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Decision-making in English Football:
The Case of Corporate Social Responsibility

By
Christos Anagnostopoulos

Submitted to the Coventry Business School, Coventry University, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 2013
Abstract

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has an ever-increasing role in the way commercial businesses operate. Team sport organisations are not immune to this trend. CSR is a strategic issue for sport organisations, with professional teams across a range of sports and national contexts now modifying their organisational structure by establishing charitable foundations tasked with delivering their CSR content. These structural changes inevitably bring in new organisational actors who, in varying degrees, influence the actual implementation of CSR in the professional sports team context. Organisational complexity is therefore increasing regarding CSR, as is the need to capture its elements at both cross-organisational and individual levels. This is especially important given that, unlike mainstream (corporate) foundations that deal directly with a ‘parent’ company, professional sport leagues often mandate the implementation of CSR through central funding mechanisms. This in turn emphasises the intricacy of the process and the dynamics amongst organisational actors at various levels. To date, no studies have attempted to address this complexity. The present thesis aims to help fill the gap by examining the managerial decision-making process in the organisational context of charitable foundations established by English professional football clubs.

The current study employs a grounded theory methodology as it aims to develop a substantive theory of how managers responsible for the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes in English football make professional decisions. The research utilises the Straussian variant of grounded theory, which accepts that humans shape their institutions as much as institutions shape people. The study also seeks cognitive similarity, a concept that implies some form of similar attribution of meaning, understanding or interpretation amongst individuals in multiple organisations. Although its purpose was to develop an individual-based substantive theory grounded in the way managers make decisions regarding CSR, throughout the focus has been on decision-making itself rather than on the individuals who facilitate this process.

The study is populated with the top two divisions of English football and employs two data collection techniques: organisational documents and semi-structured interviews. The fieldwork took place in three different phases, with the first consisting of two sub-phases. Phase 1a emphasised the analysis of organisational documents (a total of 25 documents from 16 football organisations), while the following phases of the fieldwork were based on constant comparative data analysis from 32 interviews.
The theoretical framework that emerged from this study is one of *assessable transcendence*, in a conceptually abstract fashion, ‘assessable transcendence’ concerns a process that, fortified by *passion*, contingent on *trust*, sustained by *communication* and substantiated by factual *performance*, enables the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes in this context. The social process that emerged from this study, therefore, consists of an intrinsic (that is, passion) and an extrinsic (that is, trust) stimulus, both of which are central components of the micro-social process *transcending*. These two stimuli, however, require the support of both internal and external communication (abstractly expressed through the micro-social process *manoeuvring*), and thus all three together form a ‘coalition’ which can enhance both business and social performance (largely expressed by the first two micro-social processes, namely *safeguarding* and *harmonising*). Accordingly, two interrelated aspects of the decision-making process constitute a common thread in this research: (a) the recognition that social consciousness stimulates the process of *assessable transcendence* in an indispensable and limitless way, and (b) an understanding that *transcendence* cannot occur without either continuous achievement or the dissemination of concrete ‘CSR impact’ in social and business forms alike (hence *assessable*).

The significance of this doctoral thesis for the sport management literature is four-fold. First, it focuses on the individual level of analysis, thereby offering a framework that explains the decision-making of those individuals responsible for the application of CSR in professional team sport organisations. By doing so, it bridges the micro/macro divide by integrating the micro-domain’s focus on individuals (i.e., foundation managers) with those of the meso- and macro-domains. Second, it moves away from mono-theoretical approaches that have been mainly used for the examination of CSR in the sporting context. By doing so, it illustrates that different, and often opposing, theoretical approaches may be needed in order to fully capture and theoretically explain the way in which the CSR practice occurs. Third, it shifts the focus of scholarly activity away from CSR content-based research towards more process-oriented approaches. CSR content research does little to explain how professional teams achieve and maintain such positioning through both deliberate and trial-and-error CSR actions initiated by the individuals therein. Fourth, and in relation to the previous point, it employs a process-oriented methodology (namely, grounded theory) whose utilisation in sport management research has been either non-existent or a ‘pick and mix’ practice. By doing so, the current thesis responds to calls for internal consistency and methodological coherence, thereby adding to the limited number of studies that have utilised this methodology in a rounded manner.
The theoretical framework presented in this dissertation has emerged from exploratory study. As such, the four micro-social processes, their associative meanings and, more importantly, the four principal concepts that hold assessable transcendence are regarded as tentative and require substantiation through further research. To this end, a number of research propositions are offered that can serve as a starting point towards a continued exploration of those moderating and mediating factors on the formulation and implementation of CSR in team sport organisations.
Στη Δήμητρα (...καθ' ολοκληρίαν)
She knows better than me the reasons why...
Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this doctoral thesis has not been previously submitted for a degree at any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge, the present doctoral thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except due reference is made.

> Significant sections of Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5 of this thesis have been published elsewhere but have been substantially rewritten here. The publications in question are the following:

**Peer-reviewed journal articles & book chapters**


**Peer-reviewed conference presentations**

- “Getting the Tactics Right: Implementing CSR in English Football”. 20th European Association Sport Management (EASM) Conference, Aalborg (Denmark) 18-21 September 2012.
- “Football Clubs and Social Responsibility”. Round Table on the *European Football (Soccer) -12th* International Conference on Sports: Economic, Management, Marketing & Social Aspects, 9-12 July 2012, Athens (Greece).
- “Towards a Multi-paradigm Paradox Perspective of CSR Strategy in English Football”. European Academy of Management Conference, Rotterdam (Holland) 6-8 June, 2012.


• “From CSR to...CSR in Professional Football. Does “R” Stand Better for “Relationship”? 10th International Conference on Sports: Economic, Management, Marketing & Social Aspects, 7-9 May 2010, Athens (Greece).

In addition, the paper entitled “Corporate social responsibility in team sport organisations: Toward a grounded theory of decision-making” won the New Researcher Award at the European Association of Sport Management conference which was held in Constantinople (Turkey) in September 2013. It will be published in European Sport Management Quarterly in late 2014.
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It would have not been possible to write this doctoral thesis without the help and support of many people around me. I cannot, therefore, go without mentioning the following individuals who have, each in their own way, made it possible for me to bring this project to a close:

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Sharing an office, even for just 4 weeks, with one of the most prominent scholars in the field of sport management has also had a role in improving early drafts of this dissertation. Professor David Shilbury from Deakin University (Australia) had some serious doubts (I mean, real serious ones...) of why I was doing what I was doing... David helped me a lot to clarify my position(s). I think, we finally got ‘there’. Of course, we did not agree in everything (e.g., about the role the referees have in a game, or about the ‘beauty’ (?) of a cricket match), but I enjoyed challenging him... Thank you David!

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the word ‘and’ in your sentence; what do you mean by that?” It was that little moment, that simple – but by no means simplistic – question that made me realize that the journey I was about to start would be intellectually stimulating, to say the least. Sudi, I thank you; I really thank you. (…even if I still don’t know whether I have managed to answer your question in the pages that follow).

I would also like to especially acknowledge Dr Barbara Cooke for her sharp editorial advice. I could not have done it without her support. Period. Before that, however, Dida and Paris from the Centre of English Studies in Corinth (KESC) offered the necessary foundations in order for me to be able to ‘communicate’ all this... In the interim, Dr Roland Hegarty has ‘shaped’ the way I articulate matters through my sentences... Special thanks also go to Apostolos Socratous and Andreas Appios; the ‘masterminds’ behind all the figures and illustrations included in this dissertation.

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Last but not least, huge thanks to my families, in Greece and in Cyprus. All of them have been ‘there’ for me throughout this journey. Especially my mother who knew that I could do ‘that’ before I even knew that I wanted to...

I hope that in twenty years’ time from now, Maritini, Fokionas and Pavlos will be able to read this dissertation and challenge the arguments and choices that I made (especially those in Chapter 3...).

Saturday, August 31, 2013
Protaras, Cyprus.
“Well, I don’t know how many people you are interviewing, but what you will find is, you can talk to me for half an hour or whatever; all you’ve done - which is probably the best thing you have done - is to show that seed in people’s mind, ‘what can you do, what can you do?’ Now, whether everybody does something about it, it’s another matter, but all you can do is show that seed in people’s mind and let them think what can we do from a social responsibility perspective and help…”

(Own sample - interview with PL-fc5)
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Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Introduction and purpose

[...] notwithstanding the increasing business orientation of football clubs, football continues to have social aspects that distinguish it from purely economic activity [...] it is the continued social and community significance of football that makes the study of the business of football so fascinating (Morrow, 2003, p. 2).

