A Qualitative Exploration of the South African Cricket Development Environment

Cedric Vaughan English

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Edinburgh Napier University, for the award of Doctor of Philosophy

June 2017
ABSTRACT

It may be argued that there are fewer sporting environments where politics and sport are so intertwined, however having undergone significant socio-political changes and development, South Africa (SA) remains a strong sporting nation with a rich and complex sporting history. After 28 years of sporting isolation, following SA's re-entry to international competition in 1992, the country has since competed at international level and immediately reasserted itself as one of the top cricketing nations in the world. With very little non-politicised literature on the subject, the question of what SA's talent development environment looks like in order to produce internationally competitive teams, after 28 years of isolation, remains relatively un-reviewed. In light of this, the SA cricket development environment offers a unique opportunity to explore one of SA's oldest and most established sports.

The focus of this thesis will provide a pragmatic and holistic picture of the South African cricket development environment across four features, Organisational Culture, Structural Change, Coach Development and Coach-Administrator Relationships. Consequently, the aims of this thesis are fourfold:

1. To explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, from the domain of organisational culture management to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment.
2. To gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer.
3. To explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression.
4. To explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket.

The four aims are addressed through the work presented in chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7. Addressing aim 1 and 2 involves the purposeful and representative selection of 12 extraordinarily experienced players, coaches and administrators with a unique and rich declarative knowledge of the SA cricket environment. Data analysis for aim 1 incorporates both deductive and inductive content analysis, presenting not only the usefulness of the Cultural Web as an effective framework to
investigate organisational culture in sports organisations, but also findings unique to the SA cricket development environment.

Practical findings emerged, such as the effects of a hierarchical decision-making and a questionable board-related electoral system, together with the significance of subcultures highlighting the need for coherent functioning in order to produce elite performers. Due to significant socio-political changes, a cultural shift may be required in both national and professional cricket culture to realign to the new norms and values of SA society. Theoretically, findings highlighted the use of the Cultural Web as a credible tool for analysing sporting organisational culture. Findings also place emphasis on the benefits of utilising both the materialistic and ideational artifacts of the Cultural Web by confirming the interdependence between culture, organisational structures, power and control, while at the same time highlighting the interrelated nature of the materialistic and ideational artifacts.

The data addressing aim 2 was analysed using inductive thematic analysis. Emergent themes have highlighted the effects of structural change on the SA cricket development pathway, such as, a.) The reduction in opportunities at the top level of domestic cricket and, b.) The loss of competitive standard of club and affiliate cricket leading to a reduction in available pathway options. The possible practical consequences of these effects that may, in the long-term, not only reduce the participation base and narrow the performance pathway, but also impact on the overall health of SA domestic and international game. Findings also reinforce the theoretical models that acknowledge sports development as an individual and non-linear process and confirm cricket as a late developing sport, thus signifying the importance of those development environments between mass participation and elite performance (school/club/university) to retain structure, competition and exhibit the greatest flexibility and coherency.

Addressing aims 3 and 4 involved the purposeful selection of a representative sample (school, club, university, provincial, franchise) of 13 coaches with significant declarative knowledge underpinned by numerous, unique and multi-layered coaching experiences gathered across the SA cricket development environment. In retrieving this distinct and in-depth perspective, the data analysis for both aims 3 and 4 underwent inductive thematic analysis. Three higher-order themes emerged, 1.) Experience and development and knowledge, 2.) Disparities across operational levels, 3.) Barriers of the coach development pathway. In short, findings confirm that coaches learn through a combination of experiential learning,
formal learning, and learning through mechanisms such as mentoring, while at the same time view coach education as a useful and worthwhile activity. The operational level of the coach (club, school, university and provincial) was an important factor in influencing the level of operational control and power, while increased levels of complexity was perceived at these development coaching levels due to lack of support and understanding. In addition, a lack of opportunities to progress to the elite domestic level (franchise) has reduced, by becoming narrow and defined due to the structural change made to the provincial pathway in 2004. Practically, it may be useful for SA cricket to focus on both providing more support to those coaching at the development stage and also engage those experienced coaches working out with the provincial development pathway.

Data analysed in relation to aim 4 revealed four higher-order and nine lower-order themes. A dominant factor emerged impacting on the coaches linked to certain administrators lacking a general understanding of the game of cricket. This factor impacted on the coach’s environment in a number of ways. 1.) The development of a cricketer and the significance of coach’s role in this process, 2.) Incorrect and biased decision-making, 3.) Detrimental to coach evaluation, 4.) Incorrect allocation of resources. Similar points were raised in chapter 4 relating to positions of control and power residing with certain individuals who were not well informed about the environment over which they reside, leading to a misalignment between understanding and subsequent decision-making. Findings highlight a need for SA cricket to develop proactive administrators who provide a consistent message to development and performance and are supportive of the coach, through developing relationships and promoting open communication.

Future recommendations for other contexts include, 1.) Utilising both materialistic and ideational artifacts, through frameworks such as the Cultural Web framework, to further investigations into organisational culture in sports organisations. 2.) To develop a broader and fundamental understanding of a sports talent development environment and the interaction of elements within the pathway, before automatically adopting cross-cultural policy and strategies. 3.) Not accepting a linear and one-dimensional view of coach development, by broadening future investigations of the complex negotiations and contexts impacting on both learning, development and career trajectory of coaches, specifically for those coaches operating at the developmental end of the spectrum. 4.) Begin a
multidiscipline approach to developing and supporting greater understanding and decision-making between sports organisational level leaders and coaches.

In remaining true to its pragmatic focus of generating practical and meaningful knowledge (Giacobbi et al., 2005; Savage et al. 2017) for the benefit of SA cricket, an integrated overview of the considerations and implications across 3 areas, the player pathway, the coach development and governance and administration is provided.

Analysis of the player pathway revealed a significant focus on mass participation with a strong influence of the school structure and age-related provincial cricket as a pathway to provincial and franchise level cricket. Adoption of the franchise structure in 2004 is perceived to have reduced the playing base and narrowed the performance pathway, highlighting a number of sensitive areas of drop-out occurring before and after the club/university/provincial environments. Considering this, it is important for SA cricket to focus attention on maintaining the overall competitive strength of the school, club, tertiary and provincial environments by concentrating on the coherency across these elements. In so doing, influencing more experienced players to remain in the game for longer, reducing the pressure to select players select early, while at the same time impacting positively on the learning environments for young players. This was through positive player role modeling and expectation management for developing players to observe the behaviours required to progress. Structurally, by increasing and maintaining the overall competitiveness of the club, university and provincial environments will enable more routes to become recognised as viable development pathways and therefore genuine selection environments.

Practical implications relating to coach development highlighted factors crucial for SA cricket coach education programs to consider when providing the most conducive environment for coaches to learn and develop, especially for those at the beginning of their coaching careers, operating in the age-related players pathways or amateur environments or may not have developed the experiences from a past playing or teaching career.

With regards to coach career progression certain factors, such as the experience of the coach and whether they operated within or out with the provincial pathway were perceived to impact negatively on progression, leading to some experienced coaches operating outside the provincial development pathway
system being dislocated from those who were operating inside the provincial development pathway.

It would be beneficial for SA cricket to review any current engagement and learning and development support of those coaches operating at the school, club, university levels across the following areas; 1.) To consider widening the Level 4 invitation for coach education opportunities to include these coaches operating outside the provincial pathway. 2.) Actively engage and support those coaches operating outside the system. Effective utilization of these experienced coaches will broaden the efficiency and coherency across development structures and assist in developing and maintaining the competitiveness of these levels. Consideration must also be given to establishing a coaches association to protect the interests of coaches in the same way the players association protects the interests of the players in order to encourage all the best coaches to aspire to the work in the top coaching positions.

Due to the perceived influence of the administrator, certain factors were highlighted as significant in impacting negatively on the development environment, such as a hierarchical decision-making and a questionable electoral system and the independent nature of the provincial structure. SA cricket may wish to consider a number of factors, such as 1.) Reviewing the provincial board and franchise-level electoral system, ensuring the selection of appropriate individuals and, 2.) Review the resource and funding criteria to franchises and provinces and for this to be based on an equitable set of criteria that may be contextualised to that region.

It is also important for SA cricket to ensure a conducive working relationship between coaches and administrators by building a culture of mutual trust and respect. Part of this process would include educating administrators to be more proactive than reactive and develop a relationship through open communication. This may promote administrators to provide a consistent message of support with regards to development and performance outcomes and to be more supportive of the coach’s philosophy and vision.
AUTHOR DECLARATION

Edinburgh, September 2016

I hereby declare that:

a.) I have composed this thesis,
b.) This thesis is my own work and,
c.) This work has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification except as specified

Cedric V. English
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Russell Martindale, my supervisor, for providing marvelous support in channeling and focusing my, at times wayward, thoughts throughout this journey.

Thanks to all my office colleagues, you know who you are! All those passing discussions have not only helped me, but have motivated me to continue. Thank you.

Thanks also to Christine Nash, my second supervisor. Our discussions, and the opportunities you have provided in the past have been very helpful. I look forward to our future chats.

Thanks to all those who took the time to speak to me about their experiences, without you these pages would not have been possible.

Special thanks to mom and dad for encouraging and supporting me to begin this unique journey, and to Ann and Rog for helping me through it.

Finally, to Fi and Annie - your love and support has provided me with great motivation to complete this journey. Fiona – I could not have done it without you, many thanks and all the best.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>i - v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUTHOR DECLARATION</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>xii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 The formation of South African cricket</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Structure and Governance of South African cricket</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Sporting success</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Rationale and aims of thesis</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW</td>
<td>10-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Outline of overview</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 An integrated approach</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Culture and sports policy</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Constructing successful sporting cultures</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Going forward</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

28-50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Research Design</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Participants</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Interview Structure</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 Procedures</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 Data Analysis</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 Trustworthiness and Credibility</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 Rationale for chapter 4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 4 - EXPLORING SPORTS ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE SA CRICKET DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT

51-107

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Objectives of chapter</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Introduction</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Methodology</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Results and Discussion</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 Conclusion</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 limitations and future directions</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 Rationale for chapter 5</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5 - THE EFFECTS OF STRUCTURAL CHANGE: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE SA CRICKET DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT

5. Objectives of chapter
5.1 Introduction
5.2 Methodology
5.3 Results
5.4 Conclusion
5.5 Rationale and aim of chapter 6

CHAPTER 6 - INFLUENCERS AND DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES OF SOUTH AFRICAN CRICKET COACHES

6. Objectives of chapter
6.1 Introduction
6.2 Methodology
6.3 Results
6.4 Discussion
6.5 Limitations and future considerations
6.6 Rationale and process for chapter 7
CHAPTER 7 - ILLUMINATING THE COACH-ADMINISTRATOR

RELATIONSHIP: THE PERCEPTIONS OF SA CRICKET COACHES

7. Objectives of chapter 195
7.1 Introduction 195
7.2 Methodology 200
7.3 Results 207
7.4 Conclusion 223
7.5 Future considerations and limitations 227

CHAPTER 8 - CONCLUSIONS, GENERAL DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Conclusions and general discussion 230
8.2 Recommendations 241
8.3 Evaluating the quality and impact of the implications 253

REFERENCES 255-277
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>The Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Johnson et al. (2008) model definition of culture</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>The Cultural Web (Johnson &amp; Scholes, 1997)</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Stage 1 of inductive analysis</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Higher and lower-order theme formation</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Culture Web of SA cricket development environment</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Gagné's Differentiated Model of Giftedness and Talent 2.0 (2008)</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Wylleman and Lavalee's (2004) development lifespan model</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Theme review process</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>An example of the South African cricketing pathway</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pre 2004 franchise restructuring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>An example of the post-2004 South African franchise structure</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Initial coding and theming process</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Final data coding and theme review</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>First stage of theming process</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Final higher and lower order themes</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Participants current roles and cricket experience</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Participant current roles and coaching experience</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Thematic Analysis (Braun &amp; Clark, 2006, p.87)</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Initial interview questions used to align understanding</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Questions relating to Cultural Web of SA cricket</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Interview script investigating structural change in SA cricket</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Examples of coach learning and development interview questions</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Coach-administrator interview transcript</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 The formation of South African cricket

In 1909, South Africa (SA), alongside Australia and England, became a founding member of the Imperial Cricket Conference (now International Cricket Council or ICC). The ICC was originally formed to set out a formal set of rules and regulations that would govern matches between these three countries ([www.icc-cricket](http://www.icc-cricket)). Even as a founding member, SA's membership to the ICC was removed, when in May 1961 SA withdrew from the Commonwealth (Gemmell as in Majumdar & Mangan, 2004). Following this, the 1970’s were a time of sporting isolation for SA sports teams, with SA's application to re-join the ICC in 1978 being rejected ([www.icc-cricket](http://www.icc-cricket)) due to a general unwillingness, on behalf of the authorities, to compete against any team that was not made up of all white players. Even though other nations: the West Indies, New Zealand and India joined the ICC prior to sporting SA actions, SA had only ever played cricket test matches against England, Australia and New Zealand (Gemmell, 2004).

As a counteraction to sporting isolation, and in an attempt to appease its sports mad population, SA sports administrators offered large sums of money to entice unofficial international teams to play unsanctioned Test and One-day international matches in SA (May, 2009). The ensuing rebel tours between 1982 and 1990 by England, Sri Lanka, the West Indies and Australia to apartheid SA have been ranked as some of the sports most extraordinary events, with the period sparking a significant crisis in international cricket (May, 2009). The rebel tours caused great outrage and condemnation, forcing the ICC in 1989 to instigate a set of rules to ban from Test cricket any players with sporting links with SA ([www.icc-cricket](http://www.icc-cricket)). It was during the time of the last English rebel tour (1989-90) that SA’s president, F.W. de Klerk, began negotiating the release of Nelson Mandela from Robben Island prompting a number of significant changes to the governance of SA cricket.

During SA’s isolation from international cricket, the domestic game was run by three different organisations; the SA Cricket Association (SACA), the SA Board of Cricket Control (SABOC) and the SA Cricket Board (SACB). SABOC was formed in 1947 to administer games amongst the Black, Coloured and Indian populations (Odendaal, 1977 as cited in Nauright, 2010). In 1976 the decision was taken to merge all three organisations and form one board to govern cricket in SA,
the SA Cricket Union (SACU). Unfortunately, this was not recognised by SABOC who decided to set up a separate board, the SA Cricket Board (SACB). Prompted by the pending release of Nelson Mandela, and the subsequent political power-sharing negotiations between the African National Congress (ANC) and SA’s ruling National Party (NP), in the December of 1990 the black governed SACB agreed to merge with the white governed SACU to form the United Cricket Board of SA (UCBSA or UCB), becoming the first sport to reach full unity (Nauright, 2010). Following this, on the 10th July 1991, SA was readmitted to full membership of the ICC (Gemmell, 2004), with the national cricket team first to return to international competition, with a tour to India in November 1991.

Few sporting environments exhibit such a connection between politics and sport. To explain this point, cricket and rugby were imported from Britain, to SA by the military personnel, administrators and settlers who colonised the country (Nauright, 2010). White cricket became entrenched in segregated schools and clubs throughout SA with the formation of the SA Cricket Association (SACA) in 1890. Cricket was then regarded as the imperial game, that not only ignored black cricketing aspirations, but became a symbol of division amongst the white SAs, leading to the Afrikaaner nationalists choosing to support rugby during the apartheid years (Nauright, 2010). Laubscher and Nieman, 1990 (as cited in Nauright, 2010) explained that the SA rugby team gave themselves the nickname ‘Springboks’ on their 1906 tour of the United Kingdom. No real evidence could be found, however, about when and why the adoption of the Springbok emblem in cricket came about.

During apartheid, there were many symbols of white oppression; the national flag, the national anthem and the national emblem, namely the Springbok. Interestingly, after reconciliation, it was only the national flag that was replaced in its entirety. The national anthem (Die Stem) was still included in a new anthem, made up of three languages, English, Afrikaans and Xhosa. As for the Springbok, all sports by the mid-1990’s, with the notable exception of rugby, had replaced the Springbok with the King Protea. Cricket was one of the first. To date, the national rugby team retains the Springbok on the team jersey, alongside the King Protea.

1.2 Structure and governance of South African cricket

Cricket SA’s (CSA) General Council is the policy controlling body of SA cricket, appointing a number of sub-committees who consult with the operational
sections within SA cricket. The General Council of the UCB voted in the September of 2003 to drastically cut the 11 professional teams that made up the domestic first class and limited overs competition to 6 franchises (Louw, 2010). Up until this period all cricket in SA was competed within a provincial structure. The decision to reduce the number of teams was taken because of the considerable losses incurred, due to revenue and gate money not sufficiently covering the costs of running the professional domestic competitions (Louw, 2010). The decision was also judged on increasing the performance of the national team and to close the perceived gap between provincial and international cricket (Louw, 2010).

The Mutual & Federal SA Cricket Annual 2004 (Bryden, 2004) explained the gravity of the structure change, why this change took place and what this would mean to the game in SA cricket.

‘The most important change in SA cricket since the formation of the United Cricket Board will be put to a thorough test in the coming season when professional domestic cricket is contested by six franchise teams…There can be no doubt that having 11 teams in the major competition, as was the case for five seasons, diluted the standard of play and made for unwieldy programming…An anomaly of the new system is that the 11 provincial affiliates will continue to play cricket that will be classified as first class, although it will be amateur. A positive aspect of this change, however, is that it again will create an opportunity for talented cricketers with careers outside the game to make a mark at provincial level.’ (Editors Notes, pp7-8)

The rationale for changing the long-standing history of SA provincial cricket from an 11-team system to a 6-team franchise system was also commented on (Bryden, 2004).

‘One of the main reasons for introducing the franchise system was to improve the standard of play, thereby reducing the gap between domestic cricket and the international game, and the national selectors should get a much better idea of the relative merits of players when they see how they perform in a tougher environment.’ (Editors Notes, p7)

The new franchise structure also came with a restructuring of the amateur competition, increasing the number of affiliate (provincial) teams from 11 to 16. The rationale behind this move was to improve the feeder system for players from the amateur to the professional levels (Louw, 2010).
The restructuring of the domestic competition structure was followed by a number of decisions surrounding the structure and governance of SA cricket, such as the formation of Cricket SA (Pty) Ltd to function as the commercial arm of the UCB, and for Cricket SA (CSA) to convert to a section-21 company (an association not for gain) in terms of the Companies Act (1973) (Louw, 2010). Following an enquiry by the General Council into the financial activity of the then UCB Chief Executive Officer (CEO), it was uncovered that there were no written policies or procedures relating to the financial affairs of the board. This investigation, and other general allegations of mismanagement, poor governance and general incompetence involved in the governance of various national sports organisations, prompted a call for sports administrators to sign up to the principles and procedures of good governance and practices outlined in the King (I, II, III) Reports of Corporate Governance (Louw, 2010). Following this, a decision was taken by the General Council for all activities and stakeholders to be governed by the King II Report (CSA 2006/07 Annual Report). Interestingly, the current structure does not apply all the principles of the updated King III Report, with notable omissions such as no board of executives and the majority of board members being non-independent. At the moment the Members Council (formerly the General Council) holds the highest decision-making power in SA cricket. The Members Council consists of 12 Affiliate Presidents, of which seven of them sit, with five independent directors, to form the CSA Board of Directors (www.csa.co.za). The Board of Directors control the strategic direction of CSA, while the Members Council set the general policy for SA cricket. When denoting any management or strategic decision-making at CSA level throughout this thesis, the Board of Directors who control the strategic direction of SA cricket, will be referred to.

The strategic plan of a business will usually be laid out in the company’s annual reports. Johnson, Scholes & Whittington (2008) explain that an organisations’ mission statement and vision statement addresses the purpose and strategic direction of the organisation. A mission statement aims to converge the purpose of the organisation, and the strategy adopted relates to its purpose. A vision statement, on the other hand, is more aspirational and sets out the view of the future in order to gain commitment and increase performance (Johnson et al., 2008). Mission statements were more widely accepted after the 2000’s and have been criticised for being wide-ranging and lacking impact, however in this case the
CSA mission statement provides a point of reference for discussion, relating to the fundamentals of the organisation and its' intended function (Johnson et al., 2008).

CSA vision statement is outlined in the CSA 2010/11 Annual Report as;

1. To ensure that cricket is supported by the majority of SA’s and available to all those who want to play it.
2. To pursue excellence at all levels of the game.

The mission statement is listed below:

1. Promoting and protecting the game and its unique spirit in the context of a democratic SA
2. Basing our activities on fairness, which includes inclusivity and non-discrimination
3. Accepting SA’s diversity as a strength
4. Delivering outstanding, memorable events
5. Providing excellent service to Affiliates, Associates and Stakeholders
6. Optimising commercials rights and properties on behalf of its Affiliates and Associates
7. Implementing good governance based on King 2, and matching diligence, honesty and transparency to all our activities
8. Actively marketing cricket from Mini Cricket to the Proteas

1.3 Sporting success

Understandably, due to the political ideologies at the time, SA’s international sporting competitiveness, barring crickets ‘rebel’ tours against ageing opposition, was not consistently tested against the best in the world. However, after decades of sporting isolation, the competitive world of international sport re-opened to SA in 1991. Success on the cricket field soon followed when in 1992 the SA cricket team progressed to the World Cup semi-final. Other SA sports were equally successful with the football team winning the African Nations Cup in 1994 and the national rugby team celebrating winning the Rugby World Cup the following year (Nauright, 2010). It is important to note that, at the time, both the Africa Nations Cup and the Rugby World Cup were both hosted in SA. SA has always been a sport loving country. Commentators, such as Nauright (2010) even described SA’s cricketing
success at the 1992 World Cup, and the announcement that the All Blacks and Australian rugby teams would tour in late 1992 assisted in helping the vote to continue negotiations with the ANC in adopting a new constitution.

SA re-entry to international cricket was hastily organised, however for many it was too speedy and removed important political leverage that required time to negotiate, such as the racial make-up of the national team. At this point it was an all white team, however administrators were in a predicament. If there were no tours, there was no money for the development of the game in socially deprived areas. Unhappy with the speed at which transformation of the racial make-up of the national team was occurring, in 1997 the ANC formulated a more aggressive approach to affirmative action, with quotas being introduced to accelerate the process. Since then racial quotas (or targets) have received much debate, the UCB even stopped the enforcement of quotas for the national and provincial teams in 2002, only for quota’s to be reinstated not long after (Gemmell, 2004). In 2007, 25 national players, including black players, delivered a memorandum to CSA, outlining that the quota system was damaging the game (Desai & Vahed, 2015). The black players had felt there was stigma attached to being viewed as a ‘quota’ player. Currently, quota systems across all teams are still in place 19 years since being enforced.

In a ruling that affected cricket in both SA and England, on the 8th May 2003, the European Courts of Justice ruled in favour of Maros Kolpak a Slovakian handball player who was successful in winning a legal battle to play in Germany (Deasi & Vahed, 2015). This ruling subsequently allowed for the free movement of sports people across the European Union (EU), regardless of sports organisations restrictions. Maros Kolpak not being from the EU, but rather from a country with a trading relationship with the EU, opened up similar opportunities for sportspeople in other countries with the same trading relationship, such as SA, Zimbabwe and parts of the West Indies to exploit (Desai & Vahed, 2015). Desai & Vahed (2015) reported at the time that around 50 SA cricketers have used the Kolpak clause, enough for the SA cricketing authorities to worry about the long-term consequences. It may be argued that these political and judicial decisions have led to a significant number of young cricketers leaving SA and seeking opportunities in England and New Zealand, however for the purposes of this thesis, neither of these factors will be addressed in detail.
The choice not to explicitly investigate the effect of quota systems and the Kolpak agreement may be viewed as a significant limitation, however in this case it is viewed positively. The effects of political transformation are unique to a SA sporting environment and, including transformation in the investigation, would diminish the possible generalisability of findings across other sporting environments even further. To add, the scale of the topic may detract from more comparable findings. The decision not to include these factors in no way detracts from the importance of the topic and its effects, however future research may wish to exclusively investigate the impact of transformational change and its effects.

Political ideologies aside, the results of the early and mid-1990’s suggest that the talent development pathways or the development environment that SA had in place during the period of sporting isolation were able to produce international standard athletes. ‘Sport, unlike other areas within the public arena, is not able to assimilate individuals and provide them with a crash course in the skills required to become successful. It requires an immersion in a cultural environment from which individuals acquire technique and develop ability. This has to begin at an early age in the schools’ (Gemmell, 2004, p.32). Through their investigation into conflict across a number of cricketing environments, Gemmell provides a glimpse into the importance of culture in developing sporting excellence in SA.

The sporting and socio-cultural history amongst population groups within SA is extremely complex and is far beyond the scope of this thesis. The normal complexities associated with development environments, coupled with numerous cultural and racial interactions relating to not only past, but current political ideologies and embedded historical significances, makes SA arguably one of the most unique development environments and, therefore, an ideal milieu for further investigation.

1.4 Rationale and aims of thesis

It may be argued that there are fewer sporting environments where politics and sport are so intertwined, however having undergone significant socio-political changes and development, SA remains a strong cricketing nation with a rich and complex sporting history. Interestingly, previous literature has provided very little detail about their sporting structures, without the influence of strong political undertones. Importantly, what we do know is that since 1992 and SA’s re-entry to international competition there has been numerous cricketing successes. These
successes indicate that a strong domestic competition structure would have needed to be in place during apartheid, in order to nurture this competitiveness during sporting isolation. As such, the SA cricket development environment offers a unique opportunity to explore one of SA’s oldest and most established sports more broadly.

This PhD will focus on providing a pragmatic and holistic picture of the SA cricket development environment across four features; Organisational Culture, Structural Change, Coach Development and Coach-Administrator Relationships. Consequently, the aims of this thesis are fourfold:

1. To explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, from the domain of organisational culture management to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment

2. To gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and to investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer

3. To explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression

4. To explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket

Exploring the four aims of this thesis will be achieved using qualitative enquiry and will involve two sets of uniquely experienced participants in order to provide a rich, descriptive and balanced account from multiple standpoints. Due to the unique and in-depth experiences offered by participants, these studies may offer user generalisability (Peshkin, 1993) and could present SA cricket with a practical review and analysis of the SA cricket development environment. In addition, findings could contribute theoretically and conceptually to research and theory generation across the four components under investigation. A more in-depth and critical review of the methodology will be presented in Chapter 3.

1.5 Statement of Purpose

Reflecting on the lack of empirical literature offering 1.) a broad approach to reviewing the functioning of a sports organisation’s development system and 2.) the interaction and coherence of important elements involved in developing successful athletes, the objective of this thesis has two broad outcome drives. The
first driver is to provide a practical and meaningful knowledge and understanding of the SA cricket development system. The second driver is to consider how the practical objectives feed into and influence further theoretical understanding. Consequently, the aims of this thesis are fourfold:

1. To explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, from the domain of organisational culture management to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment

2. To gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and to investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer

3. To explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression

4. To explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket

Driven by these aims, the proposed outcomes of this thesis will be to; a.) offer the first broad exploration of sport organisational culture using the Cultural Web, establishing its credibility and future use to investigate sports organisations; b.) offer initial understanding of a real-world development system and how the effects of sports policy decision-making and associated structural change may affect developmental experiences and trajectories; c.) offer a unique exploration of the development and barriers to the career trajectory of coaches, identifying possible recommendations for coach engagement, coach education and coach development structures; d.) offer original insight into the coach-administrator relationship and establish the importance of this relationship in maintaining effective sports development and e.) identify implications for SA cricket and provide recommendations relating to the effective functioning of the development system and the continued development of international elite level cricketers and coaches.
CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Outline of overview

The aim of this literature review is to provide a background overview of key areas of research that form the foundation of the thesis, specifically the literature relating to; elite sporting systems, sport policy and cultures. Following this, the introduction to each subsequent study will provide a more focused approach, by expanding on the literature for each specific area under investigation. For example, the introduction to Chapter 4 will focus on the literature relating to the Cultural Web, while the introduction to Chapter 5 will focus on literature relating to talent development and talent development environments.

2.1.1 Defining the area under review

For the purposes of simplicity, and in order to best outline and compare past research on effective organisational approaches to elite system development, the literature will be arranged according to De Bosscher & De Knop (2003), De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg & Shibli (2006), and De Bosscher, Bingham, Shibli, van Bottenburg & De Knop (2008), whose conceptual framework for analysing sports policy clustered together the relationship between individual and national success across three levels of analysis; micro-, meso- and macro- levels. It is believed that utilising these three levels provides sufficient clarity on how the variables of analysis differ, but also appreciates that each of these levels does not operate in isolation, as all will be affected in some way by the cultural fabric of that society under investigation.

2.1.2 Organisational effects: Macro-level success factors

Macro-level effects examine factors such as population, wealth and political and economic systems and are therefore concerned more with the cultural contexts in which people reside (De Bosscher & De Knop, 2003; De Bosscher et al., 2006; Sotiriadou & Shilbury, 2009; De Bosscher, Shibli, van Bottenburg, De Knop, Truyens, 2010). For example, many of the studies relating to macro-level effects, the determinants of which may promote or inhibit success, are beyond the control of governments and politicians (De Bosscher et al. 2006; Sotiriadou and Shilbury, 2009). To a greater degree, much of the macro-level research is directed to measuring elite sporting success in the former Eastern Bloc countries (Former Soviet Union) and the German Democratic Republic (GDR) by virtue of outputs...
such as podium spots or international placing achieved, between the 1950's and 1990's. Over this time the Eastern Bloc countries' dominance at Olympic games led to many nations thinking this approach to elite sporting development was to be adopted (Green & Oakley, 2001). The availability of data at macro-level studies can be attributable to government agency related statistical data that is readily available for public access, prompting researchers to adopt a more fiscal proposal behind success. Of these studies a number explain that 50% of the total variance of international success can be attributed to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and population (De Bosscher et al., 2006). Interestingly, De Bosscher et al. (2006) explain that there is little consensus across studies highlighting the effect of factors such as politics, religion, urbanisation and cultural effects.

2.1.3 Organisational effects: Meso-level success factors

Athletes have a greater chance of achieving sporting success if effective policy making informs strategic investment (De Bosscher et al., 2006), therefore in direct contrast to macro-level effects, meso-level effects can be influenced and changed. Meso-level effects are more operational in nature, and relate to the long-term influence of sports policies and the associated implementation of resources through strategic sports programs (De Bosscher et al. 2006; Sotiriadou & Shilbury, 2009). Broadly speaking, meso-level studies may be divided into two areas (Sotiriadou & Shilbury, 2009). The first, considers a number of areas at a holistic organisational level, providing descriptive comparisons across nations in an attempt to uncover differences or similarities (Green & Oakley, 2001; Green & Houlihan, 2005; Riordan, 1991). The second is more contexts specific, providing a more focused approach to the prerequisites for success across nations (Oakley & Green, 2001; Digel, Burk & Farhrner 2006; Green & Houlihan, 2005).

Early meso-level studies were considered largely inductive in nature by utilising documentation across nations competing at elite level. For example, Green and Oakley (2001) employed varied data gathering methods, such as interviews, study visits and a review of secondary sources when exploring the flow of elements within former Eastern Bloc's to the West, more specifically to countries across Europe, North America and Australia. Leading into the 1990's, strategies, predominantly in Australia and to a lesser extent Canada, became more aligned to those development policies already prevailing in the Soviet Bloc and GDR (Houlihan, 1997; Green & Oakley, 2001). This global sporting flow through the migration of policies from the Soviet Bloc and GDR countries was proposed by
Green and Oakley (2001), who pointed towards the adoption of a global model associated with elite sports development. Importantly, even though Green and Oakley (2001) discuss the uniformity or homogeneity of elite sporting systems, there remains a level of associate differences between countries, due to the involvement of government influences that may shape the sports system of a country. For example, Green and Oakley (2001) outline the minimal approach to intervention from the United States (US) government, while France views sport as a public service. It has also been well documented that elite development has been primary policy for the Australian government for decades (Green, 2005).

Critics of early comparative studies, such as Sotiriadou and Shilbury, (2009, p.146) found the measurement between Olympic success and elite development too simplistic, due to the nature of development being ‘multi-faceted and not easily measured’. Likewise, De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg, Shibli, & Bingham (2009) are equally critical of many earlier comparative studies, stating them to be too descriptive and lacking depth of analysis across the critical success factors associated with elite development. Even though early research may be too descriptive and lacking methodological rigour, it does provide a useful account of what elements a strategic elite development system requires for success, even if the environments in question are not directly comparable. In a review of the early meso-related literature, De Bosscher et al. (2006, p194) outline seven characteristics associated with elite sports systems highlighted as significant:

1. Recognition of Physical Education (PE) and sport within constitutional law
2. Early talent spotting in schools
3. High training frequency embedded
4. Training and qualification systems of professional coaches
5. Financial support programmes
6. High priority of applied scientific approach
7. A network of sports medicine

Through their review of Clumper (1994) and Moreland’s (1999) work on the prerequisites of elite systems, Green and Oakley (2001) go further to highlight ten items that elite sports systems require in order to be successful.
1. A clear understanding about the roles of different agencies involved and an effective communication network maintaining the system.
2. Simplicity of administration through common sporting and political boundaries
3. An effective system for statistical identification and monitoring of talented and elite athletes.
4. Provision of sports services to create an excellent culture in which all members of the team (athletes, coaches, managers, scientists) can interact with one another in a formal and informal way.
5. Well-structured competitive programs with ongoing international exposure.
6. Well developed and specific facilities with priority access for elite athletes
7. The targeting of resources in a relatively small number of sports through identifying these that have a real chance of success at world level.
8. Comprehensive planning for each sports needs.
9. A recognition that excellence costs, with appropriate funding for infrastructure and people; and
10. Lifestyle support and preparation for life after sport

Latterly, Sotiriadou and Shilbury, (2009) together with the work of Martin, Arin, Palakshappa, & Chetty (2005, as cited in Sotiriadou and Shilbury, 2009) suggested that in order for elite success to occur certain elements need to be in place, such as:

1. Sport science, talent identification and coaching
2. Specific strategies and programs for those competing at international level
3. The impact to create interest from sponsors, governments, spectators, participants and to motivate the athletes

Similarly, De Bosscher et al. (2009) confirmed earlier findings by Green and Oakley (2001) and Green and Houlihan (2005) that many countries were taking an increasingly similar approach to elite development. Since the turn of the millennium, there has been a significant increase in both the number and diversity of nations across the breadth of the world taking greater interest in the development of elite sporting systems (Green & Collins, 2008) with many governments viewing sport as a way to target non-sporting objectives such as community development, social cohesion, education and health related policies (Houlihan, 1997; Green & Houlihan, 2005). A significant effect of this is that
governments, through large financial investment, begin to intervene, leading to an institutionalisation of the development system (Green & Houlihan, 2005; De Bosscher et al., 2009).

Interestingly, many of these non-sporting objectives, promoted by governments in the West, may be viewed as similar to those strategies adopted by communist utilitarian governments wishing to instigate social change through sport (Riordan, 1990). It is for this reason that De Bosscher et al. (2009) state that it is near impossible to formulate a successful comparative meso-related model, because even if you are able to control the macro-related variables, such as wealth and population, there is no way to control the ethereal related elements of traditions and cultural effects. Similarly Houlihan and Green (2008) explain that one way to signify homogeneity of development systems across nations is for those nations who have differing cultural and economic backdrops to have similar development structures, but as De Bosscher et al. (2009) state, there is so little scope to vary policy instruments and that similarity across nations may be unavoidable, irrespective of cultural fit. Due to the difficulty in comparing countries’ development systems, and not only aspects surrounding cultural fit and uniqueness, there exists a lack of standardised research methodology (Henry, Amara, Al-Tauqi, & Lee, 2005) that offers a robust approach to cross-national research (De Bosscher et al., 2010).

2.1.4 Organisational effects: Micro-level success factors

In contrast to the meso-level studies relating to policy-level decisions, a number of studies have taken a more micro-level from within approach in trying to ascertain any distinguishing factors leading to success. Micro-level effects are concerned with the individual nature of development, and outline both genetic and environmental factors relating to elite sporting success (De Bosscher et al., 2006; Sotiriadou and Shilbury, 2009; De Bosscher et al., 2010). Again, the Olympic Games was the environment under examination, with the commissioning of large scale studies by the United States Olympic Committee investigating both negative and positive factors influencing performance. Upon reviewing the four related studies commissioned, Fletcher & Wagstaff (2009), found a common theme emerged. The participants taking part in the first two commissioned studies were the athletes and coaches, with data collection involving focus groups and in-depth interviews. The findings relating to poor performance from the first two studies were; poor team cohesion, planning and travel problems and perceived problems
relating to coaching, media distractions. Positive findings related to; participation in resident training programmes, perceived support, utilising support, support facilitation and high quality coach-athlete relationships (Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, & Medbery, 1999; Greenleaf, Gould, & Dieffenbach, 2001). A survey methodology was utilised for the third and fourth studies, involving athletes and coaches separately, in an attempt to consider trends across the factors thought to influence performance. Similarly, organisational-related factors, perceived important by the athletes included; positive coach-athlete relationships, cohesion, positive perceptions of coach’s expectations and abilities to crisis control. The coaches perceived strong team cohesion, lessening of distractions and fair team selection parameters (Gould, Guinan, Greenleaf, & Chung, 2002; Gould, Greenleaf, Chung, & Guinan, 2002). A significant factor across all the four studies highlights the importance of organisational culture and climate (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009), for example the importance attached to strong team cohesion, positive coach-athlete relationships and support are considered important factors in creating a positive motivational climate (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009).

The accelerated importance and associated growth of elite performance environments has resulted in a significant increase in sports psychology researchers emphasising the impact of organisational stressors on the overall success of elite performers (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009). Subsequent research identifying environmental demands in world and Olympic athletes by Fletcher and Hanton (2003) and Fletcher, Hanton, & Mellalieu (2006), developed a three-level hierarchical framework of organisational stressors. The general dimensions were: factors intrinsic to the sport, roles of the sports organisation, sports relationships and interpersonal demands, athletic career and performance development issues, organisational structure and climate of the sport (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009).

2.2 An integrated approach

In addressing the methodological issues surrounding measuring the effectiveness of elite sports systems, De Bosscher et al. (2006) offer a conceptual framework for analysing Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success (SPLISS). The SPLISS is a comprehensive model acknowledging key drivers that can be influenced by sports policies (De Bosscher et al., 2009). In accordance with the multidimensional approach to measure effectiveness of national sporting agencies (Chelladurai, Szyszlo, & Haggerty, 1987; Chelladurai,
the model is set across two-levels and is clustered into nine areas, or pillars, that are considered important across the stages of athletic development. The first level, **Inputs** (Pillar 1 and Pillar 2) relates to the financial support for sport and elite sports and also to the integrated approach to policy development. This level focuses on strategies that introduce individuals to sports, operating on the basic assumption that governments that spend more have a better chance of allowing athletes to train under prime conditions (De Bosscher et al., 2006).

![Diagram showing the Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success](image)

**Figure 2.1: The Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success (De Bosscher et al., 2006)**

The management of the 2\(^{nd}\) level, **Throughputs**, is important and requires effective communication and clear task descriptions (Clumper, 1994) together with simplicity of administration across organisational boundaries (Oakley & Green, 2001) in order to best increase the chances of significant **Outputs** (De Bosscher et al., 2006; De Bosscher et al., 2009). As noted by Green and Houlihan (2005), certain approaches are important at the development stage (Pillar 4), with these specifically relating to the importance of good training facilities (Pillar 6), coach provision and development (Pillar 7), and should be viewed as important at the
national and international competition stage (Pillar 8). As athletes progress along the development path towards elite performance, and in order to remain ahead of other nations in terms of outputs, so the importance of integrating a scientific approach (Pillar 5) becomes.

Another important resource to consider is the life of the athlete after sport and De Bosscher et al. (2006), alongside Wylleman and Lavallee (2004); Henriksen, Stambulova, Roessler (2010a); Henriksen, Stambulova, Roessler (2010b) and Henriksen & Roessler (2011), deem it important to consider the athlete once their elite career is over in the hope of utilising that experience in the most productive way. An important aspect of the SPLISS is that in order to effectively produce consistent outputs, a coherent, integrated and long term approach is required (De Bosscher et al., 2006).

De Bosscher et al.'s (2006) findings were specific to European countries and related to gathering data from countries competing in Olympic events, therefore it may be argued that these findings are narrow and defined to those countries that may view sports development in a similar light. Due to their proximity to each other, it may be possible to share ideas far more easily, with the mobility of labour across sports development environments being more fluid due to labour laws across the European Union, increasing the likelihood of successful policy-related strategies being passed from country to country. Inclusively, the findings relate to countries’ performances at an Olympic Games and are therefore more concerned with funding and policy-related issues for those sports operating on a four-year development cycle. The development cycle of Olympic sports may be considerably different from sports such as cricket whose elite performance is linked to continuous competitions, due to differences in seasonal variances across competing nations.

Notwithstanding the points noted above, De Bosscher et al. (2009) explain that even if a country does not score well across a number of the nine pillars they are still able to gain success because certain countries make a conscious decision to allocate resources to certain aspect over that of another. Importantly they also explain that each countries’ development systems may have emerged after years of cultural patterns (De Bosscher et al., 2009; Digel et al., 2006), arguing that even though there is an increased level of homogeneity to elite development systems, each may still be unique and related to the cultural, economic and historical fabric of that country (De Bosscher et al., 2009).
In a number of the later studies and in particular those conducted by De Bosscher et al. (2008); De Bosscher et al. (2009); De Bosscher et al. (2010) it emerged that many of the variables controlled for, were meso-level variables and those having an affect related more to macro-level effects, such as economic stability, health care, education policies, which were not intentionally included in their nine-pillar model, but could be controlled for. While providing this objective comparison De Bosscher et al. (2009) indicated that macro-level factors, of which population and wealth are identified as the most important, found key elements associated at the micro-level were missing ‘from previous attempts to model sports policy influences on success was the involvement of athletes and supplemented by sports coaches who they named as the key stakeholders in delivering their nations success’ (De Bosscher et al. 2009, p.114). It is this area of elite sports development that sports psychologists have concentrated, focusing on the psychological states of individual elite performers mental state, motivations, beliefs, emotions, mental toughness, resilience and coping strategies in an attempt to better performance. Increasingly these factors cannot solely be controlled for due to the athlete being influenced by the environment around them (Hardy, Jones, & Gould, 1996; Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009).

As athletes progress from novice to elite, a number of them will drop out of the sport, leaving only a few to reach elite level. In this way the SPLISS forms a pyramid, as athletes progress through Pillars 3, 4 and 5 (De Bosscher et al., 2006). The funding of elite development pathways for the overall benefit of a few, over that of funding requirements to drive mass participation can create tensions along the athlete development pathway (De Bosscher, Sotiriadou & van Bottemburg, 2013; Houlihan & Green, 2008; van Bottenburgh, 2003). Conventionally, mass participation and elite development were to be viewed as dependent on one another (De Bosscher et al., 2013). This depiction of the pyramid metaphor is for those sports that require a large participation base (input) in order to form the stable underlying structure of a hierarchical staged progression to elite status. The mutual dependency proposition lies in the fact that young aspiring athletes will be drawn along the development path in the hope of gaining recognition and elite status (De Bosscher et al., 2013). In terms of sports psychology literature, the pyramid metaphor or Standard Model for Talent Development (SMTD) (Bailey & Collins, 2013) has received much criticism. In practice, much of the criticism leveled against the SMTD is due to the model focusing solely on progressing those
adolescent athletes identified as talented (Bailey & Collins, 2013). Identification, often too early, can lead to a number of individuals being removed from the system, even though they meet the identifiable standard later on (Bailey, Leigh, Pierce & Reeves, 2011; Bailey & Collins, 2013.)

Inclusively, the pyramid metaphor also receives criticism as being a driver for sports policy decision-making. Significant government investment is rarely questioned due to the largely accepted benefits associated with elite sports, however as mass participation and elite development begin to diverge, pressure is placed on which of these two functions are to receive government backing (De Bosscher at al., 2013), making it specifically important for governing bodies who use the pyramid metaphor to drive policy decision-making effectively.

2.3 Culture and sports policy

Common themes running through organisational level analysis of elite development systems relates to the environmental context in which the data is collected. When referring to context in this instance, a significant gap in the sport organisational literature relates to both the cultural aspects of the nation or organisation in question, together with the specific details relating to the development environment outlined by SPLISS and the subsequent pyramid metaphor.

There does seem to be consensus that organisational level effects do not behave in isolation and that one level effect can influence another (Green, 2005), however there is very little literature relating to how the various developmental elements operating at the micro-level, such as schools, clubs, academies, semi-professional and professional environments interact in developing individuals from novice beginnings at mass participation through to elite level performance. Apart from these details, there remains very little literature relating to the importance of culture associated with the development system and how this may have an influence on elite success.

The development environments throughout the sports organisational literature, in particular the work of Green and Oakley (2001) and De Bosscher et al. (2006), outlined earlier, are very descriptive in nature. For example, Green and Oakley (2001) mention that ‘provision of sports services to create a excellent culture’, together with a ‘clear understanding about the roles of different agencies involved and an effective communication network maintaining the system’ are
required for elite success. Within the structure of the SPLISS De Bosscher et al. (2006) explains that Pillar 4 ‘Talent Identification and Development System’ holds a subset of elements, with one of them being Pillar 8 ‘International/National competition’, in order for success to occur. Across these two pieces of work, very little detail is provided for ‘how’ these elements would interact successfully in order for an individual to progress. Even though the SPLISS model is described as one of the more inclusive of the factors impacting on elite performance, it has been described as too generic and not sport specific (Sotiriadou, Gowthorp & De Bosscher, 2013) with the critical success factors or key determinants of success being different across sports or certain types of sports (De Bosscher, 2007; Larose & Haggerty, 1996) and it stands to reason that even though these factors may be evident, the way they are implemented or utilised in driving success is as important (Sotiriadou et al., 2013). With that in mind, very few answers are given to both the questions ‘what’ or ‘how’ the culture surrounding a specific sport may be a driver of performance.

As previously mentioned, elite sport culture has not been included in a number of sports organisational studies due to it not being influenced by policy decisions (De Bosscher, 2007). In a later study, Houlihan (2009) utilised the SPLISS model and included culture as a contextual factor because as De Bosscher et al. (2009) explain, each country will implement sports policies differently which will be dependent on their cultural fit. Barring Oakley and Green (2001) and Houlihan, Bloyce & Smith (2009) many other meso-level studies have justified the exclusion of culture due to the lack of influence any policies may have over culture as a factor of success. The premise that organisational culture should be regarded as a critical success factor is because it is a well documented feature associated with organisational success. Numerous authors have outlined the importance of culture impacting on staff behaviours, attitudes, values and beliefs (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2007; Martin, 1992) which in turn leads to the completion of organisational goals and influences organisational performance. Organisational culture can also lead to organisational effectiveness and can increase the quality of service delivery and product enhancement (Klein, Bigley, & Roberts, 1995) that in turn can lead to a competitive advantage (Barney, 1986). Inclusively, culture can also be articulated at an individual and a team level, more specifically through the investigation of team cohesion (Carron, Colman, Wheeler & Stevens, 2002). Other than the organisational level, culture can also be expressed at the national and
global level (Erez & Gati, 2004) and it is for this reason organisational and team culture can be explored and fashioned by policies (Oakley & Green, 2001 as cited in Sotiriadou et al., 2013).

In a qualitative study investigating the sport policy interrelationships, Sotiriadou et al. (2013) examined the Australian Olympic Sprint Canoe environment with the hope of providing a link between sports policies and performance. In their analysis, Sotiriadou et al. (2013) utilises the SPLISS policy factors together with Houlihan et al.’s (2009) policy classification that includes culture in its analysis. Through utilising the SPLISS model, interrelationships and links were found, in particular the link between culture and talent identification and between talented athletes and coaches (Sotiriadou et al., 2013). As outlined by De Bosscher et al. (2009), each country will have its own specific characteristics and cultural background that need to be taken into account. Evidence of this existed with the Australian laid back approach to talent identification being reflected in the Australian Sprint Canoe environment drawing much of its talent from surf lifesaving, which is significantly different approach to that of the Europeans. In addition, Sotiriadou et al. (2013) found that cultural differences between Australian athletes and European coaches created conflict due to differences in the perception of values, expectations and beliefs. Interestingly, Sotiriadou et al. (2013) highlighted that cultural differences such as these require an understanding of the prevailing culture, to not only minimise conflict, but to try and retain a competitive advantage. They conclude that policy-makers or sports administrators influencing organisational transparency and communication should work towards reducing these instances of cultural conflict.

This study provides insight into the elite sprint canoe environment and the interaction of elite sports policies and the development of a competitive culture, however, unsurprisingly, the findings from this research lack generalisability, as it only relates to an Australian context. As mentioned previously, culture is unique to a country and a system, so if this study was conducted on another sporting environment and a similar method utilised, the outcome may be slightly different. Another limitation of this study is that the environment under investigation was narrow, and focused on elite level strategies and for this reason it did not consider the interaction of developmental elements along the development pathway. For example, it was documented that the Australian Sprint Canoe talent identification system relied on cross-discipline selection from surf-lifesaving. It is this selection
process that may be described as confined and narrow and therefore may only provide strategies that may be utilised at elite level. It does not uncover the culture that may permeate through any other developmental elements, such as the school and club environments and how these may/or may not interact to develop sprint canoeists.

As a collective, it is these bodies of work that establish a significance of how meso-level effects can impact on the development and maintenance of the micro-level effects and stress the importance of how changes and the adoption of un-reviewed and untested policies may impact on the micro-environment over the medium to long term. It should no longer be the case, that organisational-level research focusing on governance and sports-policies is mutually exclusive from micro-level factors. Fletcher and Wagstaff (2009, p.428) refer to this as the ‘twilight zone’ that ‘envelops the organisational culture and climate in elite sport, together with how personnel and the environment are managed, and how individuals and the team interact with the broader organisation’. The importance of effective organisational functioning is of vital importance to sports performance and it should be stressed that individual and group performance and organisational performance should be viewed symbiotically. The structural elements of a development pathway and their complex and sensitive interaction may be an important factor on participation levels and the development of an elite athlete. For, in addition to being able to provide a favourable environment for the development of crucial individual skills and characteristics, it requires flexibility and continuity in an interrelated environment in order to promote conditions associated with elite development.

2.4 Constructing successful sporting cultures

The positive effect that organisational culture has in assisting the development of optimal performing behaviours is well researched in the organisational domain. Studies that have investigated culture within sporting environments have included; sports policy and sporting structures (Green and Oakley, 2001; De Bosscher et al., 2006), talent development (Henriksen, et al, 2010a; Henriksen, et al, 2010b; Henriksen et al., 2011), coach leadership behaviours (Schroeder, 2010) and change management (Cruickshank, Collins & Minten, 2012a; Cruickshank & Collins, 2012b; Cruickshank & Collins, 2013). Many of these studies provide unique insight into the functioning of High Performance
(HP) environments, but offer only a narrow view of HP cultures in what may be described as a contained environment. Studies to date have not offered a view of how these environments interact with the broader sporting context.

For example, in comparing the interaction associated with a successful talent development environment, Henriksen et al. (2010a & 2010b) introduce two working models, the Athletic Talent Development Environment (ADTE) and the Environment Success Factors (ESF). Central to the ESF model are three levels of organisational culture, with the first being *cultural artefacts*. Henriksen and colleagues adopt Schein’s (1992) view that organisational culture acts as a guide for both existing and new group members to achieve collective enactment. They refer to *cultural artefacts* as forming part of the stories and myths that become the fabric of the environment. The second, *espoused values* represents the norms, principles and standards that the organisation wishes to externalise to the outside and lastly, those *basic assumptions* that represent the unspoken agreements that have control of the way things are done around here (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). The success of the ATDE is incumbent on the ESF working model integrating successfully across the three elements of human, material and financial interactions (preconditions), the daily routines (process) and individual development and achievements (team achievements) (Henriksen, et al, 2010a; Henriksen & Roessler, 2011).

Since its inception, the ATDE working model has been adapted across a number of sports and sporting environments (Henriksen et al., 2010a; 2010b and Henriksen & Roessler, 2011). It was found that certain factors assisted these environments in being successful; a) A strong organisational culture existing throughout the organisation and all aspects of its daily functions b) The sharing of information and knowledge across athletes and coaches in what is traditionally a secretive environment c) A focus on performance and long-term development over early results d) A high level of cohesion; there is evidence of espoused values transcending into enacted values with members of the group displaying the behaviours the group members try and instill e) Individuals developing psychosocial competencies, such as responsibility and social skills.

These findings assist in adding to the literature and importance of cultural development, however it must be concluded that the environments under investigation were narrow and confined, allowing for the development of culture to take place. It may be argued the environment that the flat water kayaking team
(Henriksen & Roessler, 2011) operated in allowed for a balanced and consistent approach to athletic development. For example, the athletes developing coping strategies to aid the transitions between the school and the club may have been successful because of a close and coordinated approach between these two environments. In addition, the kayak club functioned well, even though it was under financed, this was because the facility required for kayaking was a natural resources and did not require installation or significant investment in order for the club to function, allowing resources to be allocated effectively in order to fund development activities.

Very few team sports, such as cricket, have the benefit of locale that the kayak club or the 49ers sailing club had, thus allowing for elements within the micro and macro environments to be controlled and measured, thus positively influencing development. Under normal circumstances, the development of a cricketer at school may be completely separated from their development in the club environment, which in turn may be different from the national governing body controlled academy environment, making transition and negotiation across each of environments a potential challenge for the athlete. In addition to that, the strategies employed by coaching staff would be more manageable in a contained environment with less developmental elements. For example, if sports development pathways function only between the school and club, coaches operating in such a system would find it easier to employ an individualised approach to athletic development. They may also find it far less challenging to employ strategies to enhance cohesion, by being able to deliver a consistent and coordinated message more effectively.

Other studies, such as Fletcher and Streeter (2016), Fletcher & Arnold (2011), Arnold et al. (2012) and Schroeder (2007), focus on the perceptions of National Performance Director’s (NDP) and coaches alone, providing little detail on how these HP mechanisms are managed in terms of communication structures, power and control from the perspective of athletes, support staff or more importantly, superior decision-makers. For example, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012), concentrate on the perceptions of managing and leading in an Olympic environment. This makes findings difficult to generalise, as Olympic HP environments are unique in their structure and function when compared to mainstream development pathways, such as that of cricket. Even though the Olympic environment is unique when compared to other development pathways,
studies such as Arnold et al. (2012) do offer insight into the importance of culture in achieving effective performance. For example, four higher order themes emerged from the interview procedure; 1) Vision 2) Operations 3) People and 4) Culture. The interaction of the four themes was important for effective performance across the group. The NPD’s stressed it important to create and communicate a clear vision and for this vision to act as shared aspiration to enhance team unity on the way to collectively achieving this vision. Being able to achieve this vision was underpinned and aligned by performance and process goals at an organisational, team and individual level by continual assessment of both internal and internal demands (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011).

As international sporting success becomes ever more important, head coaches and mangers of elite sports performance environments are under increasing internal (Boards of Directors, CEO’s) and external pressure (sponsors, fans, media) to produce results in a time-constrained environment. Not only is it necessary to manage the complexity of this environment effectively, the HP manager or head coach currently lacks context specific guidance at their disposal to manage this change over crucial periods (Cruickshank & Collins, 2012a; Cruickshank & Collins, 2012b Cruickshank and Collins, 2013). In attempting to reduce the lack of both theoretical and practical understanding of establishing and sustaining optimal HP cultures, Cruickshank, Collins & Minten (2013a) investigated a successful culture change programme at a Professional English Rugby Union team, Leeds Carnegie. Findings suggested that the change process was by no means linear in nature, but rather one that was both a dynamic and assimilated process. A number of general findings emerged as important, such as; 1) Establishing an understanding of the environment 2) Long-term objectives 3) Planning for objective attainment. In addition, a few key practical implications arose. It was found that in order to optimise individual and group decision-making, environmental contexts were shaped to suit, outlining that the potential key to prolonged success was best achieved by generating and encouraging contexts that promote performance-optimising behaviours. Within the context of Leeds Carnegie, this was achieved by being able to recognise the possibility of raised anxiety levels created by the instability of change, and reducing this by managing team motivations and controlling the power balance between team management, staff and superiors. It may be argued that these findings are similar to those
described by Sotiriadou et al. (2013), who stressed organisational transparency and communication as important factors in reducing potential conflict situations.

