. (2000). *Learning in action: A guide to putting the learning organization to work*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Ginsberg, A. 1995 "Measuring and modelling changes in strategy: Theoretical foundations and empirical directions", *Strategic Management Journal*, 9, 559-575.

Gioia, D. A., & Sims, H. P. (1986). Cognition–behavior connections: Attribution and verbal behaviour in leader-subordinate interactions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 37, 197–229.

Gist 1989 "The influence of training method on self-efficacy and idea generation among managers", *Personal Psychology*, 42, 472-805.

Gist, M., Schwoerer, C. and Rosen, B. (1989), "Effects of alternative training methods on self-efficacy and performance in computer software training", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 74 No. 6, pp. 884-91. [Google Scholar] [CrossRef] [Infotrieve]

Gomez, S., Opazo, M. and Marti, C. 2008. Structural Characteristics of Sport Organisations: Main trends in the Academic Discussion. IESE Business School, Universidad de Navarra

Goodman, J. and Truss, C. 2004 "The medium and the message: Communicating effectively during a major change initiative", *Journal of Change Management*, 4(3), 217-228.

Goodstein L., Nolan T., & Pfeiffer W. (1993). *Applied strategic planning: A comprehensive guide*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Graetz, F., Rimmer, M., Lawrence, A., and Smith, A. (2006). *Managing Organizational Change*. (2nd ed.). Australia: Wiley and Sons, Sydney and Melbourne.

Graneheim, U.H. and Lundman, B. 2004 "Qualitative content analysis in nursing research: concepts, procedures and measures to achieve trustworthiness" *Nurse Education Today* 2004 Feb;24(2):105-12.

Gray, P.C.R. and Wiedemann, P.M. (1999) Risk management and sustainable development: mutual lessons from approaches to the use of indicators. *Journal of Risk Research*, 2(3), pp. 201-218.

Greenfield 2010 *The 5 forces of change: A blueprint for leading successful change*, video. Accessed June/July 2016 at http://hstalks.com/main/view_talk.php?t=1415&r=396&j=767&c=250.

Greenhaigh, T. (2004), "How to Spread Good Ideas: -A systematic review of the literature on diffusion, dissemination and sustainability of innovations in health service delivery and organisation", Report for the National Co-ordinating Centre for NHS Service Delivery and Organisation R & D (NCCSDO)

Grotevant S (1998) Business Process and Process Redesign in Higher Education: Art or Science? *EDUCAUSE conference*

Guba, E.G. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1994a "Competing paradigms in qualitative research". In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (eds), *Handbook of qualitative research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, (pp. 105-117).

Guba, E.G. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1994b "Competing paradigms in qualitative research", in London: Sage Publications.

Guba and Lincoln 2005 "Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging influences". In N.K. Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (eds), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (3rd edn), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, (pp. 191-215).

Gupta, J., and Sanchez, N., 2012 – "Global Green Governance: The Green Economy needs to be embedded in a Global Green and Equitable Rule of Law Polity", *Review of European Community and International Environmental Law*, 21(1): 12-22.

Haigh, G. 2006 *Revolutions: Writings on cricket history*. Melbourne: Black Inc.

Haigh, G. and Frith, D., 2007 *Inside Story – Unlocking Australian Cricket's Archives*. News Custom Publishing

Hall, A., Slack, T., Smith, G., & Whitson, D. 1992. *Sport in Canadian society Ontario*: McClelland & Stewart Inc.

Hammer, M. (2004). Deep change: How operational innovation can transform your company. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(4), 84-96.

Härenstam, A., M. Karlqvist, A. Rydbeck, K. Waldenström & P. Wiklund, (2004), *The Significance of Organisation for Healthy Work: Methods, study design, analysing strategies and empirical results from MOA-study*, ISBN: 91-7045-729-8, Arbetslivsinstitutet

Hartley, Jean (2004). Case study research. In Catherine Cassell & Gillian Symon (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research* (pp.323-333). London: Sage

Harvey, D., & Brown, D. 1996. *An experimental approach to organization development*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

- Herkness, W. L., Kettinger, W. J. and Segars, A. H. 1996. "Sustaining Process Improvement and Innovation in the Information Services Function: Lessons Learned at the Bose Corporation," *MIS Quarterly* (20:3), pp. 349-368.
- Higginson, T.J. and Waxler, R. P. 1989, "Developing a trust culture: to survive in the 1990s", *Industrial Management*, Vol. 31 No. 6, November-December, pp. 27-32.
- Hinings, C.R. and Greenwood, R. 1988 *The dynamics of strategic change*, Oxford, England: Basil Blackwood.
- Hirsch, E. D. (2002). 'The new dictionary of cultural literacy'. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin
- Hofer, C. W. and Schendel, D. 1978 *Strategy formulation: Analytic concepts*. St. Paul, MN: West.
- Hofstede, G. 2003 "Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviours, Institutions and Organisations across Nations" *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 48, No. 1
- Hollenbeck, J. 2000 "A structural approach to external and internal person team fit", *Applied psychology: an international review*, 49(3):534-549
- Holloway, I., Wheeler, S. (2002) *Qualitative Research in Nursing* (2nd ed). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Hosking, D.M. and Morley, I.E. 1992 *A social psychology of organising: People, processes and contexts*. New York: Harvester.
- Hoye, R. 2004 "Board member selection, orientation and evaluation: Implications for board performance in member-benefit voluntary sport organisations", *Third Sector Review*, 10(1), 77-100.