In many ways this quote epitomises the current thesis as it examines football's social and business aspects through the notion of corporate social responsibility (henceforth CSR). The purpose of this chapter is to provide the background to the research. It does so by placing it in the broad domain of business and society and in relation to decision-making with regards to CSR. The research question that guides this study, along with the aim and objectives, is then given. Finally, the structure of the dissertation is provided.

1.2 Background to the research

1.2.1 Business and society

The 'business and society' domain examines “the tensions that arise from this interaction [between business and society] and the methods devised to cope with this tension” (Jones, 1983, p. 560). Businesses are defined by Carroll and Buchholtz (2006) as “the collection of private, commercially oriented organisations, ranging in size from one person proprietorships to corporate giants” (p. 5), while society is delineated as “a community, a nation, or a broad grouping of people having common traditions, values, institutions, and collective activities and interests” (ibid.). Frederick (1997) argues that two implications must be addressed when combining the terms ‘business’ and ‘society’; first, the connection that businesses maintain with society's institutions and natural ecosystems; and second, the field of management study that describes, analyses, and evaluates these complex societal and ecological linkages. It is mainly the latter upon which the current study focuses.

Academic literature has been examining the relationship between business and society for more than half a century. This examination has mostly been realised through CSR, which generally refers to an organisation’s duty to maximise its long-
term positive impact on society, while simultaneously minimising its negative effects (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006). Interest in CSR from organisations of any type and size has accelerated rapidly in recent years, as has scholarly engagement in CSR research (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Moreover, the ever-increasing interest in CSR as strategic issue for for-profit organisations explains the recent proliferation of charitable foundations (Campbell & Slack, 2008). The limited body of empirical studies that examine these particular organisations (i.e., a sub-sector of the third sector), has mainly focused on the different types of these foundations (Ostrower, 2006), of which Anheier (2001) has identified two main models: (a) the grant-making and (b) the operative foundation. The former’s role mainly relates to financially supporting social projects organised by third organisations, whereas the latter implements and coordinates social projects. As it is devoid of assets, the operative foundation depends on external financial aid (Pedrini & Minciullo, 2011).

The type of foundation (and the one that can take either of the above-mentioned forms) which relates most closely to the business and society domain - and for that matter the notion of CSR - is the corporate foundation, which is a charitable organisation established by a commercial company (Westhues & Einwiller, 2006). Although this type of foundation encompasses the general characteristics of foundations (e.g., non-membership-based, private, self-governing, non-profit-distributing, and public-benefit-purposed (Anheier, 2001; European Foundation Centre, 2005), it also (a) depends on the ‘parent’ company for funding, (b) has close ties with the ‘parent’ company (e.g., name, logo) and (c) nearly always has executives of the ‘parent’ company as members of its board of directors (Pedrini & Minciullo, 2011).

Paradoxically though, while CSR is now having an ever increasing role in the way commercial businesses operate (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), and despite the foundations’ increase in both numbers and significance (Anheier & Daly, 2007), these organisations remain ‘black-boxes’, as research does not keep up with this growth (Andrés-Alonso, Azofra-Palenzuela, & Romero-Merino, 2010) and empirical studies examining the corporate foundations in particular have been few and far between (Pedrini & Minciullo, 2011; Petrovits, 2006; Webb, 1994). However, a better understanding of how these organisations operate, what challenges they face and how their personnel deal with these challenges, may (perhaps indirectly) lead us towards a more rounded understanding of what CSR means for, and the ‘place’ it
The establishment of charitable corporate foundations also extends to the context of professional sport. Although the level of maturity in terms of social involvement in the sport industry is a long way from those of other industries (Breitbarth, Hovemann, & Walzel, 2011), the application of CSR by sport organisations has started to gain momentum over the past twenty years (Trendafilova, Babiak, & Heinze, 2013), with professional teams across a range of sports and national contexts now modifying their organisational structure by establishing foundations to deliver their CSR (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Bingham & Walters, 2013; Extejt, 2004; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011).

These structural changes inevitably bring in new organisational actors (such as ‘CSR officers’, ‘community managers’, ‘sustainability executives’, ‘external’ trustees and so forth) who, in varying degrees, influence the actual implementation of CSR in the context of professional teams. The organisational complexity is therefore increasing in terms of CSR, and so is the need to capture elements at both the cross-organisational and individual level. This is especially important given that, unlike mainstream corporate foundations that deal directly with the ‘parent’ company, professional sport league(s) often mandate the implementation of CSR through central funding mechanisms. This in turn augments the complexity of the process and the dynamics amongst organisational actors at various levels. To date, no studies have attempted to address this complexity. The present thesis aims to help fill this gap in our understanding by examining the managerial decision-making process in the charitable foundations established by professional team sport organisations.

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In this dissertation the words ‘foundation’ and ‘trust’ are used interchangeably, although preference is given to the former. The Charity Commission for England & Wales states in its website that “all charitable foundations are trusts - that is, they are managed by trustees who may or may not be supported by paid staff. Foundations do not, therefore, have a distinct legal identity or constitution and are subject to the same public benefit tests, governance and accounting requirements, and Charity Commission regulation as all other charities. They derive their income from an endowment of land or invested capital. Not all foundations make grants; some use their income to finance charitable activity of their own. This means that the difference between the terms ‘foundation’, ‘trust’ and ‘charity’ in the UK is semantic only; charities whose principal activity is grant-making are usually called ‘charitable trusts’ or ‘charitable foundations’, in preference to ‘charities.’” (www.charity-comission.gov.uk)
1.2.2 Decision-making

Trying to understand how organisations reach decisions is a well-established research theme within organisation theory (Nutt & Wilson, 2010). Indeed, the examination of decision-making has long been seen as a managerial activity in, for example, large business organisations (Busenitz & Barney, 1997), family-owned businesses (Bjuggren & Sund, 2001), public organisations (Heikkila & Isett, 2004), or nonprofit organisations (Golensky, 1993), with Nutt (2000) even examining the differences in decision-making processes between public, private and non-profit organisations. In all these organisations, managers face the need to cope with difficult and complex situations in which they must make major decisions, such as entering new markets, developing new products and/or services, seeking for new and/or better partnerships, ensuring and/or allocating funding and so forth, so that “an organisation can function, adapt, progress, take advantage of opportunities and overcome threats” (Elbanna & Child, 2007, p. 562). A better understanding of such complex processes in those “black boxes”, as Andrés-Alonso and his colleagues (2010) call charitable foundations, also appears to be (a) timely, given the relevance of CSR in today’s business world (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), and (b) significant, given the role foundations play in supporting some recognised public purpose (Anheier & Daly, 2007).

The concept of decision-making has not only been explicitly examined in various types of organisations, but also in different contexts, for example in sectors such as health (Eishler, Kong, Gerth, & Mavros, 2004), financial (Wijnberg, van den Ende, & de Wit, 2002), or tourism (Williams, Penrose, & Hawkes, 1998). As for the sport sector, Byers, Slack and Parent (2012) argue that although there is literature in the management of sport which ‘mentions’ the concept of decision-making, these studies fail to draw on any related theories from organisation studies research to analyse the process, context or factors that influence decision-making theoretically in their corresponding settings. To date, only a handful of empirical works explicitly examine the concept of decision-making by drawing on a major organisational decision-making approach and focusing on the management of sport (e.g., Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1995; Hill & Kikulis, 1999; Byers & Slack, 2001; Soares, Correia, & Rosado, 2010; Parent, 2010). As such, there is considerable scope for further research on decision-making in sport organisations (Byers et al., 2012). In particular the notion of CSR within sport organisations (and for that matter in the context
of professional football’s charitable foundations) in relation to decision-making remains an empirically unexplored area.

To this end, the present study is situated in a two-tiered context with a clearly identified focus. The first tier of the context is theoretically-related and entails (a) the domain (business and society), (b) the notion (CSR), and (c) the element (community programmes). Together, these provide the platform upon which the concept of decision-making will be examined. The second tier is organisationally related and concerns the charitable foundations, which are organisations that companies (in this case, English football clubs) establish as a means for delivering and practically demonstrating their social involvement. Within this two-tiered context, the study explores how key individuals (specifically managers in the charitable foundations) go about making decisions regarding CSR (Figure 1.1).

![Figure 1.1: Initial focus and perspectives delimiting the study](image)

Naturally, the CSR scope of contemporary businesses is not limited to community-related projects delivered by the company’s charitable ‘arm’. Certain issues constitute
the CSR ‘elements’ that football clubs in England encounter, with varying degrees of effectiveness. These elements relate to (a) corporate governance (Walters & Hamil, 2013); (b) diversity, equal opportunities, and health and safety at work (Jenkins & James, 2012); (c) the management of the environmental impact of football in and around the stadium, such as waste, energy, water and transport (Jenkins, 2012); and (d) accessibility and disability (Downs & Paramio-Salcines, 2013).