2.5 Next steps

This overview raises a number of factors deemed important to the development of effective elite sports development systems. Firstly and broadly speaking, the meso-level sports organisational researchers highlight the following:

- Emphasise the importance of a coordinated approach to sports policy decision-making.
- Outline a system of elements (financial resources, coach development, talent development and identification system, international competition) required in order for it to be successful (Sotiriadou and Shilbury, 2009; De Bosscher et al., 2009).
- The contextual nature of each country’s specific characteristics and cultural background (De Bosscher et al., 2009).
- The homogenous nature of modern sports development systems irrespective of cultural fit (Green & Oakley, 2001; Green and Houlihan, 2005; De Bosscher et al., 2009).

Seemingly, the meso-level studies provide little detail across a number of points.

- They only offer a broad description of each structural element and do not offer any information on the constituent parts of each.
- They do not offer any detail on how each may interact at a practical level in producing elite performance, especially between the mass participation and elite performance levels.

At a micro-level, studies such as Fletcher and Streeter (2016), Cruickshank et al. (2013a), Cruickshank, Collins, & Minten (2014), Fletcher and Arnold (2011), Henriksen et al. (2010a; 2010b), Henriksen & Roessler (2011), present insightful analysis of the effective functioning of HP environments and the importance of culture as a factor of this. Unfortunately, in relation to the aims of this thesis, these studies only provide guidance to those HP environments operating at similar stages in the elite development path, rather than being able to offer guidance as to how they fit and are managed within the broader sporting pathway structure.
This overview would suggest that further research is required, focusing specifically on the organisational culture of a sports organisation and how this organisation effectively manages and functions within the broader environmental sporting context in order to produce elite performers. Considering the above overview, there is genuine interest in the organisational culture and function of the unique and relatively unexplored nature of the SA cricket development environment.
CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research design

3.1.1 Study aims

This focus of this thesis is to take a pragmatic approach to investigating the SA cricket development environment across four features; Organisational Culture, Structural Change, Coach Development and Coach-Administrator Relationships. Consequently, the aims of this thesis are fourfold and outlined below:

1. To explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, from the domain of organisational culture management to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment

2. To gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer

3. To explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression

4. To explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket

Positivists adopt an objective epistemological and ontological view that assumes a true reality can be measured and understood through the application of scientific measures. It is believed that these findings can be generalised across time and in different contexts, thus representing truths about the world that is not contaminated with social, cultural and historical contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 2000 as cited in Giacobbi Jr, Poczwardowski, & Hager, 2005). At the other end of the epistemological and ontological spectrum, the constructivists embrace a subjective view and one that recognises multiple realities, constructed through the transactions of people and communities in social situations and activities (Giacobbi et al., 2005). In contrast, pragmatists argue that a continuum exists between the subjective and the objective, with the choice depending on the research question and objective of the research process (Creswell, 2003).

The significance of adopting a pragmatic view in relation to the aims of this thesis recognises the importance of past and current social, historical and political
positions influencing the scientific process, stressing it important to evaluate research findings based on their practical, social and moral consequences, as well as their affect on the human condition (Giacobbi et al., 2005). By therefore rejecting a one true reality that is measurable and observable and accepting that one research finding is no more correct than the other, pragmatism accepts researcher bias and prejudice by considering the researcher as a part of the research process and a co-constructor of knowledge (Giacobbi et al., 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016).

With this in mind, a central consideration to initially establish is the practical concern between the researcher and research subject. Patton (1990, p.71) outlines an aim for adopting a pragmatic stance.

‘(A pragmatic stance) aims to supersede one-sided paradigm allegiance by increasing the concrete and practical methodological options available to researchers and evaluators. Such pragmatism means judging the quality of a study by its intended purposes, available resources, procedures followed, and results obtained, all within a particular context and for a specific audience’.

In establishing the practical concern between the researcher and the research subject it is important to recognise the contextual experience of the researcher. The researcher was born in SA and gathered significant and in-depth experience of the provincial age-related provincial development programme at u/13, u/15 and u/19 level. Experience was also gathered at national u/19 and u/21 levels, whilst at the same time gathering professional first class experience at three different provinces from 1990 before leaving SA in 2000.

In recognising the close connection between the researcher and the research subject, there are a number of additional aspects regarding the research process that were influenced by this connection. For example, it is due to the researchers former background as a professional first class cricketer in SA that allowed him access to the uniquely experienced coaches, players and administrators used within each study. In addition, the researcher was also able to access, through personal connection, those participants to whom he had an indirect connection, such as a number of head coaches and Chief Executive Officers (CEOs). In being able to access such uniquely experienced participants increases the opportunity of gaining community agreement and provide practical-level truths that are able to assist in providing meaningful and useful information for SA cricket (Giacobbi et al., 2005).
Importantly, even though the researcher had a close connection to the environment, there were a number of occasions that the initial approach to some participants, such as CEOs, was halted by the gatekeeping process, as a number did not respond to an interview request. When considering the process across all 4 studies, the previous experience gathered from within the SA development environment allowed the researcher to establish, not only a level of credibility with the participants, but also a level of trustworthiness which proved very useful when exploring the more sensitive topics and socio-politically challenging relationships. It may be argued that without this level of experience and connection with the research subject this level of disclosure and access to credible and uniquely experienced participants may not have been achievable.

In addition, the analysis, interpretation and presentation of the data was supported by the experiences and knowledge the researcher had gathered during their previous involvement as a player within all the relevant developmental environments (school, age-related provincial pathway, club, university, academy and provincial) that make up the SA development pathway. The depth of experience gathered not only allowed for an acute understanding of the pre-2004 pathway and viable developmental elements, but also allowed for an understanding of the dynamic and complex interactions and relationships between players, coaches and administrators.

In supporting the researcher, as a co-construct of knowledge, pragmatism allows for the construction of knowledge with an aim of identifying applied artefacts rather than generalised truths (Giacobbi et al., 2005; Savage, Collins, and Cruickshank, 2016; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016), thus permitting the researcher to focus on providing SA cricket with novel and practically meaningful insights (Giacobbi et al., 2005; Morgan, 2007; Cruickshank et al., 2016) across all 4 areas under consideration.

In adopting this approach, a number of factors become intrinsic to the success of achieving the aims outlined above: 1) The nature of methodological enquiry, 2) Where the data collection procedure will take place and 3) The nature and background of the sample.

3.1.2 Qualitative enquiry

Even though a pragmatic philosophy is often associated with a mixed methods approach, by encapsulating both quantitative and qualitative
methodologies (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Cruickshank and Collins, 2016), it was decided that due to the importance of participant perceptions and the explorative nature of this thesis, a qualitative methodology was deemed the most appropriate form of data collection across all 4 studies (Gould et al., 2007; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016).

By utilising a qualitative approach further consistency was established between the pragmatic approach and the close relationship between researcher and research subject (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). In aligning to a pragmatic philosophy, qualitative enquiry allows for an exploratory approach to be adopted, whereby the data collected provides a rich, descriptive account of complex human experiences and in so doing explores the multiple realities from different interpretations of the social world (Silverman, 2000; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011). In this way a qualitative approach is not concerned with creating ‘a correct map’ of the world but rather a useful one (Strean, 1998 cited in Cruickshank and Collins, p. 252). In addition, Denzin and Lincoln (2008) explain that qualitative researchers form an ‘interpretative community’ whereby cultural assumptions play a considerable part in developing an understanding of what is said and how this should be interpreted, thus connecting the researcher, the research process and the participants.

The qualitative process also enables significant amounts of data to be collected, analysed and presented as ‘a unified picture of the phenomenon under study’ (Côté, Salmela, Baria & Russell, 1993, p.130). Thus, the rationale for selecting a qualitative methodology was that it provided a mechanism by which a broad exploration across the areas of organisational culture, structure and structure change, coach development and relationships within the SA cricket system could be conducted. Being able to collect data from various perspectives, by way of interview-based data collection, allowed a topic area to be explored via those who have first hand experience of the phenomenon under investigation (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Arnold et al., 2012).

There are numerous interview techniques that could have been used, however the choice was narrowed by both the nature of the entire thesis and the aims of the research. For example, structured interviews involve the formulation of questions ahead of time, with the intended purpose of asking each participant the same sequence of questions in the same format (Gilbert, Côté, & Mallet, 2009). At the opposite end of the interview spectrum is the unstructured interview (Côté et
al., 1995), focusing on broad areas of investigation and using open-ended questions (Côté et al., 1995). In the middle, the semi-structured interview, offers both a degree of structure by way of pre-determined questions, but also the flexibility to explore areas that may emerge during discussions (Cushion & Jones, 2006; Nash, Sproule, & Horton, 2011). Due to both the structure and the level of flexibility allowed to the researcher, a semi-structured interview technique was used across all four studies.

Even though there is a greater use of the telephone in qualitative enquiry due to the savings in both time and money it offers, it was decided that all interviews were to be conducted face-to-face in SA (Irvine, Drew, & Sainsbury, 2013). Two factors provide the rationale for using face-to-face interviews over that of any other method of enquiry, such as the telephone; 1) A face-to-face interview is able to develop a rapport and naturalness, allowing the interviewee to be more comfortable in providing an open and honest response and 2) Due to the complex nature of the enquiry, face-to-face interviews provide the interviewer more opportunity to explain more clearly, thus providing the interviewee with greater comprehension (Fielding & Thomas, 2008; Irvine et al., 2013).

As this study was to be conducted by way of face-to-face interviews in SA, the next issue was to ensure that the sample was representative of the SA cricket environment, in order to provide a balanced view of the research subject. This aspect imposed significant logistical, financial and time constraints. Securing face-to-face interviews required traveling to and from SA, while attempting to secure a representative sample necessitating extensive travelling and accommodation costs. In addition, due to the nature of cricket being played in the summer months, interviews with prospective participants would need to be conducted in SA over summer playing period, because this dictated all prospective participants would be operating in their environments and not away. These factors not only increased the financial costs, but also made logistical planning both challenging and time constrained, for both interviewer and interviewee.

As logistics, financial costs and time were significant constraints, travelling to and from SA on four separate occasions in order to collect four time points of data was not an option that could be considered. In light of this, it was decided to travel to SA on two separate occasions and collect two sets of qualitative data. The first time point of qualitative data collection would investigate the aims associated with Study 1 and Study 2. The areas under investigation for Study 1
and 2 would be explored from the perspectives of the same participants, by way of two separate semi-structured interview scripts. A second set of participants was identified for the second data collection point, which, upon return to SA, would investigate the aims and objectives associated with Study 3 and Study 4. The areas under investigation for Study 3 and 4 would also be explored from the perspectives of the same set of participants, by way of two separate semi-structured interview scripts.

With regards the financial and time constraints of conducting the data collection for study 1 & 2 and study 3 & 4, considerable effort was made to complete all the interviews for both data collection points over a 3 – 4 week period. This process required significant planning before arriving in SA in order to book a time whereby all participants operating within one region may be interviewed over a single 2-3 day time frame. On occasion, interviews were only finalised upon arrival in SA as, on more than one occasion, the gate keeping procedure slowed up the process of certain individuals confirming participation. There were two instances that involved the gatekeeping process negating any contact with certain individuals. For example, when recruiting for study 1 and 2, the personal assistant operated as gatekeeper for a provincial CEO and member of the CSA Board, however after replying to confirm a meeting no further contact was received. On a separate occasion, when recruiting coaches for study 3 and 4, a performance manager for a franchise acted as gatekeeper when approaching coaches within the franchise, however after sending the participant information sheet no further contact was received. On both of these occasions the opportunity to recruit was significant enough to wait longer for a reply. The impact of this did reduce the potential sample size, however the impact was far more significant on reducing the timing and increasing the organisation and coordination involved in each data collection time frame.

It is for these reasons purposeful sampling was employed across all studies and to select those individuals who could offer multiple perspectives and an in-depth and experienced understanding of the areas under investigation. Designing the research investigation in such a way made two factors important; 1) The choice of the participants to be selected for each data capture in relation to the aims of each study and 2) The structure of each interview script.
3.2 Participants

3.2.1 Participants study 1 and study 2

In order to ensure not only a balanced overview, but also to ensure that the aims of Study 1 and Study 2 could be achieved, it was essential to engage an experienced and representative sample across all levels of SA cricket. In doing so, a number of factors narrowed the participant inclusion criteria.

Securing the most accurate and in-depth examination across two broad and retrospective studies would, not only require the individuals selected to be currently active within the system, but also have gathered an average of 15 years experience of being involved in the SA cricket development environment. In setting a minimum average of 15 years of experience, those individuals who could provide an in-depth perspective relating to both the culture of the cricketing development pathway, but also be able to provide rich insight into the structure and function of the SA cricket development pathway pre-2004 would be included.

Due to political, social and historical contexts associated with the SA cricket development environment, there are a number of additional factors narrowing the number of individuals suitable to provide this level of insightful, and extensive information. For example, the short-term nature of sports contracting requirements, and the length of sports management tenures, due to performance related outcomes, together with the unique nature of the transformation process in SA, have impacted on the length of both sporting and management tenures. These factors significantly reduced the number of individuals currently operating in the SA cricketing environment who could fit the participant selection criteria. These aspects make the individuals selected for interview unique, with distinct experiences that are difficult to replicate.

Considering the above factors, the sample for Study 1 and Study 2 consisted of 12 current and former players, coaches and administrators, all of which had gathered experience ranging from a minimum of eight years to a maximum of 46 years (averaging 20.33 years) operating and playing in the SA cricketing environment (overall years experience did not include time in school system. Except for coach 3 and player 3, all playing date calculations began at the start of the first-class career). All interviewees were male. At the time of interview, all participants had been involved in their current position for a minimum of two years. Inclusive of this all identified participants (excluding coach 3 and player 3
had gathered between eight and 21 years (averaging 12.6 years) of experience as SA domestic elite cricket players (See Table 3.1). For example, all administrators selected for interview had previous playing experience at either domestic elite or national level and therefore could offer the perspective of both a player and an administrator. The number of participants included in this study is consistent with the earlier studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009); Olusoga, Butt, Maynard & Hays (2010); Nash et al., (2011); Fletcher and Arnold (2011) and Arnold, Fletcher & Molyneux (2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant No.</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Years experience in Current position</th>
<th>Years FC playing experience</th>
<th>Years of overall experience in SA</th>
<th>Other experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrator 1</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Former P.FC player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator 2</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>Former P.FC/intl player/National selector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator 3</td>
<td>Chairman P. Board</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Former P. FC/Former CSA Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator 4</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Former FC player/Club player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 1</td>
<td>F. HC</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Former P. FC player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 2</td>
<td>F. AS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Former P. FC player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 3</td>
<td>F. HC</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Former club player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 4</td>
<td>P. HC</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Former P. FC player/School Coach/Coach Educator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coach 5</td>
<td>P. HC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Current P. FC player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Player 1</td>
<td>Interl</td>
<td>15 ©</td>
<td>15©</td>
<td>15©</td>
<td>Current Intl/Current F.FC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Player 2</td>
<td>Interl</td>
<td>8 ©</td>
<td>8©</td>
<td>8©</td>
<td>Current Intl/Current F.FC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Player 3</td>
<td>Club</td>
<td>18 ©</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18©</td>
<td>Current Club player</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Currently, SA cricket is made up of six franchises and 11 affiliate provinces. In providing a balanced perspective, the intention was to interview members from two franchises, making up a total of four provincial cricket boards. In providing this representative sample, the participants included a former member of the ruling body, Cricket SA (CSA). Due to the organisational structure of SA cricket, certain
roles such as that of a CSA Board member also signifies membership to a provincial board. The sample (see Table 3.1) included a former CSA board and current Chairman of a provincial board \((n=1)\), Chief Executive Officers \((n=3)\), Franchise Head Coaches \((n=2)\), Franchise Assistant Coach \((n=1)\), Provincial Coaches \((n=2)\), International and first class cricketers \((n=2)\) and club cricketer \((n=1)\).

Roles were categorised as on-field (playing and coaching) and off-field (administrative), however it is important to note that a significant advantage to identifying these specific participants related to all participants having gathered multiple experiences over time, thus enabling them to provide a unique perspective.

All selected coaches would hold a coach qualification of Level 3 and/or Level 4 and be either current employees of CSA or their respective cricket boards. Inclusive of this, all participants, identified as administrative, had gathered on-field experience of the SA development environment as former first class players. For example, one of the selected CEO’s was a former international cricketer and the former national Convener of Selectors. The two international level players to be selected for interview had both gathered playing experience at school, club, age group provincial representative, provincial first-class and franchise level cricket. To add, the club player had been involved in club cricket for 18 years, across a number of regions and gathered experience of playing in numerous national club competitions.

### 3.2.2 Participants study 3 and study 4

In achieving the aims for both Study 3 and Study 4 the rationale for purposefully selecting the uniquely experienced participants listed in Table 3.2 was two-fold. The first reason was to provide a rich, descriptive and layered perspective of the coach development environment in SA cricket. The second reason was to select those individuals who had gathered sufficient experience and opportunities of having to deal with administrators.

In terms of coaching experience each coach needed to have worked in the SA cricket system as a coach for over ten years, in line with past research, suggesting that ten years is a minimum for a development of coaching expertise (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson, Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007; Nash & Sproule, 2011). In an attempt to provide a balanced and thorough
understanding, the intention was to interview coaches who were not only active coaches (minimum of two years in current role), but had also gathered multiple experiences operating at different levels and environments within the SA cricketing environment.

For example, as a group, the participants needed to have gathered experience working at all three levels within SA cricket (i.e. participation, development, elite), covering all of the structural coaching outlets, e.g. Bakers Mini-cricket, schools, clubs, age group elite, provincial academy, national academy, provincial and franchise. On an individual basis, all coaches would require to have worked at two levels within the system and across a number of different outlets. In terms of coach qualifications, all the coaches needed to have experience of progressing through coach education programmes and by virtue of this

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant No.</th>
<th>Current Position</th>
<th>Years coaching in SA</th>
<th>Other coaching experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>School Coach</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>International/First Class Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Coach Educator</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Provincial. HC/School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Provincial. HC</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Club Coach/Youth. PC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Franchise. AS</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Provincial. HC/School/Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Club Coach</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>University/School Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>University Coach</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>International Coach/Provincial. HC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Franchise. HC</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Provincial. HC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>University Coach</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>School/Club Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Provincial. HC</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>School Coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Youth. PC</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Provincial. AC/National Academy/Youth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Coach Mentor</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Franchise. HC/Provincial. HC/National Academy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Provincial. HC</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Youth. PC/school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Provincial. HC</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>International Coach/National Academy/Club</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HC - Head Coach  
AS - Assistant Coach  
PC - Provincial Coach

Table 3.2 Participant current roles and coaching experiences
requirement would hold at least an equivalent of a United Kingdom Coach Certification (UKCC) Level 2 coach qualification.

Considering these factors, the sample for Study 3 and Study 4 consisted of 13 participants, the make-up of which included 11 current coaches, one coach educator and one coach mentor. All identified participant coaches were male and had over ten years (averaging 14.2 years) of experience as SA domestic cricket coaches. Inclusive of this, all had gathered a wealth of experience and experiences operating in the SA development environment. For example, four of the coaches identified, currently operate in the amateur cricket leagues (school/club/university), five coaches operate in the provincial pathway, while two coaches were operating at the franchise level, together with one coach educator and one coach mentor.

As an example of the different experiences gathered, Coach 6 was currently operating as a university club coach, but had coached at provincial and international level. Participant 11 was currently acting as only one of a small number of SA coach mentors, but had previously gathered experience as a school, provincial and franchise head coach. As was the case with Study 1 and Study 2, the number of participants identified for studies 3 and 4 are consistent with the studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009); Olusoga et al. (2010); Nash et al. (2011) Fletcher and Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012).

3.2.3 Generalisability

Considering the nature of each investigation it was necessary to select experienced participants for interview who could offer a perspective from multiple standpoints relating to the SA cricket development environment, i.e. from their role in which they are currently operating, a retrospective evaluation, but also from the previous roles in which they have been involved. Together with these factors, there are a number of historic, socio-political factors, unique to SA and to SA cricket, narrowing the number of individuals who may be suitable to provide broad and in-depth information. Therefore, due to small sample sizes, (Guba, 1978; Patton 1990) state that a common limitation associated with qualitative research and purposeful sampling relates to the limited generalisability of its findings. Importantly however, due to the nature of the selected participants, even though all the studies are not able to offer statistical generalisability associated with quantitative research, they may offer user generalisability, due to the unique and
in-depth experiences offered by participants (Peshkin, 1993). For example, in choosing a pragmatic approach a consideration that may be acknowledged is the usefulness or practical application of the findings (Patton, 1990). It may be argued that, due to the unique and experienced nature of the sample, the findings could offer SA cricket a practical review and analysis of the SA cricket development environment across the four components under investigation. In addition, findings could also contribute theoretically and conceptually to research and theory generation in sports organisational culture, talent development environments and sports policy formation and coach learning and development (Ongwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007 as cited in Arnold et al., 2012).

3.3. Interview structure

3.3.1 Study 1 and Study 2

Due to the knowledge and experience the participants have of the SA cricketing environment and due to certain logistics and time constraints surrounding the data collection, it was decided that two separate investigations were to take place, with a separate interview script used for each investigation. The first of the interview scripts was structured to explore the Cultural Web as a suitable framework to analyse a sports organisations development system. The second interview script was designed to explore the structure of SA cricket and to offer a broad investigation into how an individual progresses from novice to elite within the system. Alongside this aim, the objective of this investigation was also, more implicitly, to investigate whether the structure change that took place in 2004 had, in some way, shaped the development environment since its inception. A more detailed account of example questions is included in the methods section of each study in order to minimize repetition.

3.3.2 Study 3 and Study 4

Similar issues concerning the second data collection were evident. As outlined earlier, due to the time and seasonal constraints restricting the coach’s availability, the financial costs and the logistics restricting the researcher and considering the success of the first data collection and the experienced background of the participant coaches, it was decided that two interview scripts would be used, with each script investigating the separate aims of Study 3 and Study 4. As the primary aim of Study 3 and Study 4 was to explore the experiential knowledge and relationships of individual cricket coaches, two semi-structured
interview script were developed. The interview script exploring the aims of Study 3 was to offer a broad investigation into the development background of the SA coach, while the second interview script exploring the aims of Study 4 was to focus on the relationship between the coach and the administrators. A more detailed discussion regarding the type and structure of the each interview script will follow within the methods section of Study 3 and Study 4.

Importantly, all the main questions used across the 4 studies did not explicitly explore each area from the outset. The relevance of the main questions was to provide a contextual point of reference from which each participant's answer could be explored more explicitly by utilising the researchers knowledge of the environment through the use of prompts and probes. This was deemed a coherent approach in exploring, not only the applied relevance of each area, but to also enable the advancement of knowledge through the emergence of tangible artefacts (Giacobbi et al., 2005).

3.4 Procedure

Before individual participants were identified for interview, all procedures were pre-approved by Edinburgh Napier Universities’ ethical committee. Once identified, each participant was recruited by personal contact and informed consent obtained (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 1999) to take part in a one-to-one interview. To promote honest evaluation and to maintain trustworthiness, assurances were provided that anonymity would be protected and none of the organisations would have access to the recorded information (Tuckman, 1978; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). As standard protocol, and due to the background and nature of the participants selected and also due to most of the participants still operating within their respective roles, anonymity was assured and all names were removed and replaced by a number (Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). In addition, all references to organisations made within individual quotations were removed in order to minimise identification, however the names of certain franchises were used purely as an example to describe organisational structure.

In order to maximise comfort, and to recall the main interview, questions were sent to the all candidates before each of the interviews, allowing for familiarisation with the types of questions asked. Interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis to gather an in-depth examination of participant's individual
attitudes, belief and values. Each set of individual interviews, across each of the four studies lasted an average of 41 minutes and recorded on a Dictaphone for later transcription. This interview time is consistent with earlier studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009) and Olusoga et al. (2010). All interviews were conducted face-to-face in SA at the location of the participants’ choice, taking place either at the training ground or in individual private offices.

3.5 Data analysis

3.5.1 Method of analysis

When approaching the method of analysis for this study, three methods were considered, Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), Content Analysis and Thematic Analysis. There is no precise agreement on the terminology describing the varieties and processes that encapsulate qualitative analysis (Patton, 1990; Holloway & Todres, 2003), together with significant overlap across qualitative methodological procedures (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013).

The aim of Grounded Theory is to clarify explanatory theory through the collection and analysis of data in order to understand various social and psychological phenomena (Chenitz & Swanson, 1986). In doing this, it focuses on the development of theory from continuous comparative data analysis by way of open and axial coding and theoretical sampling (Thomas, 2006). There are certain similarities in process between inductive Content Analysis, Thematic Analysis and Grounded Theory. For example, Grounded Theory does include, as an outcome of analysis, the formation of themes and categories with the view to generating and presenting theory by way of describing the core themes. Even though Thomas (2006) and Braun and Clark (2006) describe these processes as similar and argue that most analysis is in some way to involve theme formation. Importantly, a significant difference between choosing the use of Content Analysis, Thematic and Grounded Theory, in relation to the aims of all the studies, lay in the sampling and coding process, thus dictating that Grounded Theory could not be used.

A primary reason why Grounded Theory could not be used lies in the purposeful selection of the participants for all the studies. Coyne (1997) explains similarities between Schatzman & Strauss’s (1973) description of selective sampling and Patton’s (1990) description of purposeful sampling. Patton (1990, p169) describes purposeful sampling as selecting ‘information-rich cases’ that offer a great deal of information ‘about issues of central importance to the purpose of the
research’. Schatzman & Strauss (1973) similarly explain that selective sampling also has purpose behind its intention, with the researcher choosing to select participants according to a criterion and the parameters set by the aims of the research. They do go on to explain that selective sampling does allow the researcher a level of flexibility to conduct further sampling in a dimension, as new categories are uncovered. In response, Glaser (1978) is clear that the difference between selective or purposeful sampling and theoretical sampling, explaining purposeful sampling is the calculated decision on behalf of the researcher to include a specific locale according to defined dimensions that are worked out in advance. In terms of theoretical sampling, Glaser goes on to explain that there is a significant level of the unknown with regards what the researcher knows about the sample and where it will take them. This difference lies in the process of data collection being controlled by the importance of emerging theory. An important aspect of this process is that the formation of codes directs further data collections therefore groups are chosen as and when they are needed (Glaser, 1992). Therefore, a significant emphasis would be placed on theory generation as a rationale for selecting a Grounded Theory approach. A process of purposeful sampling was undertaken across all studies, with all data being collected before any analysis took place, thus placing a significant emphasis on exploring the experiences of purposefully selected participants. It is for these reasons that Grounded Theory was not a suitable approach to explore the aims across any of the four studies.

In the past, the differences between content analysis and thematic analysis have not been identified sufficiently, leading to both approaches being used interchangeably (Braun & Clark, 2006; Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Vaismoradi et al. (2013) explain that there are certain phases within content analysis and thematic analysis that are similar. For example, both approaches rely on the full transcription of the data and a multiple reading of the transcripts. Divergence between the two approaches appears to occur when sorting the text into categories or themes. For example, content analysis is usually suited to searching text for recurring words or themes in interview scripts, diaries or documents in an attempt to identify core consistencies and develop meaning in the data. Hseih & Shannon (2005) describe this as Directed Content analysis and a process that may be used to validate or extend a theoretical framework or theory and may be further defined as deductive category application (Mayring, 2000 as cited in Hseih & Shannon,
Beiske (2007) considers the deductive approach as an exploration of a known theory or phenomenon and tests if this theory is valid. The process is led by the path of logic, with reasoning beginning with a theory that ultimately leads to a new hypothesis. The hypothesis is subjected to testing during the research process (Snieder & Larner, 2009), by allowing the researcher to observe predictor relationships between variables, thus helping determine the initial coding or relationship between the codes (Hseih & Shannon, 2005). The main strength of directed content analysis is it provides a form of analysis that is able to support or extend relevant theory (Hseih & Shannon, 2005). Conventional content analysis also provides a 'label' to an inductive approach due to its description as a method that avoids using preconceived categories, but rather allows categories or themes to emerge from the data (Kondracki & Wellman, 2002). These categories may take form as a hierarchical structure with a definition provided for each theme, subtheme and code that is developed (Morse & Field, 1995 in Hseih & Shannon, 2005). This method allows the researcher to identify relationships between themes and subthemes based on occurrences, antecedents or consequences. This is performed by reducing and making sense of the qualitative material by developing core meaning through searching for patterns and developing themes (Patton, 1990).

Patton (1990) does not provide a hard-and-fast distinction between a pattern and a theme, but explains that a pattern may be more descriptive in nature while a theme is more encapsulating and categorical. Holloway and Todres (2003) explain that identifying themes and their associated meaning is a necessary skill that qualitative investigators need to acquire due its predominance in qualitative analysis. A significant question that needs to be asked before choosing either content or thematic analysis is the level of interpretation that is required. For example, Vaismoradi et al. (2013), describe the researcher needing to decide whether to concentrate on the latent or manifest content of the data. Each of these will lead to an interpretation of the data, however the choice of interpreting the latent content over that of manifest content will depend on the depth of analysis and abstraction. For example, only interpreting the manifest content may lead to a descriptive and surface interpretation of the data, while interpreting the latent content will try and find the hidden meaning and underlying abstractions within the data. Braun and Clark (2006) explain that thematic analysis incorporates both latent and manifest features due to the inseparability of latent content from the
manifest content during analysis, while interestingly, Vaismoradi et al. (2013) explains that content analysis has a choice between using either characteristics. In addition, both approaches allow for deductive and inductive analysis, depending on the nature of the enquiry (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Braun & Clark, 2006). Thus, when considering the suitability of each method there does not seem to be a clear process that separates one from the other, as theme formation is the preferred outcomes across both methods (Braun & Clark, 2006).

As a possible approach to adopt, thematic analysis is a method used to identify, analyse and report patterns (or themes) in the data across six stages (Braun & Clark, 2006). Thematic analysis does describe the data, but also allows for aspects of the research topic to be interpreted (Braun & Clark, 2006). Braun and Clark (2006) explain that thematic analysis offers the researcher a certain level of flexibility across two aspects. It may be used deductively for those researchers tied to a particular theoretical position and epistemology or those who are not, but wish to rather employ a more inductive approach to analysis. It seems that the six stage framework attached to thematic analysis offered by Braun & Clark (2006) is more structured and defined than the process Elo & Kyngas (2008) offer when outlining content analysis, especially in forming, arranging and reviewing themes and categories. In light of this, and considering the exploratory nature of the studies, the more structured approach of thematic analysis outlined by Braun & Clark (2006) will be adopted to deductively and inductively analyse Study 1’s findings and inductively analyse the data from Study’s 2, 3 and 4 and present the findings.

3.5.2 Approaching the analysis

3.5.2.1 Study 1

As the primary aim of this chapter was to consider the use of the Cultural Web as a possible framework to examine the culture of a sports organisation, the initial approach to analyse the data was by way of directed (deductive) content analysis, followed by an conventional (inductive) content analysis (Hseih & Shannon, 2005; Thomas, 2006).

Due to the aims of Study 1, it was initially thought only deductive analysis would be required, however following further close reading of the text and comments relating to each theme it was decided that, due to the scope, complexity and interrelated nature of the data, the data should undergo a second stage of
inductive analysis. This process was confirmed by Thomas, (2006), who explained that on occasions, deductive analysis used on its own might obscure key themes, due to the data collection and analysis procedure imposing presumptions on the researcher. The initial deductive analysis followed the procedure outlined by Hseih & Shannon (2005) and consisted of initially highlighting related text without coding. This strategy was used due to the characteristics of each artefact and their meaning being open to individual interpretation. Once the data was identified and coded, the artefacts of the Cultural Web were used as headings and each associated code was arranged accordingly.

The second phase of analysis followed the process outlined by Hseih & Shannon (2005) and Thomas (2006) and subsequently confirmed by Henriksen et al. (2010a; Henriksen & Roessler, 2011). A second close reading of the deductively coded text followed, in order to note key words and phrases. The resultant further coding and category formation was based on patterns within the codes, linking each together. Those categories that did not link or fit into the new pattern remained within their original theme. Following this, the data was ordered into higher order and lower order themes, allowing for further interpretation to occur.

3.5.2.2 Study 2, 3 and 4

Unlike Study 1, there was no requirement to extend or validate a theoretical framework, therefore the approach to analyse the data needed to reflect the exploratory nature of the investigation. As there were no preconceived groupings it was necessary to select an approach that would allow categories or themes to emerge from the data (Kondracki & Wellman, 2002). Due to the emergent and exploratory nature of the research aims across studies 2, 3 and 4 it was decided that the six stages of thematic analysis outlined by Braun and Clark (2006) (see Table 3.1) would be used to identify, analyze and report themes in the data and be adopted across all of Chapter 2, 3 and 4.

As outlined by Braun and Clark (2006, p87), the first part of the inductive process was to become familiar with the data by way of multiple readings of the transcribed data. The second stage was to group the data by generating codes across the whole data set. From this coding procedure, themes were formed and all relevant coded data was grouped and applied to each theme. Once applied, the
themes were reviewed in relation to the coded extracts and a thematic map was produced.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Familiarising with data</td>
<td>Transcribing data, reading, re-reading and noting down ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Generating initial codes</td>
<td>Coding interesting features across entire data set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Searching for themes</td>
<td>Collating codes into potential themes, gathering relevant themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Reviewing themes</td>
<td>Checking themes against codes, generating thematic map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Defining and naming themes</td>
<td>Refining theme and overall story it tells – clear definitions for each theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Producing report</td>
<td>Utilising compelling extract examples and relating analysis back to research aim</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3 Thematic Analysis (Braun & Clark, 2006: p.87)

Even though it is possible for two individuals to apply the same level of subjectivity to a piece of text (Lofe & Yardley, 2004), the reliability of the coding and theming procedure was checked by a critical friend (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Arnold et al., 2012) in an attempt to remain as objective as possible (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). The significance of the critical friend to supporting the trustworthiness and credibility of the study will be addressed in the following section. Once the coding and theming process was complete, the themes were defined and named to present a clear definition for each theme. The themes are then arranged in the most appropriate way in order to clearly present the findings of the phenomenon under investigation. Importantly, when arranging and presenting the various themes, obtaining a breadth of responses to support theme formation was a factor of consideration, however at times theme formation was presented from the response of one participant and based solely on the significance of the response in comparison to other responses. On these occasions the significance of these themes was verified by the researcher in their role as co-constructor of knowledge.
(Giacobbi et al., 2005). A more robust and comprehensive review of the analysis is produced for each study.

### 3.6 Trustworthiness and credibility

A principal consideration regarding the qualitative process is that ‘the researcher is primary tool of investigation’ (Schroeder, 2007, p. 69). Therefore, in keeping with the pragmatic approach, of accepting researcher bias and prejudice, it is important to establish the connection between the researcher and research subject, not only in the co-construction of knowledge (Giacobbi et al., 2005; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016) but also as an important part in the data collection procedure, analysis, interpretation and displaying of data.

As mentioned earlier, the researcher had developed extensive knowledge of the environment due to his background of previously been a participant in the SA cricketing development environment as both a provincial and international level age group player and as a domestic elite professional player.

Critically, it is important to acknowledge the advantages that this level of in-depth experiential knowledge of the environment brought to the investigation. The advantages were; 1) It allowed the researcher to gain access to certain very unique and experienced individuals, operating and have operated at the development and performance levels, that would provide the level of discussion and best reflect and explore the aims of each study, 2) Prior knowledge of the environment allowed a level of understanding relating to job role and position impacting positively on selecting the most unique and experienced participants who could offer exclusive insight into each area under investigation, 3) It allowed a greater degree of disclosure from interviewees due to the level of rapport and trust that could be developed.

Steps were taken, both reasonably and practically (Patton, 1990), to account for the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the data, as outlined in Denzin, Lincoln, & Guba (1994) and Merriam, (1998). In order to ensure this, a triangulation technique (Patton, 1990) was adopted. Firstly, data triangulation was employed whereby three independent sources of data from different regions in SA, that of the coaches, players and administrative staff data, was used in order to support theme formation (Denzin, 1978 in Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011).
Investigator triangulation (Denzin, 1978, in Patton, 1990) was employed to strengthen the study by following the procedure outlined by Côté & Salmela (1994) and Weinberg and McDermot (2002). Peer debriefing was utilised at different stages during the data analysis procedure. A critical friend, who has an established 15 years of experience in qualitative research in the areas of talent development and its environments, as well as coach education and development, was used to independently check both the deductive and inductive stages of the analysis process. The critical friends extensive methodological experience in the area assisted in a number of ways. At the outset of the investigation the critical friend was central in discussions concerning the data collection procedure and how to navigate the various time, financial and logistical constraints placed on exploring the aims of each study. Their advice was crucial in suggesting the purposeful sampling of those unique individuals who have the breadth and depth of experience to effectively explore each of the study aims. Importantly however, when purposefully selecting the most appropriate individuals a certain number of factors became apparent.

The critical friend was also periodically involved in the checking of the coding procedure and subsequent pattern formation. Initially, agreement was sought from this colleague once the raw data had been read and each coded piece of data had been deductively allocated to each relevant artefact. The interviewer (researcher) was central to settling any discussions regarding the coding process, as they were able to add further dimension having spoken to each participant (Weinberg & McDermot et al., 2002). During the inductive process and the formulation of higher and lower-level themes, a second stage of review was sought from the same colleague. The process entailed independently checking and confirming the patterns between the coding and category formation during the higher-level theme formation, before then confirming the patterns between codes and subsequent lower-level theme formation. Throughout the process regular meetings were held between the researcher and critical friend during both the deductive coding procedure and inductive theme formation to discuss points that may have been under or over emphasised and to remove any assumptions made from the gathered and coded information.

On a whole, the intended objective of the pragmatic process stresses the importance of answering practical problems rather than revealing underlying truths (Giacobbi et al., 2005). With this in mind the pragmatic process may be viewed
throughout the stages of this thesis and resembles an iterative programme of work focusing on the evolution of thought and an accumulation of knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This may be viewed more specifically through the decision to initially offer a broad exploration of an experienced and diverse group of stakeholder perspectives (Chapter 4 and 5), before analysis and review of the data established new areas of investigation for the second set of studies (Chapter 6 and 7). In so doing, there was a sequence of work that involved a constant process of reviewing the research question, methods and data and their subsequent alignment with the outcomes of a pragmatic philosophy.

On a unit level, the iterative process was particularly evident in the sequence of systematic tasks involving the data analysis and theme formation and theme verification procedures. For example, the process, across all the studies, of working back and forth between the raw data, codes and themes and the displayed data, resembled an iterative cycle. By executing multiple sequences during the analysis, coupled with discussions centring on theme formation and meaning, allowed for a deeper understanding of the data.

Finally, member checking was also employed to confirm with participants the accuracy and balance of their responses. Due to the proximity of each participant residing in SA this was completed via email. Owing to the variety of potential reasons, such as individuals leaving positions, only one participant (Study 1 & 2) responded to the member checks request. No changes were made to the schematics or quotes by way of this process.

**3.7 Rationale for chapter 4**

The objective of Chapter 4 is to explore the use of the Cultural Web to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment. In Chapter 2, following a background overview of the literature relating to elite sporting systems, sport policy and cultures, a number of factors emerged. To date, sports organisational studies have offered a broad description of the structural elements required for elite sporting success, but do not offer any detail on the constituent parts of each element or how each may interact at a practical level in producing elite performance. Other sports organisational researchers, alongside sport related research have begun investigating the effective functioning of HP environments, of which culture formation is a factor of success. In relation to the aims of Study 1, these studies only provide limited guidance, because HP
environments only form a single element within broad, complex and interrelated development environment. In light of this, the objective of Chapter 4 is to, firstly, provide a more focused overview of the literature relating to organisational culture in sport, together with providing a rationale for utilising the Cultural Web as a possible framework to investigate organisational culture in sport. Following this, and in keeping with the pragmatic approach, the aim would be to use of the Cultural Web to deconstruct the organisational culture of the SA development system. This would allow the organisational culture to emerge and be considered for effective functioning. The final objective would be to provide practical-level findings for SA cricket to potentially consider and employ.
CHAPTER 4
EXPLORING SPORTING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE SA CRICKET DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT

4. Objective of chapter

The objective of Chapter 4 and study 1 is to provide a pragmatic approach to exploring the organisational culture of the SA cricket development environment. In order to accomplish this, the objective is to utilise The Cultural Web, as it allows both the ideational and materialistic elements of organisational culture to be considered within the data collection and analysis. The reason for utilising the Cultural Web is not only allows for the prevailing organisational culture to emerge, but it also establishes if the prevailing culture is effective. The motivation for offering a broad and pragmatic approach is to not only reveal aspects of a successful sporting environment, but to also uncover any stressors and subcultures with the system, thus offering findings that are both practical and useful to SA cricket.

4.1 Introduction

To date, there has been significant research interested in the effects of organisational culture and organisational change, leading to a strong organisational culture being commonly recognised as a crucial factor to any organisation operating in the business environment (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Trice and Byer, 1984; Schein, 1985; 1990; 1994). Therefore, the aim of this introduction is to focus on exploring the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, taken from the domain of organisational culture management, to investigate organisational culture within a SA cricket development environment.

4.1.2 Defining culture

Organisational culture is often described as the way we do things around here (Deal & Kennedy, 1983), or as an acknowledgement of the assumptions and values that hold an organisation together. Martin (2002) describes two definitions of culture, that of ideational and materialistic. Ideational culture emphasises the cognitive aspects of culture, such as meanings and understandings. Studies concentrating on the ideational aspects of culture would, therefore, examine the
meaning that members of an organisation or teams connect to stories, myths or symbols within the organisation. A materialistic approach would be to examine culture from the material expressions of those meanings and understandings, such as dress, workplace, hierarchy and job descriptions. Brooks (2009) describes two similar and interchangeable ways in which culture can be interpreted. The first is consistent with Martin’s (2002) materialistic approach and defines culture objectively and considers organisational culture as being tangible and a construct that can be actively managed. The second description is similar to the ideational approach (Martin, 2002) and one that views culture as intangible and indistinguishable and only to be understood in subjective terms.

Over and above the multiple approaches to understanding culture, Martin and Meyerson (1988) and Martin (1992; 2002), highlight three ways in which cultural investigations may be approached. The integration perspective acknowledges that there will be clarity and consensus by way of a singular notion of culture, whereby all members in an organisation share a common and uncontested view of culture (Martin, 1992). The differentiation perspective suggests that there is no organisation wide consensus, but rather consensus lies at a subgroup level. This means there may be elements of inconsistency, conflict and ambiguity with regards the cultural consensus, although this ambiguity remains within the parameters of the subgroup (Martin, 1992). The fragmentation perspective suggests that consensus across the organisation depends on the issue in question and can never fully exist across the whole organisation. Thus, as a concept, culture may be described as an extremely complex and dynamic phenomenon and for it to be commonplace for one single culture to be made up of a number of subcultures, with each of these subcultures different from the next (Brooks, 2009). It is also not uncommon for there to be individual differences within each subcultural group. These intra-cultural differences may be based on socioeconomic, educational, political or historical factors (Brooks, 2009). With this explanation in mind, it is unsurprising therefore that many previous approaches to investigating culture within sports organisations have followed a differentiation approach (Maitland, Hills & Rhind, 2015).

Another important factor to consider is the context in which the cultural investigation takes place. Members may rarely question the culture within an organisation and any investigation into an organisation's culture requires signals from the wider culture to be accounted for in the analysis. The central premise
behind these thoughts not only relates to the dynamic nature of culture but also to the multiple levels it may involve. For example, Schein (1985) explains that some of the confusion surrounding the definitions of culture relate to the different levels at which culture manifests itself. In light of this, and in order to provide some level of clarity, this study uses and refers to the following definitions outlined by Brooks (2009, p.263), 1) **National culture** reflects the ethnic groups who share cultures across internal national and political boundaries, 2) **Professional culture** refers to the shared characteristics of members of a trade or profession that have experienced similar training and followed and accepted similar norms and obligations, 3) **Organisational Culture** refers to an organisation's identity and the strength of this identity across the organisation and its influence on subcultures and 4) **Subcultures** reflects subsets of the larger organisation that operates within the broader organisational culture.

![Figure 4.1: Johnson et al., (2008) model definition of culture](image)

In addition to the different perspectives culture can be approached from, Schein (1985) suggests that culture is found at the following three levels; 1) At the core are ‘taken-for-granted-assumptions that influence and inform, 2) Cultural values are at an intermediate level and 3) While at the surface, behaviours become evident. Schein’s model allows for comparisons to be made between an
organisations core values and assumptions and how those assumptions are manifested at a surface level in the behaviours of individuals’ daily interactions. There are a number of criticisms of Schein’s cultural model, stating that it only provides a static view of a dynamic concept and does not take into account the importance of symbolism and storytelling to the cultural fabric of an organisation.

Alternatively, Johnson et al. (2008), model a definition of culture (see Figure 4.1 above) makes reference to ‘taken-for-granted assumptions’ (or the paradigm) being at the core of organisational culture. It does however provide three further layers. At the outer ring of the model are the organisation’s values that express the identity of the organisation and how it wishes to be perceived. Working inwards towards the paradigm, the second layer is beliefs and highlight the way people talk about the organisation and what it should or shouldn’t do. The next layer, closest to the inner core (paradigm), is the behaviours that are observed internally and externally and are involved with the daily operations of the organisation. Johnson et al’s. (2008) description of culture provides an alternative view from that of Schein (1992; 1994), as it places member behaviours closer to the taken-for-granted assumptions, thus forming the foundation to the way the organisation is perceived through its beliefs and values.

When comparing Johnson and colleagues definition of culture to that of the sports-related literature on HP environments it seems evident that those individuals who manage HP environments play a significant role in the formation of these values and beliefs and therefore may be described as operating closest to the cultural paradigm. For example, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) found that the HP manager played a central role in the creation and implementation of a clear vision that became fundamental to guiding and inspiring member behaviours. Other studies, such as Schroeder (2007) and Cruickshank and Collins (2013a) have also described the role of head coach or HP manager as central to shaping the environment in order to promote HP behaviours and cultures. Therefore, guided by these previous studies and for the purposes of this study, Johnson et al’s. (2008) definition of culture will be adopted whereby the behaviours of individuals are closely aligned and crucial to the formation of the organisation’s cultural paradigm.

4.1.3 The layered complexity of culture and sports development

The model definitions and layers of culture outlined by Johnson et al. (2008) and Schein (1985; 1992; 1994) provide an inert view of what culture should look
like in an organisation, however in sport, environments are ever changing. For example, in a cricket environment, changes are constantly occurring with players joining and leaving teams, support teams changing and head coaches or performance directors only in post for brief periods. It is during these periods of change that organisations may become ‘captured’ by their own culture (Johnson et al., 2008). The reason for this capture relates to a strategic misalignment between what the organisations core assumptions are and the strategic realignment the organisation wishes to make. Issues occur when these ‘changes are managed in line with the existing culture due to deeply embedded assumptions rooted in collective experience built up over long periods of time’ (Johnson et al., 2008; p.197). The increasing movement between coaches and players and other administrative heads makes it challenging to obtain a uniformed and consistent picture of the prevailing ideational view of culture if the individuals who are tasked with creating and implementing this culture are no longer in position after only a short period of time.

It may also be sensible to assume that different groups such as HP teams preparing for an Olympic Games event will have different values and a different set of beliefs to a HP team preparing for a season long, football, cricket or rugby campaign that may involve a number of months worth of weekly, competitive matches and across different formats. In turn, each group may interpret incidents in a different way, thus prompting numerous approaches to examining culture and its relationships. As a consequence, even though culture has been described as a shared phenomenon it is dependent upon the context within which it is investigated (Schein, 1992).

Maitland et al.’s (2015) review of the sports organisational culture literature confirms the focus of past studies across a number of points; 1) There is very little research to date investigating organisational culture in a sports organisation, with only 33 completed studies, 2) Numerous studies have investigated culture in a narrow and defined elite environment or a single element within a larger development or sporting system and 3) Many of the studies considered culture using the idealational organisational concepts outlined by Brooks (2009) and Martin (2002) and the same time approximately half of the studies referred to Schein’s (1985; 1990; 1994; 2004) definition and explanation of culture.

There seems to be prevalence across the literature investigating organisational culture in sports whereby culture is often described as a set of
shared assumptions, values, learned beliefs, norms or symbols. For example, at the time of investigating the literature relating to organisational culture and culture in sports, a number of studies were published around a similar time period (Schroeder, 2007; Frontiera, 2010; Henriksen et al, 2010a; 2010b; Henriksen & Roessler, 2011; Doherty, Fink, Inglis & Pastore, 2010; Cresswell & Eckland, 2007). Similarity between these studies related to each choosing to define culture by way of the ideational and more ethereal concepts of culture, such as espoused values, and basic assumptions delineated by Schein (1985; 1994; 2004). Interestingly, of these, no study (to the authors knowledge) to date has utilised a framework to deductively map organisational culture and, importantly, none have attempted to investigate culture by offering a broad perspective across a sports organisations operational environment. Inclusive of this, no study has made specific reference to investigating the materialistic elements of organisational culture, such as structure, design, power and control, thus allowing a more objective approach to understanding how organisational culture can assist in sporting organisational functioning and effectiveness.

The reason the materialistic approach to examining organisational culture in sporting organisations may have been ignored, in accounting for organisational effectiveness, may be because sports organisations encapsulate those taken-for-granted values, expectations and underlying assumptions or a general acceptance of this the way things are done around here (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). This may be because sports organisations are frequently associated with a variety of myths, stories and rituals and are commonly linked to positive phrases such as character building, teamwork and inspirational (Maitland et al., 2015). In addition, there is a significant emphasis in sports research to focus on peak and elite performance to provide the answers to developmental dilemmas which may also account for studies focusing more on the management and best practice of small and contained elite environments (Henriksen, 2010a; 2010b, Henriksen & Roessler, 2011; Cruickshank et al., 2013a; Cruickshank et al., 2014; Cruickshank, Collins, & Minten, 2015).

Importantly, both Johnson et al. (2008) and Schein’s definitions of culture do not take into account the importance of structure in the formation of culture, however Johnson and colleagues do further explain the importance of being able to investigate and manage these concepts that are difficult to define and control. The rationale for accepting this structural view of culture as significant in any
cultural investigation is because it connects organisational structure, design and culture. It acknowledges that changes at an organisational level will yield a change at a cultural level (Brooks, 2009), thus reflecting the dynamic nature of culture. Consequently, in order to remain true to this study’s aims it was necessary to adopt a framework that investigates the beliefs, values and assumptions of an organisation, while at the same time investigating elements of its structure, power and control.

4.1.4 The Cultural Web

A coherent and distinctive organisational culture allows all parts of a business to function to a common goal (Johnson et al., 2008). The strategic plan of a business will usually be laid out in the company’s annual reports, however as culture and its main elements or traits are difficult to define Johnson’s (1992), Cultural Web may be used as a framework of analysis.

At the centre of the Cultural Web is the paradigm that Johnson (1988) refers to as the set of beliefs and assumptions, common throughout the organisation and play a central role in interpreting environmental stimuli and setting in motion the relevant strategic response. Johnson (1988) explains it is important to differentiate between an organisation’s strategy and the paradigm. In doing so, Mintzberg (1978 in Johnson, 1988) state there is difference between realised and intended strategy. Realised strategy is observable and based on the organisation’s output, while intended strategy is what managers or administrators will outline as a formal plan or public statement. The paradigm, as outlined earlier, relates to ‘a set of beliefs about the organisation and the way it is or should be’ (Johnson, 1988, p.85). It is important to note that Johnson (1988; p.85) explains ‘both the intended and realized strategy is likely to be configured within the parameters of the paradigm’. It is also important not to view the paradigm as just a system of beliefs and assumptions, but rather it is ‘preserved and legitimised in a ‘cultural web’ of organisational action in terms of myths, rituals, symbols, control systems and formal and informal power structures which provide relevance to core beliefs’. In this way the softer symbols, rituals and myths of the organisation legitimise operational functioning (Wilkins, 1983).

In placing behaviours closer to the paradigm Johnson et al. (2008), relates the importance of power structures to organisational analysis because it is logical to assume the individuals who operationalise those beliefs and assumptions of the
organisation are the most powerful and important figures in the decision-making process. Through his investigation into the organisational performance of a textile company, Johnson (1988) found that clear analysis and feedback of the business environment did not necessarily mean the points raised would be actioned by senior members. What was found was converse to the rational analytical planning model, with those individuals closely positioned to the paradigm becoming resistant to any changes or recommendations, since it was perceived any analysis recommending changes to the current value and belief system to be an attack on their positions of power and control. Through empirical studies involving Jaguar Cars and ICI, Pettigrew (1990) listed a number of factors important for organisations to apply when managing change. Two of these factors provide reason to include the tangible and materialistic elements of organisational structures and design to a cultural analysis. The first relates to the politics of the organisation and considers the power distribution of individuals who have a vested interest in beliefs and assumptions remaining as they are. The second relates to interdependence and connects culture to the importance of structure, systems and people. These early studies by Johnson (1988) and Pettigrew (1990) confirm Brook’s (2009) earlier description of organisational culture by explaining the importance of the materialistic aspects associated with culture and those currently neglected by most, if not all, sports related studies.

As a tool used to understand and examine the effects of culture, the Cultural Web (see Figure 4.2) exhibits ‘the behavioural, physical and symbolic manifestations of a culture that inform and are informed by the taken-for-granted assumptions, or paradigm, of an organisation… The cultural web can be used to understand culture in any of the frames of reference discussed above, but it is most often used at the organisational and/or functional level’ (Johnson et al. 2008, p.197). Surrounding the organisational paradigm are elements referred to as artefacts and what Johnson and Scholes (1997) regard as the outer or protective layer of the firm’s cultural web (Johnson, 1992).
There are six artefacts within the Cultural Web; rituals and routines, stories, symbols, power structures, organisational structures and control systems (Johnson and Scholes, 1997, p.69-74). The artefacts are set out to represent both the ideational and the materialistic approaches to culture and represent the routinised way individuals within the organisation behave towards one another and between parts of the organisation and how members are programmed and ritualised to respond to specific situations, advocating behavioural norms (Johnson, 1992).

Stories can be used as symbolic factors to embed important historical events, influencing members understanding of important situations (Johnson, 1992; Johnson et al., 2008), while symbols can also represent both a functional and a symbolic purpose. Johnson et al. (2008), do state that symbols are represented as artefacts in their own right, however elements such as routines,
control and reward systems may also form both a functional and a symbolic role. The materialistic organisational structures encompass the formal and informal structures and networks and reveal how an organisation may set out its power structures that may influence the organisation’s core assumptions and beliefs (Brooks, 2009).

For example, what are the formal lines of communication? Is the organisation centrally controlled or are structures highly devolved with a strong emphasis on subcultures? It is also important to recognise how an organisation embodies the more formalised control systems that define the important activities to focus on and monitor (Johnson, 1992), this includes the financial and resource systems, rewards and quality systems that are reflected in the procedures of the organisation (Johnson et al., 2008). Due to the multi-faceted nature of sports development (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009), providing only an ideational view of culture may therefore not offer a consistent and complete view of the prevailing organisational culture across a sporting organisation. In order for this to occur, a combined ideational and materialistic understanding of the existing culture may be required.