- Hoye, R. 2006, "Leadership within Australian voluntary sport organisation boards. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 16(3), 297-313
- Hoye, R. and Auld, C. 2001 "Measuring board performance in nonprofit sport organisations", *Australian Journal on Volunteering*, 6(2), 109-116.
- Hoye, R. and Cuskelly, G. 2003a "Board power and performance within voluntary sport organisations", *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 3, 103-119.
- Hoye, R. and Cuskelly, G. 2003b "Board-executive relationships within voluntary sport organisations", *Sport Management Review*, 6, 53-74.
- Hoye, R. and Cuskelly, G. 2007 *Sport governance*. Sydney: Elsevier.
- Hoye, R., Nicholson, M. and Smith, A. 2007 "Unique aspects of managing sport organisations", in *21st century management: A reference handbook*. Sage Publications.
- Hughes, M. 2006 *Change management: A critical perspective*, London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Hughes, M. 2007 "The tools and techniques of change management", *Journal of Change Management*, 7(1), 37-49.
- Hughes, M. 2010. *Managing change: A critical perspective*. (2nd edn.) London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Humphreys C 2007. *Domestic violence and child protection: Challenging directions for practice*. Issues paper no. 13. Sydney: Australian Domestic & Family Violence Clearinghouse. [http://www.austdvclearinghouse.unsw.edu.au/PDF%20files/ Issues Paper_13.pdf](http://www.austdvclearinghouse.unsw.edu.au/PDF%20files/Issues%20Paper_13.pdf)

Hunt, M., 1999 “Leading with vision and values”. *Leader to Leader*, Vol. 1999, Iss. 12, Spring 1999, pp. 11-13

Huse, E.F. 1975 *Organization development and change*, San Francisco: West Publishing Co.

Inglis, S. (1997a). Shared leadership in the governance of amateur sport: Perceptions of executive directors and board members. *Avante*, 3, 14-33.

Inglis, S. (1997b) Roles of the Board in Amateur Sport Organisations, *Journal of Sport Management*, 11, 160-176.

International Cricket Council (ICC) <http://www.cricbuzz.com/cricket-news/17643/cricket-is-resilient-strong-haroon-lorgat>.

Jablin, F.M. 1982 “Organizational communication: An assimilation approach”. In M.E. Roloff and C.R. Berger (eds), *Social cognition and communication* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, (pp. 255-286).

Jacobs R. 2002, “Institutionalising organisational change through cascade training”, *Journal of European Industrial training*, vol. 26, no. 2/3/4, pp. 177-182.

Jakeman. M. (2013) “Saving the Test” Oakley Books

Jansen, K. 2004. “From persistence to pursuit: A longitudinal examination of momentum during the early stages of strategic change”. *Organization Science*, 15 (3): 276-294.

Jick, T.D. 1979 “Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods”, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4), 602-611.

Jick, Todd D. (1991). Implementing change. Harvard Business School Case N9-491-114.

Jinga, G. "Strategic Management in Sports Organisations

Johnson, T., Kulesa, P., Cho, Y.I., Shavitt, S., 2005 "The Relationship Between Culture and Response Styles – Evidence from 19 Countries

Jones, J., Aguirre, D. and Calderone, M. 2012 "10 principles of change management", <http://www.strategy-business.com/article/rr00006?gko=643d0> (Accessed 4 March 2016).

Jurevicius, Ovidijus. "McKinsey 7s Model." *Strategic Management Insight*. N.p., 20 Dec. 2013. Web. 24 Feb. 2014.
<<http://www.strategicmanagementinsight.com/tools/mckinsey-7s-modelframework.html>>.

Kanter, R.M. (1999) 'Change is everyone's job: Managing the extended enterprise in a globally connected world' *Organizational dynamics*, 28(1): 7-23

Kanter, R.M., Stein, B.A. and Jick, T.D. 1992 *The challenge of organizational change: How companies experience it and leaders guide it*. New York: The Free Press.

Kerber, K. and Buono, A.F. 2005 "Rethinking organisational change; Reframing the challenge of change management", Volume 23 at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/211388896_Rethinking_Organizational_Change_Reframing_the_Challenge_of_Change_Management (Accessed 12 January 2016).

Kezar, A. and Eckel, P., 2002 "Examining the Institutional Transformation Process: The Importance of Sensemaking, Interrelated Strategies and Balance", *Research in Higher Education* Vol 43, No 3 pp 295-328

- Kikulis, L.M., Slack, T. and Hinings, C.R. 1992 "Institutionally specific design archetypes: A framework for understanding change in national sport organizations," *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 27, 343-370.
- Kincheloe, J.L., & McLaren, P.L., 1994 "Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research". In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 139-157). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications
- Klein, S.M. 1996 "A management communication strategy for change", *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 9(2), 32-46.
- Kolzow, D. (1999). A perspective on strategic planning: What's your vision? *Economic Development Review*, 16(2), 5-9
- Kotter, J.P. 1995 *The new rules: How to succeed in today's post-corporate world*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kotter, J. 1996 "Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail", *Harvard Business Review*, 73(2), 59-67.
- Kotter, J. & Heskett, J. (1992). *Corporate culture and performance*. New York: The Free Press
- Kotter, J.P., Schlesinger, L.A., 2008. Choosing Strategies for Change. *Harvard Business Review*, Jul-Aug, Vol. 86, issue 7/8, pp. 130–139
- Kouzes J. and Posner B. 1987 *The leadership challenge*, USA: Jossey Bass, Publishers.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. J. (2002). *Leadership challenge (3rd ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2007). *The leadership challenge (4th ed.)*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kreitner, R. and Kinicki, A. 2001 *Organizational behavior*, (5th edn), Irwin
- Laughlin, R.C. 1991 “Environmental disturbances and organisational transitions and transformations: Some alternative models”. *Organizational Studies*, 12, 209-232.
- Lawrence, P.R. & Lorsch, J.W. (1967). Differentiation and Integration in Complex Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1–47
- Leavitt, H. J. (1964). Applied Organization Change in Industry: structural, technical and human approaches. In W. W. Cooper, H. J. Leavitt & M. W. I. Shelly (Eds.), *New Perspectives in Organization Research* (pp. 55-71). New York: John Wiley.
- Lee, T.W., Mitchell, T.R. and Sablinski, C.J. 1999 “Qualitative research in organizational and vocational psychology, 1979-1999”, *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 55, 161-187.
- Leppitt, N. 2006 “Challenging the code of change: Part 1. Praxis not make perfect”, *Journal of Change Management*, 6(2), 121-142.
- Levinthal, D. A. (1991). Organizational adaptation and environmental selection: Interrelated processes of change. *Organization Science*, 2(1), 140-145.
- Lewin, Kurt (1952) *Field theory in social science*. London: Tavistock. [Dorwin Cartwright, ed.]
- Lewis, L.K., 2000 “Communicating change: Four cases of quality programs”, *The Journal of Business Communication*, 37(2), 128-155.
- Lewis, L.K. and Seibold, D.R. 1998 “Reconceptualizing organizational change implementation as a communication problem: A review of literature and research