However, in order to examine the concept of decision-making, this study draws on the CSR notion of what the literature on team sport organisations in general (e.g., Kihl, Babiak, & Tainsky, 2014) and in football in particular (e.g., Morrow, 2003) refers to as corporate community involvement (CCI). According to Kihl et al. (2014), CCI falls under the CSR umbrella and is a critical means by which team sport organisations engage in their local communities and foster loyalty and connections with youth, fans, businesses, non-profits, local governments and other key stakeholders through avenues other than their core business.

Furthermore, the (corporate) charitable foundations upon which the current study draws are closer to what Anheier (2001) calls ‘operative foundations’; that is, organisations that implement and coordinate social and community-based projects. Consequently, the current study aligns with the framework proposed by Walker and Parent (2010), which integrates diverse notions regarding the social involvement of sport organisations. Within this framework, CSR refers to the first level of engagement as “a localised, community-based focus (of teams) regarding their social agenda which is focused on local philanthropy and community stewardship” (Walker & Parent, 2010, p. 207).

Moreover, at the core of the Premier League’s flagship CSR programme ‘Creating Chances’ and the Football League’s community strategic plan, entitled ‘Make Every Goal Count’, are themes such as health, sports participation, social inclusion, or/and community cohesion. Therefore, the emphasis on this type of social involvement shows that the notion of CSR in this particular context is largely expressed by community programmes. Herein, the term ‘CSR-related programmes’ refers less to issues of governance, environment and/or accountability, and more to (corporate) community involvement (Kihl et al., 2014; Morgan, 2010; Morrow, 2003).
1.3 Research question

The present study starts with one “grand tour question” (Creswell, 1994, p. 70): ‘How do charitable foundation managers make decisions about CSR-related programmes?’ This subject, while perhaps very broad, a reader may, nevertheless, infer from it that the study is set to investigate the decision-making process in regards to CSR through the meanings attached to it by those overseeing its application. With this grand tour question as a starting point, the aim and objectives of this research were set as follows:

1.3.1 Research aim

To develop a substantive theory of the way in which foundations managers construe the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes.

1.3.2 Research objectives

The following objectives have been set to serve as a road map towards meeting the above-stated research aim:

• To identify personal characteristics that may support or hinder foundation managers in their decision-making regarding CSR-related programmes;
• To identify personal and/or environmental stimuli that support these individuals to perform the task for which they have been assigned responsibility;
• To identify how internal structural and organisational factors shape the way these individuals make decisions about CSR-related programmes;
• To explore how external conditions shape the way foundation managers make decisions about the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes;
• To expound the managerial decision-making process within the charitable foundations of team sport organisations.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is organised into six chapters. This introductory chapter (Chapter One) has set the scene in which the research unfolds.

Chapter Two places the research within the scholarly domain of ‘business and society’. It also outlines the most pertinent debates surrounding CSR, and its penetration into sport management research. It is here where a rationale for an empirical research that directly examines managerial decision-making within the
charitable corporate foundations, while – indirectly - studying the notion of CSR in professional team sport organisations is given.

**Chapter Three** details how the research was conducted. The chapter begins with the philosophical stances that inform this thesis, before some essential explanations regarding the methodological approach adopted (i.e., a qualitative strategy) are discussed. This discussion aims to articulate the rationale behind the decision to adopt the Straussian variant of grounded theory methodology. Subsequently, the data collection techniques that have been employed, as well as a detailed account of the sample population and the interview procedure are given.

**Chapter Four** outlines the process of analysing and synthesising the collated data. It is divided into three major parts. The first section details how, early on, 28 open categories were generated through open coding; the second section concerns the adjusted axial coding process, during which contextual conditions and additional data gave explanatory power to four micro-social processes and thus took the analysis to a higher level of abstraction; and the third section is devoted to selective coding that identifies the four concepts which may explain, in an abstract fashion, the way in which foundation managers make decisions with regards to CSR in English football.

**Chapter Five** then places the emerged theoretical framework and its key concepts in critical conversation with the extant literature on (strategic) CSR in general and on CSR in sport in particular, with the aim of demonstrating how the empirical findings add to our theoretical understandings of both decision-making and CSR implementation in and through professional team sport organisations.

Finally, **Chapter Six** concludes the thesis by (a) providing a brief synopsis of the study including limitations of the approach adopted, (b) highlighting its contributions to the ‘business and society’ research domain, and (c) offering a future research agenda in the form of research propositions, which may serve as a starting point towards a continued exploration of those moderating and mediating factors in the formulation and implementation of CSR in team sport organisations.
2.1 Introduction and purpose
The process of reviewing the literature in this research has taken place in two separate phases differing in both time and scope. The first phase took place before entering the field and started talking with managers from the charitable foundations. This phase aimed at a broad understanding of the scholarly debates associated with the notion of CSR as well as the major theoretical approaches of decision-making. Moreover, examining developments in English football over the last three decades or so has deepened the researcher’s theoretical sensitivity. The fundamental goal has been to gain an appreciation of the range of conditions in which football clubs have gradually espoused the notion of CSR; it was hoped that knowledge of these conditions would prevent the research findings from oversimplifying the analysis of managerial decision-making and instead enables some of its complexity to be captured. In essence, this process is one which “enriches analysis” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 91). The second phase of the literature review took place after the development of the (intended) theoretical framework. The intention at this point was to place the findings in critical conversation with the literature on decision-making specific to the field of sport and CSR management, and so to establish the theory within the extant body of knowledge concerning this field.

The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to place the research within the scholarly domain of ‘business and society’ (2.2). It does so by outlining the most pertinent debates surrounding the notion of CSR, and its penetration into the sport management research (2.4). In the interim, it offers an account of the decision-making concept (2.3), and at the end it highlights the knowledge gaps (2.5) and articulates the rationale for the current study within the context of English football (2.6) in which decision-making about CSR is examined.

2.2 Business and society: A brief historical overview
Despite continuing debate surrounding the way in which the ‘business and society’ domain is conceptualised, the convergence of the two fields is not new. A number of comprehensive and useful efforts to chronicle the origins of this domain are available (see, for example, Cannon, 1994; Post et al., 1996). Eberstadt (1973, cited in Jones, Wicks, & Freeman, 2002) writes that businesses have been expected to serve the wider community for as long as they have existed; in medieval Europe, for example,
a good [sic] businessman was “honest in actions and motives” and “used his profits in a socially responsible way” (p. 21). Following the UK’s Industrial Revolution, the term ‘business and society’ predominantly referred to personnel-related matters. As Cannon (1994) remarks, “entrepreneurs such as Robert Owen and the Cadburys adopted the approach of ‘enlightened self-interest’ (noblesse oblige),” thus “rejecting the argument that profits and responsibility were inconsistent” (p. 17).

The framework that accommodates the modern ‘business and society’ domain was established by Adam Smith in An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations (1776) (Lantos, 2001). For Smith, capitalism works to create greater wealth than any other economic system and maximises liberty by allowing individuals freedom of choice in employment, purchases, and investments; it thereby benefits society at large. It is important to note however that Smith’s classic text was written in a world of small, local businesses before to the Industrial Revolution. Nevertheless, his notion of the ‘invisible hand’ marks a watershed in the history of Western thought (Boatright, 2007) and offers a useful perspective for examining ‘business and society’ domain.

There is a general consensus (cf. Carroll, 1999; Frederick 1994; Whetten et al., 2002; Windsor, 2001) that Bowen’s (1953) publication of Social Responsibilities of the Businessman inaugurated scholarly discussion about the social responsibility of businesses. Bowen’s arguments were based on the assumption, which echoes today’s CSR principles, that businesses accumulate considerable power and have far-reaching influence on people’s lives. Bowen also assumes that businesspeople are responsible for the consequences of their actions beyond the company’s direct economic interest. Against Bowen, Levitt (1958) mounts what Davis (1960) has described as a “powerful attack [italics added] on the social responsibility of businessmen” (p. 72) by cautioning that business’ adoption of socially responsible viewpoints would actually have an adverse effect on society at large. Levitt (1958) implies what, twelve years later, Friedman (1970) would claim outright: the only responsibility of business is to make a profit. Notwithstanding Levitt’s standpoint, during the 1960s appeals grew for the conceptualisation of the ‘social responsibility’ movement, most notably from Davis (1960) and Frederick (1960). Davis (1960) recognises that the economic functions of business are primary and the non-economic secondary, but stresses that “the non-economic do exist” (p. 75). Davis approaches the ‘business and society’ domain from a social power theory perspective, arguing that businesses which fail to balance social power with social responsibility will, in the long-run, fail to achieve their primary objective of economic success (Davis, 1960). In a similar vein, calls were made for the development of an adequate theory
of business responsibility (Frederick, 1960). However, such calls were made in the philosophical vacuum caused by the collapse of *laissez-faire* attitudes and debates around business responsibility in the post-1950s era failed to offer clear-cut, substantive meaning.