4.1.5 Aim of Study 1

The aim of this study is to explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, from the domain of organisational culture management to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment. A significant focus of Study 1 does relate to examining the organisational culture within the performance and development pathway of SA cricket, however as the cricket development pathway is embedded in the national culture and cricket is a recognised profession in SA, it is important to consider both the professional and national culture and how these cultures impact on the broader organisation. Inclusively, sporting development pathways are made up of numerous parts, but as a collective all may fall under the remit or interests of the overseeing sports organisation administering the game. With this in mind it was important to consider the correct framework of analysis that not only holds the best possibility of investigating the multiple layers of a development environment but will also consider culture as a dynamic and interrelated concept.
4.2. Methodology

4.2.1 Participants

The sample consisted of 12 current and former players, coaches and administrators, all of which had gathered experience ranging from a minimum of eight years to a maximum of 46 years (averaging 20.33 years) operating and playing in the SA cricketing environment (overall years experience did not include time in school system. Except for coach 3 and player 3, all playing date calculations began at start of first-class career). All interviewees were male. At the time of interview, all participants had been involved in their current position for a minimum of two years. Inclusive of this all identified participants (excluding coach 3 and player 3) had gathered between eight and 21 years (averaging 9 years) of experience as SA domestic elite cricket players. The number of participants included in this study is consistent with the earlier studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009); Olusoga et al. (2010); Nash et al. (2011); Fletcher and Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012).

In delivering the aim of providing both a broad and balanced overview of the organisational culture in SA cricket, both historically and currently, a uniquely experienced and representative sample was sought across a variety of levels of SA cricket. In providing this representative sample, the participants included a former member of the ruling body, Cricket SA (CSA). Due to the organisational structure of SA cricket, certain roles such as that of a CSA Board member also signifies membership to a provincial board. The sample included a former CSA board and current Chairman of a provincial board (n=1), Chief Executive Officers (n=3), Franchise Head Coaches (n=2), Franchise Assistant Coach (n=1), Provincial Coaches (n=2), International and first class cricketers (n=2) and club cricketer (n=1).

All selected coaches would hold a coach qualification of Level 3 and/or Level 4 and be either current employees of Cricket SA or their respective cricket boards. Inclusive of this, all participants identified as administrative had gathered on-field experience of the SA development environment as former first class players. For example, one participant CEO’s was a former international cricketer and the former national Convener of Selectors. The two international level players to be selected for interview had both gathered playing experience at school, club, age group provincial representative, provincial first-class and franchise level
cricket. To add, the club player had been involved in club cricket for over 15 years, across a number of regions, and gathered experience of playing in numerous national club competitions.

4.2.2 Design

A qualitative methodology was selected in order to gain a broad understanding of the culture of the cricket system in SA and how this may contribute towards developing world-class cricketers. The qualitative process also enables large amounts of data to be collected, analysed and presented as ‘a unified picture of the phenomenon under study’ (Côté et al., 1993, p.130). Due to the nature of the study and the aims of research, a semi-structured interview procedure was chosen. The semi-structured interview offers both a degree of structure by way of pre-determined questions, but also the flexibility to explore areas that may emerge during discussions (Rynne, 2014; Nash et al., 2011).

| 1.) Could you give me an overview of what you think the culture is that exists within cricket? |
| 2.) What characteristics and attributes typify cricketers that come through the SA cricket system? |
| 3.) What do you think it is about the SA culture that develops cricketers like that? |
| 4.) How strong do you think the culture within SA cricket is at the different levels and how is it maintained? |

Table 4.1 Initial interview questions used to align understanding

As the primary aim of this study was to explore the Cultural Web as a suitable framework to analyse a sports organisations development system, the questions relating specifically to the artefacts of the Cultural Web were structured with the guidance of Johnson et al. (2008).

In an attempt not to be lead too strongly by the ideas of the Cultural Web, each participant was asked four open questions relating to the culture of SA cricket. The reason for the four preceding questions was to ensure a consistent understanding across all participants as to the meaning of culture in the context of the study and its aims. It was deemed important to gather this initial understanding of the overall culture that permeates through SA cricket, specifically due to the importance of both national and professional culture and the different levels at
which culture is revealed (Schein, 1994; Brooks, 2009). The four broad questions were structured in the following way and can be seen in Table 4.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Prompt</th>
<th>Probes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think Stories impact on the culture?</td>
<td>Do you have a classic success/failure story that encapsulates the culture in SA cricket?</td>
<td>How important do you feel these positive stories are in the developing and maintaining a positive culture?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do you have a specific hero/villain that encapsulates the culture in SA cricket?</td>
<td>How pervasive are those beliefs across the different levels?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think the Rituals and Routines that occur in SA cricket impact on culture?</td>
<td>How important to do you feel rituals/routines are in developing a positive culture?</td>
<td>Could you give me some examples of rituals and routines?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Which are historic in nature?</td>
<td>How do you know they are working?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What do you do to facilitate this?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think Symbols impact on the culture?</td>
<td>Could you give any examples of any symbols that you feel symbolises SA cricket?</td>
<td>How important do you feel these symbols are in the formation of a positive culture?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How do they impact positively/negatively on culture?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think Control Systems impact on culture?</td>
<td>How do control systems, such as financial constraints, have an effect on culture?</td>
<td>Are the same people involved in setting targets involved in evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who is responsible for setting targets for team/overall seasonal results?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who is involved in team/coach evaluation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think the structure of SA cricket impact on culture?</td>
<td>Is there cross over in the decision making process i.e. the on field decision making process? affected by off the field decision making?</td>
<td>How does the formal structure of SA cricket impact the culture of the game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there formal lines of communication both on field and off field?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think Power Structures impact on the culture in SA cricket?</td>
<td>How is power distributed across the levels you operate in?</td>
<td>Does this change at the different levels (club, region, international)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are the core assumptions and beliefs of the leadership?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Where do you think the main power blockages are?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 Questions relating to the Cultural Web of SA cricket

Following the four broad questions, the interview was structured using the six artefacts. The initial questions may potentially be regarded as leading, however these was deemed important in order to ensure each participant understood the
meaning of each artefact and how it related to the aims of the investigation. Table 4.2 displays the questions, prompts and probes used.

The reason for structuring the interview script in this way was because the complex and nuanced ideational and materialistic aspects of culture are not easily revealed (Trice & Beyer, 1984; Martin, 2002; Schein, 2004; Schroeder, 2007), increasing the possibility of differences in interpretation and understanding.

Once understanding was acknowledged, it was important for subsequent questions to be as broad and open-ended as possible in order to obtain each participant’s thoughts on the subject, as they perceived it (Patton, 1990).

In keeping with a pragmatic approach, the use of prompts was to ensure that each participant had a similar understanding of the context for each artifact and for each to be explored in more detail. It was also important that a neutral, impartial stance was displayed when probing and prompting responses, so as to maximise rapport and improve the opportunity to facilitate open responses (Backstrom & Hursch-Ceasar, 1981).

4.2.3 Procedure

Before individuals were identified for interview, all procedures were pre-approved by Edinburgh Napier Universities’ ethical committee. Once identified, each participant was recruited by personal contact and informed consent obtained (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 1999) to take part in a one-to-one interview. To promote honest evaluation and maintain trustworthiness, assurances were provided that anonymity would be protected and no organisation would have access to the recorded information (Tuckman, 1978; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). In order to maximise comfort and recall the main interview questions were sent to the 12 candidates before the interview, allowing for familiarisation with the types of questions asked. Interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis to gather an in-depth examination of participant’s individual attitudes, belief and values. Each interview averaged approximately 35 minutes and was recorded on a Dictaphone for later transcription. The interview time was consistent with earlier studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne, (2009) and Olusoga et al. (2010). All interviews were conducted at the location of the participants’ choice, which took place either at the training ground or in individual private offices.
4.2.4 Data analysis

4.2.4.1 Approaching the analysis

Due to the aim of the study, the initial approach to analyse the data by way of directed (deductive) content analysis, followed by conventional (inductive) content analysis (Henriksen et al., 2010; 2011; Hseih & Shannon, 2005). Following further close reading of the text and comments attached to each artefact it was decided that due to the scope, complexity and interrelated nature of the data, the data should undergo a second stage of analysis. This process was confirmed by Thomas (2006) who explained that deductive analysis used on its own may obscure key themes, due to the data collection and analysis procedure imposing presumptions on the researcher.

The initial deductive analysis followed the procedure outlined by Hseih & Shannon (2005) and consisted of initially highlighting related text without coding. It was decided to use this strategy due to the characteristics of each artefact and their meaning being open to individual interpretation. Once the data was identified and coded, the artefacts of the Cultural Web were used as headings and each associated code was arranged accordingly.

The second phase of inductive analysis followed the process outlined by Hseih & Shannon (2005), Thomas (2006) and confirmed by Henriksen et al., (2010a; Henriksen & Roessler, 2011). This process involved a second close reading of the deductively coded text in order to note key words and phrases. Vaismoradi et al. (2013) explains that content analysis has a choice between interpreting either the latent content over that of manifest content, depending on the depth of analysis and abstraction.
This second phase of analysis involved interpreting the latent content in an attempt to find the hidden meaning and underlying abstractions within the data. This process resulted in further coding and category formation based on patterns within the codes. This process was assisted through the formation of a diagram that helped to observe patterns and links between codes and themes (Morse & Field, 1995). The first part of the inductive process can be seen above in diagram 4.3.

Following this initial inductive process, patterns could be observed between artefacts, leading to the artefacts being arranged into two over-arching themes, macro-level effects and micro-level effects. These over-arching themes were based on observed patterns within the coded data. Each artefact arranged under the over-arching themes underwent further coding and theme formation, leading to the formation of higher-order themes (artefacts) and lower-order themes. Evidence of this process is outlined below in diagram 4.4.
4.2.5 Trustworthiness and credibility

Steps were taken to account for the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the data, as outlined in Denzin & Lincoln (1994) and Merriam (1998). In order to ensure this, a triangulation technique (Patton, 1990) was adopted. Firstly, data triangulation was employed whereby three independent sources of data from different regions in SA, that of the coaches, players and administrative staff data, was used in order to support theme formation (Denzin, 1978 in Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Investigator triangulation (Denzin, 1978, in Patton, 1990) was employed to strengthen the study by following
the procedure outlined by Côté & Salmela (1994) and Weinberg and McDermot (2002). A critical friend, with over 15 years of experience in qualitative research, was utilised at different stages during the data analysis procedure. The critical friend was used to independently check both the deductive and inductive stages of the analysis process.

Initially, agreement was sought from the critical friend once the raw data had been read and each coded piece of data had been deductively allocated to each relevant artefact. The interviewer (researcher) was central to settling any discussions regarding the coding process, as they were able to add further dimensions having spoken to each participant (Weinberg and McDermot, 2002). During the inductive process and the formulation of higher and lower-level themes, a second stage of review was sought from the same critical friend. The process entailed independently checking and confirming the patterns between the coding and category formation during the higher-level theme formation, before then confirming the patterns between codes and subsequent lower-level theme formation. Throughout the process regular meetings were held between the researcher and critical friend during both the deductive coding procedure and inductive theme formation in order to discuss points that may have been under or over emphasised and to remove any assumptions made from the gathered and coded information.

Finally, member checks were employed via email in order for participants to check the accuracy and balance of their responses (Sparked & Smith, 2009; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016). Unfortunately only one participant responded to this request. No quotes were changed through this process.

### 4.3 Results and discussion

Following a deductive analysis, based on the Cultural Web (Johnson et al., 2008) as a framework of analysis, the data was sorted according to the elements that encapsulate the Cultural Web. Importantly, lower-order themes emerged when the data was analysed inductively, allowing the Cultural Web to be redefined, and reflect a sports organisation context. It emerged from the inductive analysis to separate the six artefacts into two sections; the macro-level and micro-level culture systems in order to better represent these artefacts and their associated effects.

The macro-level contained the following higher-order artefacts; Organisation’s Structures, Power Structures and Control Systems. Each higher-
order artefact was then made up of lower-order themes. Organisational Structure, as a artefact was divided into four lower-order themes; 1) The performance pathway: Strategic and Long-Term planning, 2) The development pathway, 3) Structural threats to performance and development pathways and 4) System-related subcultures. The Power Structures artefact contained three lower-order themes; 1) Operational decision-making and control, 2) Decision-making between field and boardroom and 3) The power in on-field decision-making. The Control Systems artefact was divided into two lower-order themes; 1) The profits of national performance and 2) The nature of performance evaluations and incentives.

Within the micro-level artefacts, an adaptation was made following inductive analysis to merge the Stories and Symbols artefacts to form a single artefact. The reason for this was that many stories enacted as symbols and it was decided to combine these elements to demonstrate and represent this relationship. This adaptation was deemed suitable due to these elements fulfilling both formal and symbolic roles in the evaluation of culture (Johnson et al., 2008). Following this, the micro-level artefacts were arranged in the following way. The Rituals and Routines artefact was separated into three lower-order themes; 1) Individuality and societal shifts, 2) Consistency and fairness and 3) The practice environment. The Stories and Symbols artefact was separated into two lower-order themes; 1) Stories as symbols and 2) Symbolic symbols.

A significant difference in relation to the original Cultural Web, formulated in an organisational context (see Figure 4.2), is for each of the three materialistic artefacts (Organisation Structures, Power Structures and Control Systems) to be viewed as nested and interrelated to one another, rather than separate elements all influencing the paradigm. The rationale for referring to these as macro-level artefacts was due to their potential influence on policy and structure.

A tentative attempt has been made to represent this within Figure 4.5. At the core of the SA cricket culture model is the paradigm, followed by Organisation Structure, Power Structures and then Control Systems. These artefacts are ranked in order of importance in relation to the organisation best achieving alignment with the organisations core assumptions.
As no current CSA Board members were part of the interview procedure, the process of deciding the paradigm was gathered from the Cricket SA Annual Reports. For the purposes of this study, the paradigm was aligned to the meaning conveyed by Cricket SA’s mission statement and vision statement, together with strategic objectives. Environmental forces and the capabilities of an organisation may affect the overall performance of an organisation, but these factors do not create or mould the strategic direction of the organisation, it is the people and their beliefs and assumptions that create strategy (Johnson, 1992). As the CSA Board is responsible for outlining the vision for SA cricket in the annual accounts, together with the explanation and definitions provided by Johnson (1988), the paradigm for this study is accepted as CSA’s vision statement; 1) To ensure that cricket is supported by the majority of SA’s and available to all those who want to play it and 2) To pursue excellence at all levels of the game (CSA Annual Report 2010/11).

4.3.1 Macro-level elements: organisation structures

4.3.1.1 The performance pathway: strategic and long term planning

Administrator 1 provides an outline of the formal organisational structure of each franchise and affiliate province and how each mirrors the formal corporate structure of the governing organisation, Cricket SA (CSA), highlighting a unified approach to governance. He suggests that a formal but simple hierarchical structure exists, with top-down decision-making structures, evidenced by the
respective Board’s of Directors, ratifying decisions made at both an executive and operational level.

‘The franchise system was formed in SA…to mirror the Cricket SA (CSA) structure.’
‘We sort of lay on the principles of CSA where we mirror their structures and then have a uniformed structure, or very close to a uniformed structure in all the franchises and affiliates. Now we have 11 affiliates and of those 11 affiliates we have 6 franchises. So corporate governance is very big, so you will find sub committees that reports to your financial committee that reports to your board of directors. So its quite a formal corporate structure.’ (Administrator 1)

Administrator 1 later outlines the nature of decision-making at franchise level that is based on the national team’s three-year touring programme. The nature of this decision-making model indicates the importance of having a long-term strategy and filtering this strategy down to the franchises. This strategic approach may reduce any skill-related gaps, allowing the national team to perform effectively in future home and away tours.

‘The planning session for me is the most important bit for any future touring program. The future touring program internationally is out for the next 3 years so we know exactly whom we are going to play…So you know the future program will determine the way that we will look for possible players to fill up into the relevant teams. I think we do that well, I think we have mastered this.’ (Administrator 1)

Administrator 1 goes one level further by outlining how each franchise strategically plans the recruitment of their player workforce over the medium to long term. The planning process outlines one of open-communication between the playing committee, the head coach and the provincial coaches, operating over two terms. Strategic planning is over 5 years, but player recruitment is over a shorter two-year period. Other franchises and provinces may have different recruitment and planning procedures but this particular process outlines the need for flexibility on behalf of the governing organisation. It also emphasises the short-term nature of player contracts. Importantly, Administrator 1 perceives the process described as the best possible approach to player selection and recruitment to the franchise model, but indicates that due to the franchise being made up of two separate provinces, communication and agreement can sometimes become an issue.

‘We always start with a five year planning session, then we evaluate the group of players we currently have, then we evaluate in the next two years who is going to go out and what do we need…We contract no longer than two years…That is
discussed in the playing committee with the franchise head coach. The five-year plan (also) goes down to the two provincial heads and they must fill up the gaps to the top...it doesn't work like I would like it to work as there has always been a (name of province/name of province) divide, but if we all buy into it that is the way it would happen.’ (Administrator 1)

At a provincial level, Administrator 3 draws attention to the difficulty of managing a vast area in order to provide the opportunity for players to be identified and placed in the performance pathway. He indicates that this approach is necessary and driven by non-measured performance indicators from the governing body, CSA. In response, a strategic approach to development is emphasised, outlining how the provincial environment is segmented into regions, with players being identified and selected into the development pathway at regional and then provincial level representation.

‘(Name of province) is quite big geographically, it is a huge province. From (name of region) that is a few hours travelling. For a cricket game that is ridiculous. So what we are saying is we have cut (name of province) up in six regions...Cricket SA says to us, ‘because we fund you, we want to see mass participation, more people play cricket’. Fine. Then they say they want a clear pathway for excellence. They don't prescribe to you how. They say ‘at the end of the day we are going to measure you on your excellence’.’ (Administrator 3)

Leading on from his earlier point, Administrator 1 emphasises the open and transparent lines of communication, relating to player development requirements, from the head of the HP Centre (HPC) to the franchise head coaches. Referring to earlier comments, this approach outlines the importance of medium to long-term planning, decision-making and reporting that is driven from national level down to the franchises and provinces below. Importantly, this also emphasises a level of communication that may be construed as a directive for the betterment of SA cricket, going so far as to instruct the franchise coaches on who should be playing and when.

‘You have (name of coach) and you have the HPC coach which is (name of coach) at this stage, so the two of them will link up and say ‘listen (name) what do you need’ and that is where (name of coach) will sit down at franchise level and say to all the franchise heads and say ‘listen guys I need this type of cricketer to come through’...So it is structured and they (CSA) work from a five year plan and it all cascades down to the franchise level and hopefully to all the other levels below that to make the franchise as strong as possible.’ (Administrator 1)
Even though the direction does seem to stem from the HPC, participants speak of it being more collaborative in nature, involving a system of communication that works towards a common goal, i.e. a stronger national team. It may be then that the performance coach may take a central position in this context, by not only receiving and reacting to information from the HPC regarding national team outputs, but also manage relationship and outputs with regards to their own team performances.

As outlined earlier by Administrator 3, Coach 3 confirms the process involved in selecting age group cricketers from a large geographically area. Coach 3 outlines a cutting down process that is applied at all the age group levels beginning from U/13 and ending at U/19.

‘From under 13 level all the way up to under 19 it is quite simple, they have a zonal net, where they divide the (name of region) up to eight zones, all the schools in an area send up their better under 13 youngsters or under 15 youngsters, depending on what age group they are working with on that day. You do a sifting process there. On your first net you might be flooded with 100 kids and then you have got to work your way down and after a month of nets or so you get down to a squad of say 15...And from there you select the regional side who then play trial games against the other three regions over a period to get to your age group side that is going to represent (name of province).’ (Coach 3)

Coach 3 goes on to provide a detailed overview of how the selection structure operates at the independently run provincial academies. Similar to earlier comments, Coach 3 describes the need for an extensive and transparent selection policy involving discussions between each of the provincial selectors and CEO’s, together with the head coach of the franchise. Conversations seem to be based on negotiation between the provinces and strategic in nature, concerning the type of cricketer that is required at that time.

‘Once they get into the academy, we then sit down; myself, the convenors and selectors of (name of province) and the convenors and selectors of (name of province) and two coaches. The CEO of (name of province) also sits in. We identify players to come to the academies, of (name of provinces) respectively. Those academies work independently...but we are consulted in terms of the type of players we want to get to, yes, so (name of province) and (name of province) pretty much run independently.’
4.3.1.2 The development pathway

The second lower-order theme concerns the structure and function of the participation and development pathway. Administrator 1 outlines the importance of mass participation in providing SA with a broad base of cricketing participants and notes that he perceives it now to be the second most popular sport in SA. There also is recognition for the phased development of skills, with less emphasis on competition before the age of 13.

‘Where we have been very successful is in the pyramid scheme where we start at a very broad base, but that is mass participation which is Bakers cricket, which is soft ball and it is just to get cricket to become the number one sport in SA..., so we are chasing soccer to become the number one sport in SA. At that level I see it more as the popularisation of the game and not skills. Kids must play here…hit the ball and have a giggle and enjoy it and then they will get attached to the game. The next level up is the 8-10 years schedule, that is the start with the hardball, now then you need a bit of skill otherwise you are going to get kids injuring themselves. Everyone in SA realised that primary schools still remain a feeder into the bigger scheme of things and not be too competitive. We have an U/13 league which gets competitive and guys want to win it and the provinces fight too, but that is the first entry level to real competition and we don’t have that at the U/11 level, we used to have that but we have taken it away now.’ (Administrator 1)

Administrator 3 confirms the aspect of fun with regards to grassroots participation. Importantly, he also outlines the provinces intention to use this opportunity to identify individuals who exhibit the potential to develop into cricketers over the long term.

‘We have changed the perception of Bakers Mini cricket. We still drive it as an awareness, as an enjoyment, as an introduction and have fun. But we say there is some natural ability here. The hand to eye coordination, the feet, the athlete itself, at eight and nine and ten, you can see, ‘this guy can run, he can catch, he can throw. He can hit’. We say that is where we identify … that is our first opportunity and possibly our best opportunity. Because if both of us are successful in our relationship we have got the longest time with him, plus or minus ten years to develop him’. (Administrator 3)

Coach 4 emphasises the importance of age-related provincial cricket weeks to embedding the culture of cricket in the SA system. He notes this success is down to good external funding and a commitment from CSA to continue with this
structure as a development plan due to its perceived importance in creating a competitive interest in the game. On a separate point, Coach 4 also explains the lack of club cricket development activities due to what he perceives being caused by financial constraints.

‘I think they can always put more money into player development from a younger age, from the grassroots. But I actually think our system is quite good. It is not by any means water tight, but I think the fact that we have been able to hang on to these national weeks, and we have had a lot of good funding…it (the passion) is developed there…I think one of the big gaps is, I don’t think there is enough work being done by the clubs, and it is mainly financial restraints, they are not doing enough to develop the kids from their grassroots.’ (Coach 4)

Coach 3 agrees with Coach 4’s comment above, that the structure of the development programmes outlined are good and that they are identifying talent. Coach 3 adds two further points. The first is the importance placed on the school as a development environment, so much so that talent adolescents, irrespective of colour, are identified and placed in good schools. The second is that he confirms the earlier statement of Coach 4, that the club level is no longer perceived to be the development environment it was.

‘SA have done very well in nurturing young players, we have got good schooling (and) good development programmes. I think the talent identification has definitely improved…when identified they get put into really good cricketing schools…the one area that has changed is that club cricket has almost become redundant.’ (Coach 3)

Administrator 1 confirms the importance of the school structure to SA development pathway, however he also makes mention of age related club structure that plays a secondary role by offering extra cricketing opportunities to players over the weekend. Importantly, he also stresses the importance of the tertiary education sector providing a significant proportion of provincial level cricketers.

‘You need a formal school structure. If you can’t play within a school system you are going to lose out on all the kids. So the UK model where kids go to clubs, we are busy doing that but it is only to give the guys more cricket, and not to take the responsibility away from schools. So we still have, at this stage, got a formal schooling system with leagues in place across all the age groups and that is very important for us to maintain. Then you have your club level. At your club level you
got junior teams playing there. So they will have an U/11, U/13, U/15 team and that's only on Saturdays. So that system goes into the provincial setup. We have got an U/20's, we still have about 50–60% of our guys coming into the provincial set up coming out of our tertiary set up’. (Administrator 1)

As highlighted in previous comments, Coach 1 confirms the importance and strength of SA school cricket, however makes specific mention of the declining strength schools cricket in certain areas. Broadly speaking it is perceived that the strength of SA schools cricket may now be confined to the larger cities, while the smaller centres have declined in standard. Significantly though, Coach 1 does mention the strategic investment into a national schools competition, stressing the importance CSA attach to development at this level.

‘I feel we are shooting ourselves in the foot and the only thing that helps us is because SA school structure is so good. Place like (name of city) you can see it has gone down. The (name of province) is obviously stronger, (name of school) is still strong but in our days when we played, even a school like (name of school) could compete... Now it is (name of school) or the (name of school) or nothing else. They combine schools now to form clusters. (Name of city) is slightly different but I think the bigger centres, like here, (name of school) has got a good structure, good system. That is where SA cricket, it is a blessing for them, the school structures.’ (Coach 1)

4.3.1.3 Structural threats to performance and development pathways

The third lower-order theme relates to structural threats that participants perceived to come from within the performance and development pathways, influencing the cultural effectiveness of the system. Coach 5 questions the strength of the new franchise system, by stating that many of the players who are performing at national level developed during the old provincial system. It was also noted that the new system has narrowed the performance environment by reducing the number of players at franchise level.

‘If you look at most of the cricketers that have come out now that have been really successful for SA came out of the old system, as in [11] provinces. I don't think it [new system – 6 franchises] has produced cricketers. We have narrowed it down completely now there are not many cricketers playing now at the moment compared to what it used to be.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 2 outlines the competitive nature of franchise level cricket, but interestingly he highlights the strategic plan of identifying talented players and
placing them in good sporting schools. Coach 2 goes on to confirm that amateur club development level is declining, with many amateur clubs closing down due to ineffective management.

‘The first problem is that at franchise level it is very competitive and you are already contracting guys that you believe can win. It is the only way it has been working. (Name) was found in (name of area) and chucked into (name of school). That is development. Or is it developing the game itself, getting the facilities up and running, because I tell you what, in the last two seasons, more development clubs has closed down in (name of province) region than has opened up in the previous ten years. Facilities are gone, the clubs have closed up, because they have had no infrastructure, no management, no proper running of clubs. It is not a funding thing because the money is freely available. It is just the culture.’ (Coach 2)

Administrator 2 confirms the diminishing standard of club level cricket within certain areas of SA.

‘They might have a year or two at club level and go on…Club cricket is hopeless, right throughout the country. Obviously better in (name of city), a little bit better.’ (Administrator 2)

Importantly, Coach 4 outlines his vision for what he views club cricket as a development environment to be, especially at a community youth level. He stresses the importance not only of facilities, but also of a well-structured youth section that allows players to develop their cricket.

‘Every club to my mind should, be an academy. Should be a centre of excellence, let’s not use the word ‘academy’ because I think those words are chucked around too loosely. Every club, particularly when they are community based clubs serving quite a wide…and I am talking here as much about the townships as anywhere else. They should have a youth section that is properly structured with a really good infrastructure that helps the better players to develop.’ (Coach 4)

Coach 2 endorses earlier points by emphasising specific strategic plans on behalf of the province to work with clubs and universities in order to make them credible development environments. Unfortunately, Coach 2 also describes the difficulty with achieving this due to a changing culture of young cricketers not willing to work their way through the system (i.e. club cricket) if they are not offered a contract to play professional cricket full-time.

‘We try and work with the clubs here through the system and see what they have got in their levels, try and get youngsters from school level to the clubs, especially
to the varsity clubs, to get them stronger so that there is somewhere for these guys to go. Unfortunately the young culture in SA is... ‘when I leave school and I have made the SA schools team, or I have got close to that, the next thing I need is a contract’. There is no culture of going to university, staying for three years, work through that system, club system, proper university tournaments, into a system where you get into the provincial side ... If they don’t get contracts they go somewhere else. If they don’t get it somewhere else, some different franchise then they probably play club cricket for a year or so and then they will retire.’ (Coach 2)

Player 3 confirms Coach 1’s earlier comments by stressing the importance for young cricketers to go to a credible cricketing school, not only to increase the chances of being identified, but to also make use of the expertise schools offer.

‘I think it is hard for them to get spotted, unless someone has got money or a top school takes him in, his pathway isn’t going to be spotted. He is not going to get expertise at local level...When I look at my own son, and I talk about cricket, they haven’t taught him to hold a bat properly, he is nine’. (Player 3)

4.3.1.4 System-related subcultures

Lower-order theme four explains the significance of subcultures within the development pathway. Player 3 raises an important point concerning particular provinces looking after their own players, to the detriment of other players from another feeder province.

‘There are certain structures that have remained behind that have looked after certain guys but the (name of franchise) is a very much different culture. The hard thing in SA sport is you have got realise there is eleven different languages. Each culture is trying to look after itself within that system. So when you take a guy like (name of player)...(name of province) cricket have never taken him in and given him the opportunity to play in the (franchise)...They just looked after their own players.’ (Player 3)

Previous sections provided a broad outline of the development pathway in SA cricket, acknowledging that club cricket, in theory, feeds into the provincial system, which in turn feeds into the franchise system. Coach 4 explains that each province may do things in a different way, as each is run independently. In relation to a SA cricketing context, the level of complexity and coherency between provinces may be exacerbated due to each province having its own centralised and independently functional or simple structure, operating and ‘feeding’ a larger functional structure, i.e. the franchise. It may be argued that this structure, at
provincial level, increases the possibility of the non-alignment of the subculture with the organisation paradigm.

To add, Coach 4 explains that some provinces have devolved the administration of their respective club system away from the provincial board. Coach 4, however, suggests that this approach, in his opinion, could have lead to the diminished standard of club cricket in that area.

‘In different provinces it is organised in very different ways. In (name of province), I speak to the people at (name of province), the (province) cricket association, and I am not talking about the (franchise) here, I am talking about (provincial) cricket, equivalent of us, they have virtually nothing to do with club cricket, the running of it. And that is maybe why it is regarded as slightly poor and inferior. We run and administer schools cricket from our offices here. Slightly haphazard, we have had some problems.’ (Coach 4)

Administrator 4 adds to Coach 4’s comments above by outlining that in his experience, even when the clubs are administered centrally via the province there seems to be a distinct lack of commitment from some clubs to administering of the game.

‘Cricket at provincial level, I don’t know about club level, club level, what is left of club cricket now. They are all spoon fed by the board, their fields are prepared for them. They come in, they get balls, they get everything and sometimes they don’t even pitch.’ (Administrator 4)

Coach 1 notes, not only a lack of communication between the two feeder provinces, but also the disjointed approach between the two feeder provinces in understanding who the valuable players are in the region. Coach 1 perceives there to be a culture of expectation, believing that a certain player born in an area will not leave the area and will remain loyal to that province irrespective of performances.

‘If that guy is here, the guys see him playing and say ‘jeezers, I never realized he can play’ and then they said ‘don’t worry, there is no way he will leave (name of city)’. Next thing I hear he has gone for trials at three franchises, and (name of CEO) is so pissed off he basically chased him out his office…he gave up his job for cricket and now they can’t keep him there, so obviously he has to look at it … Now that is a long story but it shows the communication between the two. At this moment he has signed for (name of franchise). So he has got it.’ (Coach 1)

On the back of the earlier point, Coach 1 explains it is important to be strategic when planning for the recruitment of future player so players do not pass
unnoticed, especially when this relates to players of colour and fulfilling the team quota requirements.

‘I see it as ‘right (name), let’s go when they have the winter weeks and see what is in the pipeline so we can at least say there is a little coloured batter, he can play…and know in a years’ time he will finish school, you get the structures ready and you get things in order for him to come and study here. It is not to take him away from (name of province), he can still play for the amateur side but at least you have got him here and you know you don’t have to go and buy a batter of colour.’

(Coach 1)

Administrator 2 emphasises a lack of common purpose amongst the franchises, with teams stealing players from one another with everyone having their own agenda and plans. Interestingly, Administrator 2 also raises the point that franchises seem reticent to look at the developmental elements, such as the club environment, to find players.

‘They are inclined to miss the club structures, they get their 15 contracted players and that is it. Except they steal from other provinces, that is all they do. It is not ethical if they do it. It is like one company stealing from the other. Even though you are supposed to be in the overall picture for SA cricket, you are just trying to make your team.’

(Administrator 2)

4.3.2 Power structures

4.3.2.1 Operational decision-making and control

Administrator 1 outlines the formal structure of one of the franchises. It is important to note that, as each franchise is made up of two separate and independent provinces, the board of directors operating at franchise level will be made up by way of equal representation from each province. Administrator 1 explains that it is the board of directors who will approve all decisions relating to operations and player workforce.

‘We have got a small structure in that we got a CEO or a administrative head, lets call it that and a finance manager and that’s it. All travelling all costs go through two hands. We report to a board of directors, consisting of four guys from the (name of city) area and four guys from the (name of city) area which makes a combined committee of 8, so equal votes. Underneath that we have a players committee which looks after the player contracts, the term of the contract and the money value to that will go to the board for ratification. It is a simple structure, but formal structure.’

(Administrator 1)
Coach 3 confirms a similar scenario, however from the point of view of the head coach. Coach 3 confirms to whom he reports and presents his plans for the season. This formalised procedure involves discussions between the playing affairs committee and the convener of selectors, revealing the coach, in this instance, not having total control when implementing his plans for the season. Coach 3 alludes to this being a positive process, as the individuals who make up the playing committee are all from a cricketing background.

"We have got a cricket committee, the playing affairs committee, of which (name), an ex-player, he heads it up. The convener of selectors sits on it who is (name). The two CEOs of (name of province) and (name of province) sit on it and the two coaches sit on it as well. Then I present them with my plan, in terms of how we are going to play, what sort of cricket we are going to play per competition, at the end of that competition we will have a revaluation, the board might get involved as well. You only see them when you have done poorly, you never see them when you have done well...As far as that is concerned we are good, because we have got cricketing people sitting on those committees.' (Coach 3)

Coach 4 is of the perception that administrators lack an understanding of the game that may hinder effective and progressive thinking to be implemented that will help drive the game forward.

'As an ex professional in dealing with the game at professional level the biggest problem in my opinion is there aren't enough cricket brains running cricket. I really pick that up, and I go round quite a lot of the provinces...it is all very well to like cricket but how passionate they are and how knowledgeable they are about how to put cricket up to the next level and the next level, I have got my doubts about that. It comes from the way the game is administered. I think it is still quite old fashioned.' (Coach 4)

Player 1 raises a point surrounding an outdated electoral system that allows individuals from the amateur development environment to be selected to decision-making positions at the performance level.

'I firmly believe we sit with a system that is upside down, because if you have a look at the electoral system of the provinces. A guy that wants to become president goes and lobbies each club and the club votes him to become the president of the province and then the presidents sit on the general council of CSA. So you have the amateur part that comes out of an amateur era system still getting the elected people into their positions and the amateur game has changed from an amateur game to a professional game and the success of the amateur game is
dependent upon the success of the professional game, not the other way around. People use this to get to other political ambitions.’ (Player 1)

Administrator 2 raises the point that because board membership is not a suitably paid position it is possible the individuals elected to position on the board are not necessarily the best person for the position and they may be motivated or elected to position by virtue of a divergent agenda. For example, Administrator 2 perceives that the decision behind the national coach losing his position was one driven by politics rather than one relating to cricketing performance.

‘The board has got the ultimate bloody say…the guys are sitting there and they have got no ideas of cricket and making decisions, like to kick (coach) out. Purely political. They are not related to cricket. Separate issue…Lets exclude the political scenario, sport is so professional these days but it is run by amateurs, irrespective of the black or white scenario. In some ways you have got to create a culture, and I don’t think the guys…are in it for money. If you want guys to run the place, they have got to have money, let the bloody managing director earn money. Give the board members money. Give them directors fees. Not five grand like I used to get, give them one hundred grand. Let’s try and get the best guy.’ (Administrator 2)

Administrator 4 offers a more blunt approach, stating that issues lie not with the corporate structure of the board and its function, but with the individuals who make up the structure and who do not fully understand the product that they are making important decisions on. As was the case with Administrator 2’s comments,Administrator 4 also perceives there to be individuals on the board who are operating under alternative agendas.

‘It is theoretically right in terms of corporate governance…Board of directors, everything is perfectly right but to be blunt with you I don’t think there are enough ex cricketers serving cricket in this country. There is not enough people who know the product serving SA cricket…I will be shot for this, but the amount of external businessmen or people who are there for power or alternative reasons, it is a disgrace.’ (Administrator 4)

Coach 1 corroborates earlier statements by adding that, not only are the decision-makers lacking a fundamental understanding of the game, he perceives that political agendas outweigh those agendas that may lead to the betterment of cricket in SA. Additionally, Coach 1 also perceives that the rationale behind the new franchise structure and domestic structure is flawed and more costly than first anticipated.
‘Those guys make the calls but there are guys with no cricket background, no cricket knowledge, it is very much a political agenda…I did research and found that it (the new franchise structure) is costing more now with the amateur set up and the franchise set up than what it would have cost to have eight teams or six five or whatever. So the power is definitely on top I feel. But I think the emphasis is not on cricket. It is more a power struggle, a political struggle.’ (Coach 1)

Player 3 also raises concern over the administrator’s grasp and implementation of core cricketing issue and makes reference to the power and control administrators have over these core issues.

‘They would set a template but it would still be driven on their core issues. The guys that are setting the template have never played the game. So if you don’t have a basic understanding of anything, how do you set up a template? I know it sounds negative, but it is negative. And everyone is too scared to run against that system or they get kicked out that system so that is the difference.’ (Player 3)

4.3.2.2 Decision-making between the field and the boardroom

The second lower-order theme within Theme 2 relates to the decision-making and operational functioning between the boardroom and the field. In the relationship and decision-making between the coach, the team captain and the CEO, Coach 2 outlines his perception of this multilateral relationship, with the coach fulfilling a relationship between the players and the board.

‘Most teams will say the captain will have the final say. That never worked. But he can’t have no say. He will say what he wants and 99% of the time he will get his choice but the convenor and the coach is still there to keep him in place regarding quotas, regarding discipline …all those kind of things. The final say has to lie there. Then I think the coach would be a link between what the board wants and where the team lies’. (Coach 2)

Administrator 4 outlines a consultation and advisory role that is expected from the coach, whereby he does not have total control over the selection of his team.

‘He isn’t given carte blanche, he consults with selectors he consults with myself. He doesn’t always get his team but he is allowed to have full input into his team. So if there is a contentious selection issue he is allowed to give his opinion.’ (Administrator 4)

Administrator 1 portrays a slightly different picture and highlights it as necessary for the coach to have total control over team selection and for them to
be surrounded with like-minded individuals. Importantly though, he does make mention of certain guidelines which the coach needs to adhere to.

‘On a franchise level the coach has carte blanche sort of. That is has almost always been the case with the franchise…the coaches have said ‘listen, this is the team I want, you can’t fire me…I am contracted here for two years, so if I go out there with a team that I am not happy with, you can’t fire me because we didn’t produce the way we wanted to’. So there are certain guidelines that I have to adhere to and if that is met, no problem, and the coaches have got free reign. What has happened now, lately on Cricket SA level, they (CSA) have taken it over and for the first time in history the coach couldn’t appoint his own support staff and you are going to inherit guys you are most probably not comfortable with and which doesn’t share your views, so what will happen in the next two years I am not sure but it will have an affect.’ (Administrator 1)

Player 2 provides a distinct line between what the CEO’s remit is and the environment in which the coach is in charge, however crucially states that there are certain directives that may force the boundaries to become blurred.

‘In terms of management this is a job for the CEO. On the field it’s the coach who is in charge. There are elements of cross-over, especially with the selection of players on the basis of colour.’ (Player 2)

Administrator 4 confirms the relationship between the board and coach and suggests that it is the board that evaluates the coach, and does not give the coach position enough importance, due to a lack of understanding that surrounds the role.

‘The board actually evaluates the coach here but I don’t believe the coach has enough input. I don’t believe there is enough cognizance taken of the coach’s expertise…to put it bluntly I believe there are people in positions, not only in the board, but in positions in the organisation and this might sound controversial but it is my absolute belief, that actually don’t know enough about cricket to understand what the coaches are doing.’ (Administrator 4)

Coach 4, similarly to Administrator 4, substantiates a general lack of understanding from individuals on the board, concerning not only the importance of having enough qualified coaches, but a general understanding of the role of the coach and what it takes to develop an individual.

‘But I am afraid they go back and within a few weeks that message has slightly got lost on them…to get the game right we have got to get the coaches better qualified, get the right people in the right places, I don’t think enough of that is being done. I
don’t think the guys in the boardroom really appreciate the work the coaches do or have to do, in order to produce that end product.’ (Coach 4)

Coach 1 outlines the importance of the coach, however also highlights a crucial aspect of the coaches former playing background having an effect on the level of control they may hold. Coach 1 perceived this leading to a transfer of further power to the CEO.

‘I think (name of coach) got a bit of a wake up call this year. When (name of coach) was here I think he held a lot of power. He made calls, when it came to contracts like mine he was the one who said ‘I would like that guy to be here, this is my plan’. I think maybe it is something you earned through results, through the time you spent at certain organisations, but I felt that this year it moved a lot more towards the CEO, where he made those types of calls [contracting].’ (Coach 1)

Coach 3 describes the difficulties faced by coaches, due to the nature of the role and position between the board and the players and highlights the importance of a coach being able have the conviction to implement their own strategy and vision by actively approaching and discussing this with the CEO and board.

‘You need to make peace with the fact that you are going to get fired at some stage. You need to understand that…You can’t coach to stay in the job, because if you want the security of that, stay a schoolteacher. You almost understand what you take on. It doesn’t mean that you are necessarily going to agree with it. What I always try and encourage throughout is trying to go up to the CEO and board and trying to get them to understand that, but certainly going down I have a lot more power, is a system of complete trust and the system of,…you don’t play a blame game’. (Coach 3)

4.3.2.3 The power in on-field decision-making

The third lower-order theme relates to the decision-making and power structures to the on-field relationship between the team captain and the coach. In understanding this relationship, Coach 5 refers to the captain of the team being the person with the real power, especially when making on-field decisions.

‘I would say the most important person if you are going to have success is the captain. He is the one who makes all the decisions, all the line calls on the field. He is the oak (guy) who runs the game, he is the guy that all the players are going to look up to. The coach can’t because the coach…in all due respect he can be a very technical guy but you can still look in his eyes and you might not believe…in the heat of the moment the players have got to look at him and believe that he is
there for them. He is not shrinking, he is not backing down, he is the man for the situation and they will follow him wherever he goes.’ (Coach 5)

Player 1 confirms that in his opinion the captain should have greater control with regards on-field decisions and it is the coach’s job to prepare the team for competition, however it seems in reality the coach is the one who is in control.

‘I firmly believe it is the coaches job to prepare the team and on the day of competition the captains job takes over. There are tactical decisions and batting orders needing changed, the captain takes the lead in that and will then consult with the coach, but that is the captain’s call. But generally speaking in SA that is not the case and coach is very much in charge.’ (Player 1)

Player 1 goes on to state that this approach, of the coach being in control, is embedded in SA national culture and one that is generally accepted without question. On an individual level, Player 1 also explains that he preferred the coach to empower the player, both within and out with the game, rather than to favour instruction.

‘The coaches I have thought of the most highly are the ones that taught life and not necessarily cricket. Those are the coaches I’ve always thought stand out way above the rest and give you the tools to empower yourself. I think generally the culture in SA the coach says we need to do this and everyone without thinking will say this is what the coach wants us to do and we do this.’ (Player 1)

In negotiating the relationship between the captain and team, Coach 3 acknowledges the importance of understanding when to add value and when to stand back. Crucially an important element in being able to follow this approach is for the captain to exhibit strong leadership capabilities, because Coach 3 perceived that the weaker the captain was, the more control the coach would need to display.

‘As a coach I need to know when to back off and also when I need to impose myself. As a captain he needs to know when he needs to back off and also impose himself. But as a departure point I see the captain as being the main ou, (main guy) the head honcho and players need to know that. I think there were times when we had less imposing leaders, we were almost like a rugby side and we had to wait until half time before the coach could tell you this that and the other…There might be the case at a drinks break, you send a message out and the captain takes it or he doesn’t, and if he doesn’t I don’t slit my wrists. I am really the sounding board for him.’ (Coach 3)
Coach 2 explains the importance of setting out parameters in which the team will operate. Importantly the players seem to have been charged with setting out the rules of operation that dictate clear lines of communication between coach, captain and team. This approach acknowledges the importance of the team deciding the working relationship, rather than just the coach or the captain.

‘I believe the setting of individual goals or team goals lies with the coach. Obviously the team is set up in conjunction with the coach, because that will determine the working relationship between them. We will have a set of rules. That is how the team operates. The coach will operate according to those rules. That will be his communication to the team and to the captain. They can’t operate without those rules because the team will determine those rules.’ (Coach 2)

Coach 2 goes further by describing the role between the captain, team and coach as one that takes on cyclical behaviour during competition time. In a similar approach to Coach 3, he describes his role as preparing the team for competition and when he is satisfied, the team is handed across to the captain. Once the game is over, the cycle of individual feedback begins again.

‘Well I think the coach actually lies in three different places. In preparation before he hands over to the captain. So when the team is prepared and you are happy with that, the team is handed to the captain and they go and play the game. Then you should be standing back. After feedback from the captain as a group, then individual feedback starts again.’ (Coach 2)

Coach 3 highlights the important relationship between the coach and the team captain. Crucially, the coach needs to judge whether to take more of a controlling role and when to allow the captain more autonomy. Coach 3 believes this relationship is dependent on the leadership qualities of the captain.

‘You need to be smart enough to understand when to be involved, when not to be involved. I think last season and the season before when we had less strong leaders, and I say this with respect to the guys…maybe more introverted captains than extroverted captains. We had (name of player) we had (name of player) captain before that, then I needed to be a lot more at the forefront of a lot of things, simply because they weren’t the type of guys to get up in team meetings and lead the whole thing. Now when we have got someone like (name of player) who is pretty much out there and wants to lead from the front, I take more of a back seat.’ (Coach 3)
Coach 2 reiterates Coach 3’s earlier statement by explaining the importance of strong leadership qualities exhibited from the captain, but also the ability of the coach to allow the captain to lead.

‘With all the talent they had, couldn’t get into a semi-final in one of the formats and couldn’t win a game, they hadn’t won one game in three seasons in super sport. (Name of player) came, proper captain for a change, turned things around. The moment they have got one captain that was willing to stand up and run the thing, they got a strong hand, even when national players come in he runs it, although he doesn’t score the most runs, he is a proper captain and he knows what he wants. So if you get that right the captain, (it) is vitally important for your whole structure, and to run with these individuals.’ (Coach 2)

4.3.3 Control systems

The control systems artefact forms the third higher-order theme and upon analysis revealed two further lower-order themes that of; 1) The profits of national performances and 2) The nature of performance evaluations and incentives.

4.3.3.1 The profits of national performances

Administrator 4 explained that a significant part of the income generated by CSA would be through the performance of the national side. The formal organisational structures are in place to channel the funds to each respective franchise, but the flow of this money could be jeopardised if the performance of the national team declines for too long a period, thus impacting on the availability of funding further down the development path.

‘It is determined by the amount available, the amount of money generated by the national team. All money for SA cricket is generated by the national team, sponsorship, TV rights, that kind of thing…this is the way I see a potential threat to SA cricket, your money is all generated by the national team, it filters down through section 21 through to provinces…I believe it is at threat in the next couple of years because I don’t know how strong the national team will be, because of the retirement of key players.’ (Administrator 4)

Player 1 confirms the even spread of money from CSA that is distributed to the various franchises, but also explains that the current financial strength of each franchise is not taken into account when funding is provided. He explains that some franchises operating in the larger cities have a greater opportunity to source alternative revenue streams to supplement their CSA income than others, leading to an overall disparity in resources across each franchise.
'One thing I do know is that everyone gets the same hand-out, every franchise will get the same. But you will have a place like the Wanderers for example that has an operating profit of about £16 million per year, so there is definitely more resources available. (Name of city stadium) the same. Purely because of the identity we spoke about earlier. Our boxes here you cant give away for free, neither can you use the advertising boards, whereas the (name of city stadium), because they get 3 international games a year…a box goes for R100,000 (and) there are 50 or 60 boxes, you make the sum yourself. They should actually be one of the strongest franchises because of the catch-net.’ (Player 1)

Administrator 1 substantiates player 1’s earlier comments by confirming that it is only the largest franchises that are profitable and that differences in profitability relate to stadium sizes.

‘The biggest state is (name of city) and is in profit, but the rest aren’t. They are not profitable. By virtue of population (name of franchise) should dominate SA cricket, absolutely dominate all phases of the game.’ (Administrator 1)

Coach 5 highlights that the game at the highest professional domestic level is not profitable due to a variety of issues, one being that each franchise lacks complete autonomy to run its affairs like a credible business due to political and administrative agendas.

‘I would say cricket as a whole in SA as a business, isn’t for me the best business. When you look at it from purely a franchise point of view, actual companies, if you look at each product, each franchise is by definition a company, they don’t make money, so what are they doing wrong. Do they carry people that do nothing? How can you carry players that don’t contribute? I just believe you have got to run every franchise like it is a business. How do you bring more sponsors in? It is just purely business it can’t be. But then again like I said, SA politics can also come into it. The UCB, Cricket SA run each company. So each company hasn’t got their own direction, they are basically told what to do.’ (Coach 5)

Administrator 4 acknowledges the importance of utilising more of the funding generated by the national team in order to grow the game at the development level rather than gathering and storing profits for commercial purposes.

‘Your product is your national team, but if you haven’t got the basis you are not growing the wheat to make the bread … the quality of your bread is going to become worse and worse. And by filtering that money down, I don’t believe they are filtering it down … it is filtering down to commercial aspects to be honest. And I
don’t believe enough is going through to grassroots for us at the bottom to actually sustain cricket…to actually grow the game.’ (Administrator 4)

Coach 4 draws attention to issues raised earlier by Administrator 4, with regards to a lack of understanding shown by administrators when applying financial resources to the areas that may develop the game over the long term.

‘They (the administrators) don’t look at the scientific models and they pay, again, lip service to ‘yes, yes, we need to put more money into coaching’ but at the end of the day, when they sit down with their budgets the coaching staff, and the coaching department gets less or the same. They don’t say ‘we need to employ two or three really good guys in these areas to really lift our coaching up.’ (Coach 4)

4.3.3.2 The nature of performance evaluations and incentives

Lower-order theme two relates to how the organisation evaluates and rewards for superior performances. In terms of evaluating culture, rewards and incentives and how they are applied within an organisation may represent how close the current practices are aligned with the norms and values of the paradigm. Administrator 1 confirms how the franchise coach is quantitatively measured and evaluated, based on a percentage of games won per series. Interestingly this target is set and measured by the board of directors.

‘So we have been averaging on 62% of winning games per series. Now compared to the closest rival is the (name of franchise) which is 56% so it just tells you we have done things far better, far longer than any other franchise. If you take the (name of franchise) at this stage, they are running on 36%. But they have got a different team now so they will quickly change that around in the next two or three years. We need to set a norm where we would feel comfortable to run up. 63%, I can tell you, that is very high…56% I would say that would be the norm, but obviously that would be determined by the board of directors and that would be the challenge now for the coach. His performance would be rated on the average of what is happening.’ (Administrator 1)

In terms of player evaluations, Player 2 summarises his experiences surrounding performance evaluation, stating that the coach plays a significant part in the process of setting and evaluating goals. Player 2 also notes that hitting specific performance targets enables the player to build up negotiating power when new contracts are to be discussed.

‘The coach I would say has a massive influence in determining the evaluation of how you perform and comparisons would be made at the end of the season, in
Player 2 describes how players may be rewarded for reaching a specific performance threshold and that this may be structured into their contracts. Interestingly, Player 2 stresses the sports agent now having a significant part to play in these contractual negotiations, by removing the player and the potential stress from this situation.

‘Some guys structure their contracts in such a way that promotes performance and achievement. Let’s say 1000 runs gets rewarded at the end of the season and those clauses may be included in individual contracts. Previously you as a player would go in and determine and negotiate your contract, where now not many guys would feel comfortable going into the office and saying ‘look I feel I am worth that much’ or ‘I should be earning that much’ or whatever. Where the role of the agent now plays that role.’ (Player 2)

Administrator 1 offers some insight into the public availability of individual and team performance statistics, with every professional game freely available for any player or member of the public to view. This makes it very simple for players to evaluate their own performance. Interestingly, in the case of Administrator 1’s franchise, players are offered a chance to provide peer-reviews across three awards, adding further depth to the evaluation process.

‘Statistics are freely available lately, the players are evaluating themselves now. You just need to look on the stats to see where you stand. Individual performances are rated by the team on a yearly basis. It is something that we have done from the start of the (name of franchise) thing. Where we got three awards per year that is handed over...we put out an evaluation form to the whole squad and they evaluate one another within the set up to see who is the most valuable player, who is the most improved player and who was the players’ player of the year.’ (Administrator 1)

In an attempt to ensure good quality and consistent performances, Coach 5 outlines a significant strategy in approaching a long-term outcome based goal,
such as winning a trophy, is through the setting of small but achievable short-term goals. Importantly Coach 5 also stresses the difference in goal setting between the team environment and the board, with the board interested only in the number of trophies won.

‘That is your dream goal, the thing you dream about is winning the trophy but there come so many little goals on the way to doing that, you have got to set those parameters, obviously game by game, because if you think of one thing at the end, that only comes together if you meet 150 goals before that. Your run targets, your wickets targets, your run records, all those sorts of goals. From the outside I don’t know, our board hasn’t set goals for teams. The one thing the board wants is to win trophies, that is it. The process is up to me, but the end result they just want a trophy.’ (Coach 5)

Administrator 1 provides some insight into the evaluation and the lack of incentive available for those coaches at the front-end of the development spectrum by adding that it is very much a closed shop when it comes to coaches progressing.

‘They get evaluated. They do courses, but again it is a difficult one to explain without sounding too negative. I am both negative and positive on this one. I believe there is a base and I believe the base is there to expand but I don’t know what the likelihood of that is. Franchise could have a different perspective. I am sitting here and again we don’t have enough people and there is not enough incentive for them. For coaches, very much a closed shop. There is money in it … but it is very much a sealed unit…there is no incentive for the coach to become better, so he is going to stay at that level. As long as he is producing an under 13 side ….’ (Administrator 4)

Administrator 4 adds to the comment above by providing a real example of a coach who, in order to gain a promotion with more money would be to take a step back and take a higher position at a lower level on the development spectrum.

‘In any job there must be room for promotion, and he has none. I am sitting with one coach here, he is a level three coach…He is coaching U/15, he is doing school coaching, he is doing everything. The only job we can give him is making the tea so he goes back and he gets three steps lower, and he becomes the head of bakers cricket, and he is actually going to get lost in the system, where he should be going forward.’ (Administrator 4)
4.3.4 Micro-level elements: symbolic interactions

4.3.4.1 Rituals and routines

Analysis revealed three lower-order themes within the Rituals and Routines element; 1) Individuality and societal shifts, 2) Consistency and fairness and 3) The practice environment.

4.3.4.1.1 Individuality and societal shifts

Player 2 describes that changes have occurred to the way teams may view an individual teammate’s ritual or routine. The accepted importance of psychological research has brought the significance of pre-routines to the foreground, allowing individuals to be more open-minded in accepting them as a natural part of an individual’s pre-match preparation. He makes a further point that the other players’ accepting a teammates pre-routine can depend on the performance success of the player in question.