agenda". In M. E. Roloff (ed.), *Communication Yearbook*, 21, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, (pp. 93-151).

Lewis, L.K., 2011 "Organisational Change: Creating Change Through Strategic Communication", *Wiley Blackwell*

Lichtenstein, B.M. 2000 "Self-organised transitions: A pattern amid the chaos of transformative change", *The Academy of Management Executive*, 14(4), 128-141.

Lin, W. and Liu, Y. 2012 "Successor characteristics, organisational slack, and change in the degree of firm internationalisation". *International Business Review* 21:1, 89-101.

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E. 1985 *Naturalistic inquiry*. London: Sage.

Lippitt, R., Watson, J. and Westley, B. 1958 *Planned change*, USA: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc.

Livne-Tarandach, R. and Bartunek, J. 2009 "A new horizon for organizational change and development scholarship: Connecting planned and emergent change". In: Woodman, R., Pasmore, W. and Shani A. (eds) *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 17. Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.

Lloyd-Walker, B and Walker, D 2001 "Authentic leadership for 21st century project deliver", *International Journal of Project Management*, 29 p 383-395

Locke, E.A., Kirkpatrick, S., Wheeler, J.K., Schneider, J., Niles, K., Goldstein, H., Welsh, K. and Chah, D.O. 1991 *The essence of leadership*, New York: Lexington Books.

Lorenzi, N.M. and Riley, R.T. 2000 "Managing Change: an overview". *AM Med Inform Assoc.* 2000 Mar-Apr;7(2):116-24.

- Lunenburg, F.C. 2010 "Approaches to managing organizational change", *International Journal Of Scholarly Academic Intellectual Diversity*, 12(1).
- Lyras, A. 2009 "Sport for peace and development theory", paper presented at 17th Annual European Sport Management Conference, Amsterdam, Netherlands, 16-19 September.
- Lyras, A. and Welty Peachet, J. 2011 "Integrating sport-for-development theory and praxis", *Sport Management Review*. DOI 10.1016/j.smr.2011.05.006.
- McFarlane, Peter (1977). *A Game Divided*. Melbourne: Hutchinson
- Macnee, L. C., & McCabe, S. (2008). *Understanding nursing research: Using research evidence-based practice*. Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Macintosh, D., Bedecki, T., & Franks, C. E. S. (1987). *Sport and politics in Canada*. Kingston: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- Madella, A., Bayle, E. & Tome, J. (2005). The organisational performance of national swimming federations in Mediterranean countries: A comparative approach. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 5(4), 207–20
- Mani, E. 2009 "A strong sport growing stronger: a perspective on the growth, development and future of international cricket", *Sport in Society*, 12(4-5).
- Manktelow, James. "The McKinsey 7S Framework." Mindtools. N.p., n.d. Web. 24 Feb. 2014. <http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newSTR_91.htm>
- Manktelow, J., Anand, N., Michie, S., & Brodbeck, F. (2014). London: MindTools Ltd.
- Manktelow, J., Anand, N., Michie, S., & Brodbeck, F. (2014). *Lewin's Change Management Model*. London: MindTools Ltd.

Marquies, N. and Raia, A. P. (1978) Conceptual foundations of organizational development. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill

Markus, L.: 1997 “The Qualitative Difference in Information Systems Research and Practice”. In: A. S. Lee, J. Liebenau, and J. I. DeGross (eds.), Proceedings of the IFIP TC8 WG8.2 International Conference on Information Systems and Qualitative Research. London: Chapman & Hall, 11B27

Markus, L.M. and Benjamin, R.J. 1996 “Change agency - the next IS frontier”, *S Quarterly*, December, 385-407.

Markus, L.M. and Benjamin, R.J. 1997 “The magic bullet theory in IT enabled transformation”, *Sloan Management Review*, Winter, 55-68.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G.B. 1999 *Designing qualitative research*, 3rd edn. London: Sage Publications.

Martin, A., Jones, E., & Callan, V. (2006). Status Differences in Employee Adjustment During Organizational Change, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(2), 145-162

Martin, J., McCormack, B., Fitzsimons, D. and Spirig, R., 2014 “The importance of inspiring a shared vision” *International Practice Development Journal*, 4 (2)(4)

Mason, D.S., Thibault, L. and Misener, L. 2006 “An agency theory perspective on corruption in sport: the case of the International Olympic Committee”, *Journal of Sport Management*, 20(1), 52-73.

Maurer, R. (1996) “Using resistance to build support for change”, *The Journal for Quality and Participation*, 19 (3), pp. 56-66.