In 1970, as the quest to theorise social responsibility continued, the neoclassical economist Milton Friedman published a seminal article that reignited controversy in the ‘business and society’ domain. Friedman asserted that in a free economy, so long as a business engages in open and free competition without deception or fraud, it has a single responsibility: to use its resources and engage in activities for the sole purpose of increasing its profits. While it is evident that Friedman recognises the legal and ethical responsibilities of businesses towards society, his stance has been mistakenly^1^ regarded by many scholars as representing an extreme pole of opinion (i.e., that the sole responsibility of the businesses is to make a profit) in the conceptual domain. Lantos (2001) writes that Carr’s (1996) classic *Harvard Business Review* article also deserves this position: this is because Carr emphasises that “one’s duties to the employer as a loyal agent override other moral obligations” (Lantos, 2001, p. 603). It is crucial however to realise that Friedman’s article (1970) refers to publicly-held companies and not privately-owned business (e.g., sole proprietorship or partnership). As he characteristically states:

*The situation of the individual proprietor is somewhat different. If he acts to reduce the returns of his enterprise in order to exercise his ‘social responsibility’, he is spending his own money, not someone else’s. If he wishes to spend his money on such purposes, that is his right, and I cannot see that there is any objection to him doing so* (p. 13)

Lantos (2001) endorses Friedman’s viewpoint on the grounds that owners of an unincorporated business are accountable only to one another regarding their business performance, and therefore are not subject to the market for corporate control. In other words, they may define their mission and the goals of their organisation as they wish. These are, of course, important clarifications for the present thesis given the different types^2^ of ownership currently practiced in English football.

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^1^ Friedman’s standpoint has often been misrepresented. Friedman was explicit about the context within which corporations operate: that is, free-market capitalism. Within this context, Friedman believed that (a) there is a danger of shareholder funds being misappropriated by opportunist executives in the name of CSR but really for the enhancement of their own personal status and (b) corporate managers do not have the right skills and expertise to deal effectively with social problems (Lee, 2008).

^2^ Namely the stock market model, the supporter trust model and the foreign investor model. See Walters and Hamil (2010, pp. 17-28) for a detailed discussion (in Hamil & Chadwick, 2010). In 2010, eight football clubs were listed in the Stock Exchange; at the time of writing, three of these football clubs have PL (Premiership) status and five FL (Championship) status.
While Friedman's view intensified the debate over business’ responsibility to society, Carroll’s (1979) three-dimensional conceptual framework sought to elucidate this relationship under the heading of ‘Corporate Social Responsibility’. Carroll’s framework is founded on (a) the entire range of business responsibilities (e.g., economic, legal, ethical, discretionary), (b) the social issues involved (e.g., consumerism, environment, discrimination, product safety, occupational safety, shareholders), and (c) types of social response (e.g., reaction, defence, accommodation, pro-action). Perhaps the most important contribution of Carroll’s framework is that it does not treat the economic and social goals of corporations as incompatible, but rather integrates both objectives into the framework (Lee, 2008). While Carroll fails to discuss the abstract relationship between business and society, he nevertheless provides the scholarly community with a comprehensive system for understanding various currents of thought on CSR. This framework can also aid business managers in methodically thinking through the major social issues they face (Lee, 2008).

2.2.1 CSR: a notion in flux
Since Carroll’s (1979) seminal work, organisational scholars have been theorising and investigating the ‘business and society’ domain under the sign of CSR. Frederick (1986; 1994) suggests that there are three streams of writing on CSR; these streams overlap, but each emerged and peaked within in its own time span. The first is conceptually- or theoretically- oriented (1950s–1970s), and tries to answer the broad question of ‘what does corporate social responsibility mean?’ This stream of writing treats CSR as a static notion (Frederick, 1994). The second stream (1970s–late 1980s) saw the development of frameworks with applied value which tried to answer questions of ‘how’, ‘by what means’ and ‘with what effect’ rather than the ‘why’ and ‘whether’ concerns which had preoccupied its predecessor (Frederick, 1994). Indeed, Frederick (cited in Dunne, 2007) notes that “the guiding question was no longer ‘what is CSR?’ but ‘how can CSR be done?’” (p. 373). A particular feature of this phase was the emergence of numerous CSR spin-offs such as Corporate Social Responsiveness (CSR2), Corporate Social Performance (CSP), Stakeholder Management (SM), and Corporate Citizenship (CC) to name but a few.

While the first stream of writing lacked managerial orientation, the second lacked ethical engagement. It is precisely this conceptual gap that the third phase (mid 1980s–late 1990s) has attempted to fill, by placing ethics (Business Ethics, BE) at the core of management decisions and policies (Frederick, 1986) whilst retaining a focus on the role of leadership.

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3 The initial work was a 1978 working paper, reprinted in August 1994 by Business and Society.
More recently, Walker and Kent (2009) have examined CSR in a sporting context and also conclude that the literature on CSR reveals three distinct categories. They concur with Frederick that the first corresponds to the conceptual and definitional understanding of CSR, but go on to suggest that the other two categories concern the motives (managerial and corporate) for engaging in CSR activities and the outcomes of such an engagement. Walker and Kent’s (2009) observation regarding these last two categories echoes some of the CSR spin-off concepts such as stakeholder management and corporate social performance.

Lee (2008) approaches the discussion from a different angle in his review of the scholarly debate on CSR. He discusses a “progressive rationalisation” (p. 54) of the concept that involves two broad shifts. The first occurs at the level of analysis, in which researchers have moved the discussion from the macro-social effects of CSR to organisational-level analysis of CSR’s effect on profit (e.g., CSP) while the second shift is one of theoretical orientation, as researchers have moved from explicitly normative and ethics-oriented arguments (e.g., BE) to implicitly normative and performance-oriented managerial studies (e.g., SM and CSP).

What becomes apparent from the above discussion is an ongoing confusion regarding concepts (e.g., CSR, CSR2, CC, SM, BE or CSP) that are broadly similar in meaning (cf. Matten & Crane, 2005; Matten & Moon, 2008). To address such confusion, efforts have been made to either ‘map the CSR territory’ by looking at the different theories that inform it (Garriga & Melé, 2004) or synthesise these most commonly used concepts under a new conceptual model (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008). Garriga and Melé (2004) conclude, for example, that by drawing on aspects of social reality such as economics, politics, social integration and ethics, the issues that inform CSR as a field of scholarship fall into four main categories: (a) meeting objectives that produce long-term profits, (b) using business power in a responsible way, (c) integrating social demands, and (d) contributing to a better society by acting in an ethical manner.

Similarly, Schwartz and Carroll (2008) synthesise the most commonly used notions in the ‘business and society’ domain and propose a model grounded in three core concepts: (a) value, (b) balance and (c) accountability (the VBA model). The use of this model could eliminate any ongoing confusion regarding the ‘business and society’ domain and mollify any possible critics either within or outside this field (Schwartz & Carroll, 2008). The lack of empirical evidence, however, for the creation or support of these attempts towards either the re-conceptualisation (e.g., Schwartz & Carroll, 2008) or the theoretical mapping (e.g., Garriga & Melé, 2004) of the ‘business and society domain’ renders these discussions somewhat abstract and
limits their relevance for a study of CSR in practice.

A natural consequence of the theoretical and conceptual confusion over CSR is that the scholarly community has struggled to encapsulate in one definition all that CSR can mean. For example, Godfrey (2009) writes emphatically that “in terms of definition, CSR is a tortured concept” (p. 703) and refers to Carroll’s (1999) older study which includes more than twenty-five different ways in which CSR can be defined in academic literature. Windsor (2006) on the other hand defines CSR as, “regardless of specific labelling, any concept concerning how managers should handle public policy and social issues” (p. 93).

It is beyond the scope of this study to chronicle and list all the existing definitions of CSR in management literature. Indeed, such an exercise would be of questionable worth given that the intention of this thesis is not to position itself in any particular ‘definitional box’. This scepticism regarding the adoption of a definitional approach (i.e., making a definition of CSR the starting point for the study) is based upon the scope and nature of the present study. The intention is, rather, to attempt to delineate how CSR is interpreted by those people (i.e., charitable foundation managers of, or associated with, English football clubs) who make decisions about it and oversee its strategic application.