‘As part of understanding each individual and what he wants out of a preparation point of view, some guys have a laugh and tease about some guys rituals and routines and what they do beforehand to get themselves ready, but because of the fact that there is a lot more psychological research and preparation done into a game, the guys are a bit more open-minded and understanding that what ever works for the guy in terms of preparation, whether that means sticking tape on the ceiling or sticking tape on before he goes to bat he may be mocked about it but you let him be because if he scores 150 runs at the day then so be it.’ (Player 2).

Player 2 later confirmed the importance of rituals and routines, but also explained the importance of accepting other players’ preferences and values in a team with diverse cultures. He explains an important point with regards to social and cultural changes in SA society and how these changes must be accepted and integrated at a team level.

‘There is an acceptance for it and a place for it and I think some guys will have some outrageous rituals and forms of preparation but you understand it is what is necessary in what can bring out the best for him. You also have to understand that because of the diverse cultures that there are going to be differences and it might be a religious thing and sometimes it might be just purely preparation, technical or mental.’ For instance I would go to school and you would have a similar culture in the team, whereas if you go to the Academy or the U/18’s all of a sudden you are sitting with 5 or 6 cultures that have to gel together and to get to understand everyone’s preferences and likes and moral values.’ (Player 2)
4.3.4.1.2 Consistency and fairness

Coach 2 offers a slightly alternative view to the way the team operates as a unit by stressing the importance of rituals and routines to instilling and setting the right attitude crucial to the practice environment. Importantly Coach 2 also mentions the importance of consistency with all players being treated in the same way.

“So you need to set out your team culture, your team norms, your team goals and your team rules. These things will guide exactly how you want to run this side so that even the physio should know what norms they should be following. Where you have confusion in a team or negativity…one guy shouldn't be treated differently from another one. If he is late, the same rule applies. And that is how you do that, keeps things positive because then there is no grey areas and that is the rule. That is important…That structure will determine how you operate as a team.’” (Coach 2)

Administrator 1 offers an alternative view, by explaining the importance of the coach surrounding himself with individuals who have similar values to their own. This perspective is similar to the one described by Coach 2 and is based on the premise that surrounding yourself with like-minded people drives the coach to be more consistent in their approach and increases the chances of players receiving a consistent and clear message.

“He needs guys surrounding him that he feels comfortable and shares the same norms and values. I have taken (name) book that he wrote, and that is what he did, he surrounded himself with the top athletes, he surrounded them with the most knowledgeable guys, because he knew they would be successful and they would put pressure on him to keep on performing. Which was, I think, the ideal situation.’” (Administrator 1)

4.3.4.1.3 The practice environment

When examining routines and rituals, the practice setting offers another environment of investigation and the third lower-order theme. Player 3 stressed the importance of individual feedback and goal setting to be routine, consistent and an integral part of the practice environment.

“Yes it is important, ritual and routine. In cricket, obviously when you are batting in nets you have got to be practicing like you play in the middle. When you reviewing players, I think it is important to let players know where they are. Where you see them fitting in on your system, where their weaknesses are, where their strengths are. I don't think people know where they are half the time.’” (Player 3)
Coach 5 outlines the individual nature of routines and the importance of the player being consistent in their approach if it works for them. Coach 5 also provides a word of caution for players or teams, that not all routines and rituals are effective or suitable and stresses the possible need to reflect on what is working and what is not, rather than just accepting it as the norm.

‘For me a routine is one of the most important things any sport...because you get to do things at your own pace. It is all about pressure…it always comes down to ‘how do I breathe’ and if you get into a routine of always doing the same things all the time and if it is successful for you, you have just got to learn to stay there and if you can stay there then nothing will ever really phase you because you are comfortable in that zone and it is successful for you. But at the same time, a good routine can be a bad routine. Guys get bad routines, bad rituals, like you say celebrating and all that sort of thing. It is fine, teams celebrate but there has also got to be the train of thought that not everybody does the same thing.’ (Coach 5)

4.3.4.2 Stories and symbols

Analysis of the second higher-order artefact revealed how stories acted as cultural symbols, leading to a renaming of the higher-order artefact to Stories and Symbols. Further analysis revealed an additional lower-order theme, Symbolic Symbols.

Player 2 explains the importance of storytelling to the game and describes the important learning process attached to this after game activity. Crucially, player 2 also speaks of how changes to the playing environment have reduced the opportunity for storytelling to occur.

‘In the last 7 to 10 years how that part of the game has changed, from when we started sitting in the change room, when our dads were playing for (name of club) and when the game was finished and the guys sat around with towels around their waists talking and telling stories and that as a kid I remember and I also remember the day I made my debut for the (name of franchise) because we had (name of player), (name of player), (name of player), you name it we had it in the old (name of province) and that is where I learnt my cricket. People talk about playing out in the middle and yes you gain a lot of experience, but listening to those guys in that environment after the game for me was massive. I am not sure what the reasons are to pin point as to why there isn't much happening at the end of a cricket day I don’t really know. I suppose there is a lot more cricket being played and a lot more travelling...But I would still say there is still a place for it and I would encourage it
because the fact that the youngsters coming through the system don't understand the culture of cricket and it is getting lost.’ (Player 2)

Player 1 perceives stories to have been an important part of his own cricketing development, however also stresses that the importance of these stories may not resonate across all cultures. More importantly, Player 1 makes reference to the impatience of the politicians who he views as trying to force a generation of players into the game when they are not being inspired by heroes from within their own culture to do so.

‘I remember being at the (name of provincial ground) watching (name of province) play (name of province) in the NisSA Shield. I mean Graham Pollock was still playing, but being able to go home and share that with my dad. I mean he was as excited as I was that Graham Pollock was at the (name of provincial ground). I think that is an important part of the development of a cricketer. I also think that is the part of the problem we sit with having blacks coming through the system. There is no culture there, there is nothing about getting excited about getting 80 on the field and his dad doesn't even know what he is talking about. This will take time and generally speaking the impatience of the politicians as they are trying to rush these things and it takes more time than they are prepared to give.’ (Player 1)

Coach 3 outlines the importance that stories have in establishing a cultural history around the game, but he also acknowledges Player 2's earlier comment that the development culture has changed. He perceives the way that the current younger-playing generation receives information about the game has changed, and as a consequence has altered the long-term learning that may occur alongside this.

‘It is huge. It is massive for me. The history, the stories. I just think we have missed out on almost a decade of…and it’s becoming even worse. Kids can’t sit and watch cricket anymore, they don’t sit and talk cricket anymore. They don’t know the history of the game. They don’t know some of our top players that are playing. You sit down and have a cricketing discussion and you are lost at five minutes with some of the younger blokes. They become highlight orientated rather than being able to sit through the whole day and being able to see the story unfold…I think it is very important. And it is something that has been lost in our game, for whatever reason. I don’t know if we started afresh with unification. I don’t know.’ (Coach 3)

Similarly, Administrator 1 corroborates Coach 3’s earlier comments, explaining that the impact of stories and the act of sitting down and talking about
the game has changed. He notes that the younger generations of cricketers are more difficult to get through to and may not understand the importance of stories in upholding traditions and values. He explains the importance of having a certain mix within a team, and for it to have players of experience (older) to provide team stability.

'We would sit down and have a couple of beers and talk the game. I learned more then than I would have learnt on the field. With just the young generation of 23 and less, you are not going to be able to do that today. You need a good mix of senior players and junior players. You need a (name of player) that can stable the boat. These guys are wonderful talented players but they don't seem to value the wicket as much as the older chaps used to do. And it is easy comes, easy goes type of feeling. And the more you talk about it...you just don't seem to break through to the guys. It is a different mentality.' (Administrator 1)

Coach 2 provides further detail to Administrator 1's explanation, outlining that there are less senior players who are able to lead and assume the role as teacher. He perceives it to be responsible for the culture amongst the younger cricketers at present.

'I think that is one of the reasons why we struggle a bit in SA. We haven't got the senior men and we have got a culture of 'I know what I am doing and nobody tells me'. Eventually what do you get to? You get to instant gratification type of cricket. Walking out and slogging and having a laugh...because there is no senior guys controlling the system or the team or the bowling or leading the batting by example.' (Coach 2)

Coach 5 offers a somewhat similar perspective to that of Coach 3's earlier comments, explaining that stories may often only tell the listener the more aspirational side of the sport, rather than one that offers the complete picture and instills a tradition of hard work and practice in order to succeed.

'A story is like a highlight. You see a guy and you see all the heroic things you do but you don't see all the groundwork he does behind the scenes. The groundwork he does behind the scenes to become their hero. What made him that hero, what made him that person that is so tough and doesn't get phased by pressure because he came from such a different background...They are very important...Like I say, for me, it is not always about being a hero, but it is important to hear those stories.' (Coach 5)
In a similar vein, Coach 2 acknowledges the changes that have occurred may be due to the modern cricketer having a better understanding of what they want out of the game and being more independent in their own learning.

‘Again, the breed of player that we currently have, is one that will probably move his work or his job, if it was the normal corporate world, every five years, he will not stay longer. This generation has come through to the players as well. If he is not in the place that he believes is the right spot he will look for another option. In that sense, loyalty is only one thing, and that is loyalty to himself and his own career.’ (Coach 2)

### 4.3.4.2 Symbolic symbols

This lower-order theme reveals the importance of symbols and their interaction with the cultural environment. At the beginning of the 2004/5 cricket season, Cricket SA (CSA) adopted a franchise approach. The branding of the ‘new’ franchise teams meant old symbols identifying provincial teams were discarded for new innovative ideas and brands. For example, the amalgamation of the two provinces, (name of province) and the (name of province) into a single franchise renamed the (name of franchise) meant that two ‘symbols’ were replaced by one, the (name). Administrator 1 conveys the idea behind the (name) as a logo/brand.

‘Now if you take our logo the (name), it something that has got the characteristics of what is needed to be a great cricketer. It didn’t just pop out. It is aggressive, got great eyesight, it is the best predator that you can have, its fast, it does everything at high speed. So there were a lot of those things.’ (Administrator 1)

Before the franchise structure was adopted, provincialism was central to SA sporting identity. The general feeling is that by creating a brand an identity had been removed. Player 1 acknowledges the importance of the provincial system to SA cricket and that the structural changes may have lead to individuals not identifying with the new franchise brands.

‘I think it (symbols) is very important. That is a sad thing that the franchise system broke down. We had strong provincialism in our country, I think because of the apartheid and I mean it was an international sport so people associated with the province that you came from. It broke down and I see here certainly there is not much of an identity. The (name of city) people don’t feel they are part of the (name of franchise). You can see it in the number of people who come and watch, there are very few supporters watching. There is a lack of identity.’ (Player 1)
Coach 3 confirms Player 1’s assertions that the rebranding of the old provincial system was not met with a positive response, however over time the new brand has become accepted.

'I was fortunate, in my first year here we were still known as (name of province) and the name couldn't fit on your shirt. So look, there was a big marketing drive, the marketing group were consulted to come up with a brand name. And initially there was a lot of resistance to it. Like with anything people are just scared of the unknown and better the devil we know. And so initially there was a lot of taking of the mickey around the name, etc, etc. But I think it is a brand that has grown...I think it is a strong brand. The name (name of franchise)...when you speak of the (name) you know what you are talking about now. There is an association. So I think there might have been a resistance from players as well. Especially some of the older guys who had grown up wanting to only play for (name of province) and playing at (name of ground).’ (Coach 3)

Similarly, Player 2 highlights the significance of a badge as a symbol of pride and loyalty and that the simple rebranding or the removal of a badge can change both the culture and the loyalty. Interestingly, player 2 also makes reference to the culture being transient in nature with changes occurring in line with the movement of players as they join and leave a team.

'The difference in that culture to what is created now in a franchise system where the badge has changed. I mean here your name of your sponsorship changes every year so you have a different package or brand or identity every year that you play under. That culture in itself then gets created by the characters in the team and the type of leadership and the group of players you have in the team and in itself is a unique concept, and that is the way teams are going nowadays.' (Player 2)

To add, Coach 5 describes the importance of symbols when relating to individual aspirations. As a young cricketer the symbol of playing for the national team was, and still remains, an important motivating factor.

'I think a Springbok is important. Guys had grown up to think about representing the Springboks and that badge. This is obviously not an old enough brand (the Protea) to be able to get to that point, maybe one day it will do but I think it is important...an understanding of what it is, the history that came with it.’ (Coach 5)

Interestingly, Coach 5 makes reference to representing the Springboks and what this meant to him. This was changed to the Proteas, however individuals still
refer to the national team as the Springboks. Player 3 relates the importance this change meant to him, but also perceives that the change has meant that fewer people are identifying with it.

‘The Protea’s emblem doesn’t mean anything to me. We grew up in a diverse culture. For the Proteas emblem, what does it mean? Does it mean anything? Even with Scotland, it is a beautiful emblem, you want to be part of that, part of the tradition…I think it was a negative. Positive if you are black. But the people who are driving the sport, the people who are still producing winning performances, that logo means nothing to them. And the culture is coming through to not care about it. A teenager doesn’t care whether it is a Protea or a Springbok.’ (Player 3)

Within a sporting context, individuals may also represent symbols, as both heroes and villains. For example, in a SA context it is important to develop the game across all socio-cultural divides, and in order to do this it is necessary for there to be heroes, across all cultures, for young cricketers to look up to. Administrator 2 acknowledges the importance of this factor.

‘Obviously as we go forward it is important to find a black hero, there is no question. Which (name of player) was to a certain point. We have all had white heroes, so it is quite important to build that up. The cricket culture of a country really doesn’t exist in one generation. It goes through three generation. You play cricket because of your father. My kids play cricket because of my father. I played because of my father, they (my sons) play because of me. So that becomes the cricketing culture. When you start having heroes and follow guys. That is very important.’ (Administrator 2)

4.4 Conclusion

The aims of this study were to explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, taken from the domain of organisational culture management, to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment.

A number of sports organisational researchers explain that culture has not been included in organisational research due to the unique differences across nations and differences across sports (Henry et al., 2005; Houlihan & Green, 2008; De Bosscher et al., 2009). An advantage of using a framework that evaluates culture by way of materialistic elements is that it allows the culture of an organisation to be structurally mapped, underscoring differences between systems and approaches and highlighting potential stressors within the system. For
example, it emerged that the culture to participation and development in a SA context focuses on a considerable mass participation base, leading to a strong influence of the school system to maintain athletic and sports development. Alongside the school structure there is also a focus on a provincial age-related pathway consisting of an extensive selection process from the U/13 age group through to the U/19 age group. The structure described by participants was one that resembles the pyramid metaphor. There are a number of researchers who explain that mass participation should not be viewed as a precursor or a necessary requirement to elite sport, because it is possible to build competitive elite systems without a broad participation base (van Bottenburg, 2003; Green, 2003; De Bosscher & van Bottenburg, 2011). This does not seem to be the case in a SA cricketing context, with SA cricket perceived to rely on mass participation and youth structures. The pyramid metaphor has also come under increasing criticism from sports psychologists too, due to the number of participants who leave the sport due to threshold measures as they progress up the pyramid (Bailey & Collins, 2012). Even though there may be a number of criticisms of this process, more specifically around the selection and de-selection process being based on one-off training sessions and at the age when young adolescent cricketers should still be taking part in a number of sports (Côté, Lidor & Hackfort, 2009), it may be the only method, due to the sheer scale of the operations, perceived practically available that may align to the organisational paradigm, of opportunities for all and excellence at every level.

4.4.1 Organisational stressors: the role of subcultures

De Bosscher et al. (2013) explain that the relationship between mass participation and elite processes is becoming increasingly divergent and this seems to be partially evident. An important transition occurs in SA when young adolescent cricketers leave the school cricketing environment and age-related development environment and enter into the next stage of their development, the adult participation pathway or sub-elite or elite development environments. For example, it emerged that two developmental elements involved during this transition period had changed. It emerged that the amateur club and schools structures were diminishing in strength across certain areas, leaving it to the major centres to provide the structures that support development.

It also emerged that tensions were evident relating to communication between the feeder provinces below the franchise being attributable to the
organisational structure and design of the system. Owing to the structure of the performance pathway, each province may be viewed as a subculture, with each feeder province under the franchise being run independently. This makes the division of labour a challenge when providing the franchise with players from the provincial teams. This in itself is not overly significant as each geographical region may wish to adopt a different approach to deal with differentiated regional needs in order to operate effectively (Hoye et al., 2015). Interestingly, Johnson et al. (2008) and Brooks (2009) conclude that organisational structures that are either functional or divisional have the disadvantage of tending to be inward looking, suffer the possibility of duplicating effort and are not effective at coping with diversity. In relation to a SA cricketing context, the level of complexity and coherency between provinces was potentially exacerbated due to each province having its own centralized and independent functional structure, operating and ‘feeding’ into a larger functional structure, i.e. the franchise. It may be argued that this structure, at provincial level, increases the possibility of the non-alignment of the subculture with the organisation paradigm.

The following factor stresses the importance of Organisation Structures being closest to the paradigm; the structure associated with a hierarchical decision-making and electoral system. This is unsurprising, as the threat of competition in the sporting marketplace has caused most modern sports organisations to mirror business-related governance structures (Cruickshank et al., 2012a; Cruickshank & Collins, 2012b; Cruickshank & Collins, 2013) and follow a formal corporate structure that will suit its tax structure and operational environment (Hoye, Smith, Nicolson & Stewart, 2015). These factors also impact on the Power Structures element, which in turn affects the Control Systems and the allocation of resources. For example, what emerged was not so much the hierarchical structure itself, but rather the electoral system that allowed individuals involved at an amateur level to lobby members to vote in their favour and thus be voted to board level and a decision-making position at a professional level. It is common for organisations with a hierarchical power structure to be more directive-orientated over that of a ‘flatter’ power structure whereby collaboration and participation are more common and sought after behaviours (Johnson et al., 2008). The consequence of this was the way it affected the distribution of power across structures, i.e. between the board and the coach and the coach and players. Fletcher and Wagstaff (2009) explain that the multi-faceted nature of modern elite sports teams requires effective
communication to reinforce vision and role clarity in order to promote group coherence and efficient organisational functioning. Those coaches, operating at both a franchise and provincial level, explained that they were not always given the power to decide on certain team related issues, such as player selection. This was also not uniformly applied, and control was dependent upon the level or experience the coach had. Coaches at a franchise level seemingly spoke of control and power over some decisions that coaches at the lower provincial level did not have. In addition to this, the power and control given by the board to the coach was also dependent on the level of experience the coach had as a former player. In addition, both coaches and administrators perceived certain members of the board to not fully grasp the role of coach, due to a lack of understanding of the role and the nature of player development. This lack of understanding, combined with the power provided to the board, affected the provision of resources to vital areas needed to grow the game, such as coach support.

Within Figure 4.5, the ideational artefacts of culture are separated from the macro-level artefacts by a dotted line. This is to signify the potential influence of the macro-level artefacts on the micro-level artefacts. In addition, each of the ideational artefacts is separated from one another by an additional dotted line. This is to represent how each may be influenced by the other. An example of the interrelationship between the macro and micro-level artefacts emerged when an administrator deemed it important to find a black hero to act as a symbol to the African culture in the hope of embedding cricket deeper into the fabric of SA society. Weed (2009, p.4) defines the 'demonstration-effect', also referred to as the trickle-down effect (Hogan & Norton, 2000; Sotiriadou, Shilbury & Quick, 2008), as a process ‘by which people are inspired by elite sport, sports people or sports events to participate themselves’. Very little research has investigated the effect of role models (De Bosscher et al., 2013), however a few have examined the relationship between elite success and an increase in sports participation. One such study was Weed (2009) who, through his investigation of elite success in rugby and cricket in New Zealand, concluded that elite success rarely impacted on those individuals who had not previously been emotionally engaged in sports participation. Importantly though, Weed (2009) found that the demonstration effect did impact on those already engaged in a sport across three points; 1) It encouraged re-engagement in the sport, 2) It increases the frequency of engagement of current participants and 3) It increased the chance of individuals
switching between activities. There is also a more likely relationship between ‘mass participation and elite performance in a popular sport than in a less popular sport.’ (De Bosscher et al., 2013. p.332).

It may therefore be argued that SA has the ingredients for success, by way of well-structured mass participation within an already popular sport. It is important to note that if there is to be a positive relationship between elite achievement and mass participation there needs to be a strategic plan at an organisational level that requires programmes and facilities to be developed, in order to bridge the gap between generating mass interest in a sport and elite performance as this will not happen automatically (De Bosscher et al., 2013). This highlights the importance of the more abstract and symbolic elements of culture being aligned to the paradigm by way of the more tangible elements such as organisation structure and design.

Another important example of this alignment relates to changes in SA national culture at a socio-political level impacting on the environment in which cricketers learn about the game from senior and more experienced players. SA has a complex social culture that has experienced significant changes over the last 20 years. Since the abolition of apartheid, these socio-political changes have impacted specifically on the social and racial make-up of SA sports teams. This makes it important for rituals and routines to be accepted, not only on an individual level, but on a national culture level too. These rituals and routines are specific to the professional and historical culture related to cricket, however due to the social changes to the make up of a team, current national culture will inevitably impact on this element too. Inclusively, as was the case with the elements symbols and stories, it may be argued that these symbolic after-game discussions or opportunities for storytelling became routine learning experiences and that these opportunities to sit after a game and talk about cricket were both ritualistic and routine. It may indeed be the case that, due to the socio-political changes, these symbolic elements are no longer significant and changes to the learning environment need to be made in order to accommodate this cultural shift. These changes signify a seismic shift in both national and professional cricket culture and the need for realignment with new values and norms that may better reflect the significant changes in SA society.
4.5 Limitations and future directions

Organisational culture is considered a crucial factor in the way an organisation assists, or hinders, its member in learning, acquiring and sharing knowledge (Rai, 2011; Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Martin, 2000). There are a number of definitions of knowledge management that, according to Davenport and Prusak (2000) is a fluid process framed by experiences, values and context that may not only be embedded in tangible references such as documents, but in the routines, practices and norms of an organisation. Omerzel, Biloslavo & Trnavcevic (2011) propose four processes involved with knowledge management, that of; knowledge generation, storage, transfer and application, making, not only individuals important in the process but in the way the organisation interacts with its operational environment. Findings from this study confirm Johnson et al.’s (2008) conclusions, that crucial decision-makers are the individuals who operate closest to the paradigm. A few sports related studies have begun investigating the coach or HP manager as a central figure in the management of successful HP environments (Schroder, 2007; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Cruickshank et al., 2013a; Cruickshank et al., 2014; Cruickshank, Collins, & Minten, 2015), however few have included the behaviours and best practice of administrators. For example, Cruickshank et al. (2013a) explain the pressures Boards of Directors and CEO’s place on coaches, but offer no deeper explanation on dynamics of this relationship from the perspective of the administrators. In light of this, future empirical research may wish to explore the decision-making processes and best practice of administrators and how these impact on a number of development processes, such as coach and athlete support and resource allocation, rather than focusing on issues solely relating to governance.

Another characteristic that emerged from this study was the importance of subcultures operating throughout the cricket development pathway. Many of these subcultures have been associated with historic pathways, such as the club structures and provincialism, and are based on deeply entrenched assumptions and norms that may no longer reflect the socio-political changes that have occurred at a national culture level. This confirms early studies relating to the unique nature of sports development structures and acknowledges the influence that culture has on the design and function of these structures. Future research may wish to utilise the cultural web framework across other sporting environments that may involve multiple subcultures in an attempt to reveal the efficiency of these
subcultures in working together to produce organisational effectiveness and sporting expertise.

Due to the aim and the pragmatic approach of the study there are a number of limitations that need to be addressed. The first is that it only provides a broad and contextualised view of a single sport in a uniquely challenging development environment, posing particular issues surrounding the generalisability of findings across to other developments environments. Other reasons include, the complexity and uniqueness of SA's national culture makes it difficult to compare findings across different environments. In addition a number of the findings relating to certain artefacts are specific to both the national and professional culture of cricket, together with the strong influence of subcultures that are specific, not only to the sport, but also specific to historic pathways embedded in the SA sporting culture. Cronbach (1957 as cited in Patton, 1990, p.582) confirms the above points by concluding that 'social phenomena are too variable and context bound to permit very significant empirical generalizations.' Guba and Lincoln (1981 in Patton, 1990, p584) propose 'substituting the concepts of transferability and fittingness for generalisation when dealing with qualitative findings', however the aim of this study was not to produce findings that were to be generalised across other environments, but rather present a framework that may be used to examine and possibly further sports organisational culture research and to provide a practical output for the benefit of SA cricket.

Even though this study is not able to offer statistical generalisability associated with quantitative research, it may offer user generalisability, due to the unique and in-depth experiences offered by participants (Peshkin, 1993). It may be argued that, because of the unique and experienced nature of the sample, the findings could offer SA cricket a practical review and analysis of the SA cricket development environment across the four components under investigation. This aspect is central to choosing a pragmatic approach, whereby the usefulness or practical application of the findings needs to be considered (Patton, 1990). Findings could also contribute theoretically and conceptually to furthering sports organisational culture research through additional use of the Cultural Web.

To add, the study intentionally did not include transformation or quota systems in the investigation and this may be viewed as a significant limitation due to the impact external socio-political stakeholders, such as government agencies, may have on the social legitimacy of the culture (Johnson et al., 2008). This
aspect was intentionally excluded, not only due to the enormity of the investigation surrounding the effects of political transformation, but also due to it possibly diverting attention from other materialistic aspects of culture. Future research may wish to investigate the impact that transformational change and quota systems have had across SA sports development environments.

4.6 Rationale for chapter 5

In the September of 2003, the General Council of the UCB voted to cut the 11 professional teams that made up the domestic first class and limited overs competition to six franchises (Louw, 2010). Up until this period all cricket in SA was competed within a provincial structure. The decision to reduce the number of teams was taken for a number of reasons; 1) Due to considerable losses incurred due to revenue and gate money not sufficiently covering the costs of running the professional domestic competitions and 2) Increasing the performance of the national team and to close the perceived gap between provincial and international cricket (Louw, 2010). Earlier in Chapter 2, it was highlighted that the sports organisational researchers had outlined a system of elements (financial resources, coach development, talent development and identification system, international competition) required in order for an elite sports system to be successful, however did not provide much detail on the constituent parts of each element in the system and how each may interact at a practical level in producing elite performance (Sotiriadou and Shilbury, 2009; De Bosscher et al., 2009).

In linking to the objectives of Chapter 4, study 1, the aim of study 2 would be to continue with the broad and pragmatic approach to exploring the development pathway of SA cricketers and investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer. A central consideration to sustaining this approach is to provide SA cricket with practical and useful information regarding the effective functioning of the development pathway. In light of this, the outline for Chapter 5 is to provide a more focused overview of the talent development literature before presenting the methodological approach and findings for Study 2.
CHAPTER 5
THE EFFECTS OF STRUCTURAL CHANGE: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE SA CRICKET DEVELOPMENT PATHWAY

5. Objective of chapter

The objective of Chapter 5 and study 2 is an attempt to explore the development pathway of SA cricketers and investigate if the changes made to provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development pathway. In linking to the objectives of Chapter 4, study 1, by delivering practical and meaningful knowledge for the benefit of SA cricket, the aim of Chapter 5 is to provide a broad overview of the SA cricket development pathway and its important developmental elements. The aim is to also deliver practical considerations relating to the impact of changes made to the development pathway in 2004 and whether these changes have created potential stressors or areas of developmental sensitivity between elements within the system.

5.1 Introduction

As prominence on the international sporting stage becomes ever more important, so does the importance of talent identification and development programmes. As a consequence, domestic sporting structures need to be as effective as possible in consistently producing internationally competitive athletes (Collins & Bailey, 2012; De Bosscher et al., 2008). Given the long-term nature of talent development (e.g. Martindale, Collins, Daubney, 2005), it becomes ever more important to map the development trajectory of sportspeople from novice to elite level, as well as to understand how each element within the development pathway interacts to facilitate or hinder effective progression.

There are a vast and varied number of constraints as to why an individual may or may not achieve elite sporting success. These constraints have been associated with individual differences in training and performance responses due to genetic diversity (Csikszentmihalyi, Whalen, Wong, & Rathune, 1993; Singer & Janelle, 1999; Davids & Baker, 2007) and/or how these individual differences transmit to the environmental learning context. Factors may also specifically relate to the learning and the quality of instruction received (Csikszentmihalyi et al, 1993; Singer & Janelle, 1999; Durand-Bush & Salmela, 2001; Davids & Baker, 2007;
Côté & Abernethy, 2012), together with the volume of extended and deliberate practice (Ericsson, Frampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993; Ericsson, 1996).

As highlighted earlier in chapter 2, a number of studies from within the organisational psychology and sports management literature have described the importance of policy developments in driving certain factors that can support and create elite success, such as financial support, foundation of participation, adequate training facilities, talent development and identification systems, coach provision and support and international competition (De Bosscher et al., 2006; De Bosscher et al., 2008). Inclusive of this, there is a significant area of research outlining the importance of key stages or transitions occurring within the development environment that the individual needs to negotiate on the way to becoming an elite level athlete. This complex and interrelated environment requires a significant level of planning, across a number of areas, in order for coherent practice to be implemented (Martindale et al., 2005). To date, this multifaceted approach taken to investigating talent development has meant the literature lacks an integrated and holistic view of a talent development environment. As such, there is a clear need to provide a more general and broad investigation of the nature and elements within a development environment and how these elements may interact in order to produce elite level athletes. In addition, there are a number of organisational and sports management researchers who outline a certain level of uniformity or homogeneity across elite sporting systems due to cross-nation sports policy adoption (Houlihan, 1997; Green & Oakley, 2001). Often, this adoption process is undertaken without a critical review of the system to be adopted and whether it is fit for purpose (Collins & Bailey, 2012).

Considering this, the aim of Study 2 is to gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer.

5.1.1 A holistic view of the development environment

Due to the nature of the talent development literature and, in attempting to provide the most comprehensive overview of the talent development literature, Gagné’s (1985; 2004; 2010) Differentiated Model of Giftedness and Talent (DMGT; DMGT 2.0) will be used as a point of reference throughout this introduction. The
reason for using the DMGT, even though it is grounded in an educational setting, is because it provides a holistic model of the talent development environment and delivers significant overlaps within its components and that of talent development literature.

A fundamental concept of the DMGT is the separation of giftedness and talent. In explaining this, Gagné (1985) does not consider natural abilities across both mental and physical domains solely as innate, but rather as the interaction of innate abilities developed, in combination with environmental characteristics ‘during childhood, through maturational processes and informal exercise’ (Gagné, 2010, p.83). Initiated in an educational context, through the study of gifted and talented pupils, Gagné does quantify both gifts and talents as the top 10% in relation to age equivalent peers and ‘learning peers’ in a single activity, respectively. From its inception, Gagné conceded the DGMT was a work in progress by taking into account new and relevant research. In light of this, the modified DMGT 2.0 (2008) (See figure 5.1) will be the model referred to in this introduction.

![Figure 5.1: Gagné’s Differentiated Model of Giftedness and Talent 2.0 (2008)](image)

The DMGT 2.0 distinguishes six natural ability domains, four of which belong to the mental and two to the physical domains. Each of these domains is multi-faceted and consists of numerous sub-components. Gagné suggests that these natural abilities transform in a systematically and welltrained way into competencies. These Competencies (Talents) consist of nine domains and represent a broad and diverse outcome of the talent development process. The objective of utilising the DMGT is not to provide a critical review of the model.
Therefore, due to this study focusing on the nature of talent development and not on the foundations of talent or gifts, or the factors associated with elite performance, only the aspects influencing the development process will be addressed.

The Development Process (D) component refers to the progressive transformation process of Gifts (G) into Talents (T) and consists of three sub-components, Activities (DA), Investment (DI) and Progress (DP), with each of these sub-components consisting of further multiple facets. Within the DP sub-component there are common characteristics between its facets (stages, pace, turning points) and the process of development described by the early talent development models. For example, the rationale relating to personal, social and contextual variables behind the successful development of talent has led to the development of a number of progressive, staged multidimensional athlete development models (Bloom, 1985; Côté, 1999; Durand-Bush, 2000; Stambulova, 1994; 2000; Wylleman and Lavallee, 2004). A common aspect across each of the models is the importance of the athlete transitioning across certain stages in order to achieve success.

It is important to note that much research into the staged processes of performance development, such as that of Bloom (1985), was specific to a North American population and therefore cultural differences must be realised. For example, a significant part of SA’s population may not have access to facilities or experienced coaches, and there exists a dissimilar focus on tertiary education sport than that of North America, thus potentially offering significantly different support mechanisms at crucial points in an athlete’s development.

Within the DP component, Gagné (2010) does explain that progression from the time of entering the process to peak performance is broken down into stages such as; novice, advanced, proficient and expert. Transition across the stages will depend upon a series of crucial turning points, such as being identified as gifted. Another significant contribution to the area of staged transitions arose from the work of Wylleman and Lavallee (2004), Stambulova (1994; 2000) and Stambulova & Alfermann, (2009). Wylleman and Lavallee’s (2004) development lifespan mode (see Figure 5.2) focuses on transitions during and after athletic careers, offering four stages of athletic development; initiation, development, mastery and discontinuation.

Their model proposes a complex myriad of tasks and challenges that
athletes face as they progress across the stages. They relate to both normative (the predictable and anticipated process of progressing along the development path) and non-normative (unanticipated and involuntary, such as an injury, loss of a coach or non-team selection) transitions that an athlete will encounter. They postulate that a successful athlete needs to negotiate all these stages and challenges successfully, however they highlight the importance of significant others and organisations understanding the complexity and interrelated nature of the different domains within each stage of development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>25</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>35</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Athletic Level</td>
<td>Initiation</td>
<td>Development</td>
<td>Mastery</td>
<td>Discontinuation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Level</td>
<td>Childhood</td>
<td>Adolescence</td>
<td>Adulthood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychosocial Level</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Siblings</td>
<td>Peers</td>
<td>Coach</td>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Vocational Level</td>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td>Professional occupation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. A dotted line indicates that the age at which the transition occurs is an approximation.

Figure 5.2: Wylleman and Lavallee’s (2004) development lifespan model

Staged process models do provide useful insight into the experiences and support processes attached to development however depicts the process of development as linear or straightforward in process (Martindale, 2015 as cited in Nash, 2015). Importantly they also do not indicate what type of coaching or training environment this development is taking place in. For example, the development lifespan model outlines a layered approach, indicating that as athletes make the transition between development and mastery they are progressing from adolescence to (young) adulthood, while at the same time transitioning from secondary to higher education.

Even though the model offers a layered approach and takes into account non-normative transitions, it still displays development as linear and offers very little information on the type of learning and development environments. This model, together with other staged models (Bloom, 1985; Côté, 1999) and those embedded in organisational psychology (De Bosscher, 2006) do not account for the complexities of development and the different pathway options available, such
as the club or academy environments, that may lead to elite success. In addition, much of this research cannot be transferred simply to a SA development environment, because on the whole, the focus and level of importance attached to athlete development, in contexts such as North American higher education, is far removed from that of SA. In SA, the emphasis at this stage of development is not predominantly controlled in a higher education setting, such as in North America, as it is normally under the control of the governing bodies of the respective sports.

To add, as highlighted in Chapter 4, during adolescence (development stage) for example, athletic competition and development take place in age related categories, therefore as the athlete progresses out of one environment and into another, they will come into contact with a number of coaches and different learning experiences. This factor may increase the likelihood of non-normative occurrences (de-selection, team transfer) and raises a number of questions such as, what happens to the individual that wishes to continue in the game when deselected and what type of environment is available to capture and develop them? This increases the importance of the development environment to be flexible and adaptable in order not only to acknowledge the complexities associated with athletic development, but also to successfully adopt a long-term approach to athletic development.

5.1.3 An individualised approach

The DMGT 2.0 may be referred to as one of the more holistic models outlining the talent development process because, unlike the staged models of Bloom (1985), Côté (1999) and Wylleman & Lavallee (2004), it highlights certain factors having an influence on the development process. In explaining these influences, it offers a number of catalysts, the Intrapersonal (I) and the Environmental (E) components. The (I) component has five sub-components, grouped into a stable traits (physical-IF and mental-MP) dimension and a goal management (self-awareness-IW, motivation-IM, volition-IV) dimension. Gagné (2010) lists motivation as one of the most important and influential elements of the (I) catalyst and includes self-awareness and volition. The rationale for the inclusion of self-management within the DMGT 2.0 comes from an earlier interview study of parents and children (Gagné, 1999) that revealed an overwhelming influence of high levels of autonomy and independence, displayed by the children, when managing numerous daily tasks, thus signifying how talented individuals are self-regulated in the way they both define their goals and the process of reaching them.
Interestingly, Gagné (2010, p.85) outlines a crucial role the (I) catalysts play in filtering environmental influences, thus confirming the individuality of development due to individuals perception of environmental constraints being influenced by their needs, interest, or personality traits. This strengthens the notion that developing resilience in young aspiring athletes needs to be encouraged and for them to actively seek out challenging situations, thus allowing for subsequent demands to be more manageable (Fletcher & Sarker; 2012; MacNamara, Button, & Collins, 2010).

As is the case regarding the DMGT, current talent development literature places a significant emphasis and importance on the development of psychological skills in the development process. For example, MacNamara, Holmes, & Collins (2006; 2008) through their research in music, dance and sport, constructed the psychological characteristics for developing excellence (PCDEs) stating, that in order to maintain a long-term commitment to development, the individual athlete would be required to develop certain psychological strategies, such as; coping skills, commitment, imagery and goal setting that enables them to overcome challenges and negotiate setbacks (MacNamara et al., 2006; 2008; MacNamara et al., 2010). Gould, Greenleaf et al. (2002), when evaluating the psychological characteristics of Olympic athletes, highlighted being mentally tough as one of a number of factors alongside perseverance, resilience and persistence that made up The Mental Toughness higher order theme. Bull, Shambrook, James, & Brooks (2005) meanwhile explain that there has been much discussion in cricketing environments concerning individuals who are deemed to be mentally tough. Bull and colleagues explain that, due to the nature of the game, cricket as a sport requires chronic mental toughness in order to get to the top and stay there. In exploring mental toughness in English cricket, Bull and colleagues interviewed 12 English cricketers with over 20 years of experience and identified that in order for a cricketer to be consistently referred to as mentally tough, there needs to be a consistent interaction between the environment, character, attitudes and thinking to develop this. Importantly, the environment is seen as a crucial link in developing these characteristics, however they do not offer any insight into which element (school/club/county) in the English cricket environment is most conducive for developing these characteristics and, at what stage in the cricketers development that this may occur.
An important adaptation to the DMGT 2.0 was for the Environmental (E) component to be positioned up and behind the Intrapersonal (I) component. Not only does this stress the importance of the I-component but signifies the filtering process the I-component plays with Environmental influences. The E-component consists of three distinct sub-components. The first is the Milieu-EM and takes into account the diversity of geographical and physical provisions (such as climate or rural or urban dwelling). The second sub-component is Individuals-EI and focuses on the psychological influences of significant persons immediate environment, while the third sub-component, Provisions (EP) emphasises the importance of talent development services and programmes. Numerous talent development researchers have emphasised the importance of support from the coach, family and peers (Bloom, 1985, Côté, 1999; Durand-Bush & Salmela, 2001; Abbott & Collins, 2004; Wolfenden & Holt, 2005; Martindale et al., 2005; Martindale, Collins, & Abraham, 2007; Côté, Horton, MacDonald, & Wilkes, 2007; Henriksen et al., 2010a; 2010b; Henriksen & Roessler, 2011) as having a significant impact on the development of the athlete. Like Côté and Bloom, Wylleman and Lavallee suggested a staged reduction in family support as the athlete negotiates the four stages of development. They proposed that during the development stage adolescents are more cognitively able to compare their own ability with that of their peers due to an increase in emotional and intellectual development, highlighting the importance of the coach and peer groups as influencers during this stage of development.

For example, it is during certain key developmental stages that the coach is prominent in providing the support between the athletes immediate support environment (parental or significant others) and the support required on the training ground or in competition (Smoll, Smith, & Cumming, 2007: Henriksen et al., 2010a; Henriksen et al., 2010b). This reinforces the importance of the coach in the development pathway as a key driver in the construction of the learning environment and central to enhancing and facilitating the quality of performance (Bloom, 1985; Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Phillips, David, Renshaw, & Portus, 2010).

As highlighted earlier through the work of MacNamara et al. (2006; 2008) and Bull et al. (2005), amongst others, the coach plays a significant role in providing a conducive environment for developing the intrapersonal characteristics. For example, through the integration of the 5C’s (Commitment, Communication, Concentration, Control, and Confidence) programme in youth
football, Harwood (2008) established that a session focusing on a mastery-orientated, effortful, cooperative and socially supportive climate could safeguard against non-adaptive effects and help youngsters continue in sport through a task orientated approach. Evidence suggests there is significant benefit in constructing multidimensional programmes that support the development of psychological competencies and performance-enhancement skills at the appropriate stage of development (Holt & Dunn, 2004; Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deaking, 2005; Smith & Smoll, 2006; Harwood, 2008). Even though the Intrapersonal components and various psychological skills are not specifically an aim of this study, it is crucial to understand the importance of these factors and how they fit and are delivered within the elements that make up the talent development environment or pathway.

In terms of the Provisions (EP) sub-component of the DMGT, Martindale et al. (2005) revealed five key characteristics of effective practice within the coaching situation that assists in developing and guiding pre-elite level athletes through key transitions on to becoming elite. These characteristics make up what is referred to as the Talent Development Environment (TDE) and include; 1) Long Term aims and methods, 2) Wide-ranging coherent messages and support, 3) Emphasise appropriate development and not early success, 4) Individualised and on going development and 5) Integrated, holistic and systematic approach. Martindale et al. (2005) established that the number of people and variables required for coherent practice dictates that a significant level of planning and implementation across a number of areas is required. In an attempt to understand the practical implications of this framework, Martindale et al. (2007) investigated the factors important to effective TDE’s by interviewing 16 coaches across 13 sports and found consistent support across all five factors. This research, as important as it is in defining the nature of effective TDE, does not take an expanded view to the development pathway or explain how each of these characteristics apply to elements along the pathway. For example, the findings do not offer explanation how each of these elements interacts to emphasise a coherent message of support for appropriate development instead of early results.

In an attempt to offer a broader and contextual approach Henriksen et al. (2010a) investigated the factors influencing the success of a pre-elite development environment. In providing this holistic ecological approach Henriksen and colleagues refer to the environment that encompasses the young athlete’s social relations inside and outside the sport as the ‘Athletic Talent Development
Environment’ (ADTE). Similar in outcome to Martindale and colleagues’ TDE, the ADTE is described as a system to help guide aspiring young athletes to make successful transitions from junior to senior top-level sports. In applying the ADTE to a practical setting, Henriksen et al. (2010b) investigated a successful Danish national 49er sailing team. They explained that each club or team is unique in the way it develops talent and interacts with the socio-cultural environment, highlighting the significant interplay between; the environment, the determinants of performance and how the opportunities to learn and develop are exploited (Abbot & Collins, 2004). This makes the findings relating specifically to the sailing team’s ATDE less important, as the broader messages that emerge, thus reinforcing the current talent development literature. For example, the study supports the work of Wylleman & Lavallee (2004) by highlighting the considerable demands on young athletes when making a transition from junior to senior-level sport and stresses the importance of considering the athlete across the psychological, psycho-social and academic/vocational development and not just in a sporting context. Importantly, the study findings also support three of the five TDE principles (Martindale et al., 2005; Martindale et al., 2007) by outlining the importance of coherent communication and support, integration of efforts, and an emphasis on appropriate development over early success. Henriksen and colleagues’ work provides valuable insight into the working of a successful team and club environment, especially by taking into account the influence and positive effects of organisational culture, however it does only provide a narrow and contained view of what may be a single element (club/team) in a cricketing development pathway and therefore, in relation to the aims of this study, offers limited insight.

Within talent development research there is a significant section of the literature that is concerned with the narrow selection processes of sport specific programs that concentrate on physiological factors as a prerequisite for long-term success. This may be considered a significant limitation of the DMGT 2.0, as Gagné outlines the selection of only the top 10% gifted individuals on to educational talent development programs based on questionable definitions of giftedness (Feldheusen, 2004). The associated effects of early identification, the nature of the sport and the quantity and quality of the practice environment has in the past received much attention. Again, these aspects of talent development do not directly relate to the aims of this study, however remain important to take into
account, especially when considering what factors are important when elements in the pathway interact, in order to provide an optimal development environment.

It is understood that the development trajectory of a cricketer is long (Weissensteiner, Abernethy, & Farrow, 2009) and over this time, the athlete, through age-related programs, will face a number of limiting factors (Weissensteiner et al., 2009). For example, Müller & Abernethy (2006) identify cricket batting as a difficult and complex time-constrained interceptive skill. Through their study of 14 male expert cricket batsmen, coaches and administrators, Weissensteiner et al. (2009) highlighted the importance of biological, psychological and socio-developmental factors required for cricket batting expertise to emerge. Alongside, Ranson, King, Burnett, Worthington, & Shine (2009) established cricket bowling as a changeable highly complex motor skill which requires talent development programs to encourage late specialisation and also take into consideration the effects of rate-limiting constraints such as different learning, growth and maturation rates (Phillips et al., 2010). In their study of the development trajectory of eleven Australian international fast bowlers, Phillips et al. (2010) ascertained that certain aspects of the development environment were intrinsic to the elite performer’s development, such as the importance of late specialisation, stressing at the same time the importance of a robust, unique and dynamic support network which comes in many forms found between family, school and club (Wolfenden & Holt, 2005; Henriksen et al., 2010a; 2010b; Henriksen & Roessler, 2011).

While Ericsson’s work concerning the role of practice volume on expertise in sport has garnered much support, there is indeed a negative connotation of too much deliberate practice at a young age (Bailey & Collins, 2013; Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2003). Previous research into the reasons why individuals don’t succeed or progress is concentrated in the areas of burnout and dropout. A particular focus of this research is immersed in highlighting the pitfalls and dangers of children and youth sports development programs that focus on significant amounts of deliberate practice (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2008a; Wall & Côté, 2007) over deliberate play or sampling (Carlson, 1988; Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2008b; Gould, Tuffey, Udry, & Loehr, 1996). Very little is known about adult performers who have not succeeded and the reasons behind this (Bailey & Collins, 2013). Within the research domain of non-stress induced models of athlete burnout, The Sports Commitment Model (Scanlan et al., 1993; Schmidt &
Stein, 1991) infers burnout to be a form of entrapment and attempts to understand why individuals persist in a given course of action. Three factors are used to determine commitment, that of; satisfaction (rewards and costs), attractiveness of alternative options and resources invested. Similarly, in understanding motivation in the context of burnout, a number of researchers highlight that in order for an athlete to suffer burnout they may be more externally regulated rather than self-determined, thus removing satisfaction from both competition and practice (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2008b; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). According to Ryan & Deci's (2000) Self-Determination Theory, an individual will be motivated to continue in a sport if they feel a level of autonomy, relatedness and competence in that sport. Being self-determined and committed suggests a degree of control over your own progression, however this may not always be the case, particularly within team-based sports. For example, athletic progression may be determined by a physiological indicator such as age, or selection to a team may relate to not only age, but also the individual vision and strategy of the coach and whether or not that player is part of team strategy at that time.

This factor prompts the question, what happens to individuals who may exhibit the physical and mental attributes for performance success, but for reasons out with of their control do not progress, and at what stage in the development pathway may this occur? Importantly the DMGT 2.0 still includes Chance (birth place and relative age effects, family income and quality of instruction) within the model, however this is no longer as a causal factor, but as something operating in the background and across both catalytic elements. Due to the multidimensional, non-linear and complex nature of the development environment problems may arise that impacts directly on the development of the participant (Simonton, 1999; Weissensteiner, et al., 2009; Phillips et al., 2010; Weissensteiner, Abernethy, & Farrow, 2012). For example, Wylleman & Lavallee's (2004) development lifespan model raises the point that development is not always linear and coherent, postulating both normative (the predictable and anticipated process of progressing along the development path) and non-normative (unanticipated and involuntary, such as an injury, loss of a coach or non-team selection) transitions that an athlete will need to negotiate successfully in order to develop sporting expertise. In reality, the transition between stages or thresholds may become blurred by competing agendas, such as progression at academy level based on short term performance
outcomes over that of developing the skills and physicality to make an impact at elite level (Douglas & Martindale, 2008).

Another criticism of the DMGT emerges from an ecological perspective, as it does not take into account how learning occurs in relation to the environment. At an organisational level, Fletcher and Hanton (2003) explained that one of the significant aspects of sporting organisational stress, related to factors intrinsic to the sport. In terms of athletic development the significant consideration underpinning this is that not all sports will have a similar development environment, with the requirements of each, in order to produce elite athletes, being different (De Bosscher, 2007; Larose & Haggerty, 1996). For example, the ecological approach supports this premise by focusing on how the individual adapts in a dynamically varying relationship between the constraints of the immediate environment and the abilities or resources available to the athlete (Araújo & Davids, 2011). In order for expertise to develop across the domains of cricket batting and bowling, a level of consistency is required across movement patterns. The ecological dynamics perspective proposed by Phillips et al. (2010) explains that the skills of batting and bowling are subject to significant shifting performance constraints and therefore require a significant degree of movement variability. Consequently, a substantial degree of performance flexibility is required in order to negate changing environmental and task conditions (Phillips et al., 2010). Accordingly, the practice environment within which cricketers develop is a complex one that requires not only the development of the fundamental technique required by the game, but also a practice environment that takes into account the dynamic environment. Within technique-based sports there is an assumption that both early specialisation and the engagement in deliberate practice may indeed lead to elite performance due to increased training volume. As highlighted by Côté, Horton, MacDonald, & Wilkes, (2009) there are few sports, such as gymnastics and more artistic sports such as figure skating, which evidence peak performance before biological maturity. This leaves all other sports categorised as late developing, such as cricket. In addition to activity specific detail, Côté et al. (2009) provide rationale that, in order for an individual to transition across the stages of development there needs to be cognitive, affective and social development (Hackfort, 2006). For example, Horn and Harris (2002) suggest that children only relate to the benefits of effortful practice and levels of competence at the age of 12 or 13. Developing levels of competence will in turn develop levels of motivation, and through the maturation
process, individuals will become better equipped psychologically, socially, emotionally and physically to begin investing time and effort in developing their ability in one sport (Patel, Pratt, & Greydanus, 2002; Côté et al., 2009). This process of development implies the context-specific application of deliberate practice that, according to Côté et al. (2009) will take place from the age of 16 years.

In one of the more recent theoretical papers, Côté, Turnnidge, & Evans, (2014) offer an alternative and dynamic view of the talent development environment by explaining that the multidimensional nature of development compliments the evidence provided by the ecological approach. In clarifying this, Côté and colleagues present the Personal Assets Framework, a dynamic person-centred approach, conceptualised in youth sport, that offers adaptability according to the developmental level of the participant. Côté and colleagues explain that youth sport programmes aim to develop personal assets by focusing on the 4C’s (Competence, Confidence, Connection, Character) (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005) and the 3P’s (Participation, Performance, Personal Development), (Côté, Strachan, & Fraser-Thomas, 2008). The Personal Assets Framework extends this by incorporating three dynamic elements that can shape the immediate sport experience both positively or negatively, these include; 1) Quality relationships, 2) Appropriate settings and 3) Personal engagement in activities. The framework presents what may be described as a more adaptable approach than the previous activity and age-specific stages that the Development Model for Sports Participation (DMPS) outlines (Côté, Horton, MacDonald, & Wilkes, 2007), by accepting a more dynamic relationship between the individual and the context responsible for human development (Côté et al., 2014). For example, in accepting a more ecological approach, Côté et al. (2014) accept the view proposed by Bohnert, Fredricks, & Randall (2010), that the diversity of experience in youth sports development should not be solely accounted for numerically, but rather that the learning involved in one activity may contain different types of activities that have an overall influence on athletic development. In a cricketing context, a child may gain benefit from different deliberate play activities, such as playing a game of cricket in a space-constrained environment such as a driveway, while gaining a different experience from playing a game with friends in an open field such as a park or school ground, while again having a separate experience from a structured practice with coaches. A broad interpretation of the Personal Assets Framework
model is that it offers a flexible approach to development, where aspects such as deliberate practice and structured activities will not necessarily have adverse effects on athletic development if they add to other experiences, applied in appropriate settings, and leads to positive relationships.

In summary, the organisational and structural processes outlined by the organisational psychologists (De Bosscher et al., 2006) require numerous elements to work coherently if someone is to progress from a talented young athlete to successful adult (Martindale et al., 2007). For example, at the core, effective talent development processes highlight the need for the systematic development of fundamental movement skills (Martindale et al., 2005) and the appropriate staged delivery of psychological skills development, for both athletes and coaches, in order to advance fundamental attitudes and mental skills such as resilience, persistence and mental toughness (Gould et al., 2002; Bull et al., 2005; Martindale et al., 2005; Smith & Smoll, 2006; Fletcher & Sarker, 2012). The delivery of crucial psychological skills will also increase the possibility of successful transitions at crucial stages of development, while simultaneously the appropriate quantity and quality of sport specific development skills are delivered in a timeous and appropriate fashion.

Theoretically, these different approaches highlight the immense challenge that sports organisations have in coordinating talent development processes, and stresses the importance of investigating and identifying how the different variables, or elements, of a successful development pathway interact. This complex interaction may be exacerbated by structural change and sports policy decision-making, at the macro level, having a profound effect, not only changing the way the pathway elements interact and individuals progress, but also on the quality of the learning and development domain at the micro-level. There is very little research examining not only the impact of structural change on development progression but, the complex interaction of developmental elements along the pathway.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, historically, SA's sporting structures were focused on provincialism and provincial competition. Within a cricketing context, this changed for the first time, when on the 7th April 2004 SA cricket underwent considerable change within its elite domestic cricketing structure, moving from a provincial to a franchise structure. This change at the domestic elite end of the development continuum offers a unique opportunity to investigate the impact of change on the elements of a successful sports development pathway. Currently, a
number of studies have outlined, that in order for elite success, policy developments require integration across a number of factors, such as financial support, foundation of participation, adequate training facilities, talent development and identification systems, coach provision and support, and international competition (De Bosscher et al., 2006; De Bosscher et al., 2008). Inclusive of this, there is a significant area of research outlining the importance of key stages or transitions occurring within the development environment that the individual needs to negotiate on the way to becoming an elite level athlete. This complex and interrelated environment requires a significant level of planning, across a number of areas, in order for coherent practice to be implemented (Martindale et al., 2005).

To date, the talent development literature has offered a multifaceted approach to investigating the factors important to the effective development of sporting talent. Importantly however, there seems to be a lack of empirical evidence taking a broad baseline approach to investigating the nature and elements within a development environment and how these elements interact in order to produce elite level athletes. To add, there also seems to be a lack of empirical evidence investigating structural change and its associated effects on the various development elements within a development environment.

Subsequently the aim of this study is to gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and to investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer. The intention is to investigate time-points pre and post structural change, in order to highlight if the change at the elite end of the development continuum has had any impact further down the continuum and if so, which are the areas of developmental sensitivity.

5.2 Methodology

5.2.1 Research design

Adopting a qualitative approach to retrospectively explore the structure and structural change within the SA cricketing development pathways was deemed the most appropriate way to gather rich and informative data from those individuals who have experienced and operated within the environment over an extended period of time. In order to investigate this under-explored area, a semi-structured interview technique was chosen due to both the structure it offers, by way of pre-determined questions, but also the level of flexibility it allows to explore areas that
may emerge during discussions (Rynne et al., 2010; Nash et al., 2011). A semi-structured interview approach also encourages participants to contribute in-depth information relating to their experiences (Arnold et al., 2012).