Mayer, R. R. and Greenwood, E 1980 *The Design of Social Policy Research*. Englewood Cliffs,

- Medley, B.C. and Akan, O.H. 2008 “Creating positive change in community organisations: A case for rediscovering Lewin”, *Non profit Management and Leadership*, June, 18(4), 485-496.
- Melnyk, B., Fineout- Overholt, E. Giggelman, M. & Cruz, R. (2010). Correlates among cognitive beliefs, EBP, implementation, organizational culture, cohesion, job satisfaction in evidence-based practice mentors from a community hospital system. *Nursing Outlook*, 58(6), 301-308.
- Mento, A. J., Jones, R.M., & Dirndorfer, W.,2002. “A change management process: Grounded in both theory and practice. *Journal of Change Management*, 3(1), 45.
- Merriam, S.B., 1998 *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers
- Mielke, D. 2007 “Coaching experience, playing experience and coaching tenure”, *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching*, 2(2), 105-108.
- Miles, MB. & Huberman, AM. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis* (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Miles, R. and Snow, C. 1978 *Organizational strategy, structure and process*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Miller, D. 1988 “Relating Porter’s business strategies to environment and structure: analysis and performance implications”, *Academy of Management Journal*, 31(2), 280-308.
- Miller, D. (2001). Successful change leaders: What makes them? What do they do that is different? *Journal of Change Management*, 2(4), 359-368.

Mills, R. (1994). *'The professionalisation of Australian sport: Practice and Discussion. Leisure Options, 4 (2). 43-48.*

Mintzberg H, Quinn J.B. and Ghoshal S. 1995 *The strategy process, European Edition,* Great Britain: Prentice Hall.

Mintzberg H. 1996 "The rise and fall of strategic planning", *Harvard Business Review,* 72(1), 107-114.

Mintzberg, H. 1987, *The Strategy Concept | Five P's for Strategy,* California management review, 1987

Mintzberg, H. and Waters, J.A., 1985 "Of Strategies, deliberate and emergent". *Strategic Management. Volume 6, Issue 3 July/September 1985 Pages 257–272*

Montanari, J.R. & Bracker, J.S. (1986). The strategic management process at the public planning unit level. *Strategic Management Journal, 7,* 251–65

Moran, J.W. and Brightman, B.K. 2000 "Leading organizational change", *Journal of Workplace Learning, 12(2), 66-74.*

Morrison, M. 2002. What do we Mean by Educational Research? In M. Coleman & A.R.J Briggs (Eds.), *Research methods in educational leadership and management* (pp. 3-27). London: Paul Chapman

Morrison, J. M., Brown, C.J. and Smit, E.M. (2006). 'A Supportive Organisational Culture for Project Management in Matrix Organisations: A Theoretical Perspective.' *South African Journal of Business Management. Vol.37(4), Pp. 39-54.*

Mortari, L., 2015, "Reflectivity in Research Practice: An Overview of Different Perspectives". *International Journal of Qualitative Methods. 2015: 1-9*

Myers, M.D., 1997 "Qualitative Research in Information Systems," *MIS Quarterly* (21:2), pp. 241–242.

Nanus, B. 1992a "Leading organizational change", *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 12(2), 66–74.

Nanus, B. 1992b *Visionary leadership: Creating a compelling sense of direction for your organisation*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Nauheimer, H. 2009-"Change Model 3: John Kotter's 8 steps of leading change", *Change Management Blog*. np. <http://www.change-management-blog.com/2009/07/change-model-3-john-kotters-8-steps-of.html> Accessed 23 Feb. 2014.

Nel, C. and Beudeker, N. 2009 *Evolution: How to create a high performance organisation*. Village of Leaders.

Nelissen, P. and van Selm, M. (2008) "Surviving organizational change: how management communication helps balance mixed feelings", *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, Vol. 13 Issue: 3, pp.306 - 318

Nelson, T. and Coxhead, H. 1997 "Increasing the probability of re-engineering / culture change success through effective internal communications", *Strategic Change*, 6, 29-48.

Newcomb, K. (2005). Transformational leadership: Four keys to help you and your organisation stay focused on continuous improvement and greater value debt. Retrieved from <http://www.debt3online.com>.

- Nichols, G., and James, M., 2008. One size does not fit all: implications of sports club diversity for their effectiveness as a policy tool and for government support. *Managing Leisure*, 13, 104-114.
- Nicholson, M. and Hoye, R. 2008 "Delivering strategic change in complex sport environments: Country Racing Victoria", *Int. Journal Sport Management and Marketing*, 4(1), 18-32.
- Norrgrén, F., Hart, H., Schaller, J., (1996). Effektiva Förändringsstrategier. Report, Center for Research on Organizational Renewal (CORE), Chalmers University of Technology, Göteborg.
- Nutt, P.C., and Backoff, R.W. (1997), Crafting Vision, *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 6 (4), pp. 308-329.
- O'Brien, D. and Slack, T. 1999 "Deinstitutionalising the amateur ethic: an empirical examination of change in a rugby union football club", *Sport Management Review*, 2, 24–42.
- O'Brien, D. and Slack, T. 2003 "An analysis of change in an organisational field: the professionalisation of English rugby union", *Journal of Sport Management*, 17, 417-448.
- O'Brien, D., and Slack, T. (2004). The emergence of a professional logic in English rugby union: The role of isomorphic and diffusion processes. *Journal of Sport Management*, 18, 13-39
- Ogilvie, J. and Stork, D. (2003), Starting the HR and change conversation with history. *Journal of organisational change management*, 16(3), pp. 254-271.

- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2007). Validity and qualitative research: An oxymoron? *Quality & Quantity: International Journal of Methodology*, 41, 233–249. doi:10.1007/s11135-006 – 9000-3.
- Orlikowski, W.J. 1993 “CASE Tools as organizational change: Investigating incremental and radical change in systems development”, *S Quarterly*, September, 309-339.
- Orlikowski, W.J. 1996 “Improvising organizational transformation over time: a situated change perspective.” *Information Systems Research*, 7(1), 63–92.
- Orlikowski, W.J. and Baroudi, J.J. 1991 “Studying information technology in organisations: research approaches and assumptions”, *Institute of Management Sciences*.
- Orlikowski, W.J. and Hofman, D.J. 1997 “An improvisation model for change management: The case of groupware technologies”, *Sloan Management Review*, Winter, 11-21.
- Osborn, R., Hunt, J. G. and Jauch, L. R Toward a contextual theory of leadership, *The Leadership Quarterly* 13 (2002), pp. 797–837
- Papadimitriou, D. (2002). Amateur structures and their effect on performance: The case of Greek voluntary sports clubs. *Managing Leisure*, 7, 205-219.
- Parent, M.M. 2008 “Evolution and issue patterns for major-sport-event organizing committees and their stakeholders”, *Journal of Sport Management*, 22(2), 135-164.
- Parent, M.M. and Seguin, B. 2007 *FINA 2005 world post-analysis: Report*. Ottawa, Canada: Sport Consult MMP Inc.

- Parent, O'Brien and Slack 2012 "Organisational theory and sport management". In L. Trenberth and D. Hassan (Eds), *Managing sport business: an introduction*, London and New York: Routledge, (pp. 99-120).
- Pascale, R., (1995), 'In search of the new employment contract', Human Resources. Nov/Dec, 21-26
- Pellegrinelli (2007). *Analysing and Dealing with Key Organisational Factors Affecting the Design and Execution of Projects and Programmes*. PMI Global Congress EMEA Proceedings, Budepest, Hungary.
- Peppard, J., and Rowland, P. (1995) "The Essence of Business Process Engineering, Prentice Hall, London
- Perry, C. 2001 "Case Research in Marketing" Marketing Review. Spring2001, Vol. 1 Issue 3, p303. 21p.
- Peters, T.J. (1987), *Thriving on Chaos: Handbook for a Management Revolution*, Harper & Row, New York, NY.
- Peters, T.J. and Waterman, R.H. 1982 *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies*, London: HarperCollins Publishers.
- Pettigrew 1985 *The awakening giant: Continual and change in imperial chemical industries*, London: Basil Blackwell Ltd.
- Pettigrew, A.M. 1987 *The management of strategic change*, Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.
- Pettigrew, A.M. 1979 "On studying organisational cultures", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 570-581.

Pettigrew, A. 2000, "Linking change processes to outcomes: a commentary on Goshal, Bartlett, and Weick," in *Breaking the code of change*, M.Beer & N Nohria, eds., Harvard Business School Press, Boston

Pettigrew, A. and Whipp, R. 1991 *Managing change for competitive success*, Oxford: Blackwell.

Pettigrew, A.M., Woodman, R.W., & Cameron, K.S. (2001). Studying organizational change and development: Challenges for future research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44 (4), 697-713.

Pfeifer, T. and Schmitt, R. Thorsten Voigt, (2005) "Managing change: quality-oriented design of strategic change processes", *The TQM Magazine*, Vol. 17 Iss: 4, pp.297 - 308

Piderit, S.K. 2000 "Rethinking resistance and recognising ambivalence: a multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organisational change", *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 783-794.

Pollard, Jack (1986). *The Pictorial History of Australian Cricket* (revised edition).
Boronia: J.M Dent Pty Ltd & Australian Broadcasting Corporation

Porras and Silvers 1991 "Organization development and transformation", *Annual Review of Psychology*, 42, 51-78.

Porras, J.I. and Silvers, R.C. (1994) "Organization Development and Transformation", in French, W.L., Bell C.H., and Zawacki, R.A. (eds) (1994 (4th edn) *Organization Development And Transformation* Burr Ridge, Illinois: Irwin

Porter, M. 1980 *Competitive strategy*, New York: Free Press.

Prahalad, C. K., Hamel, G. The core competence of the corporation. *Harvard Business Review*, v. 68, n. 3, p. 79-91, May/June 1990.

Preskill, H. and Torres, R.T. 1999 *Building capacity for organizational learning through evaluative inquiry*, London: Sage Publications, 5(1): 42-60.

Price, A. D. F. & Chahal, K. 2006. A Strategic Framework for Change Management. *Construction Management And Economics*, 24, 237-251

Quigley, J.V. 1994 *Vision: How leaders develop it, share it, and sustain it*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Quirk, B. 1995 *Communicating change*. London: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Randall, D.M. 2010 *Leadership and the use of power: shaping an ethical climate*, https://www.andrews.edu/services/jacl/article_archive/6_1_spring_2012/04-featurearticles/jacl_6-1_randall.pdf

Rerup, C. and Feldman, M.S., 2011 "Routines as a Source of Change in Organisational Schemata: The Role of Trial-and-Error Learning". *Academy of Management Journal*, vol 54(3), 577-610. Robbins, S.P. and Judge, T.A. 2007 *Organizational behaviour*. (12th edn), New Jersey: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A., (2007). *Organizational behavior* (12th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall

Robinson, R. and Haigh, G (1996). On Top Down Under: Australia's cricket captains. Kent Town: Wakefield Press

Roebuck, P. (2007-01-06) "Stage was set the day complacency met commitment" *The Age*.

Rossman, G. and Rallis, S.F. 2012 *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research* (3rd edn). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Roueche, J. E., Baker, G. A., & Rose, R. R. (1989). *Shared vision: Transformational leadership in American community colleges*. Washington, D.C

Rouse, M. 2009 "Organizational change management (OCM)",
<http://searchcio.techtarget.com/definition/organizational-change-management-OCM>, accessed May-July 2016.

Ruta, C. D. (2005), The application of change management theory to HR portal implementation in subsidiaries of multinational corporations. *Hum. Resour. Manage.*, 44: 35–53. doi:10.1002/hrm.20039

Ryan, N., Williams, T., Charles, M. and Waterhouse, J. 2009 "Top-down organizational change in an Australian Government agency", *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 21(1), 26-44.