2.2.2 CSR: a fractured field of scholarship?

Upon examining the CSR literature, two broad observations can be made: (a) there is an ongoing lack of agreement between scholars regarding CSR’s fundamental scope and content and, as a consequence, (b) the concept itself constitutes a fractured field. Both observations have a bearing on the way CSR is regarded from a strategic point of view. In relation to the latter observation, there is one camp that treats economic and social objectives as incompatible (e.g., Arrow, 1997; Carr, 1996; Friedman, 1970; Jensen, 2002; Karmani, 2011), while another (e.g., Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Rivoli & Waddock, 2011) denies this within the contemporary ‘business and society’ domain. The most recent report The Economist has dedicated to CSR aligns more closely with the second view, as it claims that the question of whether there should be CSR is “irrelevant today” (2008, p. 8). For The Economist this is simply because corporations “... are doing it. It [CSR] is one of the social pressures they have absorbed” (ibid.).

Despite this admission from an essentially neo-capitalist magazine that CSR is already, unavoidably happening, the debate over whether it should or not endures within the scholarly community. Karmani (2011) argues that “doing well by doing good is an illusion” (p. 70) and that companies “have a responsibility to
their shareholders” (ibid.). According to Karmani, while companies must adapt their behaviour to address the myriad challenges society faces, asking companies to voluntarily sacrifice profits to increase public welfare will not be successful (Karmani, 2011). In response to such declarations, Rivoli and Waddock (2011) argue for a time-context dynamic: corporations are embedded in society, and social expectations change over time. Therefore, corporations adapt their behaviour in response to these changes, in the same way that public policies alter to respond to different circumstances. For them, this makes CSR “not an illusion, but an integral part of human progress” (Rivoli & Waddock, 2011, p. 115).

Beyond the question of whether economic and social objectives do, or can ever, go hand in hand lie more matters that make CSR complex territory for scholarly research. There are, for example, very few approaches that blend normative (what business should or should not do) and descriptive (what businesses do or can do) issues. This lack foregrounds the existence of another ‘dichotomised’ tier within an already disparate field of scholarship. As far as the ongoing lack of agreement on CSR’s scope and content is concerned, various scholars have put forward the argument that the concept itself is culturally and temporally bound and thus carries different meanings across time and space (Sethi, 1975; Wood, 1991).

In one of his last articles, Frederick (1998) contemplates whether it is the lack of a unifying model for CSR that has produced (what this section has characterised as) a fractured field of scholarship. It is possible that the emergence of new concepts (e.g., CSP, SM, CC, SU) and the continuous drive towards developing even more concepts to encapsulate the ‘business and society’ domain (see, for example, Schwartz & Carroll, 2008) stress the need for a cohesive CSR paradigm. For Kuhn (cited in Frederick, 1998, p. 43), “when conventional ways of thinking no longer provide satisfactory or original answers, thus new paradigms emerge, usually encountering resistance.” In the Kuhnian theory elaborated by Jones (1983), though, a paradigm has to comprise a “unifying or integrating theme”, a “substantial orthodoxy in the basic parameters of research-theory, methods and values” and a “predictive or explanatory capability” (p. 559). Amaeshi and Adi (2007) hold the view that none of these criteria can be seen simultaneously in the ‘business and society domain’ and so corroborate an earlier assertion made by Jones (1983) that these elements “are simply parts of broader frameworks, but they do not constitute a (new) paradigm” (p. 559). Although CSR can be seen as a ‘new concept of thought,’ to regard it as a ‘new way of thinking’ is, perhaps, to overstate the case.

This study sets out from the premise that this fractured and complex field should
not be seen as a barrier to embarking on empirical CSR research. On the contrary, it highlights the need within CSR scholarship for the development of an empirically-based, CSR-focused framework that is context-intensive. Such a framework may ultimately contribute to the existing body of CSR knowledge in general and decision-making in sport management in particular.

To this end, the current study groups supposedly different notions found in the ‘business and society’ domain such as Corporate Social Responsiveness, Corporate Social Performance, Corporate Citizenship, Business Citizenship, Stakeholder Management, Business Ethics, Corporate Philanthropy, and Sustainability together under the umbrella term ‘CSR’. Differences between these subsidiary notions have emerged from their examination within the existing literature of the ‘business and society’ domain, but they are nonetheless all aspects of CSR in its broadest sense. The decision to consider various interrelated concepts emergent in the ‘business and society’ domain under the term ‘CSR’ is in line with a recent framework proposed by Walker and Parent (2010). This framework integrates diverse notions regarding the social involvement of sport organisations; within it, ‘CSR’ refers to the first level of engagement as “a localised, community-based focus (of teams) regarding their social agenda which is focused on local philanthropy and community stewardship” (Walker & Parent, 2010, p. 207).

Generally, however, and given the fractured, complex and vague nature of CSR, the current study advocates that a move away from examining the notion per se and consider the notion as a ‘contextual platform’ upon which concepts and processes from organisation theory (organisational level) and organisational behaviour (individual level) are examined (i.e., decision-making) might be the best way to move forward. The hope is that such research will lead indirectly to a better understanding of CSR itself in the field of management broadly, and professional sport teams specifically. It is, therefore, within this wider scholarly domain of ‘business and society’ - and for that matter, through the concept of decision-making - that the notion of CSR is examined. Thus the next section offers a broad overview of the concept of decision-making and its associative literature.

### 2.3 Decision-making

For March and Simon (1958), managing organisations and decision-making are virtually synonymous, while Jackson and Carter (2007) have added more recently that “organisation requires a process of management and the process of management implies decision-making” (p. 267). Understanding how organisations reach decisions is, of course, a well-established research theme within organisation theory (Nutt &
Wilson, 2010). Slack and Parent (2006) expound that there are certain decision-making models that are more applicable to individual managers, whereas others pertain more to organisational-level decisions. The authors lay down a complex concept (i.e., decision-making) with reference to examples from, and contextual characteristics of, sport organisations. Taking Slack and Parent’s (2006) work as a guide, the decision-making models discussed below (both at individual and organisational level) all acknowledge the complexity and variability of factors in the decision-making process. As a result, each offers both an insight into certain aspects of the decision-making process and an attempt to provide a system through which that process may be understood.

2.3.1 Individual decision-making

Decision-making models largely fall into two broad categories: normative (prescriptive) and descriptive models. The former express how decisions should be made while the latter seek to explain how decisions are made in practice (Rollinson, 2005). The rational or ‘synoptic’ (Braybrooke & Lindblom, 1963) model of decision-making is compellingly lucid and orderly. It navigates decision-makers through five stages, to which they are encouraged to add various feedback loops in order to increase the robustness and accuracy of the model. These stages prompt the following actions: (1) identify the problem, (2) generate alternative solutions, (3) evaluate and choose amongst the alternatives, (4) implement the chosen solution, and (5) maintain the solution via monitoring, review and appraisal. The model is linear, straightforward and attractively clear-cut. It suggests that decisions are firmly anchored in a known value system with the final decision deducted from a non-restricted set of alternatives.

Nevertheless, the rational model has its critics. Fagley and Miller (1987) question whether decision-makers actually have as much information regarding the consequences of various alternatives as the model implies. These authors, who have recently been joined by Dane and Pratt (2007), assert that the use of intuition actually plays a significant role when managers make decisions. The assumed fixed and consistent preferences that the rational model advocates have also been called into question. Singh (1986) argues that preferences are dynamic, evolve gradually in the light of experience and as a result it is inaccurate to imagine that “rational” decisions are governed by the logic of any deep-seated individual characteristic. A more contemporary stream of criticism advocates that even if individuals enjoy the right conditions to make a rational decision, the cultural context in which these decisions are made renders reaching an optional and universally accepted conclusion
unlikely (Adler, 1997).

While these arguments accentuate the limitations of the rational decision-making model, however, it was Simon’s (1955) model of bounded rationality that first drew attention to these limitations. The basic premise of Simon’s thesis is that, in most circumstances, decision-makers are subject to a great variety of constraints which limit their capabilities to make decisions in the way envisaged by the rational choice model. Emotions, limited cognitive ability to process information, lack of knowledge concerning how critical the decision is, tendency to rely on past experience, and pressing time constraints are factors by which managers, and by extension the organisations they work for, are bounded. This bounded rationality introduces potential biases into decisions and as a result, Simon convincingly argues, managers are not really able to optimise but rather to satisﬁce; that is, they do not seek a perfect or best solution but rather one that is satisfactory or ‘good enough’ in the circumstances (Bowen & Qui, 1992). Throughout his work Simon maintained, either explicitly or implicitly, that understanding decision-making processes provides the key to managing organisations; the main models which help us to understand these processes are the subject of the following section.