5.2.2 Participants

Considering the aims and the purpose of this investigation it was important to select those individuals who could, not only offer insight into the SA cricket development environment, but also provide an historical perspective, prior to the structural change in 2004. Considering the timespan under investigation, (pre-2004), would require the individuals selected to have gathered a minimum of eight years experience being involved in the SA cricket development environment. An additional and essential requirement would be to select those individuals who could also offer a perspective from multiple viewpoints relating to the development pathway, i.e. from their role in which they are currently operating, a retrospective evaluation, but also from the previous roles in which they have been involved. Over and above the retrospective timespan of this investigation, there are other factors narrowing the number of individuals, who may be suitable, to provide broad and in-depth information. For example, the short-term nature of sports contracting requirements and the length of sports management tenures, in addition to the unique nature of the transformation process in SA may impact on the length of both sporting and management tenures, thus significantly narrowing the number of individuals who would fit this inclusion criteria.

In order to ensure a balanced overview of the development structure, it was essential to engage a uniquely experienced representative sample across all levels of SA cricket. The sample consisted of 12 current and former players, coaches and administrators, all of which had gathered experience ranging from a minimum of eight years to a maximum of 46 years (averaging 21.75 years) operating and playing in the SA cricketing environment. (Overall years experience did not include time in in school system. Except for coach 3 and player 3, all playing-experience calculations began at start of a first-class career). All interviewees were male. At the time of interview, all participants had been involved in their current position for a minimum of two years. Inclusive of this, all identified participants (excluding coach 3 and player 3) had gathered between eight and 21 years (averaging 11 years) of experience as SA domestic elite cricket players. The number of participants included in this study is consistent with the earlier studies conducted
by Debane and Fontayne (2009); Olusoga et al. (2010); Nash et al. (2011); Fletcher and Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012).

In providing a representative sample, the participants included a former member of the ruling body, Cricket SA (CSA). Due to the organisational structure of SA cricket, certain roles such as that of a CSA Board member also signifies membership to a provincial board. The sample (see Table 1) included a former CSA board and current Chairman of a provincial board \((n=1)\), Chief Executive Officers \((n=3)\), Franchise Head Coaches \((n=2)\), Franchise Assistant Coach \((n=1)\), Provincial Coaches \((n=2)\), International and first class cricketers \((n=2)\) and club cricketer \((n=1)\). Roles were categorised as on-field (playing and coaching) and off-field (administrative), however it is important to note that a significant advantage to identifying these specific participants related to all participants having gathered multiple experiences over time, thus enabling them to provide a unique perspective. (For a more detailed overview please see Table 3.1 in chapter 3).

All selected coaches would hold a coach qualification of Level 3 and/or Level 4 and be either current employees of Cricket SA or their respective cricket boards. Inclusive of this, all participants identified as administrative had gathered on-field experience of the SA development environment as former first class players. For example, one of the selected CEO’s was a former international cricketer and the former national Convener of Selectors. The two international level players to be selected for interview had both gathered playing experience at school, club, age group provincial representative, provincial first-class and franchise level cricket. To add, the club player had been involved in club cricket for over 15 years, across a number of regions, and gathered experience of playing in numerous national club competitions.

5.2.3 Procedure

Before individuals were identified for interview, all procedures were pre-approved by Edinburgh Napier Universities’ ethical committee. Once identified, each participant was recruited by personal contact and informed consent obtained (Thomas et al., 1999) to take part in a one-to-one interview. As standard protocol with regards qualitative enquiry and in order to promote honest evaluation and maintain trustworthiness, assurances were provided that anonymity would be protected and none of the organisations or bodies involved in employing the participants would have access to the recorded information (Tuckman, 1978; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011).
To maximise comfort the interview questions were sent to the candidates before the interview as this allowed for familiarisation with the types of questions asked. Each interview averaged approximately 47 minutes and was recorded on a Dictaphone for later transcription. Due to the retrospective nature of the enquiry each participant was asked to complete a basic structural schematic of what they thought the structure of SA cricket to be, with distinct changes demarcated by chronological events. This aided recall and allowed the formation of a framework to assist the interviewing process of all participants (Cruikshank & Collins, 2013a). As the interview process progressed each participant was asked to comment on the structures.

5.2.4 Interview guide

The aim of this investigation was to focus on the structure of the development pathway in SA cricket in an attempt to implicitly explore the change made to the provincial development structure in 2004. It was therefore important to structure the interview script in such a way for any reference to the 2004 structure change to emerge from the interview discussions. In order to facilitate this, the objectives of the primary questions were to introduce each area to be explored in more depth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Prompt</th>
<th>Probes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Could you provide me with an overview of what you think the SA cricket development pathway is?</td>
<td>What are the elements involved in someone beginning as a novice and becoming elite?</td>
<td>Which ones do you perceive to be the most important?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is the ‘normal’ pathway someone would travel on to becoming elite?</td>
<td>Are some elements more important than others?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think the current SA cricket system is effective at developing successful cricketers and world-class international teams?</td>
<td>What does it do particularly well?</td>
<td>Have any structural changes been made to the development system in the past?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there any barriers to success?</td>
<td>If so, what difference do you perceive have taken place?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does this change at any particular development level?</td>
<td>Has this impacted positively/negatively on the development system?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is it about the SA development system that develops international level cricketers?</td>
<td>How does this compare at the different levels of development (grassroots, school, club, provincial, international)?</td>
<td>Does the CSA have a ‘template’ for each province to strive towards? OR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How are these different levels managed?</td>
<td>Does each province self-manage and create their own ‘bigger picture’?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 Interview script investigating structural change in SA cricket.
It was therefore important for the primary questions to be as broad and open-ended as possible in order to obtain each participant’s perceptions on the structure of SA cricket. An example of the interview questions, together with prompts and probes are arranged above in Table 5.1.

In keeping with a pragmatic approach and attempting to capture the thoughts and views of participants, the use of prompts and probes were of importance in exploring each broad, primary question in more depth and detail.

5.2.5 Data analysis

In order to ensure a level of structure and consistency, inductive thematic analysis outlined by Braun and Clark (2006) would be adopted due to the flexible and uncomplicated approach it offers to analyse a multifaceted topic. As outlined by Braun and Clark (2006, p.87), the first part of the inductive process was to become familiar with the data by way of multiple readings of the transcribed data.

The second stage was to group the data by generating codes across the whole data set. From this coding procedure, themes were formed and all relevant coded data was grouped and applied to each theme.

- Environmental differences
- Reduced opportunities and challenges
- Decreasing opportunities due to change
- Problematic relationship of the club and academy
- Vital role of school in developing culture and play

1. Loss of opportunities at the highest level
2. Selection stagnation: Reduction in flexible multiple pathways
3. Reduction in pathway opportunities leads to loss of older participants and early identification and selection
4. Development dislocation: Coherency and quality of sub-elite development environments
5. The changing school environment

Figure 5.3: Theme review process
Once applied, the themes were reviewed in relation to the coded extracts and a thematic map was produced. Even though it is possible for two individuals to apply the same level of subjectivity to a piece of text (Loffe & Yardley, 2004), the reliability of the coding and theming procedure was checked by an experienced, critical friend in an attempt to remain as objective as possible (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). The product of the thematic mapping process is outlined in diagram 5.3.

The first part of diagram 5.3 outlines the general themes that emerged after the initial coding and theming process. The second part of the diagram represents the five main themes that emerged once the coded data was reviewed and themes defined and named in order to present a clear definition representing each theme. The themes were then arranged in the most appropriate way in order to clearly present the findings of the phenomenon under investigation. This process was especially helpful when observing links between pre and post 2004 structural changes (Morse & Field, 1995).

5.2.6 Rigour and trustworthiness

Every attempt was made to ensure the credibility and trustworthiness of the data. In order to ensure this, a triangulation technique was adopted (Denzin, 1978 as cited in Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011), whereby three independent sources of data, that of the coaches, players and administrative staff data was used in order to support theme formation (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). In addition, peer debriefing by way of utilising a critical friend, with over 15 years of experience in qualitative research, was utilised to examine and question the presentation of the data set and conclusions (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Regular contact and meetings were held between the researcher and the critical friend to discuss points that may have been under or overemphasised and to remove any assumptions made from the gathered information.

5.3 Results

Following inductive thematic analysis, the data was categorised and sorted into themes. In terms of theme structure and presentation, a top down approach was adopted with the intention of displaying the interrelated nature of a talent development pathway from elite performance through to novice participation, and the ways in which structure change has impacted on these processes. Subsequently, the results section emerged as five themes; 1) Loss of opportunities at the highest level, 2) Selection stagnation: Reduction in flexible multiple
pathways, 3) Reduction in pathway opportunities leads to loss of older participants and early identification and selection, 4) Development dislocation: Coherency and quality of sub-elite development environments and 5.) The changing school environment.

5.3.1 Loss of opportunities at highest level

Prior to the launch of the new franchise system on the 7th April 2004, the domestic structure of SA cricket consisted of eleven provinces and approximately 160 professional cricketers. This reduction allowed each franchise to offer 18 professional contracts and is summed up by Administrator 4.

‘The challenge at the moment is there are 11 provinces and six franchises. This means 160 professional players has now reduced to 100. This means a huge number of opportunities are gone.’ (Administrator 4)

Administrator 4 not only confirms the process of modelling the new franchise structure to the Australian structure, but also adds that the new franchise system is less inclusive due to the reduction in the opportunities for individuals to reach the top domestic level

‘They tried to model it on the Australian system but Australia, by the nature of the beast have only got six States, so each State has got a team, so you know, we have got a hell of a diverse culture here, we have got to…our goal should be to afford the opportunity for as many people as possible, to be afforded the opportunity to play for SA…not saying they are going to play, but afford them the opportunity.’ (Administrator 4)

The statement also makes reference to contextual differences between Australia and SA, highlighting the difficulties associated with the adoption of an external system that is perceived successful due to its performance outcomes. For example, the sporting and socio-cultural history amongst population groups within SA is complex. This socio-cultural diversity makes it a challenging fit when adopting another countries sports policy and as a consequence the opportunities to develop are no longer unique to the adoptee environment. This may transfer into lost opportunities within the development pathway.

5.3.2 Selection stagnation: The reduction in flexible multiple pathways

Coach 5 confirmed the structure and competitiveness of provincial cricket prior to change. He explains how the effect of reducing the number of provinces impacts on the overall number of cricketers that SA produces. In the past, having
11 provinces meant there were more better performing cricketers for SA to choose from and more opportunities for development along the pathway.

‘Without opportunity you are never going to get anywhere. Wherever you are. You are always going to have three top provinces or franchises, which is now, with six teams we have got three top ones, that is it. We had more top ones when there was 11 but not there is just less opportunity and, like I said, the base just keeps dwindling and you get less and less cricket but if you get opportunity there is more space to play, you are producing more cricketers, in small provinces, for instance (name of province) is a small province, produces three good cricketers, those cricketers might move to a bigger province but then they start producing three more cricketers. So everybody has got a job to do. Small provinces have got a job to do…..’ (Coach 5)

He explains later that the new system has created a smaller elite group of cricketing franchises that is beneficial for those involved, however it is becoming more challenging for those who are not involved, such as the smaller, less wealthy provinces.

‘If you really wanted to be hard about it, there are nine provinces in SA, how can nine teams, each team not be allowed to have a province and play in a competition, as an individual union? We are nine provinces, let nine teams play. Now we have only got six. So you have created an elite thing. And I think it is pretty good for the individuals involved, they get more money, they get more benefits, the unions get more money so the scale…all of a sudden you are becoming rich and poor. The other unions are pulling away and the other unions are just falling away and really struggling.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 5 raises an important feature of the pre-franchise provincial system suggesting a more flexible environment between competitive levels. The advantage of this flexibility is that it allows individuals who perform well in the smaller provinces to have positive perceptions of progressing to the larger provinces as achievable. Coach 3 not only confirms the assertions of Coach 5 but also acknowledges that the performance gap between levels was marginal.

‘If you went back 10 or 15 years where your way into the (name of province) B side was through really good club performances. What has changed now is because we have got academies at almost every level, and just above the under 19 level you have got your (name of province) academy, the feeling is almost if someone hasn’t made it in to that then they won’t make it. That would normally be your
natural progression path through (name of province), into an academy, into the amateur side and on to the franchise side.’ (Coach 3)

Conceptualised, as an example, through discussions with the participants, Figure 5.4 is an attempt to highlight the multiple route system that was available to novice cricketer's pre-2004 structural change.

![Diagram showing the cricket pathway in South Africa before 2004](image-url)

Figure 5.4: An example of the South African cricketing pathway pre 2004 franchise restructuring.

The general perception of the pre-franchise system was the significant number of pathway options available to young aspiring cricketers after school. Administrator 1 highlights an important change in the pathway that occurred between the school system and elite performance:

‘Now we have lost the army which was where you could grab everyone, and this doesn't happen anymore. You had all your international players going through the army as well, so it was a very strong league. We have missed out on a great pillar which we used to have in SA which is no longer there.’ (Administrator 1)

In the early 1990’s (Figure 5.4), there were two available options to a young cricketer after completing school, both which were related to socio-political factors at the time. The options depended on whether they chose to join the SA Army (national conscription was compulsory until approximately 1994) or delay
conscription and go to university first. This meant typically that each of those environments enjoyed an annual influx of the very best of SA sporting potential.

Player 3 substantiates Administrator 1’s earlier statement by confirming the importance of the army and the flexibility of the pathway to late developers.

‘The only okay (guy) that come into my head was (name of player), he didn’t play at school, he hardly played first team at school, the feeder system was still good enough then for him to go to the army and break through, play provincial cricket and go on to become a SA all-rounder. That would be a great success story. That would be on sheer drive and determination and wanting to be there. But those guys aren’t going to appear anymore, I wouldn’t say. They are not going to come through the system.’ (Player 3)

The comments concerning the importance of the army and tertiary environments are not overly surprising, and allow progression to be possible without having played age-group representative cricket.

Pre-franchise, the universities and the army were usually represented in the local club league, allowing for increased competition. This provided additional
opportunities to be noticed for elite selection because a fluid and competitive environment that allowed for late developers was constructed by default.

Again, formulated through discussion with participants, Figure 5.5 provides an example of the new franchise structure. Noted purely as an example to ensure participant confidentiality, the Cape Cobras franchise team are fed by two affiliates (provinces): the Western Province Cricket Association and the Boland Cricket Board. In theory, this system should provide a competitive performance-based development environment for players to progress into franchise cricket, leading to a more competitive professional domestic environment.

Coach 5 demonstrates a different perspective by adding that elite selection does not seem to be based on performance measures due to the perception that any performance at amateur level was produced in an inferior environment and therefore deemed incomparable.

‘Communication is…it is reasonably good, like I say, the foundation is weak in that it doesn’t purely go on performance, which is a problem. You have got guys that have done poorly. They are good players, they really are good players, but they underperform and then you have got the guys below them in like an amateur environment performing massively, like awesomely and they don’t really get the opportunity to play because invariably the system is weak below. So the guy at the top will just keep underperforming for a certain amount of time. And you can communicate ‘how is this guy doing, how is this guy doing?’ It is fine, you can talk, but if the foundation is weak in the sense that if those guys (selectors) don’t really believe in the performances that are happening, whether they are good or bad, then it actually means nothing.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 5 confirms these contentions later in the interview, but also alludes to the lack of importance now placed on amateur cricket.

‘You can say the guys are scoring 100s and they are doing well, but if they are never getting recognition or getting picked, that doesn’t mean getting picked on a permanent basis, it means getting picked and if the other guy they think has stared performing again and they have wasted him for six games and he can come back, it is not a problem. It is a healthy environment when things like that are happening. If a guy is underperforming drop him, it doesn’t hurt anybody. Like I said again, it is not an ego thing. It is sometimes better for a player to be dropped and come back. It makes him a stronger, better person and player. I think that doesn’t happen but that comes with the belief in the amateur system.’ (Coach 5)
Administrator 4 acknowledges the negative perception that exists around the domestic provincial system and highlights the associated lack of progression due to limited opportunities at elite level.

‘There are players playing in the so-called amateur leagues, provincial leagues, that have no hope, at this stage, of going through to franchises. I believe that there is not enough scope for them at a higher level to play cricket, to be nurtured through the system, what happens is they go through provincial cricket here, they stand out, they are quite good. Franchises are limited. Franchises are closed shops. Even though they are not supposed to be. The only way they are going to get opportunities are to broaden the bases at higher level.’ (Administrator 4)

The combined reduction in the number of competitive flexible pathways, together with negative perceptions of feeder environments, has led to barriers limiting progression across the club/provincial and franchise environments.

5.3.3 Reduction in pathway opportunities leads to loss of older participants and early identification and selection

Administrator 4 makes reference to the reduction in the number of elite cricket teams creating the knock-on effect of reducing the opportunities for cricketers above the age of 24. The implications of this mean that individuals around this age may leave the game due to the lack of opportunities.

‘There are not enough cricket teams in SA, too many cricketers are not playing the game and leaving a vacuum from the ages of 24 onwards as there are no opportunities. The current franchise system was to mirror the Australian system, but it’s not right for SA because SA has a far larger population to consider.’ (Administrator 4)

Below, coach 5 confirms Administrator 4’s comments by highlighting the age range at which cricketers begin questioning whether there is a future in trying to make it to the top in SA cricket. He explains that the system is to blame by not offering cricketers of a certain age the opportunities to be selected, as it considers 27 years old as too old to make it in the game. He also perceives that losing these individuals will damage the system in the long run.

‘Yes, you are losing those guys, 27 year olds, the 26, 27, 28 years olds, the guys that are now becoming emotionally secure with their lives and they are coming to the top part of their playing careers, invariably start giving up and leaving and disappearing because there is no hope. And in SA we write off a lot of guys at an oldish age, it is ‘too old’ if you are not 23, and you have not made it you are too old.
Then they stop looking at you and they will go back to a 20 year old. Like I say, as a player, you start to understand that and you just accept it. People are starting to accept that now more and more. They start giving up more and more. Before, the okes (guys) were probably naïve and stubborn. Now they understand it, the pattern has been developed. When you get to that age and you are not making it, it is time to give up and go look for a job. Start studying and that is what I think is going to hurt the system in the end, you know. You are going to have guys just go ‘I don’t want to really play cricket.’” (Coach 5)

In addition to the loss of opportunities highlighted earlier, Coach 3 stresses that even though some individuals have been selected after the age of 27 years, and without having been part of the provincial pathway structures, more often than not they will not make it to the top level of the domestic game after the age of 27.

‘Look it is a difficult one…I have seen 27, 28 years olds come back and do really well without having played in any of your structures below, without being in an academy, (but) without wanting to rule a line straight through club cricket, I just think it is ever harder for your 25, 26, 27 year old to get back in. I probably say if you haven’t made it by that age you are only ever going to play recreational cricket. That is probably what the system lends itself to.’ (Coach 3)

Administrator 2 explains that after school, a strong club structure should offer a credible development environment for those individuals who do not get selected for a franchise contract. However, he explains that, currently, due to a weak club structure, the system offers fewer development opportunities for those individuals who may be late developers.

Club level doesn’t exist anymore. Club level at the moment is an absolute mess throughout the country. You get schools level, they do quite a lot at under 19 level…They are identified at under 19 level, they put them through academies but from then on there is actually nothing for them to go…if doesn’t go from under 19 to franchise. He has got nothing. And the guy that doesn’t get identified, you know you get late developers, you get guys that for whatever reason, they don’t get taken up to the under 19 system, those guys are lost to cricket. There is no club system. The club system I don’t care if it is (name of city) I don’t care if it is (name of city), the club system is horribly weak.’ (Administrator 2)

The pyramid modelling system of the SA cricket development pathway indicates a clear subdivision between participation and performance. In reality, evidence suggests that the pathway is far more complex and interrelated than the pyramid system may suggest. For example, this flawed process may be
problematic for adult performers too, due to the threshold measures of club/tertiary/provincial/academy environments often leading towards individuals being selected or de-selected for progression. However it is the inflexibility of the pyramid process that creates issues for those de-selected. Progression across each threshold not only means large numbers of individuals are removed from the next level, but it can become difficult for those de-selected to return.

Earlier evidence relating to the reduction of a competitive standard of development environments outlined in Theme 2, together with the lack of opportunities for older or late developing cricketers both reaffirm and encourage early identification, selection and development in an environment that may be controlled by coaching staff. Below, Coach 2 alludes to this strategy of not only identifying talent early, but rather of developing and keeping them within their development system.

‘Our culture and if we are talking specifically about the culture in (name of city) and the (name of province) and then up to the eagles in the franchise is very much as case of a guy getting through the ranks. So the culture here is to identify talent early and run with them. Not that guys don’t come in from the side, but it hasn’t been the culture of (name of province) to buy players in. It is more of a culture of developing what we have got and giving guys the opportunity to develop. It is very sad for us when someone leaves our system, we try and keep them here as much as we can.’ (Coach 2)

The difficulty with this approach is that it may narrow selection further down the development pathway. The rationale underpinning this observation relates to the flawed understanding that, in order to progress to cricket’s elite level of participation, it may be essential to be selected at a young age in a chance of being recognised and becoming part of age group development pathway or in the system.

As described earlier, in the past, the tertiary sector has featured prominently in the SA sporting development pathway, however Administrator 1 explains that the number of players coming from this sector has reduced due to fewer individuals going to university. This factor, coupled with the diminishing strength of club cricket, creates a challenge for provincial bodies to provide the best environment to develop players from the age of 18 when they leave school to the age of 23, the current average of the professional cricketer.
'Your tertiary sector still delivers a lot of international players, but it is far less as people don’t go and study anymore which is we have found. And then from amateur, our average age for professional cricket is 23 so our biggest challenge that we are going to have is the age they finish school to 23. That age we need to look after.' (Administrator 1)

When relating this information to earlier evidence and to the late developing nature of the sport it seems that the development pathway is not providing adequate learning and development environments for players of a certain age (18-23 years). This ultimately leads to losing players at a crucial stage in the pathway, just when they should be developing sporting maturity (mental, physical, technical and tactical preparation).

5.3.4 Development dislocation: Coherency and quality of sub-elite development environments

By their very nature, academies were implemented for adolescent cricketers in order to provide a stepping-stone to full representative provincial honours. For those not selected for academy honours, an alternative option after school would be to play in a competitive club environment, however, as outlined in previous sections, the club environment has now changed and is no longer viewed as competitive. The lack of a competitive club structure is problematic for the future progression of young players, and in particular late developers.

The loss of opportunities for older domestic cricketers was highlighted in Theme 3, however Coach 3 confirms the interrelated nature of development elements by also explaining the role of the academy exacerbating this issue. Coach 3 explains the difficulty for academies and club cricket to co-exist due to the academy taking the place of club cricket for players below a certain age. It seems those players in the system development environments, such as the academy, have made redundant those development environments outwith the system (such as club cricket), especially for those individuals over a certain age group.

'I would like to see the focus shift away from the school structure here to a club structure, but I don’t know how realistic that is going to be. I don’t think clubs and academies can coexist. I just don’t think enough kids are involved at clubs anymore. Once they are finished (with school), matriculated or whatever, they don’t play with a club, simply because they think ‘well if I haven’t made it in an academy now there is no real route mapped out for me, I am just going to fall by
the wayside so I might as well find myself a job’ or whatever other distractions there are.’ (Coach 3)

Coach 4 confirms the importance of not only developing the game at grassroots level, but also providing a coherent structure and good quality coaching along the participant pathway. In SA not all children will have the benefit of good quality coaching or facilities at school, emphasising the role of the club as a very necessary step in the development pathway for the player to not only develop a love of the game, but also have the pathway available to them to continue in the game.

‘The maintenance isn’t there. The sustainability isn’t there. Bakers has been unbelievable and mini cricket is still an unbelievably…it is mushrooming now. They say it has gone through a little bit of a lull, but it is mushrooming and that is encouraging. Now you have got all those players, now they want to start playing hardball cricket, where does our infrastructure catch them? We are getting a lot of feedback from schools saying ‘you are not running the game effectively enough, efficiently enough’, kids are getting frustrated. You turn up for fixtures, there is no opposition, the pitches are crap, people aren’t doing enough work on the ground, you are going to lose those kids. Three more cancelled games, parents will say ‘well stuff cricket.’ (Coach 4)

At the time academies were developed, club cricket was perceived as a competitive environment, consequently, in order to close the gap between the school and provincial cricket the academies remit was to develop the young cricketers technical, tactical, mental and physical parts of their game, in an intensive environment. Therefore, the expectation was for this environment to offer something varied from other development environments, such as the school or the club.

Coach 5 describes an environment whereby children are de-selected at U/13 level if they do not reach certain performance indicators, thus establishing the lack of importance placed on a long-term approach to skill development at the younger age group by focusing on short-term success as the sole outcome.

‘At the moment, at a senior level we have all these academies and we don’t have real academies at a junior level trying to enhance skill levels. What we do is, we have academies and we will just pick the elite kids, at every level you keep discarding them, where is the net for the leftover cricketers who maybe in later life develop and become more mentally aware and their skill development is late in life,
but we have already throw them away at U/13 level, because they could make (name) and we stop developing them.’ (Coach 5)

The potential difficulties of a performance related outcome, at early adolescence may lead to a defined and narrow development environment that rewards short-term success, rather than an approach to long-term development. Those that have not succeeded in achieving predetermined performance indicators may be discarded from the development process.

Administrator 3 emphasises the importance and benefits of more informal learning processes that the club environment allows and questions the true benefit of academies and their role in the development of players.

‘When I was playing, the academy was the dressing room, then the academy developed. To be critical, these changes, such as academies haven’t taken the game to a new level. We need to weigh up the asset of academies.’ (Administrator 3)

Importantly, Coach 2 suggests an increasing gap between development environments due to an absence of certain factors, such as professionalism and competitiveness at affiliate level. The perception is, that affiliate level cricket is not fostering a competitive environment to develop cricketers that may compete for selection at franchise level.

‘There is a massive gap between 80% of the players at provincial level and the players at franchise level. If you look at a franchise team and how a franchise team should operate and how they warm up and be professional, then you look at an amateur side and there are club sides that do it better. So what you call first class cricket and you give a semi-professional tag is not that at all. There are a few guys who do it right, but out of the 14 teams, there are a lot of guys who don’t do it right.’ (Coach 2)

Coach 2 emphasises the importance of the lower levels to remain competitive in order to produce players who have the skill level to place selection pressure on the individuals who have franchise contracts. This is an important aspect and confirms that the academy environment may not be producing the competitively prepared cricketer it aims to.

Administrator 3 confirms Coach 2’s assertions that the gap between the school and the club is widening and academies are not helping to bridge this gap,
thus potentially forcing the flawed and problematic policy of identifying talent earlier along the development pathway.

‘SA relies heavily on the school system and there is a huge gap between the schools and the franchise. The academy has come in, but it hasn’t done much.’

(Administrator 3)

Coach 3 establishes the importance of the club in the wider aspect of social development in a SA context. Due to the socio-political nature of the SA development environment it is important that the club, as part of this milieu, offers not only a sport related setting, but also offers psychosocial and vocational development. Coach 3 explains that part of the problem is that individuals no longer identify with the club and therefore no longer invest the time into developing the club environment.

‘I really think and given everything that goes on in the country, I know we are talking about cricket, but I don’t think you can isolate cricket from the real world and what actually goes on. I think you need a safe haven if you want to go to as a young man or a young woman. That is what the club provides, it provides you a haven, a safe place, with friends, you can get...there is a culture of learning that goes on within the sport, there is a social environment that gets created and it almost brings on the whole person, and I just feel that SA probably needs this. Yesterday one or two guys that are quite good were coming back and playing for their club and obviously bringing on some of the youngsters there but by and large there is no club loyalty anymore. I don’t know if it is because of the advent of being semi to fully professional, but I just think there is not a club identity anymore.’

(Coach 3)

Alongside the changing landscape of club cricket Coach 3 also highlights that the schools development environment is changing. He explains that in the past, formal cricket masters would coach cricket, leading to a better quality of instruction and practice. He perceives this to no longer be the case. In addition, teacher workloads have increased, thus leaving them less time to dedicate to sports.

‘…your formal coaching, your better coaching, might have been, back in the day, at your schools in SA. I don’t think it is the case anymore, because you don’t have your proper cricket masters anymore. The education system is such that teachers are just flooded with work and there is no time for your extra murals if you want.’

(Coach 3)
As evidenced, it is perceived that the club can play an important role in the establishment and reinforcement of long term development, as it has the ability to establish an appropriate culture and ethos through the guiding and setting of appropriate behaviour and performance related standards. In the past, professional cricketers returned to this environment to compete, and in such a way reinforce the common identity and standards required of elite cricketers. Coach 3 explained that, on occasion, players did return to their clubs in an attempt to develop the younger players, but not very often.

Coach 3 goes on to confirm, that affiliate 1st class players do not view club cricket as an environment in which they wish to play and are not able to play for the academy.

“There is no way 1st class cricketers go and play club cricket and there is no avenue for them to play for the academy.’ (Coach 3)

There appears to be a number of issues that have arisen for a particular age and stage of cricketer, confirming the interrelated nature of the development environment. Many of these issues relate to the competitive strength of each sub-elite development environment between the school and the franchise. For example the perceived lack of strength in provincial cricket lessens the opportunity for individuals to be selected from this environment to play at the elite franchise level. To add, the diminishing strength of club cricket creates a selection and development dilemma for those cricketers who have left school and past the academy age range parameter, but are not involved in the affiliate provincial 1st class game. This is a problem because the only environment they may participate in is the club environment and this is no longer viewed as competitive and conducive to supporting elite development. The lack of competitiveness at the club level also increases the possibility of those cricketers at provincial level not returning to play at the club level, thus leading to a loss of developmental role modelling and informal learning. The resultant effect is that those elements that are deemed to lack the developmental impact through loss of competitiveness become dislocated from the in system pathway, leading to an increased possibility of in system pathway identifying talent earlier and by-passing these environments.

5.3.5 The changing school environment

A number of interviewees described SA cricketers as hardworking, hard practising and mentally tough cricketers. In developing these traits SA has relied
heavily on its formal school structures. Administrator 3 addresses the particular importance of the schooling system for developing SA's sportspeople.

‘Our system has always been through schools and through clubs.’ (Administrator 3)

He later confirms the dependence of the SA development system on the school structure.

‘Our system is dependent on the schools, there is no question.’ (Administrator 3)

Evidence suggests that the school environment has, in the past, played a significant part in the development of these fundamental skills, however evidence suggests that this is now changing. Coach 1 explains that this change has become apparent because these fundamental skills are not being embedded due to a lack of skilled practitioners who understand the importance of these fundamental skills to the long-term success in the game.

‘Routines are very important to practice and building the right attitude with the emphasis on hard work and self-development. Schools are important in this process but it does mean going to the right school, which have the right coaching methods and practice and will give the right exposure. An issue with the schools process is the lack of male teachers to constantly ground the fundamentals of the game, at the moment the easier option of the shortened game is chosen at the detriment of the fundamentals of technique.’ (Coach 1)

Coach 3 confirms Coach 1’s statement that the school environment has narrowed to only certain ones offering the right coaching practice and exposure.

‘In SA it is all about the right school. The correct school will offer the right coaching practice and exposure.’ (Coach 3)

Administrator 4 again confirmed the change in the school development environment and reiterates coach 1 and coach 3’s responses by indirectly stressing the importance of the coach by establishing how the nature of teaching practice has changed.

‘The problem in SA as well, teachers don’t do extracurricular activities any more.’ (Administrator 4)

Later in the interview, the previous point was reiterated, however Administrator 4 adds to this by confirming the importance that their affiliate provincial administration places on the application of correct coaching practice, so much so that they are willing to control and pay for its delivery.
'In SA, with regards to the school system the big issue here is the involvement of teachers, you don't get the dedicated teacher who actually coaches any more, they are few and far between. They actually rely on the unions (provincial governing bodies), so we send out guys to the schools and we pay for that.' (Administrator 4)

The above not only establishes the importance of the school system, it also highlights the importance of the correct coaching personnel at this level and reinforces the coach as an important factor in the construction of the learning environment. Changes to the school development environment, such as the reduction in formal cricket coaches, teachers not engaging in extra-curricular activities, or teachers not stressing the fundamentals of the game, together with a weaker club environment may become problematic in the future by way of narrowing the effectiveness of the development pathway at these levels.

The pinnacle of schoolboy domestic cricket is selection for Nuffield Cricket Week (now Coca Cola Khaya Majola week) that provides each affiliate province an opportunity of sending a U/19 schoolboy team to play in an inter-provincial tournament, from which a SA Schools side is chosen. Administrator 2 substantiates that this as an opportunity for young cricketers, who had not already been identified, to be noticed.

‘They are probably identifying the good cricketers, they identify them coming out of the schools, going to (cricket) Weeks and identifying them into the provinces....’ (Administrator 2)

Further evidence from Administrator 2 confirms that attending the right school and being part of the U/19 affiliate tournament may not be enough. He stresses the importance of identification at U/19 level in order for professional progress, but also highlights this as the area where a significant proportion of individuals may be lost.

‘Let’s assume a guy went to (name of private school), he doesn’t make the Nuffield Side or the Coca Cola (SA Schools team) now, his cricket is finished, over. (Name of former player), for instance, he never played Nuffield Cricket, that wouldn’t happen today. He can still go to Nuffield and if he is not picked out of Nuffield he can still be lost and that is the area I am saying a lot of people are lost at. Black and white.’ (Administrator 2)

The above statement links to Themes 3 and 4 and confirms the importance of the development environments after school, to assist with progression and
bridge the gap between school and elite performance, not only from a performance perspective but also for continued participation.

5.4 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to gain an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and to investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer.

Collins & Bailey (2012) highlight that sports policy strategy needs to be decisive and responsive to stay ahead of the competition. In response, countries may adopt and apply previously successful policies and development structures, in the hope that the associated success becomes part of the adopted nation. The net effect is a policy adoption strategy that may not take into account the sociocultural differences and development pathway sensitivities that are rooted in the fabric of the host environment. Findings emerged indicating that structural change has played a partial role in creating stressors further down the development continuum, especially at the sub-elite level between the school and franchise environments.

A number of interrelated and practical issues become apparent as a consequence of structural change; a) The reduction in opportunities at the top level of domestic cricket, b) The loss of competitive standard of club and affiliate level cricket has lead to a reduction in viable pathway options, c) Provincial and franchise level coaches reduce the identification of talent from club, tertiary and provincial cricket environments due to the perceived lack of competitiveness, d) The importance of representative age-related academies is stressed as a fundamental development environment, e) The importance of age related identification has removed talented young adolescent cricketers from the club structure, f) Clubs play less of a role in the development pathway due to a weaker and less competitive club environment not enabling a culture of talent development and positive role modelling, g) Adolescent cricketers may begin specialising earlier in an attempt to be part of each affiliate internally controlled development structure and h) Adolescent cricketers who have developed later may find themselves in a learning and development environment that may lack progression, due to factors such as quality of competition, and are more likely to exit the game altogether, thus driving down the average age of the SA cricketer. This highlights the importance of quality competition being an integral part of a development pathway in order to
produce elite performers (Douglas & Martindale, 2008). Inclusively, structural change also has seemingly increased the possibility of Chance (Gagné, 2004; 2010;) within the development pathway, due to the vagaries of maturation and development (Vaeyens et al., 2008), coupled with a coach’s perception and preconceived selection criteria thus impacting on whether individuals will progress across threshold measures.

Throughout this study, there is a strong emphasis on the reinforcement of previous theoretical models that acknowledge sports development as individual and non-linear in process (Abbot, Button, Pepping, & Collins, 2005; Simonton, 1999) making it difficult within certain sports to relate development to that of tapering, unidirectional and staged development of the pyramid metaphor (Bailey and Collins, 2013). A number of researchers (Baker, 2003; Martens, 1993; Vaeyens, Lenoir, Williams, & Philippaerts, 2008) have highlighted potential physiological and psychological problems of early specialisation and that of dropout or burnout (Fraser-Thomas et al. 2008a; Wall & Côté, 2007) in young adolescents, with very little research applied to adults, especially within the context of progression within the pyramid metaphor. Findings confirm that due to the potential lack of progression within the development pathway, specifically between the school, club and provincial level, it would not be unrealistic for adults to exit a sport due to not only the attractiveness of alternative options (Scanlan et al., 1993), but also due to a lack of self-determination and satisfaction (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

When considering the context specific nature of sports development a number of researchers have highlighted the skills of batting and bowling as difficult and complex skills to master (Müller & Abernethy, 2006; Ranson et al., 2009) which requires talent development programs to encourage late specialisation and also take into consideration the effects of rate-limiting constraints such as different learning, growth and maturation rates (Phillips et al., 2010). For example, in their study of the development trajectory of 11 Australian international fast bowlers, Phillips et al. (2010) found that a significant proportion of experts did not decide to specialise in the skill until their late teens. This confirms Côté et al.’s (2007) assertions that the investment years begin after 16 years plus, and stresses the importance of late specialisation and a robust, unique and dynamic support network which comes in many forms found between family, school and cricket club (Weissensteiner, et al., 2009; Phillips et al., 2010).
Findings confirm cricket as a late developing sport (Phillips et al., 2010) highlighting the importance for the development environments after school, and below domestic elite, to retain structure, competition and exhibit the greatest flexibility and coherency. The importance of progression and selection flexibility is confirmed by a number of researchers. Fletcher & Wagstaff (2009) propose it crucial for development environments to be systematic and strategic in their approach to athlete development and for it to be delivered in an integrated, coherent (Coalter, 2006) and flexible (Martindale et al., 2005) environment. While Coalter, Radtke, Taylor, & Jarvie (2006), in the analysis of Scottish Sporting Cultures of Excellence, acknowledge the importance of inter-dependant roles, but call for the reduction in fragmentation associated with the development continuum. These findings also reinforce those of Martindale et al. (2005) who suggested a social environment through the provision of practice and play, which in this context may be found in the school and club environments, together with coherent avenues for transition and support, can be a major influence on the progression in a cricketing development pathway. This is due to the late developing nature of the game. This process may allow for increased flexibility and a more individualised approach that is aligned to the sport specific developmental requirements outlined by Weissensteiner et al. (2009) and Phillips et al. (2010).

Structural change has highlighted sensitive areas of the development pathway endemic to a SA context that may, in the long-term, not only lead to a reduction in the participation base but also a narrowing in the performance pathway. These two factors may impact on the overall health of the SA domestic game and international performances in the future.

It must be noted that not all the above outcomes can be associated to the structural change of 2004. The outcomes may also, in part, relate to socio-political changes that took place in the mid-1990’s affecting the development environments after school, such as the significantly reduced impact of the army on the development pathway and the associated effect this may have had on tertiary education cricket. In addition, there are other significant macro-level effects that may influence the nature and effectiveness of the SA cricket development pathway, such as transformation quota or target arrangements or the effect of the Kolpack agreement, all impacting in some way on the opportunities of players reaching elite level competition.
When interpreting the findings that have emerged from this study, it is important to acknowledge a number of methodological strengths and weaknesses associated with qualitative research. Strengths of this study reside in the diverse and featured experiences of the selected participants, built up over a significant number of years in the SA cricket environment. This factor assisted in gathering insightful perspectives. The gathering of these deep and rich insights was aided by the use of semi-structured interviews that contributed to the participants being comfortable to offer open and honest accounts of their experiences and perceptions of the SA development pathway. Over and above the purposeful selection of the participants and the semi-structured and open questions used in the interview script, a triangulation technique was also adopted to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the data (Denzin, 1978 as cited in Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011), whereby three independent sources of data; that of the coaches, players and administrative staff data was used. This factor allowed for different perspectives and standpoints to assist and support theme formation (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011).

Due to small sample sizes, a common limitation associated with qualitative research and purposeful sampling relates to the generalisability of the findings. Importantly however, due to the pragmatic nature of the study, findings do provide SA cricket with certain implications relating to the structural change in 2004. Although this study is not able to offer statistical generalisability associated with quantitative research, it may offer user generalisation (Peshkin, 1993) due to the unique experiences of the selected participants. As such, the findings can contribute theoretically and conceptually to research and theory generation in talent development environments and sports policy formation (Ongwuegbutzie & Leech, 2007 as cited in Arnold et al., 2012).

This study offers a real-world example of the context and individual nature of a development pathway and attempts to propose some understanding into how elements of development interact and may be influenced by change. It also may assist in providing an integrated approach and a fundamental acknowledgement of the talent development process, specific to the requirement of the sport and learning environment. However, further work is required to understand the learning and development domains across a range of different sports in order to be better informed when adopting cross-cultural policy and strategies (Collins & Bailey, 2012).
5.5 Rationale and aim of chapter 6

As the coach is viewed as integral to the process of developing athletic performance (Bloom, 1985; Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Phillips, et al., 2010) it becomes a natural progression to ask the question, ‘what about the coaches and their experiences of not only developing players, but the opportunities the system provides in developing them as coaches?’

Together with this point, it is important to link the next stage of the thesis to those practical findings that emerged in Chapters 4 and 5. For example in Chapter 4, study 1 findings emerged relating to the lack of operational and decision-making control some coaches had over their environment. In light of this, and in keeping with the pragmatic approach, the aim of Chapter 6 will be to offer SA cricket a broad perspective of the development and career trajectory of a range of the environments cricket coaches. The study will also attempt to investigate the development and operational environment of the coach, post 2004, to uncover any practical-level truths that may be of benefit to the coach education and development structures in SA cricket.
CHAPTER 6

INFLUENCERS AND DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES OF SA CRICKET COACHES

6. Objectives of chapter

The objective of chapter 6, study 3, is to explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression. The rationale and motivation for exploring this aspect of SA cricket is threefold. Firstly, considering the importance of the coach in providing meaningful developmental learning experiences for athletes makes this population a significant focus of attention in their own right. Secondly, links emerged relating to certain issues raised in chapter 4, study 1 concerning the operational and decision-making control some coaches had over their environment. Thirdly, considering the findings raised in chapter 5, study 2 it would be beneficial to implicitly explore whether the structural change made to the provincial pathway in 2004 have affected the career progression of coaches in a similar way to that of the players. Considering the rationale across all 3 aspects and in keeping a link to a pragmatic philosophy, Chapter 6 hopes to provide SA cricket with a practical and meaningful understanding of the background and challenges facing the coaches operating within the system.

6.1 Introduction

Past coach development research has presented a staged progression to coach development (Côté, Salmela, Trudel & Baria, 1995; Côté, Salmela & Russell, 1995; Schinke, Bloom, Salmela, 1995; Gilbert, Côté, & Mallet, 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson, Côté, & Fraser-Thomas, 2007), concluding that coaches may follow a similar staged process of development as that of athletes (Bloom, 1985; Côté, 1999) on their path to becoming expert. As proposed by Nash and Sproule (2009) investigations into the development of expertise has traditionally been on the performer, rather than that of the coach. Nash and Sproule’s (2009) key premise is that the development of knowledge may arise from many different sources, with each getting interpreted differently. This proposes that the development trajectory of a coach may be more complicated and complex than linear and staged.
The importance of the coach as a key driver in constructing, enhancing and facilitating the quality of learning environment in order to aid performance is now widely acknowledged (Bloom, 1985; Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Phillips, et al., 2010). As such, the coach will form a key component of any talent development environment, making the learning, development and career progression an important factor of consideration. Bearing these points in mind and in keeping with the pragmatic approach of this thesis, the objective of this chapter is to explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression.

6.1.1 Modelling the coaching environment

It is now common practice to acknowledge that coaching is a complex job (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Jones & Wallace, 2005). In attempting to understand this complex environment, researchers have predominantly drawn on the experiences of expert coaches, however as Gilbert and Trudel (2004) explain there is a contextual disconnect, because early coach practitioner research has focused heavily on the activities of school-based coaches, rather than those coaches operating in community clubs and professional environments. The complexity surrounding the operational and development environment of the coach is raised due to different contexts offering different training and learning situations (Côté et al., 2007; Côté et al., 2014). This also means that the definition of coaching excellence is multifaceted and should mirror the flexible roles that coaches need to operate within (Côté et al., 2007).

As more importance is attached to the role of the coach in leading and managing the athlete environment, coaches can no longer be viewed only as motivators who understand sporting technical and pedagogical concepts, but rather they need to also make sense of the psychology, physiology, kinesiology and sociology of athletic performance (Nash & Collins, 2006; Côté et al., 2007). In developing an understanding of the different influences and parameters within both coaching practice and the coaching process, research to date has approached the problem from various positions. It may be argued that the following areas have contributed to understanding how coaches develop, but have not specifically considered the development trajectory of coaches.

Over the past three decades, sports coaching related literature has attempted to understand and smooth the fluid, but complex and ill-structured
domain within which coaches operate (Bowes & Jones, 2006). This in turn has lead to considerable breadth of research covering a number of fields. A number of models have attempted to rationalise the coach’s operational environment (Csikszentmihalyi et al., 1993; Côté et al., 1995). This process of rationalisation began with the more instructional-based models focusing on the coaching process or elements within the coaching process. For example, the key factors model (Franks & Goodman, 1986) identified key performance criteria as a means for assessing coach effectiveness (Lyle, 2002), while Fairs (1987) objectives model describes coaching as a five-step process of orderly interrelated steps. Later, Lyle (2002) constructed an extensive and detailed model, the coaching process model, framing the complexity surrounding the coaching process across six phases of athletic development. Importantly however, these models focus mainly on the coach following a pattern of behaviour that will take place in a certain situation. It does not generate understanding, or explanation to how a coach develops understanding and practice over time.

Other modeling of sports coaching has focused on the human interactions occurring within the process. For example, Chellandurai (1984) and Smoll and Smith (1984) offered a broad view of leadership behaviours and the interactions between leader and athlete, with a principle that the quality of this relationship leads to an increase in athletic performance and athlete satisfaction. These models, together with the current coach-athlete behavior research, such as Lorimer and Jowett (2009) offer important work by focusing on the behaviours of the coach and how these behaviours impact on performance of the athlete, however they do not offer understanding and do not take into account all the variables involved with coaching (Collins, Abraham & Collins, 2012). In addition, early attempts were made to utilise educational frameworks in order to rationalise coaching practice in the same way it has been done for teaching (for example Tinning, 1982; Rupert & Buschner, 1989). Yet, in their comprehensive review of the sports coaching literature, Gilbert and Trudel (2004) state that even though similarities do exist (Drewe, 2000 in Gilbert & Trudel, 2004) the differences are not sufficient enough to include sports coaching research in all previous teaching related reviews.

In an attempt to frame the complexity of coaching practice and overcome the more mechanistic and instructional models outlining coaching practice as a process, a number of models have taken a more experiential approach. For example, central to the models proposed by Côté et al. (1995); Saury and Durand
(1998) and Abraham, Collins, & Martindale (2006) is the way coaches acquire domain and task specific knowledge. Other areas attempting to draw on the practice of expert coaches may be explained by the tendency for expert performers to approach problems in a different way to novices (Nash & Collins, 2006). In their description they explain that a typical individual will more often than not attempt to find the easiest solution possible (Anderson & Leinhardt, 2002 in Nash & Collins, 2006). If a solution is not possible then a more complex problem solving option is sought and applied. During this process an individual will use cognitive principles to process the information effectively (VanLehn, 1996) and it is due to this process that the difference between novice and expert performers can be explained (Nash & Collins, 2006). The investigation of the cognitive processes in expert coaching practice has lead to further research in the area of coach decision-making (Lyle, 2010; Martindale & Collins, 2012; Collins et al., 2012).

6.1.2 Coach learning environment

In a separate, but related area of coach development, research has been concerned with the environments in which coach learning takes place. For example, recent literature (Nelson, Cushion, & Potrac, 2006; Mallet, Trudel, Lyle, & Rynne, 2009; Cushion, Nelson, Armour, Lyle & Jones, 2010) suggests three broad coach learning experiences or situations originally proposed by Coombs and Ahmed (1974); that of formal, nonformal, informal.

Formal coach learning takes place in an institutionalised, structured and curriculum driven environment, with specified outcomes in for the form of certified qualifications (Jones, 2000; Nelson et al., 2006; Mallet et al., 2009; Cushion et al., 2010; Hussain, Trudel, Patrick, & Rossi, 2012). It is this environment that, by definition, may be referred to as a guided or mediated learning environment (Mallet et al., 2009; Trudel, Gilbert & Werthner, 2010; Hussain et al., 2012). At the other end of the spectrum, informal learning activities are those that take place through the ‘discursive and performative histories of day-to-day experiences of a coach’ and away from any structured, formalised activity (Hussain et al., 2012, p.229; Nelson et al., 2006). The activities may also, by definition, be referred to as the unguided or unmediated learning situations or the participation learning metaphor (Mallet et al., 2009; Trudel et al., 2010; Hussain et al., 2012).

From the literature, it seems that the cognitive framework of formal and informal learning environments that encapsulates mediated and unmediated
contexts are quite straightforward. However, when defining the nonformal environment, it becomes slightly more problematic. Sitting in between the formal and informal aspects of learning are the nonformal activities. These activities are described as sharing characteristics of formal learning activities because they are structured and organised for a specific reason, but fall out with the formal education framework and therefore not usually compulsory to attend. Typical types of nonformal learning based activities include workshops, conferences and seminars (Hussain et al., 2012). Nelson, Cushion, & Potrac, (2006) do stress the difficulty in separating the formal from the nonformal activities, mostly due to a lack of research in the area.

It is generally agreed within the literature that in order for coaching to become a credible profession then there is a need for both the training and the certification of coaches (Smith & Smoll, 1997; Mccallister, Blinde & Weiss, 2000; Lyle, 2002; Gilbert & Trudel, 2006). Due to this, the formal coach development environment has received much attention from coach researchers. It is well documented that formal coach education has come under much criticism. For example, in their qualitative study, Nelson, Cushion and Potrac (2012) sourced the views of 90 experienced coaches operating at different levels, investigating how coach education could better assist them in the learning and development. Coaches’ complaints were that the coach education was not coach-centred and highlighted that information was, at times, not relevant to their own practice.

Most formal learning (Irwin, Hanton, & Kerwin, 2004; Nelson, Cushion, & Potrac, 2006) will follow curricular-based content that more often than not attempts to raise awareness of the technical, tactical and mental attributes associated with the sport in question. Thus, much of this context and knowledge transfer is standardised, however do not include important aspects such as the socio-cultural, socio-political and pedagogical aspects that also encompass the role of the coach (Cassidy, Potrac, & Mckenzie, 2006; Nelson et al., 2006). This type of curriculum delivery, that is directive in nature, focuses on how to coach, rather than the why (Cushion et al., 2010). Subsequent research has taken lead from the pedagogical foundation of teaching and learning and applied it to the cognitive and social domain of sports coaching in an attempt to reveal how best coach educators may facilitate coach learning. For example, Gilbert and Trudel’s (2001; 2005) experiential learning model proposed that Schön’s (1983) theory of reflective practice is an effective framework for how sports coaches learn. An important
component of Gilbert and Trudel's (2001) six-stage model is that each stage of the reflective process is influenced by: peers, the coaches’ stage of learning, the characteristics of the issue confronted and the environment. This research is key in helping understand that coaches are able to learn on the job, by building catalogues of instances that are reflected upon (Abraham et al., 2006; Côté et al., 1995), initially in isolation, but with the accuracy of assumptions checked as a social activity with mentors and established peers (Potrac, Brewer, Jones, Armour, & Hoff, 2000). To date, the benefits of reflection and experiential learning and the environment in which it takes place provides some insight into the type of learning environment that may be conducive for coach learning and development. The understanding of coach cognitions has been widely recognised as one of the central areas for understanding coaches’ behaviours (Côté, 1999; Lyle, 2002; Jones, Armour, & Potrac, 2004; Vergeer & Lyle, 2007). Vergeer and Lyle (2007, p.225) recognise these cognitions as the mental activity surrounding ‘problem solving, judgment and decision-making, planning, reasoning and the generation, storage and retrieval of knowledge’.

6.1.3 Coach development

As outlined earlier in Chapter 6, a number of studies have examined the developmental experiences of athletes, by stressing the importance of athletes experiencing certain activities at certain times on their path to developing expertise (Bloom, 1985; Côté, 1999; Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004; Stambulova & Alfermann, 2009). However, only a small section of coach research to date has investigated and mapped the development of coaches to the same extent. A number of studies (Côté, Salmela, Trudel et al., 1995; Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Schinke et al., 1995; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007; Gilbert et al., 2006; Gilbert et al., 2009) investigated the developmental profile of coaches, offering the prospect that coaches progress through stages of development, similar to that of an athlete on their way to becoming expert coaches. For example, in attempting to map the career development of six expert basketball coaches from their first athletic experiences to present day coaching positions, Schinke et al. (1995) outlined seven chronological career stages of development, namely; 1) Early sport participation, 2) National elite sport, 3) International elite sport, 4) Novice coaching, 5) Developmental coaching, 6) National elite coaching and 7) International elite coaching. These coaches explained that the novice and developmental coaching
periods were integral in assisting them in developing appropriate philosophies and new skills for coaching.

Erickson et al. (2007), in an effort to develop a framework for the development of HP coaches, expanded on the earlier research by Gilbert et al. (2006) and Lynch and Mallet (2006) by interviewing 19 male and female HP coaches across nine individual and team based sports. Erickson and colleagues did this by attempting to find out how much experience is required and when these experiences should occur. Their findings were consistent with earlier research (Bloom, 1998; Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006). Highlighting experiences as an athlete within the sport was a fundamental factor, alongside formal coach education or mentorship, in the development of HP coaches. Erickson et al. (2007) explained that all the coaches interviewed had previous experience coaching before gaining their current coaching positions, but not necessarily across a range of sports and not at a recreational level. Findings suggested that these Canadian HP coaches did not build coaching experience across a diverse range of sports. This did not mirror their own sporting development and suggested that these coaches were more focused, not only in the area they wished to coach, but on how they intended getting there.

In earlier research, Gilbert et al. (2006) investigated the career development of 15 college level HP coaches across three sports and proposed a minimum threshold of developmental sport experience. This suggests that coaches require several thousand hours of athletic participation, across several sports for an average of 13 years in order to become a HP coach. These findings were not consistent across Erickson et al. (2007) who learned that athletic and coaching experiences differed significantly, but the development trajectory of coaches followed a similar path. Gilbert and colleagues’ findings suggested that the type of activities, and when these occurred, was less important than the amount of common activities that coaches were engaged in when developing to expert coach.

These studies outlined above are significantly important to developing an understanding of coach development trajectories. For example, the earlier work of Salmela (1994), Côté et al. (1995), and Schinke et al. (1995) may be likened to the early work of Bloom (1985) who provided a staged, but not age related, model for athlete development. Interestingly, Erickson et al. (2007) compare their later work to the staged athlete development model (DMSP) proposed by Côté et al. (2009). Erickson and colleagues not only provide five stages of developmental sport
experience of HP coaches but they also provide ages at which these activities occur, similar to the ages and stages (sampling, specialising and investment years) provided by the DMSP. This not only acknowledges that coaches may go through similar developmental stages as athletes, but also highlight important transitions that may assist in developing understanding of coach development. For example, important transitions such as coaches requiring further experiential development in leadership skills during the crucial competitive sport participation stage and initial coaching stages (Erickson et al., 2007).

Importantly the three earlier cross-national, multi-sport studies (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007) provide consistent results with regards to coach development patterns. For example, a significant number of the studies substantiate Simon and Chase’s (1973) 10 year rule, outlining that coaches may take over 10 years to reach the level of expert. Inclusively, coaches tend to all have had early experience of the sport they now coach, together with having experienced a diversified range of sports when they were athletes. Across the three studies they also tended to have little formal coach education experience, with their learning being dominated by informal learning situations.