Saeki, T., 1994, *The Conflict between Tradition and Modernization in a Sport Organisation: A Sociology Study of Issues Surrounding the Organisation Reformation of all the Japan Judo Federation*", Institute of Health and Sport Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Japan

Salk, R. J. and Schneider, I. E. 2006. "Profile of 2006 Dragon festival attendees". Retrieved October 16, 2007

Sandstrom, J., & Smith, L. (2008). *Legacy leadership: The leader's guide to lasting greatness*. Dallas, TX: Coachworks Press

Sangamithra 2011 A power point presentation accessed at
http://nptel.iitm.ac.in/courses/IIT-MADRAS/Management_Science_II/Pdf/6_1.pdf.

Sarantakos, S. 1998 *Social research*, Macmillan.

Schein, E.H. 1996 "Kurt Lewin's change theory in the field and in the classroom: notes toward a model of managed learning 1". *Working Paper 3821*. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Schein, E.H., 1985 *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organisational culture & leadership* (3ed.). San Francisco, Calif., London: Jossey-Bass.

Schutte, R 1997. Grundsätze ordnungsgemäßer Referenzmodellierung: Konstruktion konfigurations- und anpassungsorientierter Modelle. PhD thesis, Uni Münster
(Refer translation below)

Schutte, R 1997. Principles of proper reference modelling: Structure configuration and customisation-oriented models. PhD thesis, Uni Münster

Scott, C.D. and Jaffe, D.T. 1998 "Survive and thrive in times of change", *Training and Development Journal*, April, 25-27.

Senge P. 1990 *The fifth discipline – the art and practice of the learning organisation*, Great Britain: Random House.

Senge P. 1994 "The leaders new work", *Provo*, 11(11), 8-13.

Senge. P., Kleiner. A., Roberts. C., Ross. R, Roth. G., and Smith. B., (1999)., "The Dance of Change", Nicholas Brealey Publishing, 1999

Senior, B.-2002-Organisational Change, 2nd edn (London: Prentice Hall).

Senior, B. & Fleming, J., 2006, 'The Leadership of Change', in *Organisational Change*, Prentice Hall.

- Seo M., Putnam L. L., Bartunek J. M. (2004). Dualities and tensions of planned organizational change. In Poole M. S., Van de Ven A. H. (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational change and innovation* (pp. 73-107). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Shilbury, D. 2001 “Examining board member roles, functions and influence: A study of Victorian sporting organizations”. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 2, 253–281.
- Shilbury, D., Ferkins, L., and Smythe, L. 2013 “Sport governance encounters: Insights from lived experiences”. *Sport Management Review*, 16(1) 349–363.
- Shilbury D., Moore K. A. (2006). A study of organizational effectiveness for national olympic sporting organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 35, 5-38
- Shilbury, D., Sotiriadou, K., Green, B.C., (2008) Sport Development. Systems, Policies & Pathways: *Sport Management Review* 11, 217-223
- Simpson, R.B. and Brindle, T. 1996 *Bob Simpson the reasons why: a decade of coaching, a lifetime of cricket*. Sydney: HarperCollins.
- Sköldberg, K. (1994). Tales of change: Public administration reform and narrative mode. *Organization Science*, 5(2), 219-238
- Slack, T. 1997 *Understanding sport organisations: The application of organization theory*, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Slack, T. 1985 “The bureaucratization of a voluntary sport organisation”, *International Review of the Sociology of Sport*, 20, 145-166.

Slack, T. and Hinings, B. 1987 “Planning and organizational change: a conceptual framework for the analysis of amateur sport organizations”, *Canadian Journal of Sport Sciences*, 12, 185–193.

Slack, T., and Hinings, B. 1992 “Planning and organizational change: a conceptual framework for the analysis of amateur sport organizations”, *Canadian Journal of Sport Sciences*, 12, 185–193.

Slack, T. and Hinings, B. 1992 “Understanding change in national sport organisations: an integration of theoretical perspectives”, *Journal of Sport Management*, 6, 114–132.

Slack, T. & Hinings, B. (1994). Institutional Pressures and Isomorphic Change: An Empirical Test. *Organizational Studies*, 15(6), 803–27

Slack, T. and Kikulis, L. 1989 “The sociological study of sport organisations: some observations on the situation in Canada”, *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 24, 179-200.

Slack, T. and Parent, M., 2006 *Understanding Sport Organisations – The Application of Organisation Theory*. Human Kinetics

Smeltzer, L. R., & Zener, M. F. (1992). Development of a model for announcing major layoffs. *Group and Organization Management*, 17(4), 446-472

Smeltzer, L.R. and Fann, G.L. 1989, “Comparison of managerial communication patterns in small, entrepreneurial organizations and large, mature organizations”, *Group and Organization Studies*, Vol. 14 No. 2, June, pp. 198-215.

- Smid, G., Van Hout, E. and Burger, Y. (2006) Leadership in organisational change: Rules for successful hiring in interim management. *Journal of Change Management* 6 (1):35-51
- Sminia, H. & Van Nistelrooij, A. (2006). Strategic management and organization development: Planned change in a public sector organization. *Journal of Change Management*, 6(1), 99-113.
- Smith, W. K., & Lewis, M. W. 2011. Toward a theory of paradox: A dynamic equilibrium model of organizing. *Academy of Management Review*, 36(2): 381–403
- Snyder, N. H., & Graves, M. (1994). Leadership and vision. *Business Horizons*, 37(1), 1-7
- Sotiriadou, P. (2013). Sport development planning: The Sunny Golf Club. *Sport Management Review*, 16(4), 514–523
- Stace, D. and Dunphy, D. 1996 *Beyond the boundaries: Leading and re-creating the successful enterprise*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill.
- Stacey, R.D. (2005) (Ed.) *Experiencing emergence in organizations: Local interaction & the emergence of a global pattern*. Routledge: USA.
- Stake, R. E., 1995. The art of case study research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stewart B (2007) The political economy of football: Framing the analysis, in Stewart B (Ed.) *The games are not the same: The political economy of football in Australia*, pp3-22, Melbourne University Press, Carlton
- Stewart, B. and Edwards, A. 1999 “Amateurism to professionalism: Modelling organisational change in sporting organisations”, *Sport Management Review* 2(2), 173-192.