2.3.2 Organisational decision-making: five theoretical approaches

When discussion moves from the individual to the organisational level, decision-making studies are usually informed by one of five major models: the management science approach, the Carnegie model, the structuring of unstructured processes, the garbage can model, and the Bradford studies (Slack & Parent, 2006). The model most closely related to the rational model discussed above is the management science approach. Originating in techniques used by military forces during the World War II, this approach rests on structured and logical problems as well as quantiﬁed data, presupposing that the contextual characteristics of the organisational problem in need of a solution are measurable and can be consolidated in numbers and equations. Although this approach may provide a solid foundation for mathematical, statistical and computational calculations of human choice, it provides little insight into the non-quantitative, less controllable dimensions of decision-making.

Cyert and March (1963) and Simon (1955; 1956) addressed these shortcomings in their development of the Carnegie model, named for the Carnegie-Mellon University from which these scholars worked. This model challenged the notion that an organisation makes decisions rationally as a single entity; instead, organisations consist of multiple departments/units in which a host of diverse interests are pursued by different individuals (managers). The Carnegie model suggests, therefore,
that decision-making performed by these individuals is characterised by ‘managing coalitions’ and ‘problemistic searches’. The former revolves around concepts of power, conflict and personal/departmental interests and so renders decision-making a political process, while the latter refers to any quick solutions with short-term results which can resolve the problem at hand satisfactorily.

The Carnegie model, then, delineates a more political and less teleological process than that offered by the management science model. The comparatively disorganised process of decision-making it describes has been the focus of Mintzberg, Raisinghani and Théorêt’s (1976) research, which sought to identify and provide structure for what appeared to be unstructured. The main argument of Mintzberg and his colleagues was that previous approaches had neglected the fact that an organisation’s major decisions, that is the strategic ones, are made at the top level while routine operating decisions are undertaken further down the hierarchy. The result of this empirically-based effort was the identification of a sort of structure of the unstructured pattern consisting of three phases (identification, development, selection). This pattern characterised decision-making as a detailed and lengthy process.

For Cohen, March and Olsen (1972), however, any assumption that decision-making follows an orderly sequence of steps is inaccurate as decisions in organisations are taken in a haphazard and random fashion. For the garbage can model of decision-making, problems, solutions, opportunities and the decision-makers themselves coexist in a turbulent state of flux – an “organised anarchy”– wherein the actual problems might never be solved, solutions are put forward even when a problem has yet to be identified, and choices are made before problems are even understood. The garbage can model highlighted the bearing that chance and timing have on the organisational decision-making process as well as pointing out that the process may concern multiple decisions rather than just one. Previous decision-making approaches had overlooked this important possibility.

The last major theoretical approach to understanding decision-making which merits attention here is the Bradford studies. From the beginning of the 1970s, Professor David Hickson of Bradford University and a number of other researchers (see Butler, Astley, Mallory, Wilson & Gray) spent 15 years carrying out studies which looked mainly at the process of decision-making as opposed to the outcome and implementation of decisions. Their findings indicated that the decision-making process is characterised by five main dimensions, namely scrutiny, interaction, flow, duration and authority. Each dimension contained a number of variables (twelve in total). The studies also found that decisions in organisations are made in three distinct ways: sporadic, fluid and constricted. The sporadic decision-making
process is characterised by disruption and delay while the fluid is subject to fewer interruptions (because fewer experts are involved) and therefore quicker. The constricted process is based on the use of expert information, but within it little effort is made to seek data not readily available (Slack & Parent, 2006, pp. 268-269).

While this concise overview may be helpful when confronting the perplexing concept of organisational decision-making at individual level, as with the ‘definitional boxes’ of CSR, the current study did not intend to ‘pre-position’ itself within any of the decision-making approaches discussed. Again, this was due the explorative and interpretive nature of this research4. Relatedly, there is a dearth of empirical studies explicitly examining the concept of decision-making either within the sporting context in general (Byers et al., 2012, p. 46) or by making use of the five approaches discussed above in particular for understanding (sport) organisational decision-making (Slack & Parent, 2006, p. 270). The few notable examples are discussed briefly in the section below.

2.3.2.1 ‘Decision-making’ research in the management of sport

Following the approach of the Bradford studies, Hill and Kikulis (1999) sought to examine the dynamics of the strategic decision-making process surrounding a restructuring of the western Canadian university athletic system. One of the main findings of their work was that during this particular decision-making process the rules that define what is acceptable and feasible (i.e., the ‘rules of the game’) interact with complexity and politicality and do not provide a simple indication of whether decisions are more likely to be complex or political (Hill & Kikulis, 1999, p. 40). The authors concluded that the overall decision-making process of restructuring was addressed in an incremental and sporadic manner. This was due to the diversity of interests and issues that emerged in that particular context as well as a weighting of power towards those supporting the status quo (ibid., p. 41).

While Hill and Kikulis (1999) drew on decision-making theory to examine a specific decision topic, Byers and Slack (2001) have sought to investigate more general internal and external factors that constrain small firm owners in the leisure industry from engaging in strategic decision-making. Using Simon’s (1978) bounded rationality as a theoretical guide, this study corroborates previous research findings on the strategic decision-making of small firms (e.g., limited time, retention of control, scepticism about planning) but also offers the conclusion that the ‘hobby motive’ is the main constraining (and rather sector-specific) factor in the use of strategic decision-making.

Organisational decision-making processes in the sporting context have also

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4 See next Chapter that focuses on the principles of Grounded Theory methodology.
been examined through other models. Soares, Correia and Rosado (2010), for example, drew on Vroom and Jago’s (1974) normative model which identifies three styles of decision-making ranging from autocratic to consultative to group/team-based. Beginning from the premise that voluntary sport organisations constitute an inherent political organisational setting, Soares and his colleagues sought to identify the roles of the actors, as well as the sources of internal and external power that influence decision-making, in these organisations. At internal level, alliances, contextual background knowledge and the management of information all seemed to have a bearing on the decision-making process. These findings echo the Carnegie model (Gyert & March, 1963) whose main components are coalitions of managers and problemistic searches. Soares et al. (2010), however, seem to have missed an opportunity to provide a richer theoretical discussion of their findings. External power that influences decisions in a given organisational setting was associated with regional policy, the power of key stakeholder groups in electing the decision-makers, personal relationships with other influential key players such as the central and local government, and the press. These external factors imply confluence with the Bradford studies (Hickson et al., 1986) where concepts such as the ‘rules of the game’, politicality and complexity could have informed the study’s conclusion.

Decision-making has also been the central concept for the examination and understanding of organisational design change. Kikulis, Slack and Hinnings (1995), for example, sought to determine whether decision-making structures differ among organisational design archetypes in national sport organisations (NSOs) and the extent to which change among archetypes is characterised by a change in the high-impact system of decision-making. The main results of this study are very enlightening when considered alongside more recent works. Kikulis and her colleagues found that a shift in control to professionals regarding decision-making had not been established and that there was still a commitment to the value of voluntary governance. More than two decades later, Shilbury and Ferkins (2011) can provide empirical evidence that more professional and strategic mindsets are guiding the way NSOs are governed and consequently influencing how decisions are made within them. Nevertheless, they state that these organisations are “grappling with the transition [emphasis added] to professional management practices and processes” (p. 123), a point that may imply that Kikulis et al.’s (1995) findings still hold true to some degree. Notwithstanding the absence of linkages with any of the major approaches of organisational decision-making, the examination of design change through the archetype theory exemplified in Kikulis et al.’s (1995) study makes it a significant contribution to the organisational decision-making literature

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5 The analysis of Kikulis et al.’s study was conducted on data from 1984–1988.
in the management of sport.

Kikulis et al.’s (1995) study opened up a discussion that was taken further a few years later by Auld and Godbey (1998), who sought to identify the perceptual differences of influence in organisational decision-making between volunteers and paid administrators (professionals) in NSOs. The principal finding of this study was that influence over decision-making was not perceived as reciprocal between these two groups. The professionals, for example, would have liked to see volunteers more involved in the decision-making process (this was not true vice-versa), not only because this could reduce the risk of an apathetic board but also because these volunteers had more knowledge and insight into their particular sport than the professionals. Perceptions of influence also varied depending on the decision topic, demonstrating sources of potential conflict between the two decision-making groups under investigation. The methodological approach adopted by Auld and Godbey (1998) shed little light on any explanatory factors behind the findings, despite the authors’ well thought-out efforts to integrate these results into the relevant social exchange theory. However, the study still provided significant insights into a specific aspect of the decision-making concept in sport organisations.