Again, following an in-depth quantitative structured interview procedure Gilbert et al. (2009) wanted to extend the coach development research by comparing the development profile structures of successful team and individual sport coaches. They also wished to examine if the profiles of 16 High School basketball and cross-country coaches were linked to the success they had achieved as coaches. As was the case with earlier studies (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007), coaches from both sports had accumulated thousands of hours participating in numerous organised sports. There were however certain findings that may make cross sport comparison difficult, highlighting the need for further research to be done in a single sport and for this to be of a broader nature. For example, the very fact that much of the earlier coach development research specifically mentioning the HP coaches being better than average athletes in the sport they now coach, provides evidence that future research needs to look deeper into these learning and development experiences, while at the same time more broadly investigating the coach’s developmental trajectory.

To add, in terms of previous sports participation, it was noted that basketball coaches only spent half their time being involved with basketball, while the cross-
country coaches spent all of their time as athletes being involved in distance running. In addition, basketball coaches spent 50% more time being involved in coach education and were involved in twice as many in-season competitions. This study, together with earlier ones (Gilbert et al., 2006; Erickson et al., 2007) did not offer the types of team sports these coaches participated in. It may then be argued that, as a sport, basketball lends itself to more functional movement patterns that may be transferred to other open skilled, team invasion ball sports. Thus allowing the athletes to acquire knowledge from other similar sports and apply this to a basketball context. This is confirmed by the fact that the cross-country coaches were more likely to participate in team sports than the basketball coaches were to participate in individual sports. This may be due to the training schedule of distance runners being very different from that a basketball player, with more time spent by the individual athlete training and recovering. Therefore runners may view team sports as a way to actively recover in the off-season and away from their chosen sport. These alternative interpretations of the results may highlight the importance of the type of sport coaches have participated in, in order to acquire the knowledge that may assist them later in their coaching careers.

There are also differences across coach education experiences. These differences may be at an international level, because coach education and its implementation will be different in SA than it is in the United States. Differences will also occur within individual sports and on a national level, due to national sporting agencies implementing coach education programmes in a non-standardised way. For example, basketball in the United States is a high profile sport and therefore it is natural to assume basketball coaches may attend more coach education courses than cross country running coaches because they may have been more readily available (Gilbert et al., 2009). In addition, due to basketball’s organised and competitive structures it is not surprising that basketball coaches have twice as many in-season competitions as cross-country coaches. It is therefore also more likely to produce positive correlations between time spent with athletes in sport and measures of success. Importantly, very little of the research outlined above has considered in any detail how these coaches have learned and when the most valuable learning occurred.

As important as these studies are, they do only offer a quantified representation of phases and quantity of coach activity that is represented in linearised stages of development models. What these studies do not offer is a
broader perspective of how coaches develop. For example, we are fully aware of
the ill-structured development environment athletes need to negotiate, indicating
development requires a more individualised approach (Simonton, 1999; Martindale
et al., 2005; MacNamara et al., 2006; 2008). This, together with the idea that
knowledge construction is multi-faceted and complex and may come from a
number of sources (Nash & Sproule, 2009), evokes the question; is the coach
development pathway as unstructured and complex as the one an athlete faces?

Much of the literature attempting to smooth the complexity related to sports
coaching, focuses on issues relating to the coaching practice (Côté et al., 1995;
Saury & Durand, 1998; Abraham et al., 2006) or issues surrounding the coaching
process (Franks & Goodman, 1986; Fairs, 1987; Lyle, 2002). To date, little
research has focused on the coach’s broader developmental context. Do coaches
face similar barriers and opportunities to progress as that of athletes? For example, there is now significant research investigating the barriers to athletes
progressing, such as drop out and burn out, however very little investigation has
come from the perspective of the coach. One such study, conducted by Raedeke
et al. (2000) examined coaching commitment and burnout by highlighting a link
between feelings of burnout and feelings of entrapment. Interestingly the factors
applied to making coaches feel trapped in coaching related to feelings of; 1) A lack
of alternatives to coaching, 2) Expectations to continue and 3) Too much time
invested to quit. Coaches exhibiting feelings of entrapment reported higher levels
of exhaustion than other coaches who exhibited lower commitment scores.

Characteristics impacting on the coach development environment such as these,
together with others that have to date only been touched upon, such as the micro-
politics of coaching (Potrac & Jones, 2009), need to be examined in more depth if
coaching is to become the profession as outlined by the International Council for
Coach Education (ICCE) and the Magglingen Declaration (ICCE, 2000).

The preceding passage has highlighted a number of factors that consider
the development and learning environment of the coach to be both complex and
multi-faceted (Nash & Sproule, 2009). However, the small number of studies
investigating the development experiences of coaches, have focused only on the
effective practice and knowledge development of elite or expert coaches (Lynch &
Mallet, 2006; Nash et al., 2011), depicting the coach development trajectory to be
linear and unproblematic (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet et al., 2006; Ericsson
et al., 2007). Few have, to date, offered a broad examination of the development
trajectory and experiential knowledge of practiced coaches in an attempt to offer further understanding of this potentially complex and ill-structured environment. In addition to this, very few, if any studies to date, have investigated the development, learning and career trajectory of SA cricket coaches. These factors, together with the importance attached to the coach as a key component of a talent development, provide the rationale and aim of Chapter 6 and offer a broad exploration of the learning, development and career trajectory of SA cricket coaches.

6.2. Methods

6.2.1 Participants

The aim of Study 3 is to explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression. Considering these aims, significant deliberation was given to the purposeful selection (Patton, 1990) of those coaches. In order to be included, coaches needed to be currently operating as a coach within SA cricket. They must have been in their current role for a minimum of two years in order to provide an embedded perspective. They should have worked in the SA cricket systems as coach for over 10 years, in line with past research suggesting that 10 years is a minimum for a development of coaching expertise (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007; Nash & Sproule, 2009). As a group, the participants needed to represent coaches with experience working at all three levels within SA cricket (i.e. participation, development, elite), covering all of the structural coaching outlets, e.g. Bakers Mini-cricket, schools, clubs, age group elite, provincial academy, national academy, provincial and franchise. On an individual basis all coaches would require to have worked at two levels within the system and across a number of different outlets. Finally, all coaches would need to hold at least a Level 2 or Level 3 cricket coach qualification in order to allow them to comment on coach education experiences. This criterium underscores the unique and diverse nature of the participants experience allowing a representative and rich insight into the learning, development and career progression within a SA cricket context.

The sample for Study 3 consisted of 13 participants, the make-up of which included 11 current coaches, four of which currently operate in the amateur cricket leagues (school/club/university), five coaches who operate in the provincial pathway, while two coaches were operating at the franchise level, together with one coach educator and one coach mentor. All identified participant coaches were
male and had over 10 years (averaging 14.2 years) of experience as SA domestic cricket coaches.

Evidence of the multiple experiences and unique and layered perspective gathered by the selected participant can be viewed in chapter 3, table 3.2. However as an example, Coach 6 was currently operating as a university club coach, but had coached at provincial and international level. Participant 11 was currently acting as only one of a small number of SA coach mentors, but had previously gathered experience as a school, provincial and franchise head coach. The number of participants identified for this study is consistent with the studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009), Olusoga et al. (2010) and Nash et al. (2011).

6.2.2 Design

A number of previous coach development studies have focused on using a structured interview guide for the purposes of quantifying coach development, by analysing training activities retrieved from memory (Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Gilbert et al., 2006; Erickson et al., 2007). The basic principle at the forefront of this study acknowledges that coach development and the pathway to building knowledge and expertise is not only complex and multi-faceted (Nash & Sproule, 2011) but it may also be individual in nature. It is therefore necessary to choose the correct methodology to capture the perspective of the person who has experienced it (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). In light of this, a qualitative methodology was deemed the most appropriate form of data collection procedure (Côté et al., 1993; Nash & Sproule, 2011).

As the primary aim of this study is to explore the experiential knowledge of individual cricket coaches, a semi-structured interview script was developed due to the structure and flexibility it allows in exploring areas that may emerge during discussions (Cushion & Jones, 2006; Rynne et al., 2010; Nash et al., 2011). In order to ensure the questions captured a broad overview of the coach’s experiences it was important that the primary questions were broad and open-ended (Patton, 1990; Côté et al., 1995).
In order to gain an in-depth perception of the coaching and development environment prompts and probes would be used as and when required (Patton, 1990), however it is important to ensure a neutral and impartial stance when using probes and prompts in order to improve the opportunity to facilitate open responses (Backstrom & Hursch-Ceasar, 1981).

In attempting to capture a broad perspective, the primary questions were structured across two general areas. The first of these areas investigated the role of the coach while the second area explored the coach learning and development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Prompt</th>
<th>Probes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Could you describe the role you perform?</td>
<td>What do you do in your daily coaching activities?</td>
<td>How long have you been coaching in this role? What did you do before this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you view your role in terms of player development?</td>
<td>At what level of development would you say you are involved in (novice, intermediate, elite)</td>
<td>How does working between levels affect your role? Are there any barriers to you completing your role?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would you describe your coaching philosophy?</td>
<td>How did you get into coaching? What motivated you to coach?</td>
<td>How does this impact on your coaching?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever had a mentor in your coaching?</td>
<td>Has this helped you develop? Would this help you develop?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you consider there to be different stages to a coaches’ development?</td>
<td>What are they for you? How did your career develop (experiences) What barriers to develop are there?</td>
<td>Was there a specific pathway for you (self-motivated/structured)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What sort of activities do you recognise being involved in CPD?</td>
<td>Have you ever taken part in any CPD activities? Have/would they help you develop as a coach?</td>
<td>What types of activities were most helpful?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When was the last coach education course you attended?</td>
<td>How was it? Did you feel it enhanced your knowledge? In what ways?</td>
<td>Is there anything you would change in the way coach education is structured? Do any barriers exist?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you think cricket coaches in SA learn?</td>
<td>Do coaches in SA network? Is it more formal or informal activities?</td>
<td>How have learned and developed in the past?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.1: Examples of coach learning and development interview questions
environment. Examples of the questions used are listed in Table 6.1 above, along with prompts and probes for each primary question.

### 6.2.3 Procedure

Before individuals were identified for interview, all procedures were pre-approved by Edinburgh Napier University’s ethical committee. Once identified, each participant was recruited by personal contact and informed consent was obtained (Thomas et al., 1999) to take part in a one-to-one interview. As is standard, ethical protocols were employed in order to promote honest evaluation and maintain trustworthiness, assurances were provided that anonymity would be protected and none of the organisations or bodies the coaches were employed by would have access to the recorded information (Tuckman, 1978; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). In order to maximize comfort and aid recall, the main interview questions were sent to the 13 candidates before the interview, allowing for familiarization with the types of questions asked. Interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis in order to gather an in-depth examination of participant’s individual experiences, thoughts and beliefs. Each interview lasted an average of 42 minutes and recorded on a Dictaphone for later transcription. The interview time was consistent with earlier studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009), Olusoga et al. (2010). All interviews were conducted at the location of the participant’s choice, which took place either at the training ground or in individual private offices.

### 6.2.4 Data analysis

In order to ensure a level of structure and consistency, inductive thematic analysis outlined by Braun and Clark (2006) was adopted due to the flexible and uncomplicated approach it offers to analyse a multifaceted topic. As outlined by Braun and Clark (2006, p.87), the first part of the inductive process was to become familiar with the data by way of multiple readings of the transcribed data.

The second stage was to group the data by generating codes across the whole data set. From this coding procedure, themes were formed and all relevant coded data was grouped and applied to each theme. An example of the initial coding and theming process is outlined below in Figure 6.1.
Once applied, the themes were reviewed in relation to the coded extracts and a thematic map was produced. Even though it is possible for two individuals to apply the same level of subjectivity to a piece of text (Loffe & Yardley, 2004), the reliability of the coding and theming procedure was checked by a critical friend in an attempt to remain as objective as possible (Vaismoradi et al., 2013).

Once the coding and theming process was complete, the themes and codes were once again reviewed. At this stage, higher order-themes were named with relevant lower-order themes allocated to the appropriate higher-order theme. This process was conducted according to the processes outlined by Braun and Clark (2006). All of the coded extracts were reviewed to check for coherent patterns. Once this was complete, the process involved checking the entire data set to check for coherence across theme formation and theme names were checked in order to make sure they presented a clear definition for each theme.
The themes were then arranged in the most appropriate way in order to clearly present the findings in the most practical and logical way and in relation to the research aim. An example of the final higher and lower-order themes can be seen in Figure 6.2 above.

6.2.5 Trustworthiness and credibility

Every attempt, both reasonably and practically (Patton, 1990), was made to account for the credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 in Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Firstly, data triangulation (Patton, 1990) was employed whereby coaches operating at different developmental and performance levels were used in order to support theme formation (Denzin, 1978 in Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Investigator triangulation (Denzin, 1978, in Patton, 1990) was also employed to strengthen the study by way of utilising the knowledge and experience of a critical friend who had developed over 15 years of experience in qualitative research in coach development and learning and talent development. Together with peer checking of intercoder reliability during the
category and theme formation, peer debriefing was also utilised at varying stages throughout the data analysis and theme presentation procedure. For example, after the theming process and coded data, with the data having been allocated to each theme, agreement was sought from peers to check the reliability of allocation codes with themes in a procedure outlined by Côté & Salmela (1994) and Weinberg and McDermot (2002). In addition, regular contact and meetings were held between the researcher and peers to discuss points that may have been under or over emphasised and to remove any assumptions made from the gathered information.

Finally, member checking was also employed to confirm with participants the accuracy and balance of their responses (Sparkes & Smith, 2009; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016). Due to the proximity of each participant this was completed via email. Due to variety of potential reasons, such as individuals leaving positions, no participant responded to the member checks request. No changes were made to the any quotes by way of this process.

6.3 Results

Following the inductive coding of the data, three higher order themes, nine lower-order themes emerged that related back to the aims of this study. The following three higher-order themes provided the most compelling and practical way to display the results; 1) Background development, 2) Coaching learning and 3) Barriers to coach progression

6.3.1 Background development

This first higher-order theme provides a backdrop to the development background of the coaches who participated in the study and contains two lower-themes; 1) Teaching experience and 2) Perceived importance of past playing experience.

6.3.1.1 Teaching experience.

Interestingly, five of the 13 coaches interviewed mentioned having formal teaching experience, with a number linking the progression from teaching to coaching having occurred naturally. Coach 11 makes specific reference to the way his background in teaching had a profound effect on the way he approached his coaching practice,

'I was a school teacher. That is what got me interested. Teaching...coaching has probably veered off the instructional way of doing things, but I think there has
always been the calling of teaching in some capacity and the coaching was really just an extension of my teaching. I have always tried to challenge players, I have always tried to challenge myself, for me, and having come from a teaching background it was always about how can I grow the whole player. It was never just about the winning side. For me it was about the development of that person, so he can understand he is his own best coach.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 7 stresses the importance of first and foremost being a teacher and this aiding his transition into coaching. Coach 7 also highlights a motivation to understand how skill levels are developed across different sports and how developing one sport may have an effect on developing another.

‘I started coaching, because I was a teacher I was always involved in sport. Since varsity I tried to do as many sports as I could. So I have coaching certificates, level one in nine different sports. I just love to learn about sport…I progressed into level two in seven of them, just to find out a bit more, and then I started teaching and obviously I had the opportunity to work with young guys and try and develop those things. Basically my philosophy was developed there and not in cricket as much….I have always felt part of preparing guys for a certain goal. I see having a great result as part of the process. So, it is not about the amount of cups you can lift. It is about the guys you are involved with and where they go.’ (Coach 7)

Coach 3 mentions being involved in teaching and this making coaching a natural progression, but it was his background in playing the game, alongside the teaching experience, that progressed a career in coaching.

‘I taught maths and I taught PE so coaching for me just became a natural thing. Obviously playing cricket I saw an opportunity ‘I can’t play cricket forever’ and because I love this game, and I am very passionate about this game, and using this forum, to obviously design a new career for me out of teaching.’ (Coach 3)

6.3.1.2 Perceived importance of past playing experience

Even though five of the 13 coaches identified made reference to the benefits of a previous career in teaching, a significant number of the participant coaches had played cricket to a professional first class standard. Of the coaches identified, 11 of them had previously played first class cricket, with one of them having gained international level experience. The remaining two coaches played to an amateur club level standard.

Coach 1 explains the importance of having had some level of playing career before making the transition into coaching. He considered those experiences
developed from playing, both from a technical standpoint and by learning from being coached, thus allowing for a better understanding of what may or may not work.

‘A coach that has come to the end of his playing career and has played at club level and higher, a decent level of cricket, it is going to be an easier transition to a coach than somebody who hasn’t really had much cricketing background playing wise. You learn the ways and what works, and knowledge from having played the game. Just that little bit of technical background does help, plus along the way you have seen how others coach.’ (Coach 1)

Coach 6 reiterates Coach 1’s point that playing experience is crucial, more specifically around developing technical skills. Interestingly Coach 6 goes slightly further and mentions that having had a playing career allows the coach to understand the psychological pressures of playing and enabling him to relate to these pressures and to their players more easily.

‘The biggest thing is you have got to have the technical knowledge to start off with. You have got to know how to tell a guy ‘take a stance’ and things like that. After that it is about the coach trying to learn and know how to instill confidence. Sometimes I struggle with that now. I wish you could go down to the shop and buy a bag of confidence.’ (Coach 6)

Coach 3 also confirms the perceived importance of a previous playing career, however adds that it is also necessary in providing a coach with a coaching profile that allows individuals to gain a level of trust in expertise and knowledge.

‘As an ex-cricketer you have all your basics…You have played, you have seen, you have experience. That can give you a nice little push but…if it is a guy off the street he is not going to be recognised because in cricket unfortunately it is if you haven’t been there, people don’t recognise you’. (Coach 3)

Coach 9 alludes to a specific socio-political factor within the SA sporting environment, that of affirmative action. Importantly, comment is not made about the merits of affirmative action, but rather what he perceives to be an important factor in being a high-level cricket coach. Coach 9, akin to previous statements, not only outlines the importance of playing experience, but also perceives it to be of more importance than that of coaching qualifications.

‘It sounds a bit political again, but because of our scenario in SA, some coaches are getting pushed when they have maybe have not got the experience or the levels of certain other guys. And that happens right through the system. Where
you sometimes feel, the guy has got the paper knowledge, he has got level three but he has hardly played provincial cricket at a first class level and he will get the nod before another guy. Which just makes the standard of coaching an anomaly. It is not that difficult, if you read the books and watch the videos to structure a forward defense.’ (Coach 9)

6.3.2 Coach Learning

This second higher-order theme provides evidence relating to the learning and development experiences of the participating coaches and contains five lower-order themes; 1) The impact of coach education on the development process, 2) Development through significant others, 3) Impact of differing agendas on informal learning, 4) The importance of experience and role diversity and 5) The importance of building a shared identity.

6.3.2.1 The impact of coach education on the development process

Coach 6, who has operated at international and domestic level across a number of countries, outlines his development pathway and the important learning and development experiences that Level 4 offered.

‘I did my English level one, two, three, when I came over here I did my level four, which is the highest qualification to have here I am aware of…it has changed quite a lot since (name) took over about ten years ago…The last one I did was level four which was 15 years ago. It was good. I enjoyed it. It was talking of getting quality people in to talk about preparation, psychology, fielding, batting, bowling…you are always going to learn something.’ (Coach 6)

Coach 10 reiterates Coach 6’s earlier comments, that the various coach education courses were useful and impacted on his own learning by enabling him to pick up ideas to enhance his own practice. Importantly, Coach 10 seems to stress more, the significance of being ‘fast tracked’ through the system and how working with higher-level coaches in their own environment had more of an impact than coach education alone. Coach 10 also stresses that the learning process does not end there and that it is important for the information learnt to be disseminated down the path to those coaches operating at a lower developmental level.

‘The coach education system has been very useful. That is where you get stimulated. That is where you start picking up ideas and things like that…For myself I think I was in the fortunate position…I also got fast tracked into the system at some stage. That was years back, when probably in this country we had to bring
through more black coaches and things like that. I was fortunate to have worked with people like (name) and I learned a lot more about the game, not through coaching courses but through actually being involved at a fairly high level. Once you are there you can sometimes take that back to the lower systems or in the pipeline, as you go down the pipeline.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 4, who is also operating at the franchise level, confirms the value in the learning process attached to the level 4 qualification, but also adds that there would be increased value in broadening the range of topic areas covered.

‘Once again they can be a little bit more forward thinking with that, they sort of touch on...I get more ideas, psychologists and trainers and those folks involved. The level four is a hell of a long process. It took us a year. We had a five day course, went back and assignments and then went back for another four days plus the exam...But, yes, I definitely valued that.’ (Coach 4)

Coach 1, who has international experience, but now operates in the school environment, talks very positively of his coach education experiences. He describes a real openness to the value he places on listening to other coaches’ experiences and then applying them to his own coaching environment.

‘It is always wonderful to hear people who have done that and been there and been successful, stand up and tell us their story. Coaches love that. Those forums are great. But also, I did a three-day course and it was very informative. I think it also gives each candidate a bit of structure and knowledge, and background theoretical stuff and confidence.’ (Coach 1)

Coach 3 also advocates the importance of coach education and how he perceives the courses to be aligned with the development level of the coach and the player. Coach 3, however, places a greater emphasis on his learning, coming from his experiences during his former first class playing career.

‘I think it works. I think there is progression. I think there is a sense of developing coaches in different stages...Did it help me? I knew all the things before because I played first class cricket but it is important to know that the basics stay the same in cricket, for example. And if I had known now what I knew then I would have been a different cricketer but we weren’t exposed to all those informations....’ (Coach 3)

6.3.2.2 Development through significant others

Coach 2, currently a coach educator, makes specific mention of one individual who had an effect on his development as a coach. Importantly, he does
also attribute much of his development, both good and bad, to that of peer related learning and to those learning experiences taken from playing.

‘I always look back on guys I worked with in coaching, and thought I have taken a little bit…(name) was a very good guy and he was at the start of his meteoric rise, even though he wasn’t a young man, but he was on quite a meteoric climb up which ended with him coaching England, I took bits from him. Very appreciative of a lot of friends of mine who were first class cricketers who went into coaching and can see the benefits here and there.’ (Coach 2)

Coach 3 talks strongly of the importance of hard work and self-directed learning, but makes no mention of any specific individual who has assisted in their development, but rather applied learning and development experiences to a situation where good practice was observed, reflected upon and adopted.

‘Informally just observing, just being part of these different personalities. And obviously seeing what they are doing. As a coach you always wanted to see if someone was doing something different…there is no winning formula. There is always something that you can improve on. So always just try and improve yourself…It is hard work and it is something that you have got to be really…if you are not into it then you shouldn’t be there.’ (Coach 3)

Again, Coach 4 makes no reference to having a specific individual they could call a mentor. Coach 4 not only stresses developing his learning from a previous professional playing career, but also makes reference to specific adhoc learning incidents when listening to experienced coaches and players reflecting on particular coaching scenarios making a significant difference to their own learning and coaching practice.

‘No real mentor. There were guys but as I said to you earlier, I feel like your mind must be like a parachute and it must be like a sponge. So I have learned a lot of things from various folks and put it at that the back of my mind and tried my own things and see if it works or doesn’t work. There have been a few pillars in my development as a player firstly and then as a coach, but no real mentor. But there has definitely been a couple that have sparked something in me. Then you keep following them. Like (name of coach), when I heard him talk about bowling after one of our games, when I still played, that changed my whole perception of coaching, the whole thing…..’ (Coach 4)

Like Coach 3 mentioned earlier, Coach 5, operating at the university club level, also speaks of their learning and development being very self-driven and
seeking out opportunities to speak to and to ask questions of experienced coaches and individuals.

‘Not an official mentor no. One or two guys, if I had a certain issue I would go and speak to. I would regard (name) as someone who I would speak to. (Name) was someone who played a key role in my development and I would spend time discussing things with. But no official mentor. It was self-driven. Asking questions at the time and getting advice on certain things. The director of a previous job I had was sort of a mentor, but he wasn’t a specific coaching mentor as such. He was more on coaching philosophy and those sort of things and how I see tertiary cricket and how I see development.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 10 makes particular mention of numerous people who he now views as mentors by having made a significant contribution to his development as a coach.

‘Over the years I have worked with a few people…I wouldn’t say aligned myself, but there are people that have played a huge role in my development as a coach, that I see as mentors, it might not be formal mentors but it is people that I feel I can relate to, people that I can talk to, people that have helped me with my development as a coach in the game.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 11 makes reference to a certain individual being a mentor, however like previous comments, Coach 11 also makes mention of making a point of sitting down and talking about the game, stressing the importance of trying to gain further insight into the game and developing his own understanding.

‘I found, and I stuck close to the top players and I had a mentor in (name of player) and I would constantly pick his brain and we would spend time like this where the salt and pepper shakers were all over the table, discussing angles and that sort of thing. Talking hours and hours of cricket. I also wanted to know how the best players felt, what they were thinking what they were looking out for…I learnt a lot from them, sitting down, chatting. I don’t think enough of that happens.’ (Coach 11)

6.3.2.3 Impact of differing agendas on informal learning

Coach 1 describes a very informal community of learning among coaches who operate within a school environment and who are willing and open to sharing ideas.

‘We are a bunch of schools who play each other regularly and we have a bunch of coaches within those schools and you get to know each other over the years and over the months, and I think we are pretty similar in most schools. And every now
and then we will sit down and have a few drinks and just talk about whatever sport it is and maybe share an idea and bounce things off each other.’ (Coach 1)

Coach 5 adds more weight to Coach 1’s comments, mentioning that it is only due to coaches knowing and trusting one another that information sharing across environments becomes normalised. Interestingly, he also perceives there to be more open discussions at franchise level where competition may be considered more fierce than at the tertiary education level he is operating under.

‘You will get coaches who have known each other for a long time, they will communicate quite a bit. You will find that unless you know the players, unless you know the coaches personally, you have previous experience playing with them or playing against them or whatever it might be, you don’t actually communicate a great deal…I think it is something that could definitely improve, especially at tertiary level. That is something that needs to improve. Those sort of opportunities need to come along a bit more. Professional franchise coaches have the opportunity to have that…but I think we are behind.’ (Coach 5)

From his experiences operating in the international environment, Coach 6 confirms how coach learning and development should operate by outlining his experiences of best practice that occurred when coaching in New Zealand. Coach 6 makes particular reference to feeling like being part of a community with all the coaches talking openly to each other about developing cricketers for the benefit of New Zealand cricket.

‘I think the courses give you the ground work and the base to operate from and then, as I said before, when you are actually coaching you need to review your own performance and talk too…as players do, players talk to each other about what good bowlers are around and ‘next week you’ll come across this left-armer, watch out he bowls a good bouncer’. I think the coaches have got to have a forum where they can talk to each other. One thing about New Zealand, because it is such a small country it was all geared to help the Black Caps (New Zealand) get better. The coaches felt employed by New Zealand cricket. You are all encouraged to produce one or two players to go up to that next level.’ (Coach 6)

Again, Coach 7 confirms a collective, community approach from the coaches operating at franchise level in an attempt to produce players ready for international competition. Importantly, Coach 7 also describes a perceived difference in views between the coaches and members of the board relating to what is more important, that of developing players to represent SA or the importance of winning games.
‘We have got that twice a year where we get together and discuss a lot of things...Even when I play against the (name of franchise) and afterwards I will sit with (name of coach) and we will discuss ‘this is what I did’ and at the end of the day it about educating guys to play for the national team. Although I will not repeat that in front of a board but that is what we need to do. If that process is enhanced by losing a couple of games, or winning them, I don’t mind.’ (Coach 7)

Coach 3 provides further background on how he communicates with coaches from feeder development levels so that he is able to establish who, and what type of player, he may have available to him at the advent of the following season. Coach 3 explains that the mechanisms are available, but communication may not occur freely because everyone is caught up in their own environment.

‘We are quite tight as a province. We know the coaches. We don’t interact because in the season it is quite difficult because everyone is on their own bus. We know exactly what the procedure is because everyone is in contact with everyone. So I don’t think it is an impossible task. If you are really interested you will...the under 19 matches, I have been involved with (name of coach) who is the under 19s coach, because that is the next bunch of guys that is coming in to my level. So I need to know who is available, who is doing what, who are the bowlers, who is the batters, all these kind of things. So we can keep that uniformity going and that progression going.’ (Coach 3)

Coach 11 reiterates Coach 7’s earlier comments, that discussion not only between coaches, but discussions with coaches from other disciplines was an important factor in coach development and learning. Importantly, Coach 11 goes on to make specific reference to the coach development system being insular and not mature enough to advocate this type of learning experience.

‘I would like to have seen a lot more of this...(name of rugby coach) was coaching at the (name of rugby team) at the time I was coaching the (name of franchise), and we used to have a cricket day and we used to muck about like that but I would like to have had the coaches of the professional soccer teams of the (name of region) and myself and (name of rugby coach), meet once every two weeks for a coffee like this or breakfast and just talk about the barriers, the challenges etc...and if there were similarities. I genuinely believe that is the best way to be learning, experiences of others aswell. Again it comes back to my role now, it is really all of my experiences. I have had low, low points in my career. I have had exceptionally high points. I have had pretty much everything and able to relate to that sort of thing, I would encourage more of that, I just don’t think our system
is...dare I say mature, or lends itself to something like that. We are all very insular just now.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 11 explains further why coaches may not communicate between levels of development and between opposition, outlining that much of this is around fear and the fear of losing out in some way.

‘They all operate within their own little cocoon so to speak. Schoolboy the emphasis is still on (name of school) beating (name of school), beating (name of school) type of thing. And the focus is so huge there that if there was a request from the (name of province) under 19 side, for maybe a player to be monitored better, you are not going to get that sort of thing. They are different sub cultures and I just think because we operate in a system of fear, a system of fear of losing out, because losing equals losing a job, losing a position, being demoted, that you are so scared of actually looking at the bigger picture. There is no bigger picture.’ (Coach 11)

6.3.2.4 The importance of experience and role diversity

Coach 10 describes the development of a coach as being progressive and stresses the importance of coaches developing an understanding and experiencing different requirements associated with operating at each level of player development.

‘You cannot just, as of day one, start off as a coach and you are now involved at this level. You have got to understand what you are working with and you have got to understand the system. Some folks might not have a clue or an idea of how to work with a ten, eleven or twelve year old youngster, but they are involved at the highest level for example. I think you need to have some sort of an idea of what it takes to work at the lowest levels and progress through the systems.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 2 makes specific reference to the importance of coaches being able to diversify their learning experiences by way of role rotation within an a development system.

‘What I really like these days, they are doing it a lot in Australia, I think in England as well, it comes back to this whole director of cricket thing. There is almost a rotation of roles. I met one of the video analysts who was here. He was based at that AIS and he said ‘at the end of this tour I am going to the Australian women’s team and I will do that for a couple of years and then I will be in...’ There is almost like a cyclical thing. ‘I will get a couple of years experience there and maybe I will come back in the role of a batting coach. I have done my video analysis stuff and
…there is some sort of progression there. At Sussex they rotated there. They had a time when the assistant coach, the second team coach and the academy coach did a swap over of positions.’ (Coach 2)

Related to earlier comments, Coach 5 describes the ideal development environment. An important part of this is for the coach to have the opportunity to see how both the top-level coaches operate and also to witness those coaches operating at the schoolboy level.

‘Access to information, professional information from senior coaches, that sort of thing. Alongside that I would put opportunities to watch them work and see how they implement things at those levels. I haven’t had enough experience at schoolboy level to be honest. And top end I haven’t really…I have seen intermediate so I wouldn’t know what it was like at the top level. I would hope it was better. You get so many coaches there with vast experience, they will be sad they are not sharing it.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 10 outlines important development aspects associated with shadowing experienced coaches operating in their own environments and this providing a point of reference for what is required in order to step up to a higher level.

‘We have had the opportunity now to send assistant coaches to the national leagues, something that wasn’t done in the past. And I feel once again, some of these coaches have been working at schoolboy level and now suddenly, they have the opportunity to go to a national league and see what the expectations are, see what the standard is because some of us might think we are producing good cricketers but once you get to a national…They might say ‘I thought our cricketers were good’ but when you get there you start having a look at the bigger picture and you start seeing exactly where you are in the system and I am talking at schoolboy level but that also applies to provincial, higher up and so on.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 10 reiterates the importance of developing coaches through exposing them to a higher level, but also adds the importance of engaging those coaches who have gathered experience and involve them to feel part of the system. Coach 10 warns that if engagement does not occur it will be a similar case with regards to experienced cricketers leaving the game when the new franchise system was implemented and these coaches will also inevitably leave, thus removing from the game the experience and teaching opportunity these coaches provide.
'We need to take coaches and identify coaches and get them involved at the next level, whether it be as assistants or whatever the case may be. So that they have a sense of what is expected and what it takes to be coaching at the next level. Because that is how I have progressed in the system and how I have developed as a coach. Like I say, you sit and work with coaches at the lower levels and you sense that sometimes the only way for them to learn more about the game is to get in the changing room and get involved and see what is being done. Or shadow a team for a certain period of time. As a cricketer I have sometimes seen cricketers learn more from their peers than they sometimes do from a coach. I might be wrong. We have gone through a generation where we have lost out on very experienced cricketers. When the franchise system came in, a lot of your experienced cricketers that did not get new contracts and things, they walked away from the game. Some have stayed on in some capacity but as a coach, you sometimes sense that players do learn a lot from these more experienced players. Especially sitting in the changing room after games, sitting and talking about the game and these type of things. We have lost a lot of experience in the system in a very short space of time.' (Coach 10)

6.3.2.5 The importance of building a shared identity

Coach 8 outlines how the governing body for cricket in the region does not seem to be using experienced former cricketers for their coaching needs.

'I think with coaching (name) I am getting more recognition, now I am coaching an amateur side but it is a big organisation for the university, I think the profile means, progress with my coaching. It is quite hard because I am an ex-professional cricketer, I was very loyal to them. They asked me to make a comeback when I had stopped playing provincial and I did, I gave up time. But it is a little bit sad sometimes that they are not falling back on their locals, guys who have been in the game, qualified level three coach, had overseas experience.' (Coach 8)

Coach 1 confirms Coach 8's comments by highlighting how narrow the coach development system is. Coach 1 does so by providing an example of his coaching environment outside the system and how progressive it would be if he was asked to be part of the in system development pathway.

'It is narrow. I mentioned it earlier, my little system that I am in right now, it would be nice and progressive, I think, if (name of province) cricket came to me and said ‘can you help us with under 13 level?’ That is where you are involved.' (Coach 1)

Coach 10 stresses that coaches are perceived to be of less importance when compared with administrators, thus leading to the feeling of being
undervalued. Importantly Coach 10 also warns of the importance of developing coaches, particularly those coaches who may not be in the system to feel that progression is possible.

‘I honestly feel there is too much emphasis on administrators and not enough on coaches. People sometimes do not feel that they are being valued and we lose a lot of coaches out of our system, a lot of good coaches. In our province in particular I feel that we do not have enough coaches, and if we are going to grow the game, which is our core business, we need to grow our coaches not just with regards to development but also with regards to the numbers. A lot of coaches, I have got a coach at the moment who is a brilliant coach and he has been working for the last five to six years at under 19 level and he has done very well for us, not only with regard to results and things like but with regards to the players he produces. We spoke the other day and we spoke about from here, surely there should be some sort of progression plan for coaches and to an extent there is no progression plan. You sit there and you will stay at that level for years and you might not get any further. And unless it is a passion like it is for him, you can easily want to get out.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 10 later reveals his feeling of being part of the system due to his involvement in some crucial development and decision-making areas. Importantly he confirms the perception of coaches who are not part of these in-system development elements and stresses the importance of trying to make them feel part of the system in some way.

‘Personally I feel part of the system. I have been privileged enough to spend two years at the academy with people like (name of coach) and (name of coach). I have been privileged enough, like I said, to be involved at franchise level. I have been a selector at under 19 and school boy level for the last seven years, so me personally, I do feel that I am part of the system, I do feel that we are working towards a common goal and are part of that. But I know of a lot of coaches that obviously feel, what more do I need to do? Is this where I am going to end up? Am I just part of this little system here and I don’t actually get any recognition?’ (Coach 10)

Coach 11 reveals what is perceived previously to be an inconsistent and incoherent approach to messages between the development elements and the national team. Evidence suggests that communication lines became open between development elements when negative results occurred. Interestingly,
Coach 11 suggests an improvement in communication between the franchises and the national team due to the involvement of significant individuals.

‘Yes and no. I felt part of it when it suited the guys higher up. When they were riding the crest of the wave…no you didn’t feel part of it. Not that you were desirous of feeling part of it but it is always strange…at the outset we had seminars and we used to have really good debates, we used to meet with the national coach, we used to meet with convenors and we’d thrash out things and we would talk about things, and that was great. The follow up was not always what it was supposed to be. Like a lot of things, a lot of times people are patronised into feeling that they are part of the system, when you are not really. So yes when we were doing great there would be very little communication. As soon as the national side hit a wobble, the fingers then got turned at the domestic coaches saying ‘they are not providing us with…’ etc. Similarly as the franchise do with the amateur players, I think that relationship could have been better. I think it is going to be better now. Not because there is a direct link between (name of coach) and the franchise coaches, but (name of coach) is the buffer now. (Name of coach) will be in constant communication with the coaches, also the national selectors are more visible at franchise games now.’ (Coach 11)

6.3.3 Barriers to coach progression

This third theme explains a number of barriers that coaches are perceived to face in SA. These are split across three lower-order themes; 1) Reduced opportunities to develop at elite level, 2) The impact of differing agendas on coach education pathway and 3) Risk and reward: The nature of elite coaching opportunities.

6.3.3.1 Reduced opportunities to develop at elite level

Coach 7 describes how opportunities have developed for coaches involved at franchise level, but frames a different prospect for coaches operating below franchise level and further down the development levels. An explanation for this is a perceived reduction in opportunities created by the change from a provincial to a franchise system.

‘Well, look I personally think that if you look at all you had a pathway previously, you had your provincial coaches of your school teams, and then your senior provincial team, probably had the elite coach in the province and then only the national coaches. Nowadays with the franchise system there is more money coming in, I think the franchises are lucky to have six coaches, plus assistants, plus
trainers and physios. So there have been a lot of opportunities opening up. But also with only six franchises at the top level there is a lot of guys underneath that probably don’t see a pathway. Get to a certain level and then that is it…The pathway just seems to be a certain level.’ (Coach 7)

Coach 10 confirms the perceived decline in coaching opportunities at the top level due to a reduction in the number of topflight teams. Again, the perceived knock-on effect of this change has led to a reduction in the number of opportunities at the highest level.

‘With less teams it has become a bit of a bottleneck situation. Obviously some coaches will be left behind. It has become an elite position for people who do get the recognition and who do get to go and coach there. There are obviously things like support staff involved, and those guys are good coaches in itself. I say six but that is head coach, the head coach might have some support staff, assistant coaches, trainer and the likes, these types of things. But in saying that again, before 2005/6 like you mentioned, we had what was 11 provinces and under those, let’s say for example this was the (name of province), under that there was still a B section competition, where there was still 11…you might have had 11 coaches up here with the assistants, and you might have had another 11 coaches down here at B section level. So there was a bit more opportunity for coaches. Whereas today I think it is maybe less opportunities but the standard has improved.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 11 confirms what was thought would have happened to coach progression since the advent of the franchise system. Head coaches operating at provincial level naturally progressed to fill positions at franchise level. Importantly, Coach 11 later mentions that this natural progression was deemed to create a coaching pathway, but this has not occurred due to the changes that Coaches 7 and 10 revealed earlier.

‘After the 11 sides and six coaches got taken up, what we found was that, like in the (name of province) for example, whoever the coach was at (name of province), he became the head coach of the (name of franchise), and whoever the coach was at (name of province), he became his assistant. That was almost par for the course. Initially that was what happened. As the years went on, there would be a pathway for coaches, unfortunately that hasn't been the case.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 5 reveals barriers personal to his operational environment and outlines the potential to relocate his family if he wishes to progress his coaching career.
'I think the barriers for me... personally to progress... is where I am based. I think you would find in (name of city) or the (name of region) there are only x amounts of roles that are available unless you are willing to move or relocate which is always a risk in terms of a family. I think politically there are various restraints on coaches. Whereby, as a cricket coach looking to make a future, you are not always guaranteed to get a post if you are the best person for the job. It is an issue. However at the same time there are opportunities and I still believe that if you perform well enough your opportunity will come.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 5 adds, that opportunities to make a career in coaching at the development level are few and far between, however he perceives limited opportunities do exist at franchise level.

‘Obviously I think as a profession I would like to say the opportunities are there to set it up as a profession but I still feel that it is mainly from senior players only. There are not many opportunities for guys to go into it professionally at junior ranks. I think that is the key development years for young cricketers and it is where they could be spending more money on employing blokes professionally at those levels and various structures. At senior level there is obviously scope and there is opportunity albeit perhaps very limited at franchise level.’ (Coach 5)

Coach 11 discloses another potential issue with some organisations employing coaches at the top level who have gained recognition from previous playing experiences, over someone who has worked and developed through the system. This point was raised by a number of coaches earlier in Theme 1 who felt it important for coaches to have some level of playing experience in order to, not only to coach cricket effectively, but also to build up a level of credibility.

‘Semi-professional coaches almost hit a ceiling, one because they are not profiled enough. When I say profile, they have not played international cricket, they haven’t got the big name. So when a vacancy arises, unions are very loathed to employ someone who has been in the system, who is serving his apprenticeship as a coach, was probably ready to step up, for fear of if they had another horrible season, their constituency is probably giving them grief because they have appointed a ‘no name’. They would far rather get it wrong with a profile person. It is easier to stomach. ‘It is (name of coach) so they can’t give us too much crap’. Unfortunately it is the opportunities that get created for the amateur coachesthat are often just in assistant roles. So you are a semi pro coach, you very seldom go from a semi pro coach, an amateur coach, to a franchise coach.’ (Coach 11)
6.3.3.2 The impact of differing agendas on coach education pathway

Coach 9 discloses issues relating to coach education thresholds at the various provinces having an effect on both coach progression and up-skilling opportunities for coaches.

‘Definitely in SA there is a problem. You sit Level 1s and 2s, anyone can do it, (but) the moment you get to Level 3 there is only 20 odd people selected via recommendations from the unions. So, you could have 14 or 15 unions times two which is 30 people and normally they do about 20, 22. So there is only about 20 or 22 that can do a Level 3. So even if I nominate four I might on average get two but it could be one. Some years if those guys that you nominate don't seem to fit the bill, you don't get anyone going. There is your first block. The pot gets very, very small. Then for Level 4 Cricket SA just decides who they are going to invite.’ (Coach 9)

Coach 1 reveals his current predicament of not being able to complete a Level 4 coach qualification that allows him the opportunity to apply for a position as a franchise coach. The reason for this is that Level 4 is by invitation only and for that to occur the perception is for the coach to be part of the system.

‘I started as I said in '97 as a Level 2 and then I did Level 3 shortly thereafter. So in terms of my development, I am talking 13, 14, 15 years later. That was the last formal course that I did. I have tried on numerous occasions to do Level 4 but they haven't put me on the course. It is an invitation thing. It is only coaches that are coaching at a franchise level that can get on those courses. But if you are not at that level, how can you get on. I coached (name of country), I coached internationally and I couldn't get on the course. This is the one criticism I have got. Because I am not part of the CSA system. You have got to be a franchise coach, or involved in a franchise.’ (Coach 1)

Coach 9 confirms a similar position to that of Coach 1, being unable to progress due to not having or being able to complete the Level 4 coach qualification.

‘Obviously with the Cricket SA link I took on Level 2 and 3 and unfortunately at this stage they haven't done another Level 4, so I haven't been able to do my Level 4 which is problematic as well, because when most of these franchises advertise their jobs, they want Level 4, and I can't get a Level 4 because there is no Level 4 at this stage. You are basically stuck.’ (Coach 9)
Coach 6 highlights the lack of general recognition that coaching may hold as a vocation in the public eye due to not receiving the level of credence from the people who administer the game.

'I think it is recognised well at franchise level. This morning I went to have my hair cut and the girl says ‘what do you do a for a living?’ ‘I am a cricket coach’; ‘oh what do you do?’ ‘I coach cricket’, ‘I know, but where do you coach?’ and I think the average person on the street doesn’t understand exactly what is going on. Again that comes to awareness, at the top, the higher end, there is such a small number that actually do it that they probably don’t recognise the fact that coaches do it for a living. But having said that, personally I think administrators have a lot to answer for. They don’t recognise and appreciate the work that coaches do, in my opinion. And that has been the same all over the world.’ (Coach 6)

Coach 10 reiterates Coach 6’s comments by explaining that there comes a time when a coach acknowledges that they may not progress to the level they wish, leading to a level of contentment with the environment they are operating in. Interestingly Coach 10 also comments that administrators of the game get more recognition than the coaches do and that it is perceived as easier to get employed as an administrator than a coach.

‘We have got six franchises and if you are realistic, there are six positions that people are fighting for. You have got to have the ambition to want to be one of those six but you have also got to be realistic and think that it might never happen and then you might be in a position where I am where you say ‘listen, I have had a bit of a dose of it, I am happy with what I am doing at the moment, I am happy developing younger players to come through the system…I think administrators at this stage of the game gets more recognition and gets more of a profession. Some people feel that you will do better becoming an administrator than becoming a coach.’ (Coach 10)

6.3.3.3 Risk and reward: The nature of elite coaching opportunities

Coach 11 reveals what is perceived to be a trend within the coaching system, and that senior and experienced coaches do not seem to be taking the step up or show willing to coach at elite domestic level.

‘A few years ago lots of guys were aspiring to become coaches. It pays well, there is a growth path. I think that is changing. The landscape has changed where ‘I am not too sure if I want to go down that line’. If you look at the six franchises now, the amount of young guys, when I talk about young I am talking about inexperience, of taking on roles, get the honour of being a franchise coach. (Name of coach) his
first year, (name of coach) his first year...(name of coach), his second year in SA. So where are the guys that have been in the system over the years? Why has (name of coach) been a bowling coach all his life, not getting himself a head coach? Cause he is saying 'I am safer being a bowling coach'. Why is (name of coach), who has been with the national side, goes into HP...if you have been with the national side surely you can become a head coach with a franchise. Why is (name of coach) only coaching in the (name of competition)? Why have we lost all these experienced boys to the system?’ (Coach 11)

Coach 11 goes on to outline why he feels this is the case and that coaches are no longer in a position to decide their own fate and therefore it is perceived that the move to elite level is too precarious.

‘Fear of ‘what am I going to do in two years time if things don’t work out?. Am I going to have to stand in front of my CEO’s door...fear is the big thing. And this is something that at Cricket SA level, we are going to have to discuss. But it is no longer a job that people are rushing in to. They don’t feel appreciated and the power...I am using ‘power’ for want of a better word but the power doesn’t lie with them to decide.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 4 confirms Coach 11’s assertions and explains that coaches may not be willing to make the step-up because if they fail and are removed from post they have no safety net and may find themselves out of the system all together.

‘Isolated. Very insecure...You are almost too scared to make the step up. I have seen what has happened to some of the franchise coaches here over the last couple of years in the SA set up. You reach the top tier and if your union or your franchise is not happy with you, and they sack you, where do you fall. There is no safety net. It is not like you are a franchise coach and all of a sudden you fall into the academy system. Or you will be drafted into the amateur sector. I am thinking (name), he is not my favourite but he fell nowhere. At least the guy did some good work with the under 19s and the junior levels. Everyone said...maybe the top level wasn’t for him but at least the guy has got something to offer. Now he is nowhere. I feel sometimes there is nothing to protect you and it makes you scared to make an extra step up. You need to back yourself. But there is no security there.’

(Coach 4)

6.4 Discussion

Considering the importance of the coach as a key component of any talent development environment, due to the ability to enable the development of sports performance (Bloom, 1985; Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Phillips, et al., 2010), the
pragmatic objective of this chapter is therefore to explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression.

6.4.1 Experience and the development of knowledge

Certain aspects were raised concerning the background of the participant coaches. Before turning to coaching, all but two of the coaches had gathered previous playing experience to a professional first class and international level of cricket. These coaches perceived that this experience assisted them, not only in conveying the technical aspects of the game successfully, but also in assisting them to help players develop strategies to overcome difficult situations. In addition to this, it emerged that, those coaches who had gathered previous experience as PE teachers spoke of it being a natural transition into coaching and that these experiences played a significant part in their respective philosophies and the way they viewed their personal role frames.

Experiential learning is acknowledged as a principal source of knowledge in the formation of expertise (Jones, Armour & Potrac, 2002; Lyle, 2002; Lynch & Mallet, 2006). It is from these experiences that coaches are able to build up mental models (Côté et al., 1995) or informed impressions (Sage, 1989) to develop their coaching related abilities (Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2003; Lynch & Mallet, 2006).

Previous studies have confirmed that for many coaches, an athletic career plays a leading role in their progression as a coach (Schinke et al., 1995; Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007; Nash & Sproule, 2011). For example, Irwin et al. (2004) found that 45% of the expert coaches identified previous athletic experience as an important factor in developing coaching knowledge. Interestingly, none of these studies made explicit mention of what sort of developmental experiences the identified expert coaches had outside their coach education, mentoring and previous playing experiences. For example, Lynch & Mallet, (2006, p.18) only make reference to ‘tertiary educated in a related field’, but go no further, highlighting that factors such as previous job experience may play a leading role too (e.g. school teacher). In relation to this, a finding of significant interest was that nearly half of the participant coaches were former PE teachers or teachers before focusing solely on cricket coaching as a profession. This information was not known prior to the interviews being conducted, but a number of coaches made specific mention of this factor as being important to their
development as a coach, allowing for a more natural transition from teaching into coaching.

Early developmental perspective studies (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007) highlighted that a proportion of the coaches interviewed not only had experience of playing the sport in which they were now coaching, but had experience of playing a number of sports during their development. The rationale behind this is that over time, through trial and error, the coach builds up tacit knowledge within the conception. It is this tacit knowledge that can achieve decision-making without conscious meaning and that this tacit knowledge increases as the coach gathers more experience over time (Sternberg, 2003 as cited in Nash & Collins, 2006).

In addition to the experiential learning that had clearly taken place for these coaches, through for example playing and teaching, coach education was deemed to be both important and necessary, with many of the coaches stating that they enjoyed this aspect of their development. While much of the coach research on formal coach education suggests negative coach experiences, some research reveals a more positive response. For example, Cassidy et al. (2006), McCullick, Belcher, & Schempp (2005) and Hammond and Perry (2005) all evidenced varying degrees of positive perceptions on both content and methods of coach education delivery. Positive findings from McCullick et al. (2005) and Cassidy et al. (2006) related specifically to aspects such as; 1) The practical application of knowledge under guidance with the provision of constructive feedback, 2) Appropriate content at the appropriate level, 3) The exploration of individual learning style and preferences and 4) Discussing and sharing experiences and the opportunity to explore issues relating to coaching practice and coaching pedagogy. Furthermore, Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Petlichkoff (1987) found a positive, but not causal, relationship between coach education programmes and psychological skills training. Salmela (1994) found that coaches who were poorer performers in their playing career, actually developed better analytical skills by way of compensating for reduced levels of natural ability and also were more driven for formal learning. Finally, Irwin et al. (2004) found that formal coach education had facilitated ongoing learning in elite gymnastic coaches.

Nash and Sproule (2009) investigated the educational and training opportunities of nine expert coaches across three sports and found that many did not place value of their formal coach education experiences. They did however
place significant value on the informal learning opportunities that networking and interaction with other coaches offered. Interestingly, findings from this study emerged, highlighting that some of the coaches did make specific reference to the higher coach qualification levels, such as Level 4, stressing that meeting and talking with other more experienced coaches as important to their development. Some also confirmed that the process was longer and harder, but challenging and they enjoyed the course for this reason. It may be argued that the higher levels of coach qualifications (such as Level 4) take place over extended periods of time, allowing more discussion and social interaction between coaches to occur. Consequently, coaches on these courses have a better opportunity to form a natural community of practice whereby discussions may take place away from the performance and competitive environment and in a neutral setting.

In relation to this study all the coaches spoke of being influenced in some way by a significant person, who seemed to take on a ‘mentoring role’. However, interestingly many of the coaches did not consider them a formal mentor. In order to apply context, this question was posed when questioning the coaches about their experiences of coach education. Their reply of not having a formal mentor related specifically to the context of coach education. This means that the guidance they sought and received more supports the definition of Levinson (1978, as cited in Jones, Harris, & Miles, 2009, p.268) who described a mentor as a mixture of parent and peer who assumes a transitional role in the mentees development. These coaches’ mentoring experience does not support Colley’s (2003 as cited in Jones et al., 2009) stance that the mentor relationship is a relationship involving power as a commodity, possessed and transferred between mentor and mentee. It seemed that these mentoring experiences were at times not related to profession or hierarchical in nature, but rather someone that was a supporter or a guide. It was also important to note that these coaches seemed to be intrinsically motivated to align themselves with people who could add value to their practice. Importantly though, the significant individuals mentioned may not have known they were fulfilling the function of mentor and therefore the relationship came across as being both reciprocal and naturally occurring, rather than two individuals being forced together as mentor and mentee under a specific programme or course. Finally, a number of development profile perspective studies have focused on the significance of mentors in development of coaching expertise (Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Gilbert et al., 2009; Nash & Sproule, 2009) however there is
very little information regarding the type and quality of the relationship or how it best initiates and develops.

This study confirms that coaches learn through a combination of experiential learning, formal learning, and learning through mechanisms such as mentoring. As such, it appears that formal coach education does have a role to play, which is clearly required and is a means to assess the efficacy of this needs to be in place (Jones, 2000; Nelson et al., 2006; Mallet et al., 2009; Cushion et al., 2010; Hussain et al., 2012). It was outside the scope of this study to more specifically scrutinise the content of CSA coach education to find out specifically the reasons why the coaches thought highly of their formal education experiences, however the findings in this study may have significance to coach education development in SA cricket.

6.4.2 Disparities across operational levels

Due to the interconnected nature of the chapters throughout this thesis there is, understandably, evidence of overlap between the results from earlier Themes and Chapters. For example in Chapter 4 (Study 1), a finding of importance was the lack of control some coaches experienced in relation to both resource allocation and decision-making. The lack of control each coach experienced manifested itself differently within the coach’s operational environment and was dependent on a number of factors, such as 1) The experience of the coach and 2) The operational level of the coach and the nature of the board of directors allowing the coach further control. The operational level of the coach again raises important cross-theme questions within this current study. For instance, a point raised within Theme 1, was that the playing background of the coach was deemed important, as it helped the coach develop credibility with the players, making them more likely to follow guidance. This point, relating to past coach experience and credibility also emerged as important in Theme 3. At franchise level, it was perceived important for the coach to have experience in order to be recruited or considered for position at that level. It also emerged that the level of experience a coach had gathered as a former player allowed the coach to have increased control and power over their operational environment. For the coaches operating at the levels below franchise, the perception of power was less evident, with members of the board offering less control to the coach.

Lynch and Mallet (2006) explain that performance coaching is different from that of participation coaching and therefore the skills and knowledge needed to
operate at each level will be different (Lyle, 2002). Broadly speaking, the operational level of the coaches may be more complex than those outlined by Lyle (2002) and Lynch and Mallet (2006). The skills required may not be a clear-cut distinction between elite and participation, especially for the coaches operating between the school and professional environments. For example, the coaches operating at the level just below the professional franchise (club and provincial) may be receiving developing athletes who have just left the schooling environment and have franchise level aspirations, professionally contracted players who are in the franchise squad but not currently picked in the franchise team and players who have full-time careers outside of the cricketing environment who are not of the ability to progress and play in the franchise competition. To add, these coaches have evidenced the least control over their playing environment and receive fewer resources. Lyle (2002) refers to the developmental coaching as a key stage for talent identification to occur and therefore crucial in the overall development system. By definition then, coaches operating at this stage should get significant support, both educationally and by way of resources, to identify and develop players effectively. It may be argued that the development environment below franchise may be more complex, and ill structured for the coach to lead and manage, than first perceived. In the past, the attention of researchers may have been diverted away from this area to that of expert or elite level coaches (Côté et al., 1995; Saury & Durand, 1998; Abraham et al., 2006; Nash & Collins, 2006) in an attempt to understand and find ways of smoothing the complexities (Jones & Wallace, 2005) associated with the coaching process (Lyle, 2002).