- Stewart J & Kringas P (2003b) Change Management - Strategy and Values in Six Agencies from the Australian Public Service. *Public Administration Review*, 63(6): 675-688
- Stewart, J. and Walsh, K. 1992 "Change in the Management of Public Services
- Stickland, F. 1998 *The Dynamics of change: insights into organisational transition from the natural world*, London: Routledge.
- Stone, M.M., Bigelow, B. and Crittenden, W. 1999 "Research on strategic management in non-profit organizations: Synthesis, analysis, and future directions". *Administration and Society*, 31(3), 378-423. DOI: [10.1177/009539999922019184](https://doi.org/10.1177/009539999922019184)
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. 1990 *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*, California: Sage Publications.
- Strebel, P. 1996 "Why do employees resist change?", *Harvard Business Review*, 74(3), 8692.
- Sullivan, R.G. & Harper M.V. (1997), "Seeing and doing", *Executive Excellence*, 14(3), 19
- Sweeney Sports 2004 *The Sweeney Sports Report 2014*
- Sweeney Sports 2010 *The Sweeney Sports Report 2010*
- Sweeney Sports 2015 *The Sweeney Sports Report 2015*
- Taylor, S.J. and Bogdan, R. 1994 *Introduction to qualitative research methods: the search for meanings*, Wiley.
- Thibault, L. & Slack, T. (1994). Strategic planning for nonprofit sport organizations: empirical verification of a framework. *Journal of Sport Management*, 8(3), 218–33

- Thibault, L., Slack, T. & Hinings, B. (1991). Professionalism, Structures and Systems: The Impact of Professional Staff on Voluntary Sport Organizations. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 26(2), 83– 98
- Thibault, L., Slack, T. and Hinings, B. 1993 “A framework for the analysis of strategy in nonprofit sport organizations”. *Journal of Sport Management*, 26, 25–43.
- Thornberry, N. 1997 “A view about vision”, *European Management Journal*, 15(1), 28-34.
- Toffler, A., Toffler, H. and Gibson, R. 1998 *Rethinking the future: Rethinking business, principles, competition, control and complexity, leadership, markets, and the world*. Boston: Nicholas Brealey.
- Toor, S.-u.-R., Ofori, G., 2008. Leadership for future construction industry agenda for authentic leadership. *International Journal of Project Management* 26 (6), 620–630
- Tricker, B. 2000 “Editorial: Corporate governance: the subject whose time has come”, *Corporate Governance*, 8(4), 289-296.
- Tsoukas, H. and Chia, R. 2002 ‘On organisational becoming: rethinking organisational change’, *Organisation Science*, 13(5), 567-582.
- Turnbull, S. 1997 “Corporate governance: Its scope, concerns and theories”. *Journal of Economic Literature Published in: Corporate Governance: An International Review*, 5(4), 180-205.
- Turner, J.R. and Cochrane, R.A. (1993), “The goals and methods matrix: coping with projects with ill-defined goals and/or methods of achieving them”, *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 11 No. 2, pp. 93-102.

- Vaccaro, I.G., Jansen, J.J., Van Den Bosch, F.A.J., & Volberda, H.W. 2012, Management Innovation and Leadership: The Moderating Role of Organizational Size, *Journal of Management Studies*, Volume 49, Issue 1, January 2012, Pages 28–51
- Vaill, P.B. 1989 “Seven process frontiers for organisation development”. In: Sikes, W., Drexler, A.B. and Gant, J., (Eds.) *The Emerging Practice of Organisation Development*.
- Vaill, P.B. 1989 *Managing as a performing art: New ideas for a world of chaotic change*. Jossey-Bass.
- Van de Ven, A. H., & Poole, M. S. 1988. Paradoxical requirements for a theory of organizational change. In R. Quinn & K. Cameron (Eds.), *Paradox and transformation: Toward a theory of change in organization and management*: 19-80. New York: HarperCollins.
- Van Dijk (Newton), R. & Van Dick, R. (2009). Navigating organizational change: Change leaders, employee resistance, and work-based identities. *Journal of Change Management*, 9, 143-163.
- Van Maanen, J. 1998 *Tales of the field: On writing ethnography*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Victor, P. & Frankeiss, A., 2002 “The five dimensions of change: an integrated approach to strategic organisational change management”. *Strategic Change* 11(1):35 – 42
- Viljoen, J. 1994, *Strategic management: planning and implementing successful corporate strategies*, Longman, Melbourne

Waclawski, J. (2002). Large-scale Organizational Change and Performance: an Empirical

Examination. *Human Resource Development Quarterly* 13 (3): 289–305

Waddell, D. M., Cummings, T. G. and Worley, C. G. 2004 *Managing organisation development and change: Pacific Rim*, 2nd edn. Melbourne: Thomson Learning.

Waddington, D. 1994 "Participant observation", in Cassell, S.G., *Qualitative methods in organisational research*, London: Sage Publications.

Waldersee, R., Griffiths, A. and Lai, J. (2003). 'Predicting Organisational Change Success: Matching Organisation Type, Change Type and Capabilities.' *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*. Vol. 8(1), Pp. 66-81.

Wang, C. L. and Ahmed, P. K. (2007). Dynamic capabilities: a review and research agenda. *The International Journal of Management Reviews*, 9(1): 31-51.

Washington, M. and Hacker, M. 2005 "Why change fails: knowledge counts", *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 26(5), 400–411.