The last empirical study of this section examines the decision-making process in the context of major sport events. Parent (2010) draws mainly on the Bradford studies approach to examine decision-making in the high velocity environment of a major sport event, and concludes that the strategy adopted by decision-makers was one of readiness for reactions, obtained through risks assessments and contingency plans. This conclusion was reached after the identification of three interconnected parameters limiting, and four factors driving, decision-making. The first of these parameters, not surprisingly in a high velocity setting, was time. The second parameter concerned the contextual aspects of the setting such as its geographical situation. This aspect had also a bearing on the third parameter, namely the resources the event committee had at its disposal. The four drivers identified in this study (structural dimensions, stakeholder interactions, information management, and personal characteristics) echo the influential external factors found in Soares et al.’s (2010) study of decision-making in voluntary organisations. This observation raises the question of whether external drivers differ much between stable and high velocity settings.

This overview of the few empirical studies which place the concept of decision-making at their core highlights that the way in which organisational actors in the sport context make decisions remains an under-researched topic. In an increasingly competitive business environment, however, sport organisations have to respond
to, and make decisions about, new and existing challenges (Alonso & O'Shey, 2012). Some of these new challenges call upon sport organisations to adopt strategies that parallel the commercial aspects of their operations and consider the social and environmental facets of their business actions. However, the concept of decision-making with regards to CSR formulation and implementation has been largely overlooked by the sport management scholarly community. The next section demonstrates just that by offering a review of the CSR literature in the sporting context.

2.4 Research on CSR in sport: a review

It has only been a few years since CSR first penetrated the sport management research agenda. Recently, however, the examination of CSR in a sporting context has begun to expand. Sport-focused (Kent, 2011; Bradish & Cronin, 2009) as well as mainstream management journals (Ratten & Babiak, 2010) have already devoted special issues to the topic of CSR in the sporting context, with more scheduled to appear in the near future (see, for example, Breitbarth, Walzel, Anagnostopoulos & van Eekeren, forthcoming in 2015). Such is the increasing focus of the sport scholarly community on the topic that not only do the latest textbooks on sport and business management include chapters on CSR (e.g., Robinson, Chelladurai, Bodet, & Downward, 2012; Trenberth & Hassan, 2012; Hassan & Lusted, 2013), but books entirely devoted to the subject have also become available (e.g., Rodriguez, Kesénne, & Dietl, 2009; Paramio-Salcines, Babiak, & Walters, 2013).

In a recent examination of the literature devoted to CSR and sport, Morrow (2012) groups this body of work under two themes that dominate the topic (motives-oriented and outcomes-oriented studies) while also recognising “a number of less easily classified papers” (p. 106). Although Morrow’s (2012) approach offers a reader-friendly way of understanding the extant literature, the current study classifies the relevant works slightly differently. After examining those CSR studies which relate to the sporting context6 (see Table 2.1), Creswell’s (2009) advice was followed and a literature map produced (Figure 2.1) in order to provide a visual assessment of the subject under investigation. This literature map illustrates four main themes upon which the extant literature on CSR in sport has mainly focused: the general motives that drive social involvement; what such social involvement entails (e.g., implementation); the business case for undertaking CSR activities; and how such social involvement is being communicated, together with the potential