It also emerged that the operational level of the coach was an important factor across a number of environmental characteristics, such as information sharing. In Theme 2, it emerged that the coaches operating at the franchise level were comfortable communicating with each other. This communication and information sharing was based on trust and a common philosophy, if this trust and common philosophy had been built up from previous playing experiences. It also emerged that information and knowledge transfer did not occur if the personal role frames and philosophies of the coaches were challenged. For example, it was perceived that not all coaches, active within the system, considered long-term development to be as important as results. This disparity between coaches was one factor that did not allow knowledge sharing to take place, however this was interpreted as being more prevalent further down the development pathway.
Challenges to philosophies such as differences in short and long term goals were apparent between both coaches and administrators. It was perceived important for any communication and knowledge sharing between coaches at this level to be without the knowledge of the administrators, as this would be viewed as divulging important information concerning the team to direct opposition. Thus any knowledge transfer between rival coaches would not be out in the open, but rather offered more discreetly.

Considering the importance of developmental coaching as a key stage for talent identification to occur (Lyle, 2002), it may be beneficial for SA cricket to review the education and support these coaches receive in order to identify and develop players more effectively.

6.4.3 Barriers of the coach development pathway

The findings from Chapter 3 revealed that the structural changes that took place in 2004 led in some way to the development trajectory of SA cricketer also changing. This change now means that the developmental experience of young aspiring athletes depends significantly on whether the cricketer developed in the system (controlled provincial pathways) or outwith the system (in an amateur pathway). In relation to the 2004 structural change, a number of associated issues emerged affecting the development environment and career progression of coaches, revealing disparity between coaches’ perceived power and control at an operational level. Other differences relating to coach education and opportunities to progress also emerged. For instance, it was originally perceived that the 2004 structural changes would create opportunities for coaches further down the coach development pathway. The rationale behind this was, as coaches stepped up to take positions at franchise level this would free up positions at provincial level. In effect, the change would increase opportunities and cause an upward movement of coaches. In reality, much of this progression was narrow and defined and related to a number of factors, such as the experience of the coach and whether or not the coach was holding the correct level of coach qualification, i.e. a Level 4 qualification. Evidence also emerged that opportunities were created, but these were mainly at the franchise level. These findings are not overly surprising as it is natural to assume that, with an increase in the level of performance requirements, the more experienced and more qualified individuals would have a greater chance in achieving results and success. Importantly however, the obstacles to progression were not straightforward market-related impediments.
It was perceived that in order to be selected by the prospective franchise or provincial board to attend the Level 4 qualification, the coach required not only to have a certain level of experience, but for this experience to be gained within the provincial development player pathway. In addition, it emerged that, not only were there fewer opportunities for coaches at the level below franchise, but opportunities were limited geographically, meaning coaches who wished to attempt to progress with their career would need to move to the larger urban centres. In terms of operational inefficiencies, this meant that some coaches who held a Level 3 qualification, had international experience, and were operating outside the provincial player pathway, perceived it difficult to progress their careers because of these factors. These factors, together with reduced opportunities to transition and progress into the mainstream coach development pathway, denoted that a similar issue that had arisen for the players had arisen for the coaches. This implied that some experienced coaches who were operating outside the provincial development pathway system were dislocated from those who were operating inside the development system.

To date, there is little to no empirical research focusing more specifically on the barriers and support of those coaches who wish to make the transition from the volunteer dominated environment of amateur sport to the sports organisation’s mainstream development pathways. However, in a recent case study, Rynne (2014) investigated the development experiences of two Australian sports coaches with significantly different backgrounds. The aim of the study was to compare the development and trajectory experiences of a former elite athlete, as he was fast tracked through the coach accreditation process, with that of a traditional pathway coach. While the more experienced traditional pathway coach held significantly more experience as a coach, he only had athletic experience as a recreational and development level performer. On the other hand, the elite performer held significantly less coaching experience, but had a long and illustrious career as an elite athlete. Even though there is very little evidence that an elite sporting background will provide the necessary development to become an elite coach (Cooke, 2007) the traditional pathway coach perceived it highly unlikely they would secure state level employment as a senior coach, due to their lack of elite playing experience, while the former elite athlete felt they could walk into a senior coaching position whenever they wished (Rynne, 2014).
French and Raven (1959) consider six types of social power: Legitimate, Expert, Reward, Coercive, Nutrient and Referent. Of interest with regards to this study are legitimate, referent and expert power. Legitimate power is related to the role an individual holds within any organisation, while referent power is concerned with issues of credibility and prestige and may be held by former elite athletes (Potrac, Jones & Armour, 2002). Expert power on the other hand is the application of knowledge built up from experiences and education (Slack, 1997). Within the context of this study’s findings, together with Rynne (2014), there is significant importance placed on the referent power of the coach and the credibility and expert power the experience of being a former elite level athlete provides. Interestingly, even this hierarchical assumption that is based on those former athletes who hold both referent and expert power will naturally progress to elite level coaching positions, may not be that straightforward.

Together with the multi-faceted complexities associated with the development trajectory of those coaches operating outside the system (provincial/franchise), an additional finding emerged that further complicates and ill-defines the development trajectory of coaches. It emerged that the SA system has very experienced coaches operating at different levels inside the development system, however a number of them are perceived not to want to apply for the top franchise coaching positions. These experienced coaches viewed this transition to elite level head coach as too risky, due to, not only the significant performance expectation, but also the lack of job security and support coaches received at this level. It was generally felt that if a franchise coach lost their position due to poor performance or other issues, then investigating alternative coaching positions was not a situation many wished to find themselves in. Thus, the linear trajectory of coach progression is further challenged, due to coaches who hold both referent and expert power choosing not to assume senior coaching positions due to a perceived lack of control and power they may have over the coaching environment. Going forward, it may be constructive for SA cricket to engage with and utilise more effectively those experienced coaches operating at a development level out with the provincial pathway in order to broaden the efficiency and coherency across development structures.

As mentioned earlier, previous coach development perspective research (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007; Nash & Sproule, 2009) has, to date, only described the different education involvements that
coaches have had throughout their development, rather than offer further detail on the effect these coach education experiences have had on their development and at what stages these occurred. As coach education becomes even more globally prevalent and further emphasis is placed on coaching becoming a credible profession (Duffy, Hartley, & Bales, Crespo, & Vardhan, 2010; ICCE, 2000), these findings suggest further stage-specific and detailed empirical research is required into how coach education provision facilitates or negates the progression of coaches along the development pathway. In addition, only obtaining a linear, one-dimensional view of coach career development is not sufficient enough to provide a detailed picture of coach development in a complex environment. Further research is required to offer understanding of the barriers coaches may face as they negotiate and transition across the stages of coach development. It is also important that this research does not only focus at the elite coaching level, but at the developmental level, where there may be very experienced coaches operating in an environment that is least supported and at times most complex.

6.5 Limitations and future considerations

There are a number of limitations with regards to this particular study. The first is that it only provides the perspective of a single group of individuals, that of coaches. In addition, these perspectives were gathered by way of interviews that may distort responses due to a number of emotional states the interviewer does not realise the interviewee might be subjected to. Responses may be influenced by personal bias, anxiety or the politics of a situation (Patton, 1990). An example of this may have occurred when coaches were questioned on the topic of barriers to progression. The responses given could be influenced by a particular situation the coach has just experienced to which to context of the situation is not known to the interviewer and therefore may not be evidenced in the reply.

A further limitation of this particular study is that it offers a broad perspective of the previous learning and development trajectory of coaches within SA, but only touches on a number of aspects but does not delve deeper. For example, the learning and coach education experiences of participant coaches was investigated, however specific detail on how they developed or utilised different pedagogical concepts, such as reflective practice was not explored in more detail. Inclusive of this, it is recognised that SA cricket does have an extensive coach education programme in comparison to other SA sports (Scoping Report SASCOC, 2010),
therefore this area of the study may have been enhanced by offering further detail on the relevance and effectiveness of the current coach education structure to coach career development.

Due to small sample sizes, Guba (1978) and Patton (1990) state that a common limitation associated with qualitative research and purposeful sampling relates to the limited generalisability of its findings. Importantly however, due to the nature and the unique and diverse experiences, this study may offer user generalisability, due to the unique and in-depth experiences offered by participants (Peshkin, 1993). For example, in choosing a pragmatic approach, a consideration that may be acknowledged is the usefulness or practical application of the findings (Patton, 1990). It may be argued that, due to the unique and experienced nature of the sample, the findings could offer SA cricket a practical review and analysis of the SA cricket coach development environment. In addition, findings may also be able contribute theoretically and conceptually to research and theory generation in coach learning and development (Ongwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007 as cited in Arnold et al., 2012). For example, findings from this study, such as levels of previous athletic career and learning opportunities, are similar to the earlier research of Schinke et al. (1995); Gilbert et al. (2006); Lynch & Mallet (2006); Erickson et al. (2007) and Nash and Sproule (2009) who covered different sports across different environments.

6.6 Rationale and process for chapter 7

Potrac and Jones (2009) explain that the coach needs to negotiate a multitude of relationships with administrators, other coaches, sponsors and stakeholders in order to implement the programs necessary to support their vision. Earlier in Chapter 4, a number of findings emerged relating to a questionable board-related electoral system and a hierarchical decision-making structure exacerbating certain areas of tension between the coaches and administrators. A consequence of these factors was the affect they had on the distribution of power and relationships across structures, i.e. between the Board and the coach. For example, those coaches operating at both a franchise and provincial level explained that they were not always given the power to decide on certain team related issues, such as player selection. In addition, both coaches and administrators perceived certain members of the board to not grasp fully the role of coach, due to a lack of understanding of the role and the nature of player
development. This lack of understanding, combined with the power provided to the board, affected the provision of resources to vital areas needed to grow the game, such as coach support.

In light of this, the aim of Chapter 7 is to firstly offer a broad overview of the sporting literature specifically investigating the relationships between sports coaches and sports leaders. Secondly, in keeping with a pragmatic philosophy, the objective is to explore the operational relationship between the coach and the administration in the hope of providing SA cricket with practical-level truths concerning this relationship and its impact on athletic development.
CHAPTER 7

ILLUMINATING THE COACH-ADMINISTRATOR RELATIONSHIP:
THE PERCEPTIONS OF SA CRICKET COACHES

7. Objective of chapter

The aim of Chapter 7, study 4, is to explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket. The rationale for this study links to earlier findings raised in chapter 4, study 1 concerning the hierarchical organisational structures and questionable electoral system affecting the distribution of power and control between the coach and the administrator. It was also perceived that, due to the questionable electoral system, individuals who did not understand the game were able to influence decision-making at board level, with these factors impacting on the operational environment of the coach. In keeping with a pragmatic philosophy and considering the importance of administrators to the effective functioning of a development environment, it would be both functional and useful to provide SA cricket with practical-level truths concerning this relationship.

7.1 Introduction

Early research has portrayed coaching as a series of concurrent processes or sequences that could be represented in flow charts or models. For example, Jones and Wallace (2005) explain that Lyle's (2002) concept of separating coaching practice into performance and participatory ignores the shared aims and intricacies between both. In response to these systematic approaches to describing coaching practice, a number of researchers (Saury & Durand, 1998; Cushion et al., 2003; Jones & Wallace, 2005) explain it is impractical to assert that coaching practice could be linearised. The general claim is that these approaches remove the authenticity from the role and do not present or recognise the intricate and negotiated nature of effective coaching practice, particularly when power relations are evident (Potrac & Jones, 2009). To date, a number of studies have investigated relationships within sporting environments, however a dominant perspective across this research seems only to acknowledge the complexities of the athlete-coach relationship, as an important factor to understand in developing sporting expertise. Earlier in Chapter 4 of this thesis, findings emerged highlighting certain areas of tension between the coaches and administrators, specifically
relating to the administrators having an effect on the operational environment of the coach.

In light of this, the aim for this study is to explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket.

7.1.1 Increasing complexities

Corporate governance in the formal business sector is primarily concerned with the economic success and survival of organisations, making it important for each of these organisations to comply with the principles of good governance (Burger & Goslin, 2005). The rapid globalisation and commercialisation of sport has shifted sports participation and sports management from an amateur to a professional environment. The associated and increasing competitiveness has created a host of conflicting interests, stressing the importance for sports organisations to exhibit similar principles of good governance (Burger & Goslin, 2005). Ferkins, Shilbury, & McDonald (2005) explain that these significant shifts have altered the way sports organisations now need to be governed, leading to more complex and multi-layered decision-making and presenting major issues for those responsible for their effective administration. For example, sports organisations may be structured in different ways, with sport now occuring in public, private-for-profit and private non-profit environments, with national governing bodies of sport having to potentially oversee a mix of each (Ferkins et al., 2005). The increasing complexities associated with the way sports organisations are structured and governed may lead to increasing complexities and tensions between those who are remitted to administer the sport and those that are charged with athletic development. In addition, competitive demands have increased on the modern sports organisation, with pressures intensifying to produce a team or individuals who can provide positive results (Cruickshank & Collins, 2012a). For example, in Chapter 4 it emerged that a significant proportion of the funding received by CSA is dependent on the results of the national team. This factor increases the possibility of tensions in relationships between those who are remitted to lead athletic development on the field and those who are remitted to lead off the field.
7.1.2 Power, stressors and relationships

A number of early coaching-related studies identified power as a significant feature in understanding the social dynamic in sports coaching (Lyle, 1999; Jones, 2000; Jones et al., 2004). The dynamic power relation that exists between the coach and the athlete dominates the focus of developing this understanding (Jones et al., 2004; Potrac et al., 2002). A number of papers such as Jones, Armour and Potrac (2004); Jones and Wallace (2005); and Potrac & Jones (2009) both introduce and offer important insight into the significant theoretical concepts researchers need to take cognisance of when investigating the diverse and dynamic coaching relationships. However, to date, there are very few empirical studies offering insight into how dynamic power relationships actualise in practice. Examples of previous empirical research focusing on the coach and athlete context have included d’Arripe-Longueville, Fournier, & Dubois (1998) who explored gender and effective interactions between three expert coaches and six elite female judokas. Cushion and Jones (2006) conducted a ten-month ethnographic analysis on a youth football club by utilising Bourdieu’s (1991) theory to investigate the social interactions and collective nature of coaching between the coach, the athletes and the environment. Latterly, Purdy, Jones, & Cassidy (2009) focused on the distribution of power in men’s rowing. A significant emphasis of this study was through utilising the concept of capital, and how holding capital relates to the way power is produced, negotiated and expressed. Finally, Purdy, Potrac, & Jones (2008) offers an autoethnographic account of the relationship between an athlete and their coach by utilising Nyberg (1981) and Gidden’s (1984) concept of power and resistance. Even though these studies only offer an account of the challenges and dynamic relationships occurring between the coach and the athlete, they remain critical in identifying important concepts that may be applied in different contexts, such as the possible distribution of power and capital between administrators and coaches.

In contrast, sports organisational research, over the past decade, has outlined certain sports policy related factors, such as an integrated approach to policy development, facilities, financial support, appropriate talent identification and development systems and coach provision, that are required in order for elite sports performance to occur (Green & Houlihan, 2005; De Bosscher et al., 2006; Houlihan & Green, 2008; De Bosscher, et al., 2008; De Bosscher & van Bottenburg, 2011). Crucially, Fletcher and Wagstaff (2009) explain that even
though these factors are important, they do not guarantee success, but rather the success of elite sports programmes may be down to the way they are effectively managed or led (Arnold et al., 2012). Fletcher and Wagstaff (2009, p.443) highlighted six lines of enquiry stressing the importance of understanding organisational influences on athletic performance, confirming ‘the way individuals are led and managed will become an increasingly significant factor in determining National Sporting Organisations (NSO) success in Olympic competitions’. In the most part, Arnold et al., (2012) highlight the lack of performance management and leadership research at the managerial level (Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009; Satiriadou & Shilbury, 2009).

A focus of the organisational psychology research investigating managerial-level leadership has emphasised aspects such as the traits of leaders or the situations in which leadership contexts occur (Fletcher and Arnold, 2011). In contrast, a significant focus of leadership in sport research has concentrated on the coach as leader and how the relationship between the coach and their athletes can be positively developed in an attempt to increase performance outcomes. For example, researchers have investigated the effects of positive coach leadership behaviours across athlete satisfaction (Riemer & Challandurai, 1998), athlete motivation (Hollembeak & Amorose, 2005) and the supportive behaviours associated with transformational leadership and task cohesion (Cronin, Arthur, Hardy, & Callow, 2015).

Nevertheless, there remains a significant lack of empirical studies investigating the relationship between coach practitioners and managerial-level sports leaders. It is therefore necessary to focus on the few studies that provide some insight as to why this topic requires further attention and development. In exploring the multifaceted nature of organising elite performance there are two related studies that provide some understanding of best practice in leading and managing a team whilst preparing for Olympic competitions, that of Fletcher & Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012). In utilising what appear to be the same participants and the same methodological procedure, these two studies outline numerous influences, from different perspectives, deemed essential to lead and manage elite sports environments effectively. In the first study, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) outlined four general dimensions that 13 HP managers perceived important factors to success. These four factors included; Vision, Operations, People and Culture. In the second study, Arnold et al. (2012) provide five higher-
order themes as recommendations for leaders and managers of HP environments and five higher-order themes for organisations to utilise in order to enhance leadership and management in HP sport. The five higher-order recommendations for leaders comprised; 1) The importance of establishing an approach, 2) Understanding roles within a team, 3) Developing contextual awareness, 4) Enhancing personal skills and 5) Strengthening relationships. The five higher-order recommendations to organisations included; 1) Employing the most appropriate individuals, 2) Creating an optimal environment, 3) Implementing systems and structures, 4) Developing an inclusive culture and 5) Providing appropriate support. Across both of these studies there are certain factors that are interrelated. For example, People emerged as a crucial factor in managing and leading in a performance environment (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011), however building relationships, providing support and developing an inclusive culture were considered to be important recommendations for both leaders and organisations (Arnold et al., 2012).

In addition, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) describe Vision as the team’s ultimate aspiration, with a number of factors influencing this vision, such as current political agenda, recent team performances, feedback from staff, expectations of team stakeholders and teams’ current focus. In terms of advice and recommendations to organisations there is a strong overlap between factors, specifically concerning the current political agendas having an effect on the implementation of a leaders vision. In relation to this, Arnold et al. (2012) recommend the reduction in interference from senior managers preceding major competitions, for sports leaders and managers to be given the freedom to operate, time allowed for success to be achieved and for there to be an alignment between the CEO/Chairman and the sports leader.

The example Fletcher and Arnold (2011) provide in outlining the influence of the current political agenda is indicative of the context and narrow focus of their investigation. As this research was conducted in the United Kingdom and on Olympic level sports, many of the sports would be regarded as publically funded and therefore the stakeholders the NPD’s are answerable to are different when compared to the private, not-for-profit environment of SA cricket. In addition, the participants within the Fletcher & Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012) studies are leaders and managers of Olympic sporting environments who will manage, lead and oversee coaches across a number of sports. It may be argued that the
coaches operating in this environment would have the assistance of the NPD in fulfilling and negotiating their role and may therefore not deal directly with managerial-level leaders. This aspect is a significant difference with regards to this current study, because not all mainstream sports, such as cricket, will have a Performance Director operating between the coach and senior management, however if this is the case, then this may only be at a national elite level, but not within the amateur, semi-professional or domestic elite environments. Even though these studies are very helpful in highlighting the importance of relationship formation and support in elite performance environments, they are limited when attempting to understand the relational complexities between the coach and administrators operating in the school, club and semi-professional and professional environments.

When broadly considering the literature concerning the relationship between the coach and the administrators, a number of factors become evident; 1) To date there does not appear to be any empirical studies investigating this relationship within a SA sporting environment, 2) There do not appear to be any studies considering this relationship within cricket, 3) Within the organisational literature there appears to be a focus on the factors associated with effectively leading and managing a HP environment (Gould et al., 2002; Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Arnold et al., 2012). Importantly, these factors are addressed as part of a number of other factors, rather than providing a more detailed analysis of the relationship between the coach and the administrators and 4) The sports literature has focused more on the athlete-coach relationship across a number of topic areas, such as decision-making and leadership with a view to increasing performance, however has offered little in highlighting the dynamic and complex relationship between coach and administrators (Cruickshank & Collins, 2015a).

7.2 Methodology

7.2.1 Research design

Previous studies focusing on the athlete-coach relationship have utilised a number of approaches to explore this particular interpersonal relationship, such as single case studies and both qualitative and quantitative (questionnaire-based) approaches (Jowett, 2003; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004; Pczwardowski, Barott, & Jowett, 2006; Davis & Jowett, 2014). As the aim of this
study is to explore the experiential knowledge of individual cricket coaches, with a particular focus on the relationship between the coach and the administration, it is necessary to choose the methodology that will capture the perspective of the person who has experienced it (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). In light of this, a qualitative methodology was deemed the most appropriate form of data collection procedure (Côté et al., 1993; Nash & Sproule, 2009).

### 7.2.2 Participants

The aim of Study 4 is to explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration, within the context of SA cricket. Considering these aims, significant deliberation was given to the purposeful selection (Patton, 1990) of those coaches who had gathered significant experiences, across a range of coaching environments and would have had to deal directly with different administrators, across different contexts. As such, a primary inclusion factor was for participants to be currently working as a coach within SA cricket. They would need to be in their current role for a minimum of two years in order to provide an in-depth perspective of their current role and relationship with administrators. They would require to have worked in the SA cricket systems as coach for over 10 years, in line with past research suggesting 10 years is a minimum for a development of coaching expertise (Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007; Nash & Sproule, 2009). In order to ensure a balanced and representative overview, it was essential to engage a representative sample of coaches operating in the various development environments that make up SA cricket. This was considered important in an attempt to gather more comprehensive and meaningful insights into the different interpersonal relationships, in different and at times conflicting contextual situations such as participation, development and performance environments.

Considering these factors, the sample for Study 4 consisted of 13 participants that included 11 current coaches, one coach educator and one coach mentor. All identified participant coaches were male and had over 10 years (averaging 14.2 years) of experience as SA domestic cricket coaches. For example, four of the coaches identified currently, operate in the amateur cricket leagues (school/club/university), five coaches operate in the provincial pathway, while two coaches were operating at the franchise level, together with one coach educator and one coach mentor.
The number of participants identified for this study is consistent with the studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009), Olusoga et al. (2010) and Nash et al. (2011).

Evidence of the multiple experiences gathered by the selected participants can be viewed in Chapter 3 (Table 3.2), however as an example, participant 13, who was currently a provincial level coach had previous experience as a national academy coach, together with experience as a coach at international level. Participant 10, currently heading up a provincial youth pathway had also gathered national academy and franchise level experience, while participant 11, a national coach mentor, had gathered school, club, provincial, national academy and franchise coaching experience.

7.2.3 Interview script

As the primary aim of this study is to offer a broad exploration of the interrelationship between coaches and administrators, a semi-structured interview script was developed due to both the structure and flexibility it allows in exploring areas that may emerge during discussions (Cushion & Jones, 2006; Nash et al., 2011). In order to ensure the questions captured an in-depth and meaningful insight into the nature of this relationship, it was important for questions to be broad and open-ended in nature (Patton, 1990; Côté et al., 1995). In capturing a broad perspective across a number of contexts, the primary questions were structured to investigate the relationship between the coach and the administrators and covered four broad areas; the role of the coach, coherency across development environments, the practice environment, shared goals.

In attempting to gain meaningful insight and explore the vast experiences of the participants, each primary question was explored in more depth and detail by way of prompts and probes (Patton, 1990), however ensuring a neutral and impartial stance was important in order to improve the opportunity to facilitate open responses (Backstrom & Hursch-Cesari, 1981).
An example of the questions used is outlined above in Table 7.1.

### 7.2.4 Procedure

Before individuals were identified for interview, all procedures were pre-approved by Edinburgh Napier University’s ethical committee. Once identified, each participant was recruited by personal contact and informed consent obtained (Thomas et al., 1999) to take part in a one-to-one interview.

As each identified coach was still currently operating within the SA cricket environment and considering the potential ethical nature of this investigation, assurances were provided that every effort would be made to protect the anonymity of each coach and no organisation or bodies the coaches were employed by would have access to the recorded information (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). Anonymity was also provided as a matter of normal protocol in order to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Prompt</th>
<th>Probes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Could you describe the complexity of the role of the coach?</td>
<td>What are the barriers?</td>
<td>How does this affect your role?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What different aspects/elements need to be considered (administratively and developmentally)</td>
<td>How do you deal with complexity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How do you deal with complexity?</td>
<td>Relationships – captain and coach and coach and administrators?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you think coaching is a recognised profession in SA?</td>
<td>What makes you say that?</td>
<td>Do you feel you can progress?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What prevents this?</td>
<td>What are the barriers / positives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there specific barriers?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do you feel part of the 'bigger picture' in SA cricket?</td>
<td>Do you feel part of the development structure producing SA cricketers?</td>
<td>What are the different subcultures that exist?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Has anything changed over the last 10 years?</td>
<td>Is there effective communication between elements?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What affect (positive/negative) has this had on opportunities</td>
<td>What factors can have an effect on this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What factors would you, as coach, include in building a competitive environment?</td>
<td>How would you describe your approach to developing a competitive development environment?</td>
<td>What factors may have an effect (positive or negative) on this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent do administrators of the game share a similar philosophy?</td>
<td>How is information passed?</td>
<td>How does this affect (positive/negative) your role?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is there open communication?</td>
<td>How do you deal with this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are the barriers?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.1: Coach-administrator interview transcript.
promote honest evaluation and maintain trustworthiness (Tuckman, 1978; Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007)

In order to maximise comfort and recall, the main interview questions were sent to the 13 candidates before the interview, allowing for familiarisation with the types of questions asked. Interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis in order to gather an in-depth examination of participant’s individual experiences, thoughts and beliefs. Each interview averaged approximately 37 minutes and was recorded on a Dictaphone for later transcription. The interview time was consistent with earlier studies conducted by Debanne and Fontayne (2009), Olusoga et al. (2010). All interviews were conducted at the location of the participants’ choice, which took place either at the training ground or in individual private offices.

7.2.5 Data analysis

Inductive thematic analysis, as outlined by Braun and Clark (2006) was adopted to analyse this potentially complex and contextualised relationship. The initial stage to the inductive process was to fully transcribe and become familiar with the data by way of multiple readings. The second stage was to generate codes across the whole data set the by grouping the data into categories. Relevant coded extracts were matched with identified themes. To assist in, not only reviewing the newly coded themes, but to also provide a visual representation, a thematic map was produced. Below, Figure 7.1 represents the first stage of the theming process.
In attempting to interpret the latent content of the data, the second stage of the theme review followed the process outlined by Braun and Clark (2006). The review process not only involved checking the coded extracts to confirm coherent patterns, but also reviewed the entire data set for a consistent message across all the themes.

Above, Figure 7.2 represents the final higher and lower order theme formation following a full review of the coded extracts, with theme names re-defined and named to present a clear and concise definition for each theme and the message it conveys. The themes were then arranged in the most appropriate way in order to clearly present the findings that emerged from the data.

7.2.6 Trustworthiness and credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985 as cited in Shenton, 2004) describe credibility as one of the most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. They also stress close ties between ensuring credibility and dependability, by arguing that if you
have attempted to ensure one, the other follows. There are a number of ways in which credibility was established in accurately recording the investigation of this study.

Firstly, data triangulation (Patton, 1990) was employed whereby coaches operating at different developmental and performance levels were used in order to support theme formation (Denzin, 1978 in Patton, 1990; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). In order to gain wide-ranging viewpoints and experiences, coaches were also chosen for interview on the basis of them having gathered a depth and breadth of experience of coaching cricket in SA across a number of organisations. In addition, investigator triangulation (Denzin, 1978, in Patton, 1990) was also utilised to strengthen the study by following the procedure outlined by Thomas & Magilvy (2011). A common issue regarding qualitative enquiry is the difficulty of applying conventional generalisability, because observations are viewed as unique and specific to the context in which they occur (Shenton, 2004). Another issue that may affect the transferability of a study is small samples that are based on purposeful sampling. Importantly however Shenton (2004) argues that transferability should not be rejected if a broad group of participants are employed. It is believed that the broad and diverse experiences gathered by the chosen participants increases the likelihood of ‘user generalisability’, by unearthing significant declarative knowledge thus conceivably increasing the chance of any findings to be used as a baseline understanding against which later work may be compared (Gross, 1999 as cited in Shenton, 2004).

In order to establish both credibility and confirmability (Shenton, 2004) the expertise of a critical friend with 15 years of experience in qualitative research was used during the category and theme formation. The expertise of the critical friend was also utilised at varying stages throughout the data analysis and theme presentation procedure. For example, in a procedure outlined by Côté & Salmela (1994) and Weinberg and McDermot (2002), agreement was sought from the critical friend to check the reliability and allocation coded data and theme formation. The use of the critical friend, at this stage of the theme review process, was particularly important to check for reliability and coherency across the allocation of the coded data to each theme. In addition, thematic maps were used to provide a data trail in order to establish how themes were formed from the coded extracts. In addition, regular contact and meetings were held between the researcher and the critical friend to discuss points that may have been under or
over emphasised and to remove any assumptions made from the gathered information.

Finally, in order for check the accuracy and balance of participant responses to questions, member checking was employed via email (Sparkes & Smith, 2009; Cruickshank & Collins, 2016). For a variety of reasons, such as individuals no longer holding the same post, no participant responded to the member checks request. No changes were made to the respective quotes by way of this process.

7.3 Results

Following the inductive coding of the data, four higher order themes and nine lower-order themes emerged. The following four higher-order themes provided the most coherent and practical way to display the results; 1) Clarity of roles and decision-making, 2) Disconnected Agendas, 3) Allocation of resources and 4) Creating coach boundaries.

7.3.1 Clarity of roles and decision-making

7.3.1.1 Relationships and role understanding

Coach 11 highlights an important relationship described earlier in Study 1, the relationship between the coach and captain of the team. He explains, in his experience, that it is the obligation of the coach to defend the actions of the captain to the administrators, however perceives this relationship may become problematic and it does depend on how well the captain is performing over that period. In clarifying his perception of this crucial relationship he also suggests it is important the coach defends the actions of his players, but this places the coach in a them and us situation, with the coach in between the team and administrators, having to communicate with both parties effectively in order to maintain a working relationship.

‘I have got a problem with the word power. Why it has to be power. I have got no problem with the players being at the forefront and the focal point of it. Captain/coach relationship is critical. What I have also found in the past is that that relationship can turn very sour very quickly. Depending on the type of season you have. And also given the captain’s form. A lot of it is…very often the captain, the team might be doing okay, the captain’s form is not great, questions start getting asked, coach defends captain because he is duty bound to do that, and eventually when the captain’s form turns around he might not necessarily defend the coach in the same way as the coach defended him and that team breaks down. We have
seen that everywhere pretty much. And also the buffer that the coach is between the playing side and the administrative side is a critical one as well. I have always been one to put the players first. I was always a players’ coach in that respect. It didn’t make me popular with the administrators, certainly because I didn’t necessarily tell them things that they wanted to hear.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 8 describes the levels of commitment and numerous roles individual coaches may require in administering a progressive amateur club. Interestingly, Coach 8 also discloses the significant impact on the coach’s overall workload at this level, especially when other individuals do not fulfill their administrative role commitments.

‘Yes. I want to. Some coaches can just sit back and that is the reason why two years ago the club fell flat because I believe their heart wasn’t in it, their passion and I believe especially at amateur level, you have to be passionate about the players, the club. You have got to throw everything at it. Otherwise you are only doing a half job. If you just want the money and sit back or you are working towards a goal and my goal is to make (name of university) a power cricket club in the (name of province) and I want to produce franchise cricketers. I took control over many other things, because we weren’t get much support and at (name of university) there is a committee which is elected but the committee, two out of six of them pull their finger out and do a bit of work but a lot of the work will actually fall on my plate, myself and the chairman, where I will try and get sponsorship, I will do recruiting of players, I will communication with players want to come to university. I will try and get better sponsorships and if guys weren’t accepted I will be getting the head of sport to ensure that they do get accepted with maybe a covering letter or a little bit more power. So I have had to take on quite a lot of admin, not only just coaching.’ (Coach 8)

Coach 4 highlights that there may be challenges around clarity of roles. For example, for those in an assistant coach position, it can be unclear how that role is evaluated due to the lack of control attached to it. Coach 4 also raises personal worries, specifically concerning individuals in an administrative capacity having an effect in the decision-making environment of the coach, such as team selection. Given that head coaches are judged on team success, this would appear potentially problematic.

‘I actually spoke to (name of coach) about it the other day and he mentioned, he had a word with (name), the assistant coach at the (name of franchise) and they were talking about coaching and I said to him (the) ‘assistant coach is a very
difficult role, very, very difficult, because you are involved, but you are not that involved. It is not your plans. I am not part of selection. (Name of franchise coach) asks me a few ideas and then they go and select a team where the amateur coach is involved in selection.‘…and then the CEO feels like he must over ride everything. Everything must go through him. I don’t agree. Why do we have a convener of selectors then? Some guys feel they are control freaks with that kind of thing. I stay out of it…I said ‘you can’t judge me on the performance of the team so much, because I am assistant, it is not all my ideas.’ And that is why after two years or so I started changing more to skills development. Where I have got a specific area of responsibility. I said you can judge me by that….’ (Coach 4)

Coach 9 explained that on occasion, individuals who hold administrative positions are having an affect on areas perceived out with the role (e.g. team selection). Interestingly, he also perceives that those individuals who may be making decisions at an administrative level do not necessarily have the knowledge to do so.

‘If you are the CEO and you oversee things, you shouldn’t be picking teams. You can ask questions, and I will give you the right answers, but I do believe I have got more knowledge than you to make those decisions. And can make the correct decisions.’ (Coach 9)

Coach 9 later added that coaches are not normally included in the decision-making process and not asked their opinion on matters that may affect their coaching environment.

‘I mean, just a simple example. We have had developments at our union, and I am just using this as an example. The indoor facility, not the franchise coach or the provincial coach was at any stage asked ‘what are your needs here, what do you guys recommend, what have you seen at other unions, what have you seen overseas that we could bring in to the plans so as to have the best possible indoor facility at the right price?’ Not a question was asked. We have got guys sitting in the office who actually want to make decisions on teams, but I work with the guys every day. I can see which guy has done his off-season programme. I can see which guy is really dedicated, wants to go further. And yet these guys will overrule and pick teams.’ (Coach 9)
7.3.1.2 Competence, bias and decision-making power: lack of coach control

Coach 9 questions not only the perceived decision-making capabilities of administrators, but also raises questions that this decision-making may be biased.

‘You just have to look at what is happening at Cricket SA. It is exactly that. That is why the Nicholson Commission has said ‘let’s get independent guys on the board, to prevent us from making the wrong decisions and biased decisions, decisions for the wrong reasons’. That is exactly what is happening. It is not just cricket, it is rugby and whatever.’ (Coach 9)

Similarly, Coach 7 reiterates Coach 9’s comment, by bringing into question the ability of certain individuals at board level not being able to fulfil their role adequately due to a lack of understanding.

‘It is a governance issue. Elected members can’t run a professional set up. It can sit as a chair of a board but that board is to be made up of people who don’t understand what is going on.’ (Coach 7)

Coach 9 concludes that there may be a discrepancy with regards roles and the knowledge in order to fully understand what is required from the role, with many of the individuals involved in the administrative process not fully understanding the ramifications of budget related decision-making. Crucially Coach 9 also suggests that coaches need to be strong in their defence of their vision due to the perception of them holding less power in the coach-administrator relationship.

‘A lot of the guys on the board for instance, are guys that have never had their own businesses, they have never worked on their own but they are making budget decisions and they are making calls on where to bowl here and what to do here. And a lot of these guys, it is because they have got this power, they are actually restricting in a way, the coach as to really put his stamp on…his knowledge on how he can go forward, and how he can do certain things. That is a frustrating part. I don’t think we get the recognition as we all should.’ (Coach 9)

Coach 11 exposes certain constraints he highlights as problematic, specifically around the area of financial resource allocation and coaches not being trusted with matter relating to their coaching environment.

‘I still feel that your coach should be trusted to run the whole thing in its entirety. He should be given his budget, and he must run matters cricket and your CEO must really be your business side of things. There aren’t too many barriers, just
financially and just your administrators, trying to get through to them. Because you are still Board driven. There are still a few clowns that sit every month for four hours where they eat for two hours and then they discuss your abilities as a coach and depending on how your season has gone. I mean I went from being the best coach in the country in one month to being the worst coach and getting fired. I must make sure that the same thing doesn't happen to other coaches.’ (Coach 11)

7.3.2 Disconnected agendas

7.3.2.1 Differences in perception of the nature of development

Coach 3 outlines differing agendas and disconnect between some coaches and administrators regarding decisions on how player development may often exist. It seems some administrators, according to Coach 3, view player development as they view financial budgeting, being linear and simple in nature.

‘The administrators are on a different bus. They come from a different angle. They look at numbers, they look at completely different things. They look at the books at the end of the day. They look at budgets, they don’t think of the importance of trying to develop that cricketer. To try and give him every little bit so that he can perform at his very best when he plays. So I don’t think that administrators see eye to eye with the coaches. Because the coaches obviously have vision of…the know, they spend time, they spend every minute of every day with their team. They know exactly what is required, what is needed. Administrators just see black and white. ‘This is it. That is how it is going to be. That is the logistics of it. Go and play cricket.’ We want to try and get that environment where the player can play at his very best.’ (Coach 3)

Coach 13 reveals a lack of understanding shown by administrators in how long it takes to develop success. As previously raised by Coach 3, it seems administrators see development as short term in nature, with an expectation that results should be achievable over a short period of time.

‘As much as the guys say ‘come on you have got to start building’ the guys won’t tell you the next bit. Let’s put a system in place, lets see what we can do…No, no, you get signed as a coach and immediate results! People want immediate results. It is all about results. Guys can tell you whatever they want, they want to win and I know. I have seen coaches come and go like it is going out of fashion. So because we don’t have that association in place where we protect coaches, if you are not…I have been to clubs as well where guys wanted me to coach and they wanted me to give them success. ‘Give me a year, two years, three years, to build something.’’ (Coach 13)
Similar to earlier statements, Coach 11 highlights a culture of instant gratification leading to a short-term approach to development and results driven agenda. This approach becomes both problematic and unhelpful to a coach who has a long-term development agenda. Interestingly, it seems that in order for a long-term approach to be instilled, a coach needs to have the strength of his convictions and be provided with the opportunities to follow this through.

‘I was there, (a) new coach came in, he didn’t last three years because of whatever, (name of coach) is in there now, (if) it doesn’t go his way, someone else will be in. There is no real time for proper development so to speak, and for the coach to put his stamp on things. Whether the right coaches are appointed, that is another discussion. Our focus is so much on instant gratification and if it was to be an ethos, unfortunately it is what it is at first class level. Fortunately at national level, (name of coach) and the management there have taken on a completely different ethos…(name of coach) has got the courage of his convictions, ‘this is what I am about, this is how we are doing things and every now and again things are not going to work for us’. They are not being reactive in any sort of way, they are laying out their marker, this is how we want to do things, and great. We need to find that middle road. I don’t think players are mature enough to deal with that.’  
(Coach 11)

7.3.2.2 A results driven process

Coach 2 reveals a lack of goal alignment, by explaining that administrators speak of grassroots development without truly understanding the nature of development and how this may impact on the role of the coach. Interestingly, Coach 2 explains that a result driven process is also prevalent at the school level.

‘I have got to say if you are talking about people that I report to, I don’t know how much they really understand about coaching. Having said that coaching can be quite simple if you analyse it. It is also very complex, particularly the relationship building side of things. So I don’t know how much they really buy…they will nod their heads and say ‘yes, this grassroots approach…’, yes of course, that is there, but exactly how it works and whether we have got the infrastructure and funding to really roll out a very productive programme like that, is a moot point. I think it is very open to discussion. And exactly how much support our coaches get from an administrative point of view, I am talking about the school coach, the headmaster is really, at the end of the day, he is interested in one or two things. I think a lot schools pride themselves on producing players but they are probably only going to judge the coach on results.’ (Coach 2)
Coach 10 reiterates many of the earlier comments by mentioning that results can be subjective in nature and there may be a number of variables that will allow a coach to have a successful season over that of a coach who does not. Importantly, he states that this type of subjectivity does not seem to get taken into account by administrators, thus putting coaches under pressure to perform and get positive results.

‘Sometimes coaches walk into a system that is set, there is good administration and players, they walk into a system that there is good teams, and sometimes good coaches will achieve a lot with regards to results and trophies and those type of things, and they might not be the best coaches at the end of the day because the resources they have to their disposal, if I can call it that way, they have got all the resources, and administrators, especially at board level, to be blunt…and I don’t want to generalise but some of them probably have never played the game or some of them, are maybe there for other reasons, whatever the case may be. But I think sometimes for them it is a simple case of winning and losing, that you have got to take a lot of other factors into consideration and sometimes there is a bit of ignorance in that regard.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 3 speaks of differences in the interpretation of success. Coach 3’s version of success is to see the bigger picture and to produce players who are able to step up to the next level for the betterment of SA cricket. On the other hand he speaks of administrators seeking short-term wins as a measurement of success.

‘As a coach, yes, I want to be successful and your successes are being measured by the number of games you win, unfortunately. Whereas in terms of the development of a player, if I can have a losing side and I know I am going to get three players to go through and play franchise cricket, then I am successful. That is my understanding. Like if I have a winning side but I have no one stepping up, playing franchise cricket because they may be just not good enough and if I have a winning environment that is not going to measure me as someone who is actually developing a player. I maybe have a good all round side but I don’t have any one who is going through to the next level.’ (Coach 3)

Coach 6 emphasises the precarious position he perceives coaches to be in due to administrators focusing on short-term performance related goals. The impact of this for the coach is lessened due to favourable results, however the position of the coach is indefensible if results are poor, with the coach being perceived as expendable when compared to players and the administrators themselves.
‘I think wires can get crossed. I certainly believe, as coach that you are at the bottom of the pecking order. There is the administrators, the player and the coach. From my personal experience, I don’t think the administrators in particular fully understand the pressures and the problems that a coach has. They are very quick to talk to you when you are doing well, but when you are not doing well, the phone doesn’t ring. When your team is struggling it is a lonely place. And I think (name) in (name) was one of the few administrators that understood the difficulties that go around when...teams can’t always win. There has to be a loser. When the team under performs it is a poor coach. When the team wins, it is a great team. The football mentality has got into cricket more and more and more. If the team has a bad season the coach is under pressure. I think for me, administrators, if they appoint you for three or four years they have got to have faith in their original decision.’ (Coach 6)

Coach 11 talks of the ramifications of what a win at all costs attitude may have on coaches and their philosophies towards long-term development.

‘I think it varies from place to place. A win at all costs is constantly there. It certainly is, simply because coaches operate from a position of fear. There is no security. Not that there ever will be security at any time. We are so short sighted, not only our union but nationally etc. We are fiercely competitive, which we should be but at the same token I think coaches share easily. As much as we are fierce competitors, we almost find ourselves to be pawns in the same game so we can relate to a lot of the things, so we actually help each other out. Be the shoulder or try and assist. When you talk of an ethos, it is a drive toward a lot more realistic style of coaching, but I still feel that we are too instructional, we are too focused on the instant gratification of the need to win.’ (Coach 11)

7.3.2.3 Player selection: Not singing from the same hymn sheet

Coach 13 again speaks of challenging relationships with administrators due to differing views around the criteria for selection. He mentions coaches having to take into account numerous variables when selecting a player, while administrators seem to follow a more self-preserving and conflicting agenda.

‘We have got some guys on the board who don’t watch club cricket. They just come down and make their own rules. ‘Why is this one not playing? Why is that one not playing?’ The board has always been tough. The board and administration has always been tough’. As far as selection is concerned the criterion...we follow the criterion and we look at everyone who has performed at club level, we look at the whole scenario and if you fit into the team...but obviously
board members don’t see eye to eye with each other and sometimes self-interest, self-interest in clubs comes in.’ (Coach 13)

Coach 9 describes the challenges of operating under contradictory agendas and for this climate to increase the ambiguity between the coach’s development role and expected performance outcomes. For example, Coach 9 recounted instructions given to him to develop new players and to provide opportunities to develop players of colour, however was later questioned on his ability to win games when being interviewed for promotion.

‘At some of the unions, they say that winning isn’t everything, they want you to develop players. So what they are saying is ‘there is a guy with potential but he is maybe not there yet, we need you to play him and give him some experience, although it means that we might lose one or two games’. But some guys, in their contract there is a thing that says ‘if you win x amount of games, you get a bonus’ and this and that. In my union, we had a scenario last year where I was actually forced to play one more player of colour, one more player of colour because it was a board decision, although it wasn’t a Cricket SA decision, and when we questioned this it was ‘we need to produce guys’ but the problem is you sit at the board or the AGM at the end of the year and there are questions ‘why is (name of province) number 8 on the log? Although they try and say that their emphasis is on new players I think it is a lot more on actually winning. And I get told that my job gets measured by the amount of players I bring through, but I believe when things don’t go as it should, they’ll quickly refer to decisions, and how you have done previous seasons. I went into a franchise meeting when (name) left, and the first question…I didn’t actually want to do it but at that stage they asked me to apply for the job. And the first question that was asked me was ‘why if (name) won trophies in the last two years, and you haven’t won a trophy, why should we employ you? So winning still is important. They can say whatever they like’.’ (Coach 9)

7.3.3 Allocation of resources

7.3.3.1 Lack of coach control over priority resource allocation

Coach 8 reveals the challenges associated with being a professional coach who does not operate in the provincial development system, but rather outside it, in the private and club sector. He speaks of making substantial financial investment into his private cricket school, but also speaks of the operational challenges associated with coaching a progressive amateur club, with restricted budgets.

‘It is very draining. I just feel I am doing too much during the day when I should be focusing on my cricket school which is my bread and butter, my future. And
especially when we are looking to go…and at the moment we are changing the whole model of the cricket school. I have invested a lot of money into it. Hopefully it doesn’t backfire. But (name of university) have been very good to me with regards to facilities. I see it as a win win for both sides. Even though I have thrown a bit more at it than I should have done. If I had bigger budgets then you can allocate, get the support. At the moment it is quite hard. The university comes and says ‘here is x amount, just get the results over a period of time, go for it’. I just feel so restricted at (name of university) from equipment, having to source my own equipment to uniforms.’ (Coach 8)

Coach 9 reveals the different levels of control coaches have and how this may differ in accordance to their position on the development pathway. It seems the coaches operating at the development and the performance development end of the spectrum have less control over decisions relating to their coaching environment. Importantly Coach 9 goes further to reveal the ramifications of ill-judged decisions, such as budgeting constraints affecting player development.

‘In some unions a franchise coach will come in and say ‘this is what I want, this is my support staff and they will give it him. I don’t think in our case, the (name of province), that is necessarily what has happened. I think there it is 50/50, 50% is what the coach wants and 50% is what the administrators…in my case, not being on a contract basis, but on a full time basis as part of your amateur structures, you are almost on more of a 70/30 split. 70% administrators and 30% what I want. I am on a full time contract so I suppose you are working for someone and if that is what the board want, then that is what the board want and you have to almost go with that. But obviously on the other side, my programmes is almost 100% my programme. That is what is needed to get the guys up to a certain level. Budget constraints is obviously a huge problem. Once again you sit for some guys, especially on the white side, if a guy is by 25, 26 not pushed up to franchise cricket he makes a serious decision that he shouldn’t go on. So you find you start losing players round about 25.’ (Coach 9)

Coach 10 acknowledges the challenges for coaches whose operational context may not be considered when they are getting evaluated. For example, the levels of resources available to coaches do not seem to be considered, but rather coaches are being evaluated in terms of results.

‘I see a lot of coaches working, good coaches, but they might not have all resources and they might be doing well with what they have compared to other folks that may be, player resources might have it all and they might not be all that
good coaches. There is a lot of pressure on coaches. As I said, you are evaluated based on results and this type of things. It is easy for people to not know what is happening out there, who don’t know what you are working with, to make decisions on your future based on that.’ (Coach 10)

7.3.3.2 Waste: Problem with strategic budget related allocations

Coach 6 considers the importance of being more strategic in allocating financial resources. He outlines the current approach to grassroots development, as being too broad and unsustainable. He describes an apparent agenda to create the perception that grassroots cricket development is successful due purely to large numbers of children turning out to play the game, however he questions how many of these children will continue to play the game later in life.

‘One of my problems in the development structure or development is how to spend the money. For example, they turn out figures, there are 300,000 kids playing cricket every week and they spend so much and isn’t that wonderful whereas that doesn’t produce players of quality for the future. That is just scattering seeds across a field. Whereas that should have happened but they need to identify clubs, schools, give them more money and give them coaching support. Not only the players, the coaches, to make sure the individual can develop. If you just play mini cricket everywhere, and I have seen it here, where they report there is 70,000 kids playing cricket and cricket is growing, no it is not. What is actually happening is school teachers get the chance to send the kids out on the field and they run around for a while. There is actually no development going on there. So you can introduce kids to the game but that needs to be followed up and I question whether the following up is actually done.’ (Coach 6)

Coach 6 explains what he perceives to be the continual waste of money adopting a strategy that has not provided any return, however stresses the importance of identifying and engaging coaches and using the funding in a different way to develop crucial elements of the development path.

‘Well how much money have they poured into Soweto in the last 15 years? Millions and millions and millions and they have probably produced five players, six players. No players who have played for SA. They have spent millions of Rand doing that. It is a numbers game, instead of identifying, in my opinion, the Soweto Cricket Club and giving them money and then get them to go and find the players, and back them up. Not only just money for equipment, but get the coaches there expand the coaches knowledge.’ (Coach 6)
Later, Coach 6 suggests what he perceives as a solution to utilising experienced and out of work coaches at the grassroots development end of the spectrum.

‘I think it comes down to money at the end of the day. They have all got budgets, and I respect that. I think they look at the figures and think ‘if we are going to put that in place it is going to be x amount’ and I understand that. But I think if it was driven in the right way, the money people who set up the budgets would find a budget for some of us who are out of work, to keep them working but also, mainly, to improve the grassroots cricket.’ (Coach 6)

Even though this lower-order theme is only related to one interviewee’s perspective, it, together with the earlier theme, does confirm and raise some important issues, such as effective resources allocation. For example, he questions the effectiveness of the current approach to grassroots development. He explains the importance of creating self-sustaining programmes and generating support for strategic development elements by providing skilled and experienced coaches to develop these areas, over that of only providing financial support.

7.3.4 Creating coach boundaries

7.3.4.1 Providing greater coach security

Coach 11 talks of the working climate that he perceives coaches to operate under. He explains that coaches feel unappreciated and do not have the support of a coaches association like the players do.

‘Coaches are skeptical. We operate in a system of mistrust and distrust. Where coaches don’t feel appreciated. There are moves afoot, they approached me a couple of years ago to try and start a coaches union, pretty much like the players union. It is a very difficult thing to get off the ground because you don’t really have the numbers but coaches feel…they are armpit of the system. If anybody gets fired it is the coach.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 7 also frames the importance of coaches developing an association that is able to protect, educate and develop coaches, in a similar way they have in place for players.

‘Obviously it is important that we try to get something like that going. The players association has gone from strength to strength, they have made huge strides for players. But it is important also that the coaches get some sort of association or
organisation to help them cover and build themselves, educate them and make the processes easier.’ (Coach 7)

Coach 10 reiterates Coach 7’s earlier comments, adding that coaches who operate on a contractual basis are not afforded the same protection as those who are operating on a full-time contract. He adds that there has been a significant shift in the coach/player relationship, where players are perceived to be holding more power and influence than the coach, making it more important for the coaches to have some level of protection in place.

‘I see nowadays, one of the coaches that actually lost their job at the beginning of the season is now trying to get a coaches association going to give coaches a bit more protection. And especially in this country, I do feel that… I mean, as I said to you earlier, I am a Level 4 coach myself, I have coached at provincial level, I have coached…assisted at franchise level, but I do not envy coaches working in those positions. I look at people like (name of franchise coach) and I think to myself, what these guys are going to, and it is contractual based positions, I don’t envy that, I would rather be doing what I am doing at the moment, in a permanent position and enjoy what I am doing instead of sitting with the pressures. The pressure comes with the job. But once people are ignorant and they don’t understand what you are working with, that makes it so much more difficult at the end of the day.’ (Coach 10)

Coach 6 confirms the importance of developing a system to provide a level of security for coaches. He also raises the point that experienced coaches who find themselves outwith the provincial or franchise development system are not getting utilised effectively even though there are areas that could require their expertise.

‘Certainly, talking to all the coaches we feel (name of coach), is doing a thing at the moment to try and get coaches together to form an association. One of the things that came out of his initial talks is that there is lot of coaches in my position that feel, once you are not in the fold, you are literally not in the fold. It is a waste of a resource. We have got fantastic experience between all of us. That is only a few names. There is plenty of others as well. In a country that is trying to develop the game and has got masses of players of colour and black players, we have coaches of quality that are available but don’t get called on. I think they just focus on the players and the coaches that are in their franchises.’ (Coach 6)
7.3.4.2 Creating the appropriate culture: Building relationships and effective communication

Coach 3 outlines the importance of administrators being proactive rather than reactive when providing support for players and coaches. Notably, he also stresses the significance of the coach and administrative relationship being as cooperative as possible in order for things to run smoothly.

‘They try and obviously create that kind of professional environment for the athletes, they try and keep them as much as they can but I don’t know if they really go all out to give the players everything that they need to keep them at their very best. But to be honest with you the administrators are coming to the party late. They are getting there slowly, because they realise without the players, and without the coaches that they are not going to be successful in what they are doing. So it is important that that relationship between coach and administrator must be a good one. Recently I have had an experience where coach and administrator didn’t see eye to eye and everything just fell apart. So I think that it is important that that two parts of the organisation must be spot on.’ (Coach 3)

Coach 11 explains that the important messages of competitiveness and development need to be aligned between administrators and coaches. He perceives that if alignment existed between these two messages, then coaches may not work in fear and would be able to stand by their convictions and philosophy.

‘I am all for fierce competitiveness, don’t get me wrong. I think depending on the coach you can get fierce competitiveness at various levels. When the coach is shitting himself, you get a different type of competitiveness, there is the must win, gun to his head sort of thing. Then there is the other side of things where this is a culture that has been created over time, fierce competitiveness together with all the other aspects of player development. It stems from the coaches and the culture you have created. A lot of it, however, stems from the boardroom where you only need to look and see them high fiving each other when the side has won a competition.’ (Coach 11)

Coach 1 describes the importance of the coach and the administrators sharing a supportive relationship. Coach 1 also reiterates Coach 11’s earlier comments by stating how nice it would be if administrators allowed the coach to approach his coaching practice with his philosophy in the foreground rather than any other pressures that may skew this.
‘That is vital. My role in (name of country), I felt the administration side wasn’t good. Through nobody’s fault really. The internal structure was such that there was hardly any admin backup. You are thrown into the situation, which you are quite happy to deal with but when you do need a bit of backup from administration it is not there or it is always an antagonistic role rather than a supportive role. You are kind of caught in the middle between two parties, who are fighting against each other but you need to get the best out of your players for both parties to progress. It is a bit of a middleman situation. I didn’t have much admin backup within the (name of country) administration. It is a part time, voluntary administration so…I saw the president of (name of country) cricket, I got the role…I saw him for the first time about three months into my contract…he was never available to meet. You are kind of doing what you believe is best with very limited resources. It would be nice if the admin can give you the rights to go into practice what you believe, your philosophy. Give you that freedom to go and do it. Backing you up rather than criticising.’ (Coach 1)

Coach 7 outlines the important nuances of player learning and development, however stresses that this information may not be what he relates to the administrators. He relates the importance of preparing players for performance and how this preparation can be transferred into positive results that the administrators would be want to see. An interpretation of this may relate to a lack of understanding on behalf of the administrators in the developmental benefits of the coach providing laterality to their players in order to promote learning and development rather than a more instructional and autocratic approach.