Webster, M. (2016) Successful Change Management — Kotter'S 8-Step Change Model [online] available from <<http://www.leadershipthoughts.com/kotters-8-step-change-model/>> [16 November 2016]

Weick, K.E. 1995 *Sensemaking in organizations*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Weick, K.E. 2000 "Emergent change as universal in organizations". In: Beer, M. and Nohria, N. (eds) *Breaking the code of change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Weick, K.E. and Quinn, R.E. 1999 “Organisational change and development”, *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 361-386.

Weiner, B. J. (2009) A theory of organizational readiness for change. *Implementation Science*.4(67).

Wellins, R. S. & Murphy, J. S. (1995). Reengineering: Plug into the human factor. *Training & Development*, 49 (1), 33-37

Werner, A., Bagraim, J., Cunningham, P., Potgieter, T., Viedge, C. 2007. *Organisational Behaviour: A contemporary South African perspective*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Westerbeek, H.M., Shilbury, D. & Deane, J. (1995). How they do it down under, *Recreation*. October 1995, 39-46. (UK).

Westerbeek, H.M., Shilbury, D. & Deane, J.W. (1995). The Australian sport system, its history and an organisational overview. *European Journal for Sport Management*, 2(1), 42-58.

Whelan-Berry and Somerville 2010 “Linking change drivers and the organisational change process: a review and synthesis”, *Journal of Change Management*, 10(2), 175-193.

Williams, C.(1996). *Bradman: An Australian Hero*. London: Little, Brown and Company

Wilson, I. 1992 “Realising the power of strategic vision”, *Long Range Planning*, 25, 18-28.

Wolfe, R., Hoerber, L. & Babiak, K. (2002). Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Sport Organisations: The Case of Intercollegiate Athletics. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 2, 135–56

Wren, J.D., and Dulewicz, V., (2005). "Successful Change in the Royal Air Force: Leader Competencies and Activities, Henly Working Paper 0502

Wynne-Thomas, Peter (1989). *The Complete History of Cricket Tours at Home and Abroad*. London: Hamlyn

Yilmaz, K., 2013 "Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Traditions: epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences" *European Journal of Education*, Volume 48, Issue 2 June 2013 Pages 311–325

Yin, R.K. 1984 *Case study research: design and methods*, Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Yin, R.K., 1994 *Case study research: design and methods*, London: Sage Publishing.

Yukl, Gary, A. (2002), *Leadership in Organizations*, Fifth Edition, Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, N. J, available at; www.ncsl.org.uk/mediastore/image2/randd-leaders-business-yukl.pdf

Zaltman, G. and Duncan, R. (1977), *Strategies for Planned Change*, Wiley, Toronto

Zorn, T.E., Page, D.J. and Cheney, G. 2000 "Nuts about change: Multiple perspectives on change-oriented communication in a public-sector organization". In *Annual Conference of the International Communication Association* (pp. 1-41). Conference held in Acapulco, Mexico.

9.1 Glossary of Terms

Term	Definition in this study
ACB	<i>Australian Cricket Board</i>
ACC	<i>Australian Cricket Council</i>
ACA	<i>Australian Cricketers' Association</i>
AIF	<i>Australian Imperial Forces</i>
Authentic Leadership	<i>Authentic leadership is an approach to leadership that emphasizes building the leader's legitimacy through honest relationships with followers which value their input and are built on an ethical foundation. Generally, authentic leaders are positive people with truthful self-concepts who promote openness.</i>
BBL	<i>Big Bash League</i>
CA	<i>Cricket Australia</i>
Change Model	<i>A change model that defines pre-determined steps that will be followed whilst implementing change</i>
ECB	<i>England and Wales Cricket Board</i>
Emergent Change	<i>Emergent change is considered to be change that is a continuous, open-ended and unpredictable process of aligning and realigning an organisation to its changing environment</i>
IPL	<i>Indian Premier League</i>
ICC	<i>International Cricket Board</i>
MCH	<i>Melbourne Cricket Ground</i>
MOU	<i>Memorandum of Understanding</i>
NRL	<i>National Rugby League</i>
NSO	<i>National Sporting Association</i>
ODOs	<i>One Day Internationals</i>
Organisational Change	<i>Organisational change is about reviewing and modifying management structures and business processes</i>
Organisational Culture	<i>Organisational culture is "the basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation, that operate unconsciously and define in a basic-taken-</i>

Term	Definition in this study
	<i>for-granted fashion an organisation’s view of itself and its environment” Johnson, Kulesa, Cho, Shavitt, 2005)</i>
Planned Change	<i>Planned change can be described as “management strategies that involve sequential steps for altering organisational and individual behaviour. This method is typically employed once decision makers identify a need for change” (Burnes, 2006)</i>
SSA	State Sport Association
SCG	Sydney Cricket Ground
Strategic change / strategic management	<i>Strategic change is defined as “changes in the content of a firm’s strategy as defined by its scope, resource deployments, competitive advantages, and synergy” (Hofer & Schendel 1978)</i> <i>Simplified – strategic change is a way of changing the objectives and vision of a company in order to achieve greater success</i>
Strategy	<i>Strategy may be defined as “the long-term direction of the organisation. It is likely to be expressed in broad statements about both the direction that the organisation should be taking and the types of action required to achieve objectives (Johnson, 2005)</i>
Sustainable change	<i>The process through which new working methods, performance goals and improvements trajectories are maintained for a period appropriate to a given context” (Buchanan, 2005)</i>
Twenty20	T20 Cricket
Vision	<i>A vision may be defined as “the desired future state of the organisation. It is an aspiration around which a strategist, perhaps a chief executive, might seek to focus attention and energies of members of the organisation” (Johnson, 2005)</i>
Visionary organisation	<i>A visionary organisation is “an organisation that has the ability to create and articulate a realistic, credible and attractive vision of the future for the organisation or organisational unit that grows out of and improves on the present state” (Robins & Judge, 2007)</i>
WBBL	Women’s Big Bash League
WCA	Women’s Cricket Australia
WSC	World Series Cricket