‘If taking the winning into the consideration, matching the board with performances and results in between, is the coaches job. You need to be very, very careful in how you put things towards the board and towards the guys on top. Even regarding players. I can’t say to the board ‘this is our preparation but this guy and this guy lacked this and that is why…’. If I do that my whole process falls apart. So I have got to be very careful about that. What I need to do is I need the player to understand what his ownership and responsibility is. I need to gel that into the game and into the result which is what the board sees or what the governing body sees.’ (Coach 7)

Coach 11 stresses the importance of having an individual who may sit between the administrators and the coach and will deal with all cricket related matters. This approach may remove the decision-making effect of those individuals at board level who do not have enough experience of the game, but also allows for a more coherent approach to both development and performance.
'I actually suggested something to the (name of franchise), the same week I was fired, a couple of days later, I really believe that a director of cricket needs to be created at...at the (name of franchise), who looks after all matters cricket. From the (name of franchise) side, he doesn't coach the side, he has got a coach, he sits on the board but he would look after all matters cricket. So the (name of franchise) cricket, work together with the coach, sign the players, what sort of kind of cricket are we going to play, are we going to play four day cricket, are we going to play 20/20 one day cricket and then cascade that down into the amateur cricket, the likes of (name of province) in (name of province). Then meet with the under 19s sides, selectors, coaches, everyone, and say 'right guys, this is how the (name of franchise) want to play their cricket, these are the things we want to do', so that when the step up comes these are the fitness levels, all of these things, and monitor it constantly. And then again, go into under 17 level, meet with the schools levels. You want to win and yes, you can win, (name of school) still wants to beat (name of school) and that is ok for you to do that but if you can do it within this framework, even better because this is the type of player we are looking for now. So that is, I think, things can be improved upon, get someone that really keeps an eye on all of that cricket. I don't know whether enough cricket people look after cricket at every level, especially the levels where you are not getting remunerated for it.' (Coach 11)

In continuation of the quote above, Coach 11 explains the importance of both educating and supporting the administrators to potentially reduce the ambiguity that encompasses the coaches’ role. In so doing, this may not only provide the coaches with some level of added support but also assists the administrators to make more informed and fair decisions with regards to a coaches appointment or dismissal.

‘Educating administrators as well. For them to understand that one, we have got good coaches and lets appoint the right ones. That is where I see my role. Educating, but also being that voice for the coach when he needs the voice. Being alongside him when the shit hits the fan, to be up there with him and say 'you have actually cocked this up' or if something becomes available, get in there and say 'guys we have got someone locally that we can take a punt on. Try and assist, not only with the coaches but to sit in with the administrators. So when I go to (name of franchise) I knock on the CEO’s door and I can sit down with him and say ‘tell me about your coach, what are your thoughts about your coach?’ If they say ‘we think our coach is shit’. ‘So why did you approach him, appoint him? This is what
7.4 Conclusion

This study offers a broad investigation into the important relationship between coach and administrator, from the perspective of the coach, and how this relationship impacts on the overall effectiveness of athletic development.

In terms of practical findings relating to a SA cricket environment, it emerged that a certain number of administrators lacked a general understanding of the game of cricket. This lack of understanding manifested itself in a number of ways; 1) There was a general lack of understanding concerning what was involved in developing a cricketer and the significance of the coach’s role in this process, 2) A perception of both incorrect and biased decision-making, exacerbated by a perceived lack of understanding concerning the game, 3) The lack of understanding was perceived to have detrimental effects on how the coach’s performance is evaluated and 4) A perceived increase in resources being allocated incorrectly and not to the important development areas.

Throughout, matters of importance were raised relating to positions of control and power residing with certain individuals who are not well informed about the environment over which they reside. This lack of understanding is perceived to have created a misalignment between understanding and subsequent decision-making and has in some way been created by a lack of clarity between the roles administrators undertake, in relation to what coaches perceive the administrators roles to be. This particular finding may not be overly surprising, however issues do arise when administrators are perceived to make decisions outwith what coaches perceive their remit to be, such as making decisions on player selections.

The concept of decision-making has been addressed in both business and sporting environments. Even though research in sports decision-making is less developed than that of business, there are similarities across both. For example, Simon’s (1945) administrative model recognises that individuals are not rational, leading to decision-making being limited by a number of factors, such as past experience, personal preferences and emotional and cognitive capacities. Managers may strive for the optimum solution, but will not consider, or give consideration to all of the options available. Currently, there is a general consensus that coaching practice be recognised as complex and intricate, with
numerous social negotiations required in order for effective practice to occur (Saury & Durand, 1998; Cushion et al., 2003; Jones & Wallace, 2005). It is therefore important that the level of decision-making should match the environment in which it takes place. For example, in the sports literature it is evident that tacit knowledge, the knowledge built up from experience (declarative knowledge) in the formulation of mental models, contributes to the separation of novice from expert coaches (Nash & Collins, 2006; Collins et al., 2012). In addition, we know from previous coach development research (Schinke et al., 1995; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007; Gilbert et al., 2006; Gilbert et al., 2009) and from the experiences of participant coaches outlined within Chapter 6, that sports coaches tend to have had previous experience in the sport that assists them negotiate coaching challenges. Considering the evidence relating to mental models and the significance of tacit knowledge to expertise, in both business and sport, it is unsurprising that there is misalignment between those who have no experience of cricket at an administrative level and those who have gathered numerous experiences as a coaches, because those without experience have little in the way of experience and knowledge to draw upon in order to make an informed decision. This factor may be one reason for the perceived misalignment between coach and administrator decision-making. It is important to note that coach and administrator decision-making was not specifically investigated within this study, and further investigation behind potential reasons for divergent decision-making may be required to develop this area of thought.

Differences in knowledge formation and experiences between coaches and administrators may also exacerbate other issues and negotiations. For example, the potential for poor coach evaluation increases due to poor decision-making and the divergent agendas, with some administrators being motivated by short-term, results driven approaches over that of long-term development. This short-term approach may not allow coaches to fully implement their philosophies to development and can lead to greater ambiguity and a more coach driven, autocratic strategy of coaching. Jones and Wallace (2005) contest that the ambiguity created by divergent views from employers, executives, administrators, sponsors and coaches alike, on what constitutes achievable long and short term goals, inevitably leads to tensions between the parties involved. They argue that success for many coaches is unobtainable due to the performance of the coach measured against the performance or results of their athletes. Importantly this
pathos (Jones & Wallace, 2005) is the resultant effect of coaching being a social practice whereby social interactions, across a number of agents (coaches, athletes, administrators), all add to the increasing complexity of these social encounters (Jones et al., 2004). As part of negotiating the ambiguous nature of coaching practice, coaches may wish to employ certain strategies to increase their effectiveness, such as enhancing team cohesion (Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985) or addressing important aspects of the athlete-coach relationship (Jowett & Noutamis, 2004; Jowett & Nezlak, 2012; Yang & Jowett, 2013; Davis & Jowett, 2014) in an attempt to foster a stronger relationship between the coach, the athlete/s and improved performance.

Even though many strategies attempt to smooth over the differences between coaches and athletes, there is a significant power differential between each (Galipeau & Trudel, 2006). It may be argued that understanding the dynamic power relationship between the coach and the athlete is assumed crucial to coaching practice (Jones et al., 2004). Evidence seems to suggest a greater understanding is required between the coach and the administrators. In developing this understanding, Galipeau and Trudel (2006) explain that dynamic of the coach-athlete relationship should be viewed from two notions of power, expert power and legitimate or positional power. Coaches may hold, in some instances, both of these power dynamics over the athlete. Simplistically, for example, coaches may hold expert power (French & Raven, 1959) based on the knowledge or skill of the coach, while at the same time hold legitimate power by virtue or position within the social structure (Jones et al., 2004). As mentioned previously, the studies considering aspects of power and control have only investigated the relationship between coach and athlete, however when considering the relationship between the coach and administrators according to agency theory (Sapianza, Korsgaard, Goulet, Hoogendam, 2000; Ferkins et al., 2005), the administrators, as the principal, would assume positional power over the coach, as the agent. Issues arise with regards to the functioning of this relationship when the principal, who should delegate responsibility to the agent, begins to make decisions that affect the duties of the agent. This lack of role clarity was evident when it was perceived that some administrators became involved in making decisions relating to player selection, while also not seeking the advice of coaches when making decisions relating to resource allocation that may impact directly on the coach’s environment.
In exploring the behaviours of HP directors/head coaches Cruickshank and Collins (2015a) found that coaches were required to consciously employ dark side behaviours in order to achieve short, medium and long term goals. Even though a significant proportion of Cruickshank and Collins (2015a) findings relate more to the dark side behaviours, such as machiavellian/mischievous, social dominance and performance-related ruthlessness, occurring between the team leader and their athletes and support staff, certain behaviours were evident when the team leaders negotiated specifically with the board and administrative level functioning. For example, Cruickshank and Collins (2015a) described one team leader exhibiting skeptical behaviours when expressing dissatisfaction at the lack of communication over planning and reviewing coming from the CEO, leading to potential operational issues impacting on the coach's environment. Another coach seemed aware that a lack of socio-political awareness did not stand him in good stead when expressing dissatisfaction with the board's allocation of resources. Although Cruickshank and Collins' (2015a) scenario is somewhat different to those outlined by the participants within chapter 7, it does provide some idea of, not only the power differential between administrators and coaches, but also the precarious position coaches can find themselves in, in relation to job security.

In relation to job security, it also emerged that participants felt the lack of a coaches' association to protect coach's interests, such as the protection already afforded to players, increased feelings of insecurity. This factor, relating to lack of coach security, also emerged in chapter 6, when experienced coaches were perceived not to apply for the top coaching positions due to fear of losing their position if the desired results were not achieved. The factors of coach vulnerability and job security may be considered unique to the SA cricket-coaching environment, however they do again stress the complexity created by differences in goals and ideologies leading to differences in agency and power between coaches and administrators (Thompson, Potrac, & Jones, 2015; Cruickshank & Collins, 2015a). Thompson et al. (2015), in a separate interpretive study, explored the micro-political coaching environment and found that due to certain market related factors, such as limited tenure and a competitive labour market, coaches were more likely to develop coping behaviours in order to reinforce or advance their own positions (Jones et al., 2004; Thompson et al., 2015).

Even though the studies by Thompson and colleagues and Potrac, Jones, Gilbourne, & Nelson, (2012) are based on the experiences and perceptions of one
individual they do offer some understanding of the complexities of power occurring at the micro-level of coaching practice and provide insight into the broader coach vulnerabilities occurring within this particular study. This exploratory study did not specifically set out to investigate aspects of power and agency between coaches and administrators, however it does highlight the need for further investigation in this complex area.

7.5 Future considerations and limitations

There are a number of limitations associated with this study that need to be addressed, for example, the emergent findings are only from the perspective of the coach and not also from the perspective of the administrators too. Even though the messages that have emerged may be perceived as overly negative they do provide empirical evidence that recognises the ambiguity, dynamic complexity and darker side of sports coaching and sports organisational functioning (Thompson et al., 2013; Cruickshank & Collins, 2015a). Due to this study intentionally focusing on the practical implications for SA cricket, there are inherently some limitations. It is important to note, the findings relating to this study only reflect the perceptions of SA cricket coaches and it is acknowledged that only interviewing coaches from one sport and from one nation limits the generalisability of findings to other nations and across other sports. Another common limitation also associated with qualitative research surrounds the use of small sample sizes and purposeful sampling (Guba, 1978). However when employing a qualitative approach it is important to not only underscore the weaknesses, but the strengths too. Firstly, this study followed a pragmatic approach and therefore the issues of being able to generalise findings across other environments is not at the forefront of this approach. In choosing a pragmatic approach a consideration is to acknowledge the usefulness or practical application of the findings (Patton, 1990). That said, a significant strength of this study was the nature of the sample. The coaches participating within this study had developed significant practical experience, not only building up coaching experiences across multiple development environments, but also building up experiences within different coaching contexts, and therefore have developed, over a number of years, an acute knowledge of the SA cricketing coaching environment. This study, therefore, may offer user generalisation, as the findings may contribute conceptually to research and developing further understanding regarding the role of the coach and the socio-political complexities involved in coach-administrator relations (Peshkin, 1993).
Using semi-structured interviews to collect these individual's perceptions provided rich extracts and information relating to the coach's relationship with administrators. Even though it may be argued that the context under investigation is narrow, the depth and breadth of participants experiences and the rich information provided, adds to the current organisational sports management and coach education literature. For example, these findings not only stress the need for future coach leadership models to consider how coaches 'manage upwards' (e.g. to board level) (Cruickshank and Collins, 2015a; Cruickshank & Collins, 2015b), but also how coaches negotiate this dynamic relationship in order to be effective in their practice. As part of this negotiation, it may also be important for future coach development research to consider how this relationship affects coach decision-making and progression. It also highlights the need for current sports organisational literature to gain a better understanding of how managerial-level leaders manage downwards across a variety of sports development environments and not just at the elite level. In addition, these findings raise certain issues for both sports management researchers to consider, due specifically to the lack of focus this area of research has given into how macro policy makers manage and affect the micro coaching environment, by focusing too heavily on broad governance and stakeholder issues. In order for this area to receive more attention and for effective change to occur, further research is required not only from both the perspective of the coach and the administrators, but also across a number of sports and sporting cultures.

There is a strong emphasis in the sports management literature taking a macro-level approach to investigate policy level power struggles between organisations and stakeholders (Fink, Pastore & Riemer, 2001; Wolfe, Meenaghan & O'Sullivan, 2002), however, few studies have focused on this area as it is difficult to observe power in sports organisations (Byers, Slack & Parent, 2012). There is small, but growing, support for coach research to adopt a multidirectional approach, one that acknowledges power, agency and the interaction between the coach and all stakeholders, both horizontally (support staff) and vertically (CEO, Boards of Directors, media) (Cruickshank & Collins, 2012a; 2013; 2015a; 2015b; Cruickshank et al., 2014; Cruickshank et al., 2015). Importantly, the adoption of a multidirectional approach recognises that the coach is required to develop a certain level of socio-political awareness and micro-political understanding within their immediate, and across the breadth of their, coaching environment (Cruickshank &
Collins, 2015b). Adopting such an approach recognises that coaches may be vulnerable to differences in conflicting ideologies and goals between individuals (Thompson et al., 2013). Considering the findings that have emerged from within this particular study, conflicting situations may have a greater possibility of occurring and having a greater effect due to aspects of power and agency between coaches and administrators within SA cricket.

The findings within this study highlight the need for the relationship between coach and administrator to develop a culture of mutual trust and respect, thus leading to a more conducive working relationship. Certain areas of importance were highlighted by coaches, such as having proactive rather than reactive administrators, a consistent message with regards to development and performance outcomes and of being more supportive of the coach by allowing him to express his philosophy and vision. Importantly, Fletcher and Arnold (2011) and Arnold et al. (2012) support a number of these points which stressed not only for organisations to create an optimal environment by allowing sports managers the freedom to operate, but also to foster an inclusive environment that developed relationships and promotes open communication. An important aspect to this is to educate the administrators by developing and supporting their understanding of the complex role of the coach in developing cricketers at the different level of development. Central to developing this understanding is for sports management research, together with sports literature, to instigate a multidiscipline approach to closing the gap between those leading at an organisational level and those stakeholders leading and working more closely with arguably the sports organisations most important asset. The athlete.
CHAPTER 8 – CONCLUSIONS, GENERAL DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Conclusions and general discussion

8.1.1 Overview

This PhD has focused on designing and executing a broad exploration of the SA cricket development environment across four features: Organisational Culture, Structural Change, Coach Development, Coach-Administrator Relationship. Consequently, the aims of this thesis are fourfold:

1. To explore the use of an existing organisational framework, the Cultural Web, from the domain of organisational culture management to investigate organisational culture within SA cricket development environment

2. To gather an understanding of the development pathway of SA cricketers and investigate if the changes made to the provincial structure in 2004 have impacted on the pre-2004 development trajectory of a SA cricketer

3. To explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression

4. To explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket

8.1.2 Aim 1

8.1.2.1 Rationale

In a recent systematic review of the literature, Maitland et al. (2015) explain that there are currently only 33 studies investigating organisational culture in sports organisations. Of these, a significant number have focused predominantly on two aspects of organisational culture 1) The principal use of Schein’s (1985; 1990; 1994; 2004) definitions of organisational culture and 2) An emphasis on the ideational or intangible artefacts of organisational culture. These softer concepts concentrate on the values, beliefs and norms of a particular environment, by focusing on the taken-for-granted assumptions that are manifested in the behaviours and perceptions of individuals (Brooks, 2009). In a number of early organisational studies, Johnson (1988) and Pettigrew (1990) explain two important factors highlighting the need to include the materialistic or tangible artefacts with
organisational culture studies. The first involves the politics of an organisation, whereby the power distribution of people who have a vested interest in the beliefs and assumptions of the organisation need to be realised. The second comprises the interdependence of the organisation and connects culture with structure, systems and people.

Seemingly, to date, no study has adopted the use of both the materialistic and the ideational artefacts associated with effective organisational culture, nor has any study utilised an organisational framework, such as the Cultural Web, to assemble both these categories of artefacts in the analysis. In addition, the studies that have investigated organisational culture in sport have focused on narrow and confined, usually HP, environments. It seems none to date have offered a broad exploration of organisational culture of a sports organisation, across its many levels, thus highlighting a clear need to develop further understanding in this area.

8.1.2.2 Methodology

In order to accomplish aim 1, a qualitative methodology was employed involving the purposeful and representative selection of uniquely experienced players, coaches and administrators with a distinctive and rich declarative knowledge of the SA cricket environment. In accessing this exclusive and in-depth perspective, the data underwent a robust assessment by way of both directed (deductive) and inductive content analysis in order to thematically display the findings in a credible and coherent style.

8.1.2.3 Results and discussion

The resultant deductive-inductive analysis yielded a number of findings that led to the practical adaptation of the Cultural Web to suit the SA cricket development environment.

1. Due to the considerable effect the materialistic artefacts have on the overall structure and function of the environment these were labelled as Macro-level effects. Subsequently, it emerged that the ideational artefacts were more evident and had more effect at the operational or development pathway end of the organisation and were therefore referred to as Micro-level effects.

2. Analysis led to the combining of both the Symbols and Stories ideational artefacts due to each being interrelated.
Additional results emerged that may be described as unique, but useful and practical knowledge for the SA cricket development environment.

1. It emerged that the materialistic artefacts highlighted significant organisation structure issues associated with a hierarchical decision-making and a questionable board-related electoral system.

2. These issues of hierarchical decision-making and a questionable board-related electoral system led to further interrelated issues to the operation and effective functioning of the Power Structures and Control Systems artefacts, more specifically impacting on the role of the coach.

Analysis using the Organisation Structures artefact not only highlighted the importance of subcultures within the SA development pathway, but also how each element in the development pathway interacted during important player development transitions. For example, it provided a real-world overview and practical example of the selection and de-selection process of a sports pyramid model, highlighting the practical difficulty SA cricket have in providing opportunities for all when there are significant areas to cover. In addition, it also explains the nature of development and the interaction between SA cricket’s mass participation and elite performance and the importance of other elements in the pathway, such as the school, club and university, making the need for transitions between the two to be structured and coherent in order for this to be possible.

Even though a focus of using the Cultural Web as a framework of analysis was to include the materialistic (tangible) artefacts into the analysis, the ideational (intangible) artefacts played a significant role in understanding the interaction between the national culture and the professional culture of cricket in SA. Certain aspects surrounding rituals and routines highlighted the importance of understanding social and socio-political change, emphasising the need for realignment, and new values and norms to be adopted that take into account the changing SA society. For example a number of factors since the abolition of apartheid, such as social and racial changes to the team structure, the nature and format of the game, have led to certain historic rituals and routines no longer being significant features of the learning and development process.

Even though this study offers a broad investigation into organisational culture of a sports organisation, it does allow for the deconstruction of the
prevailing organisational culture, emphasising not only system specific structures, but also their subsequent alignment to the organisational paradigm. This deconstruction allows then for further investigation to be more focused on those areas or subcultures where possible non-alignment with the organisational paradigm may occur. For example, on a practical level, for SA this would occur at the environments between the school and the franchise level. A possible example of this emerged due to the interrelationship between the Macro-level artefacts and the Micro-level artefacts. It emerged during analysis of the stories and symbols artefacts that it was imperative to find black heroes to act as symbols, in the expectation of driving cricket deeper and making it more relatable to a larger proportion of SA society. It has emerged that being able to achieve this outcome requires better alignment across certain aspects of the system. Broadly speaking, a strategic plan is needed that sets out a better understanding and support for crucial roles, such as the coach, and coherent development programmes and facilities. It is important for these to be implemented, not only at the mass participation grassroots and performance levels, but where important transitions take place, such as the school, club, university and provincial level in order to bridge the gap between generating mass interest and elite performance.

**8.1.3 Aim 2**

**8.1.3.1 Rationale**

Currently sports organisations face an immense challenge in coordinating talent development processes, stressing the importance of investigating and identifying how the different variables or elements of a successful development pathway interact. Within the organisational psychology and sports management literature, a number of studies have described the importance of policy developments to drive certain factors that can support and create elite success, such as financial support, foundation of participation, adequate training facilities, talent development and identification systems coach provision and support and international competition (De Bosscher et al., 2006; De Bosscher et al., 2008). Inclusive of this, there is a significant area of research outlining the importance of key stages or transitions occurring within the development environment that the individual needs to negotiate on the way to becoming an elite level athlete. This complex and interrelated environment requires a significant level of planning, across a number of areas, in order for coherent practice to be implemented.
(Martindale et al., 2005). To date, this multifaceted approach, taken to investigating talent development, has meant that the literature lacks an integrated and holistic view of a talent development environment. In light of this, there is a clear need to provide a more general and broad investigation of the nature and elements within a development environment and how these elements may interact in order to produce elite level athletes. In addition, there are a number of organisational and sports management researchers who outline a certain level of uniformity or homogeneity across elite sporting systems due to cross-nation sports policy adoption (Houlihan, 1997; Green & Oakley, 2001). Often, this adoption process is undertaken without a critical review of the system to be adopted and whether this system is fit for purpose (Collins & Bailey, 2012). Considering this, there is also a real need to develop empirical evidence investigating structural change and its associated effects on the efficacy of a talent development environment.

8.1.3.2 Methodology

In achieving Aim 2, a semi-structured interview protocol was implemented across a broad range of uniquely experienced members operating within and across the SA cricket talent development environment (players, coaches and administrators). In order to reveal the in-depth declarative knowledge of the selected sample, the data underwent scrutiny and review by way of inductive thematic analysis in order to gain in-depth insight into the coaches’ perceptions.

8.1.3.3 Results and discussion

Analysis revealed a number of interrelated issues that have emerged as a consequence of structural change, unique to a SA cricket talent development environment; a) The reduction in opportunities at the top level of domestic cricket, b) The loss of competitive standard of club and affiliate level cricket has lead to a reduction in viable pathway options, c) Provincial and franchise level coaches reduce the identification of talent from club, tertiary and provincial cricket environments due to the perceived lack of competitiveness, d) The importance of representative age-related academies is questioned as a fundamental development environment, e) The increased importance of early age related identification has removed talented young adolescent cricketers from the club structure, f) Clubs play less of a role in the development pathway due to a weaker and less competitive club environment not enabling a culture of talent development.
and positive role modelling. g) Adolescent cricketers may begin specialising earlier, in an attempt to be part of each affiliate internally controlled development structure, and h) Adolescent cricketers who have developed later may find themselves in a learning and development environment that may lack progression, due to factors such as quality of competition and are more likely to exit the game altogether, thus driving down the average age of the SA cricketer.

Developing a fundamental understanding of the SA cricket talent development environment and the interaction of elements within the pathway may allow SA cricket to adapt and concentrate efforts on the areas of sensitivity that have been highlighted. By exploring structural change within the SA cricket development system, certain issues have been raised that may not have been considered previously. For example, it may be argued that structural change has seemingly increased the possibility of *Chance* (Gagné, 2004; 2010;) within the SA cricket development pathway, because structural change has altered historic pathways and reduced opportunities, thus adding an additional barrier to the already challenging and complex performance and age-related threshold measures.

8.1.3 Aim 3

8.1.3.1 Rationale

Previous coach development research has concluded that coaches may follow a similar staged process of development as that of athletes (Bloom, 1985; Côté, 1999) by presenting a staged progression to coach development on the path to becoming expert (Côté, Salmela, Trudel et al., 1995; Côté, Salmela & Russell, 1995; Schinke et al., 1995; Gilbert et al., 2006; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Erickson et al., 2007).

To add, previous investigations into the development of expertise have traditionally focused on the performer, rather than that of the coach (Nash & Sproule, 2009), with a key premise highlighting that the development of knowledge may arise from many different sources (Nash & Sproule, 2009). This proposes that the development trajectory of a coach may be more complicated and complex than linear, and staged.

It is now widely acknowledged that the coach is a key driver in constructing, enhancing and facilitating the quality of learning environment in order to support
performance (Bloom, 1985; Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Phillips, et al., 2010). As such, the coach forms a key component of any talent development environment. Bearing these points in mind, and in keeping with the pragmatic approach of this thesis, the objective of this chapter is to explore the learning and development environment of SA cricket coaches and their career progression.

8.1.3.2 Methodology

In realising Aim 3, a semi-structured qualitative enquiry was constructed involving the selection of a representative sample (school, club, university, provincial, franchise) of coaches with numerous unique and multi-layered coaching experiences having gathered significant declarative knowledge across the SA cricket development environment. In retrieving this distinct and in-depth perspective, the data underwent a vigorous and credible analysis and review by way of inductive thematic analysis in order to present the findings in a clear and logical style.

8.1.3.3 Results and Discussion

Following a robust review of the data, three higher-order themes emerged. Each of the three themes contained a number of additional lower-order themes that may be deemed both useful and practical to a SA cricket development environment.

1.) Experience and development and knowledge

Two significant findings emerged concerning the background of the participant coaches. The first is that before turning to coaching, all but two of the coaches had gathered previous playing experience to a professional first class and international level of cricket. The second is that approximately half of the coaches had gathered previous experience as PE teachers and teachers. Both these experiences were noted as helpful in making the transition into coaching, thus confirming the benefits of experiential learning as a principal source of knowledge in the formation of expertise (Lyle, 2002; Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Nash & Collins, 2006; Jones et al., 2009).

In addition to the experiential learning that had clearly taken place for these coaches through playing and teaching, coach education was also deemed to be both important and necessary, with many of the coaches stating that they enjoyed this aspect of their development. Inclusive of this, a number of coaches explained
the benefit of aligning themselves to a significant person who fulfilled a mentor role, as opposed to experiencing the assistance of a formal mentor.

This study confirms that coaches may learn through a combination of experiential learning, formal learning, and learning through mechanisms such as mentoring. Even though it was beyond the scope of this study to specifically scrutinise the content of CSA coach education, the findings may hold some significance to coach education development in SA cricket.

2.) Disparities across operational levels

Raised earlier in Chapter 4 as a point of concern, was the lack of control that some coaches experienced in relation to both resource allocation and decision-making. Within Chapter 6 the lack of control each coach experienced manifested itself differently within the coach’s operational environment and was dependent on a number of factors, such as; 1) The experience of the coach and 2) The operational level of the coach and the nature of the board of directors allowing the coach further control.

In terms of experience, the former playing background of the coach was deemed important, as it assisted in developing credibility with the players and also allowed increased control and power over the operational environment. Interestingly, for the coaches operating at the levels below franchise, the perception of power was less evident, by way of less control over their playing environment and fewer resources.

In addition to less control, it also emerged that information and knowledge transfer occurred less amongst the developmental level coaches than at the higher-level coaches due to an absence of trust that was exacerbated by a lack of a shared philosophy to long-term athletic development.

Considering the importance of developmental coaching as a key stage for talent identification to occur (Lyle, 2002) it may be beneficial for SA cricket to review the education and support that these coaches receive, in order to identify and develop players more effectively.

3.) Barriers of the coach development pathway

Findings from Chapter 5 revealed that the 2004 structural changes led to implications relating to the development trajectory of a SA cricketer. Again, these
structural changes also created a number of associated issues affecting the development environment and career progression of coaches.

Originally, it was perceived that the changes would create opportunities for coaches further down the coach development pathway. In reality, opportunities were created, but these were mainly at the franchise level. Participant coaches’ perceived progression was narrow and defined and associated with a number of factors, such as the experience of the coach and attainment of the correct level of coach qualification, i.e. a Level 4 qualification. The level of experience and level of qualification required were not perceived to be the barrier, but rather how and if achieving these two requirements was possible. For example, it was perceived that gaining the necessary experience needed to be from within the provincial development player pathway. In addition, obtaining the Level 4 qualification was challenging due to limited places and also coaches being nominated from within the provincial pathway. In effect, this meant that some coaches who held a Level 3 qualification, had international experience, and were operating outside the provincial player pathway, perceived it as difficult to progress their careers because of these factors. Seemingly, similar issues that had previously arisen for the players had arisen for the coaches, implying that some experienced coaches who were operating outside the provincial development pathway system were dislocated from those who were operating inside the development system.

Other factors perceived to limit career progression included 1) Significant geographical distances between franchises dictating coaches would need to consider relocation in order to progress and 2) It was perceived many of the experienced cricket coaches did not wish to progress to the elite domestic level due to the perceived lack power and control over their coaching environment leading to a lack of job security.

Going forward, it may be constructive for SA cricket to engage with, and utilise more effectively, those experienced coaches operating at a development level outwith the provincial pathway in order to broaden the efficiency and coherency across development structures.
8.1.4 Aim 4

8.1.4.1 Rationale

When broadly considering the literature relating to the relationship between the coach and the administrator a number of factors become evident. 1) To date there do not appear to be any empirical studies investigating this relationship within a SA sporting environment, 2) There does not appear to be any studies considering this relationship within cricket, 3) Sports related research investigating relationships and developing expertise have focused specifically on the relationship between the athlete and the coach, 4) Organisational psychology research investigating managerial-level leadership has, broadly speaking, focused on the traits of leaders or the situations in which leadership contexts occur (Fletcher and Arnold, 2011), 5) A small number of studies have focused on developing an understanding of dynamic power relations, however this too has focused on the dynamic relationship between the coach and the athlete (Potrac et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2004) and 6) Within the organisational literature there appears to be a focus on the factors associated with effectively leading and managing a High Performance environment (Gould et al., 2002; Fletcher & Wagstaff, 2009; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Arnold et al., 2012). Importantly, these studies, and others such as Cruickshank and Collins (2012a), Cruickshank et al. (2014) and Cruickshank et al. (2015) and the interactions between coach and sports leaders (administrators) are addressed as factors of importance, however they are normally included alongside a number of other factors relating to effective HP functioning, rather than providing a more detailed analysis of the relationship between the coach and the sports leader (administrators). Earlier in Study 1, the findings highlighted a number of tensions relating to differences in power and control between coaches and administrators. In light of this factor, together with the lack of empirical research in the area, the aim of this study is to explore and illuminate the operational relationship between the coach and the administration within the context of SA cricket.

8.1.4.2 Methodology

Due to the exploratory nature of Aim 4, a semi-structured interview protocol was constructed. A significant factor relating to the research design was not only to select a representative sample of coaches currently operating across the various SA cricket development environments (school, club, university, provincial,
franchise), but to also select a group of coaches who had gathered a rich and unique number of experiences across several SA cricket development environments. The significance of this was to select those coaches who may not provide only a distinct and in-depth perspective, but also be able to provide a perspective of the relationship between coach and administrator, not only from within their current role, but from within previous roles too. In order to reveal this broad perspective the data underwent a rigorous and credible analysis and review by way of inductive thematic analysis in order to present and report the findings in a coherent style.

8.1.4.3 Results and discussion

After review of the data, four higher-order and nine lower-order themes emerged of practical significance to a SA cricket development environment. A single noteworthy factor emerged from the analysis that seemingly impacted across a number of aspects of the coach’s environment. It appeared that a certain number of administrators lacked a good enough understanding of the game of cricket to make informed decisions. This lack of understanding impacted on the coach’s environment in a number of ways:

1) There was a general lack of understanding concerning what was involved in developing a cricketer and the significance of the coach’s role in this process,
2) A perception of both incorrect and biased decision-making, exacerbated by a perceived lack of understanding concerning the game,
3) The lack of understanding was perceived to have detrimental effects on how the coach’s performance is evaluated and
4) There was a perceived increase in resources being allocated incorrectly and not to the important development areas.

A number of similar points were raised by a different set of participants within Study 1 (Chapter 4). In explaining this, questions were raised relating to positions of control and power residing with certain individuals who were not well informed about the environment over which they reside, leading to a misalignment between understanding and subsequent decision-making. Other examples concerning a misalignment between clarity and understanding between roles, related to coaches perceiving administrators to make decisions outwith what coaches perceive their remit to be, such as making decisions on player selections. Inclusive of the issues concerning a perceived lack of control highlighted in earlier chapters, another factor regarding a lack of coach security also emerged earlier in Chapter 6. A lack of security amongst experienced coaches manifested itself when
it was perceived they were unwilling to apply for the top coaching positions due to fear of losing their position if the desired results were not achieved. The findings within this study revealed a similar issue when participant coaches perceived the lack of a coach’s association, to protect coaches’ interests, increased these feelings of insecurity.

In addressing some of these issues, an important message that emerged was for coaches and administrator to develop a culture of mutual trust and respect. However, for this to occur, certain areas of importance were stressed by coaches, such as; having proactive rather than reactive administrators, communicating a consistent message with regards to development and performance outcomes and developing relationships by being more supportive of the coach and allowing them to express their philosophy and vision. In developing this inclusive climate, there seems to be a need to educate administrators in SA cricket by improving and supporting their understanding of the complex role of the coach in developing cricketers.

8.2 Recommendations

8.2.1 Implications for other contexts

The focal point of this PhD thesis was to offer a pragmatic approach to exploring the SA cricket development environment and in so doing focus on four main components; Organisational Culture, Sporting Pathway and Structural Change, Coach Development, Learning and Career Progression and Coach-Administrator Relationships. The preceding discussion and conclusion section in Chapter 8 has focused on those findings that may be both practical and useful to SA cricket. It may therefore be argued that this study is limited in its implications for practice because it lacks generalisability for a number of reasons, such as focusing solely on a qualitative methodology with small, purposeful samples and only concentrates on one sport operating in a single, unique environment. Importantly, however, due to the unique, diverse and in-depth experiences of the participants used across all four studies, this thesis may offer user generalisability (Peshkin, 1993) and may therefore contribute theoretically and conceptually to research and theory generation across all four domains under investigation. The basic premise for this is that the four chosen components may form constituent parts across a number of modern sports development pathways, specifically those sports containing multiple development components, such as mass participation,
age-related youth structures, amateur club structures, regional and national structures leading to international competition. As such, findings may contribute to developing a baseline for understanding and comparison across other sporting environments.

8.2.1.1 Implications for other contexts – Study 1

Going forward, the first study confirms the Cultural Web as a credible framework to use in investigating the organisational culture of a sports organisation. Utilising the materialistic artefacts in the analysis has provided support for Pettigrew (1990) and Johnson’s (1985) assertions, by underscoring the importance of these artefacts in highlighting the politics within an organisation and the interdependence across power, control and organisational structures. For example, findings from this study confirm Johnson et al.’s (2008) conclusions that crucial decision-makers are the individuals who operate closest to the paradigm, thus leading to potential implications for organisational, power and control structures. This study also confirms the importance of organisational design and structure as significant elements to organisational culture (Johnson et al., 2008). Using the framework allows a sports organisation to understand how both the macro-level factors (materialistic artefacts) interact with each other, but also how these interact with the wider, more culturally specific, micro-level factors (ideational artefacts). Understanding these factors, and how they interact and align with the organisational paradigm are important for effective sports organisational functioning. These factors make the Cultural Web framework a credible and useful tool for sports organisational researchers or consultants to use in gaining a better understanding of the effective functioning of a sports organisation.

8.2.1.2 Implications for other contexts – Study 2

Even though Study 2 may be confined to exploration of structural change within a single sporting development pathway, the study holds far wider implications for applied practice. Exploring the effects associated with structural change has provided the benefit of gathering a fundamental knowledge of the talent development process that is contextual and specific to the requirement of the sport and learning environment. The findings within Study 2 reinforce those of Martindale et al, (2005) who suggested a social environment through the provision of practice and play, which in a SA development context may be found in the school and club environments, together with coherent avenues for transition and
support and can be a major influence on the progression in a cricketing development pathway due to the late developing nature of the game. Gathering this fundamental understanding may allow sports organisations to be more informed before the automatic adoption of cross-cultural policies and strategies that have proven successful in other environments (Bailey & Collins, 2013).

Inclusive of those factors listed above, the findings also reinforce the theoretical models that acknowledge sports development as an individual and non-linear process (Abbot et al., 2005; Simonton, 1999). Findings also confirm cricket as a late developing sport (Phillips et al., 2010), signifying the importance of those development environments between mass participation and elite performance (school/club/university) to retain structure, competition and exhibit the greatest flexibility and coherency. These findings add weight to those views that do not support development being related to the tapering, unidirectional and staged development of the pyramid metaphor (Bailey and Collins, 2013). Going forward, it is therefore important for future talent development research to consider a broader approach and to investigate how the elements within talent development pathways interact across alternative sports and in different environments, before focusing more specifically on certain elements of the pathway.

8.2.1.3 Implications for other contexts – Study 3

Previous studies exploring the development experiences of elite level coaches, have focused more on how elite level coaches developed expertise and more than on the environments in which they were operating (Lynch & Mallet, 2006; Nash & Sproule, 2009). Even though offering a broad approach, that includes investigating the coach’s development environment may be regarded as a limitation, in doing so, this study highlights significant issues and barriers relating to the development level of a coach and how these operational differences can impact on the career development trajectory of a coach. That said, a number of findings have confirmed previous research. For example, findings from this study, such as levels of previous athletic career and learning opportunities, are similar to the earlier research of Schinke et al. (1995); Gilbert et al. (2006); Lynch & Mallet (2006); Erickson et al. (2007) and Nash and Sproule (2009) who covered different sports across different environments.

In addition, this study confirms that only obtaining a linear, one-dimensional view of coach career development is not sufficient to provide a detailed picture of
coach development in a complex environment. For example, findings challenge the assumption that those former athletes who hold both referent and expert power will naturally progress to elite level coaching positions and that coach progression may not be that straightforward. Thus, the linear trajectory of coach progression is challenged on two points. The first is due to coaches who hold both referent and expert power choosing not to assume senior coaching positions due to a perceived lack of control and power they may have over the coaching environment. In addition, some experienced coaches may find themselves operating out with the formalised development pathways and therefore overlooked.

Further research is required to offer understanding of the barriers that coaches may face as they negotiate and transition across these stages of coach development and for this not only to be focused at the elite coaching level, but at the developmental level, where coaching practice seems to be at its least supported and most complex.

As coach education becomes even more important and globally prevalent, further emphasis will be placed on coaching becoming a credible profession (Duffy et al., 2010; ICCE, 2000). These findings suggest further stage-specific and detailed empirical research is required into how useful coach education provision is to the progression of coaches along the development pathway and whether this process facilitates or can negate the development trajectory of coaches. This study proposes that future research should not accept a linear and one-dimensional view of coach development, but rather consider it to be full of complex negotiations that require investigating both prevailing environmental conditions and contexts that can impact on both learning and development.

**8.2.1.4 Implications for other contexts – Study 4**

Findings from Study 4 (Chapter 7) provide empirical evidence of the negating effect ambiguous and divergent views may have on the relationship between administrators and coaches. These conflicting views, particularly in relation to what constitutes achievable long and short-term goals, may be exacerbated by differences in knowledge formation and experiences between coaches and administrators that may also lead to intensify other issues and negotiations, such as the effective allocation of resources.

The findings recognise the ambiguity, dynamic complexity and darker side of sports coaching and sports organisational functioning (Thompson et al., 2013;
Cruickshank & Collins, 2015a) but also provide support for coach research to adopt a multidirectional approach, one that acknowledges power, agency and the importance of communication and relationship building in the interaction between the coach and all stakeholders, both horizontally (support staff) and vertically (CEO, Boards of Directors, media) (Fletcher & Arnold, 2011; Arnold et al., 2012; Cruickshank & Collins, 2013a; Cruickshank et al., 2014; 2015).

Due to the lack of research in the area, findings not only stress the need for future coach leadership models to consider how coaches manage vertically or manage upwards (e.g. to board level) (Cruickshank and Collins, 2015a), but also how coaches negotiate this dynamic relationship in order to be effective in their practice. It also highlights the need for current sports organisational literature to better understand how managerial-level sports leaders manage downwards across a variety of sports development environments and not just at the elite level. Central to developing this understanding is for sports management research, together with sports literature, to instigate a multidiscipline approach to closing the gap between those leading at an organisational level and those working more closely with the athlete.

### 8.2.2 Practical implications for SA cricket

The aim of this thesis was to provide a pragmatic and holistic picture of the SA cricket development environment across four features, Organisational Culture, Structural Change, Coach Development and Coach-Administrator Relationships. However, in remaining true to its pragmatic focus of generating practical and meaningful knowledge (Giacobbi et al. 2005; Savage et al. 2017) for the benefit of SA cricket, this section will provide an integrated overview of the considerations and implications across 3 areas, the player pathway, the coach development and governance and administration. The rationale for providing a single, integrated overview is due to the interrelated nature of the four features, but to also provide a cohesive overview that is both practical and useful to SA cricket.

### 8.2.1 Player pathway findings

Analysis revealed SA cricket applies significant focus on mass participation in order to grow the game at the grass roots level. There is also a strong influence of the school structure to maintain athletic development, together with a significant focus on age-related provincial cricket as a pathway to provincial and franchise level cricket.
It emerged a number of changes have occurred to the development pathway since SA cricket was readmitted to the international game. It may be argued one significant, but indirect, change was the loss of the army as a competitive development element from the pathway. It was perceived the loss of this development element and its associated factors, such as the relationship between the compulsory conscription and the level of tertiary level student applications has contributed to a long-term reduction in the competitive nature of club and tertiary level cricket. The other significant structural change was the adoption of the franchise structure in 2004. This direct change to the pathway is perceived to have played a part in reducing the playing base and narrowing the performance pathway. For example, it emerged the following point has led to significant repercussions further down the pathway.

1. The perceived reduction in professional playing opportunities at the top level of domestic cricket with 11 provinces becoming 6 franchises, relating to an approximate reduction in professional cricketers from 160 to 100.

This has in turn led to a number of factors such as,

1a. Provincial and franchise level coaches reduce the identification and selection of talent from club, tertiary and provincial cricket environments due to the perceived lack of competitiveness. It is believed these environments do not prepare individuals adequately for competition at franchise level.

1b. The importance of age-related identification and selection has removed talented young adolescent cricketers from the club structure to the academy environment

1c. Clubs play less of a role in the development pathway due to a weaker and less competitive club environment not enabling a culture of talent development and positive role modeling. A reason for this is individuals are less likely to drop down from the provincial or franchise environment to play in the club environment. The academy environment removing young talented players from the club structure, thus reducing the overall strength of the competition, also exacerbates this factor.

1d. The reduction in the competitive standard of club and affiliate level cricket has lead to a reduction in viable pathway options. In the past it was
perceived individuals could be selected from the club environments to play top-level first class cricket and then go on to represent SA.

The reduction in the competitiveness of the club, tertiary and provincial structures has led to the increasing possibility of the following factors,

2. Adolescent cricketers who have developed later may find themselves in a learning and development environment lacking progression, due to factors such as quality of competition, and are more likely to exit the game altogether, driving down the average age of the SA cricketer.

3. In turn, adolescent cricketers may begin specialising earlier in an attempt to be part of each provinces internally controlled development structure. Research suggests this is detrimental to long-term athletic development, especially in a late developing sport.

4. Due to their perceived effect on club, tertiary and provincial development environments, the importance and the effectiveness of representative age-related academies is questioned as a fundamental development environment due them lacking focus on the specific factors required to develop cricketers ready for a more intense level of competition.

Considering all the above factors, a number of sensitive areas of drop-out occur within the development pathway. These areas and instances of potential drop-out include;

1. Young cricketers who have not received a professional contract to franchise level leave the school environment and decide not to enter the club/university/provincial environments due to their perceived lack of competitiveness and progression to franchise level.

2. When individuals who are currently playing within the club/university/provincial environments do not progress across environments, even after significant performances. After time, it is perceived this factor increases the likelihood of these individuals leaving the game altogether.

A perceived contributing factor for the occurrence of these areas of potential drop-out was the diminished strength of the club/university/provincial environments in many regions, leaving it to the major urban centres to provide the structures that support development.
8.2.1.1 Player pathway considerations and recommendations

In considering the overall health of the game it is important for SA cricket to focus attention on the development elements within the aforementioned areas of transition, together with the current role the provincial academy plays in player development. For example, to not only consider the role of the provincial academy in the competitive development of young cricketers, but how the academy provides a flexible, coherent and competitive bridge between the school, club, provincial and franchise environments. Attention should also focus on the maintaining the overall competitive strength of the school, club, tertiary and provincial environments.

By maintaining the competitive strength of these developmental elements may influence the older and more experienced players to remain in the game for longer, while at the same time impacting positively on the learning environments for young players. For example, in order to increase the overall strength of the club environment would be to focus on the administrative, coaching and leadership functioning of the club and to ensure the club environment plays a part in providing both social and sporting development aspects to the overall improvement of cricket in SA. In the past, it may be argued the club environment received players rather than developed players by relying on both the nature of the development pathway and competitive strength of the environment. Due to the change of focus away from the club environment, clubs cannot remain a passive development environment, but need to be more proactive in their leadership and administration to regain lost ground to again be an integral part of the development process, particularly during and after school.

It is also important to not only consider each development element in isolation, but rather how each may provide a competitive advantage for the other. For example, it is important to not only consider the connection upwards between the school, club, tertiary environments and provincial environment, but to also consider what the provincial environment can offer downwards, such as positive player role modeling and expectation management for developing players to observe the behaviours required to progress.

In addition, considering the significant focus on mass participation, by maintaining these environments by focusing on their competitive strength and coherency may impact positively on increasing the selection flexibility across development elements and reduce possible developmental stagnation and
dislocation between these environments, thus reducing the possible effects of player drop-out. These considerations may also lead to an increase in the opportunities for players from all social and racial backgrounds, thus more broadly and better reflecting the socio-political changes that have taken place in SA.

8.2.2. Coach development findings

Exploring the developmental experiences of a range of SA cricket coaches has highlighted factors deemed important for coach development and educational programs to consider. For example, it emerged that the coaches placed significant importance on their past experiences, not only as players, but also their previous background in teaching and physical education in helping them transition into cricket coaching. To add, the coaches saw significant developmental and learning benefits to coach education and the development of communities of practice between coaches by promoting open discussions. Coaches also acknowledged the benefits of informally aligning themselves with like-minded significant persons (or mentors). It is important to note that these significant persons may not have known they were fulfilling the role of mentor, as the relationship was formed in a natural way and one underpinned by guidance and support.

These factors may be crucial for SA cricket coach education programs to consider when providing the most conducive environment for coaches to learn and develop, especially for those who are at the beginning of their coaching careers, operating in the age-related players pathways or amateur environments or may not have developed the experiences from a past playing or teaching career.

As was the case with regards the player develop pathway, changes to structure of the development pathway have had implications for the career development of coaches across a number of points. For example, when the franchise restructuring process took place in 2004 it was envisaged more opportunities for coach progression up the development pathway would be available. However, in reality, while opportunities were seemingly available at franchise level due to the new structure, fewer development opportunities were perceived for coaches at provincial level and in particular to those coaches outside the provincial pathways. Significantly, it was perceived coach career progression to franchise level was dependent on a number of factors.
1. A former playing background was perceived important, with these coaches experiencing increased control and power over their operational environment.

2. A level 4 coach qualification was perceived a minimum requirement.

3. Selection for a Level 4 qualification was restricted by a cap on numbers, with the process operated by invitation and only open to those operating within the provincial pathway.

To add, it emerged that, not only were there fewer opportunities for coaches at the level below franchise, but opportunities were limited geographically, meaning coaches who wished to progress their career would need to move to the larger urban centres. In terms of operational inefficiencies, this meant that some coaches who held a Level 3 qualification, had international experience, and were operating outside the provincial player pathway, perceived it difficult to progress their careers. This implied that some experienced coaches operating outside the provincial development pathway system were dislocated from those who were operating inside the provincial development pathway, with many expressing a desire to assist and be a part of the wider development system.

In addition, many of the coaches felt insecure within their position due to the lack of coaches association. For example, a number of experienced coaches viewed the transition to elite level head coach as too risky a proposition, due to, not only the inconsistent performance evaluation but also the lack of job security and support that coaches received at this level.

### 8.2.2.1 Coach development considerations and recommendations

Going forward, there are a number of considerations for SA cricket. Importantly, it emerged that the complexity surrounding the role of the coach depended on the coaches’ current level of operation. The higher the level of operation the higher level of support, information sharing and development opportunities these coaches received. Going forward it would be beneficial for SA cricket to review any current engagement and learning and development support of those coaches operating at the development level environments, such as the school, club, university level coaches. To add, it may also be necessary to consider widening the Level 4 invitation for coach education opportunities to include these coaches operating outside the provincial pathway in order to upskill the coach workforce across the crucial aforementioned development environments.
By actively and coherently engaging and supporting these experienced coaches operating outside the system may provide SA cricket with an chance to provide mentorship opportunities to up and coming novice coaches with less experience. The effective utilisation of those experienced coaches will also help in broadening the efficiency and coherency across development structures and assist in developing and maintaining the competitiveness of these levels.

In relation to coach security, it may also be necessary for SA cricket to consider establishing a coaches association to protect the interests of coaches in the same way the players association protects the interests of the players. This may allow experienced SA coaches to consider accepting high-level positions for reasons that are based on operational factors and personal aspirations, rather than decisions being negatively influenced by role insecurity caused by poor evaluation and lack of support.

8.2.3 Governance and administrative findings

Due to the perceived influence of the administrator on the development environment, it would be useful for SA cricket to also consider a number of aspects relating to the organisational structure and governance of the game.

In understanding organisational structures, it emerged governance structures were associated with a hierarchical decision-making and a questionable electoral system. Upon examination it was not so much the hierarchical structure itself, but rather an electoral system that allowed individuals, who were fore mostly involved at an amateur level, the ability to lobby members to vote in their favour and thus be elected to board level and a decision-making position at a professional level. It was also revealed that, since the new franchise structure was adopted in 2004, each franchise feeder province was administered independently, with each province having an independent board guiding decision-making. This factor, together with hierarchical decision-making and electoral system has lead to a number of implications for SA cricket.

Due to the independent nature of the provincial structure these factors have impacted negatively on the coherency between provinces. For example, in some cases it was evidenced that administrators influenced player selection and in other cases players from more dominant province were provided with franchise level opportunities over those from the less dominant province. The lack of communication between provincial boards was also apparent when player
identification and selection was influenced at franchise level due to lack player information. These factors of independent governance, particularly at provincial level have therefore influenced relationships between individuals and the consistency uniformity and distribution of power, control and communication across structures, i.e. between the board and the coach and the coach and players.

It was perceived that the board electoral system led to the selection of individuals who did not have an understanding of the game and did not comprehend or acknowledge the complexity surrounding the role of the coach in player development. The consequence of which has led to a number of factors affecting the development environment, such as,

1. Incorrect and biased decision-making regarding the allocation and provision of resources to areas considered important to grow and maintain the game, such as coach provision and support.
2. Detrimental decision-making regarding coach performance evaluation
3. Divergent and agenda driven decision-making leading to differences in short term performances taking precedence over long term player development
4. Perceived distribution of funds between franchise not based on contextual factors and the specific needs of the province and franchise. For example, it was perceived the ability of a franchise to generate its own income due to uncontrollable environmental constraints; such as population size and stadium size were not taken into account. It was also the perception that other controllable factors such as the quality of coach provision and support and player development programs were also not considered when funds were distributed.

8.2.3.1 Governance and administrative considerations and recommendations

In future, SA cricket may wish to consider reviewing a number of these factors in the following way,

1. Review the provincial board and franchise-level electoral system in order to make sure the most appropriate individuals occupy positions of influence.
2. Review the resource and funding criteria to franchises and provinces and for this to be based on a more equitable set of criteria that may be
contextualised to that region. For example it may be appropriate to consider a funding model that considers the uncontrollable environmental factors, such as population size, together with the controllable factors by way of an explicit set of Key Performance Indicators considering aspects such as the quality of coach provision and support and a feeder provinces wider player development program. This should provide incentive for provinces to become more effective at producing players from all racial and social backgrounds and for this to include the wider development environment in the process.

In terms of managing and developing significant relationships, it may be necessary for SA cricket to ensure a more conducive working relationship between coaches and administrators, developed through a culture of mutual trust and respect. It may also be beneficial to seek or educate administrators to be more proactive rather than reactive and to select those who are able to foster and develop relationships promoted by open communication. It may also be important to have in place those individuals who understand and acknowledge the positive influence of a consistent message with regards to development and performance outcomes by being more supportive of the coach and allowing him to express his philosophy and vision.

This thesis actively did not explore the effects of other factors considered significant such as the effects of transformation and Kolpak agreements. This does not reduce the significance of these factors, however it is believed that considering these factors may have detracted from the issues highlighted above relating to the player, coach development pathways and administrative functions. It is also believed that if some of these issues are addressed then the impact of factors such as racial targets and players leaving SA by taking up Kolpak agreements will diminish over time.

8.3 Evaluating the quality and impact of the implications

Reflecting upon the original intention of this thesis, to provide practical and meaningful knowledge under a pragmatic research philosophy, the final section of the thesis considers the level to which the research has gained some level of community agreement by outlining practical-level truths (Giacobbi et al. 2005) that are useful to the community it was intended. Considering the intended purpose of this thesis and its outcomes this community includes those individuals who are
developing and operating within the environment, the players and coaches, together with those who are elected to oversee the environment, the administrators.

First, communications concerning the findings have received initial recognition from the sports coaching and sports psychology community through the co-authorship of a book chapter and the acceptance and delivery of a poster presentation at the International Coach Coaching Excellence (ICCE) conference in SA. To date, no peer reviewed publication have been completed, however 2 papers are currently under review and a further 3 papers are awaiting journal submission.

Secondly, the media has established the relevance and importance of this work by recent reporting over the last 2 years on the subject of changes and the impact of these changes occurring within SA cricket development environment. These media reportings are confirmed as relevant due to recent reviews requested by CSA on the functioning of the development system. For example, recently CSA instigated a review of both the national teams structures (National Team Review) together with a review of the domestic structures (Domestic Cricket Systems Review). It must be noted that the rationale and associated aims of this thesis were independent and in no way connected to CSA, however to establish the relevance of the findings based on their practical implications, the South African Cricketers Association (SACA) have requested the findings from this thesis to review.
REFERENCES


Cricket South Africa (CSA) 2006/2007 Annual Report available from: 258
http://cricket.co.za/cat/19/Governance/3396/CSA-Annual-Reports/


264


International Cricket Council (ICC) retrieved from [http://www.icc-cricket.com/about/44/about-icc](http://www.icc-cricket.com/about/44/about-icc)