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6 The list of works examined and discussed in this section should not be regarded as comprehensive. Some works included here draw on the notion of CSR only indirectly, and of course there are many others not included here that do have some bearing on or involvement with CSR (e.g., from a cause-related marketing perspective). To the best of the author’s knowledge, however, all empirical studies that were published by July 2013 and look at the notion of CSR in the sporting context explicitly have been included in the review.
benefits of such communication. These broad and highly interrelated categories echo Lindgreen and Swaen's (2010) review of the concept of CSR in the mainstream literature. Their review identified five key managerial issues related to CSR ('communication', 'implementation', 'stakeholder engagement', 'measurement' and 'business case'). As will become evident, these issues have been adapted during the course of the present study’s categorisation of sport-related CSR literature.
Table 2.1: Empirical studies on CSR in/through sport (as of July 2013)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s) &amp; Year</th>
<th>Publication Type</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Research Approach</th>
<th>Contribution to ‘CSR and Sport’ Literature (key points)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inoue &amp; Kent 2013</td>
<td>Sport Management Review</td>
<td>• To investigate the process of how sport organisations influence consumer voluntary behaviour through their CSR programmes (environmentally-oriented)</td>
<td>Quantitative: Field survey (n=620)</td>
<td>&gt; Empirically confirms the meaningfulness of CSR by sport organisations &lt;br&gt; &gt; Awareness of CSR programmes has an effect on pro-environmental behaviour &lt;br&gt; &gt; Consumer perceptions of corporate credibility regarding CSR are based on organisational and programme characteristics &lt;br&gt; &gt; Consumers evaluate a sport organisation’s programme based on the amount of inputs to and benefits of the programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inoue, Mahan &amp; Kent 2013</td>
<td>Sport Management Review</td>
<td>• To investigate the role of perceived corporate ability of sport organisations in determining consumer donation intentions &lt;br&gt; • To identify which communication strategies may allow sport organisations to maximise business benefits from engaging in CSR</td>
<td>Quantitative: Online survey (n=348)</td>
<td>&gt; CSR engagement can enhance benefits for sport organisations and nonprofit partners &lt;br&gt; &gt; Professional sport is not a “magic elixir” for CSR – a sport organisations’ success (i.e., corporate ability) will determine how much consumers support the partnering cause &lt;br&gt; &gt; Donation amounts must reach a certain size to be considered important by consumers (communication)</td>
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<td>Trenda, Babiak &amp; Heinze 2013</td>
<td>Sport Management Review</td>
<td>To explore the institutional forces leading to the adoption of environmental CSR in sport organisations</td>
<td>Qualitative (semi-inductive approach): Secondary data analysis (122 websites &amp; 56 media reports) Semi-structured interviews (x23)</td>
<td>&gt; Diffusion of environmental management practices in professional sport organisations &gt; Associative behaviour among sport organisations with respect to environmental management &gt; Media’s role in driving sport organisations’ environmental engagement &gt; Benefits: averting legal recourse; saving money; stakeholder relationship enhancement</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dowling, Robinson &amp; Washington 2013</td>
<td>European Sport Management Quarterly</td>
<td>To examine CSR through sport in the lead up to mega-sporting events</td>
<td>Exploratory case study (x3): Semi-structured interviews (x14) Organisational documents content analysis (n=50)</td>
<td>&gt; Multi-partnership (beyond the typical dyadic relationship) &gt; CSR through sport = dynamic and context-dependent process &gt; CSR through sport = (can be) beneficial for all parties involved</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parnell, Stratton, Drust &amp; Richardson 2013</td>
<td>Soccer &amp; Society Journal</td>
<td>To examine the effectiveness of a CSR programme in promoting positive, healthy behaviour change in children</td>
<td>Longitudinal Action research-Ethnography: Focus groups &amp; participant observations (n=57 children) + interviews (n=8)</td>
<td>Identifies: &gt; Lack of or inappropriate working practices &gt; Deficiencies in staff skill base &gt; More suitable target groups (e.g. ‘at risk’ and ‘in need’ populations)</td>
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<td>Author(s) &amp; Year</td>
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<td>Trenda &amp; Babiak 2013</td>
<td>International Journal of Sport Management &amp; Marketing</td>
<td>• To explore how professional teams strategically deploy environmentally-focused CSR practices</td>
<td>Exploratory / Descriptive: Semi-structured interviews (x27)</td>
<td>Environment as an important pillar of CSR in sport organisations; Internal benefits (through proactive, voluntary, visible, specific actions): &gt; New marketing opportunities &gt; New revenue streams &gt; Employee engagement &gt; Image enhancement External benefits: &gt; Increased Community awareness of environmental issues &gt; Attracting partnerships / improved supply chain management &gt; Positive impact on the environment itself</td>
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<td>Bingham &amp; Walters 2013</td>
<td>VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organisations</td>
<td>• To explore sponsorship opportunities for charitable football foundations</td>
<td>Descriptive mixed-method: Financial statements analysis Semi-structured interviews (x4)</td>
<td>Need to reduce the reliance on (mainly public) grant funding in light of the changing environment for charitable organisations &gt; goal of sponsorships with commercial organisations &gt; Additional funding and resources &gt; Financial stability &gt; Expansion of operations &gt; Community and business network hub</td>
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<td>Spector, Chard, Mallen &amp; Hyatt 2012</td>
<td>Sport Management Review</td>
<td>• To investigate environmental sustainability in sport by examining the environmental communications of ski resorts in the USA</td>
<td>Website content analysis (n=82)</td>
<td>Approach to improving environmental performance and communicating such efforts: &gt; Inactive (24%) &gt; Reactive (10%) &gt; Exploitive (23%) &gt; Proactive (43%) Need for: &gt; Standardized structure for online communications &gt; Greater transparency</td>
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<td>Author(s) &amp; Year</td>
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| Uecker-Mercado & Walker 2012 | Journal of Business Ethics | • To explore the value of pursuing Environmental Social Responsibility (ESR) as a business strategy for sport and public assembly facility managers | Exploratory / Descriptive: In-depth interviews (x15) | Drivers for ESR engagement include:  
> Internal stakeholder pressure  
> Organisational culture  
> Financial cost-benefit  
> Competitiveness  
> Ethical motives |
| Alonso & O’Shea 2012 | Community Development Journal | • To investigate consumer/fan perceptions concerning the role professional sport organisations play within their communities (Australian soccer) | Case study: Unspecified number of interviews with two executives  
Descriptive online survey (n=2107) | > Consumers/fans feel strongly and have high expectations about sport organisations’ role to support the local community  
> Offers conceptualisation through Social Anchor Theory (SAT) in the context of football (soccer) |
| Anagnostopoulos 2012 | Book chapter | • To empirically demonstrate how managers who oversee the application of CSR in professional football interpret the notion of CSR itself | Qualitative-Descriptive: Semi-structured interviews (x32) | > Attempts to re-conceptualise the CSR acronym by contextualising it with football’s characteristics  
> ‘Relationship’ is a more apt description than ‘Responsibility’ for social engagement in the football context |
| Inoue & Kent 2012a | Journal of Sport Management | • To examine how a sport team can persuade consumers to behave in an environmentally responsible way | Quantitative: Web-based experimental survey (n=197) | > The team’s positive environmental practices increase consumer internalisation of the team’s values  
> Athlete involvement did not increase internalisation and therefore had no effect on pro-environmental behaviour through internalisation  
> A sport team can promote pro-environmental behaviour to consumers by enhancing internalisation regardless of team identification |
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| Jenkins & James 2012 | Research Report | • To investigate the CSR of Premier League football clubs (extent, means, challenges) | Secondary research & semi-structured interviews (x15+1) | > CSR through charitable trusts  
> Presence of external (high profile industry) and internal (ethics) drivers for CSR engagement  
> Lack of focus on the business case for CSR  
> Main barriers: funding / financial pressures  
> Room for extending partnership portfolio (corporate world, supporters)  
> Need for more evaluation on CSR engagement  
> Lagging behind in communicating CSR engagement |
| Walters & Anagnostopoulos 2012 | Business Ethics: A European Review | • To explore the process of CSR implementation through social partnerships in the football sector | Exploratory case study: semi-structured interviews (x8) | > Offers a conceptual model supported by empirical data which identifies three stages of the implementation process (selection, design, management)  
> Partnership process and partnership project evaluations  
> Lack of process evaluation due to high degree of interpersonal trust |
| Blumrodt, Bryson & Flanagan 2012 | Journal of Consumer Marketing | • To examine football clubs customers’ perceptions of CSR and its impact on brand image | Exploratory study: Semi-structured interviews (unspecified number) Field survey (n =996) | > Football clubs’ involvement in community activities influences brand image and customer behaviour  
> A specific of brand management is required for the sport industry  
> Customer-perceived ethicality must be an integral part of brand management |
| Panton 2012 | Research Paper Series (Master’s thesis) | • To understand the motivations for implementing CSR, describing their content, defining their scope and measuring their outcomes | Descriptive/Qualitative: Multiple case study (x4 football clubs) Semi-structured interviews (x6) | > Increase in focus on CSR thinking by football clubs  
> No clear-cut motivations  
> Possible institutional isomorphism and lack of strategic vision |
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<tr>
<td>Babiak, Mills, Juravich &amp; Tainsky 2012</td>
<td>Journal of Sport Management</td>
<td>• To examine the motives behind the establishment of charitable foundations by professional athletes</td>
<td>Qualitatively-oriented: Semi-structured interviews (x 36) content analysis</td>
<td>&gt; Philanthropic activity of professional athletes; &gt; Altruistic and self-interested motives; &gt; Using fame to increase profile of the charity/generate income</td>
</tr>
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<td>Walters &amp; Tacon 2011</td>
<td>Research paper (UEFA research grant)</td>
<td>• To provide a detailed description of CSR in football across Europe</td>
<td>Survey (questionnaire): (n=43 National Federations) &amp; (n=112 football clubs from 44 European countries)</td>
<td>National Federations: &gt; CSR-engaged but lacking formal strategy &gt; Major constraints: (i) resources (ii) funding (iii) time &gt; Monitoring but not evaluating Football Clubs: &gt; Lack of connection with local community &gt; Formal CSR strategy in place &gt; Constraints: resources &amp; securing funding &gt; Starting measuring and evaluating CSR engagement &gt; CSR differences between ‘small’ and ‘large’ clubs</td>
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<td>Tainsky &amp; Babiak 2011</td>
<td>International Journal of Sport Management &amp; Marketing</td>
<td>• To examine and profile professional athletes participating in philanthropic activity</td>
<td>Secondary data and regression analysis</td>
<td>&gt; Older / higher paid athletes more likely to form a charitable foundation &gt; Positive association between players and team foundations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inoue, Kent &amp; Lee 2011</td>
<td>Journal of Sport Management</td>
<td>• To examine the link between CSR and financial performance within the sport industry</td>
<td>Quantitative: Analysis of financial data (annual charitable contributions against attendance and operating margin)</td>
<td>CSR has non-positive effects on: &gt; (a) Gate receipts (due to (i) lack of communication and (ii) responsive rather than strategic CSR); &gt; (b) Financial performance (socially unresponsive teams achieve higher financial performance); &gt; (c) Owners’ altruism =&gt; rationale for CSR involvement</td>
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| Hovemann, Breitharth & Walzel 2011 | Journal of Sponsorship | To outline the state of CSR development in European football | Mixed method: semi-structured interviews (x9); website content analysis | > Substantiating the conditionality of the CSR concept  
> Diversity of CSR development across different national leagues |
| Hamil & Morrow 2011 | European Sport Management Quarterly | To examine what CSR activities football clubs choose to engage in, and their motivation for adopting CSR | Exploratory: Secondary sources (annual reports & websites); interviews (unspecified number) | Covers an entire (national) league  
> Contextual parameters should be taken into account  
> Implementation of CSR occurs when: (i) executives have normative expectations, (ii) programmes are tailored to the needs of the (local) community (iii) there is potential for Return on Investment. |
| Babiak & Trendafilova (2011) | CSR & Environmental Management Journal | To examine the motives and pressures expressed by senior executives to adopt environmental management practices | Mixed-method: survey; in-depth interviews (x 17) webpage analysis | Causal drivers for (specifically) environmental behaviour in the sport industry:  
> Desire to achieve legitimacy  
> Potential of strategic advantage through such engagement |
| Kolyperas & Sparks 2011 | International Journal of Sport Management & Marketing | To examine how CSR communication occurs in the professional football industry | Qualitative content analysis through websites and CSR reports (sample: 25 European football clubs) | CSR communications:  
> Developed organically; evolve dynamically; remain club-specific;  
> Customised to football needs CSR communications;  
> Variety of communication channels => lack of best practice;  
> Institutionalisation of CSR communications through the establishment of independent charitable foundations |
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<th>Author(s) &amp; Year</th>
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</table>
| Levermore 2010  | Third World Quarterly | • To examine the ways in which sport has been used in CSR initiatives to promote development | Textual analysis of 10 cases (websites & CSR reports) | > Corroborates sport’s ability to reach out to communities marginalised by traditional development initiatives  
> Demonstrates sport’s capacity to create partnerships among institutions that would not normally work together  
> Development initiatives often driven by the needs of the donor (business) than community needs  
> Insufficient evaluation of sport-for-development |
| Babiak 2010     | Journal of Management & Organisation | • To explore sport senior executives’ views on CSR application | Exploratory: Interviews (x4) | > Sport organisations apply CSR following institutional recipes to achieve legitimacy  
> Importance of stakeholder theory in the process of ‘practicing’ CSR  
> There are slow, but growing, efforts for cohesive CSR strategies which become a tool for greater interest and loyalty to a sport |
| Walker, Heere, Parent & Drane 2010a | Journal of Business Ethics | • To examine the mediating influence of consumers’ perceived organisational motives for CSR within the International Olympic Committee | Quantitative: Field survey (n=503) | > Consumers perceived values-driven and stakeholder-driven social engagement positively  
> Consumers perceived strategic-driven social engagement negatively |
| Brown, A., McGee, Brown, M. & Ashton 2010 | Consulting Report | • To examine the social and community value of football clubs in England | Qualitative survey: In-depth case studies (x4) | > Emphasises need for horizontally integrating communities’ interests into the core business of football clubs  
> No regulatory framework in which football’s social value sits |
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<tr>
<th>Author(s) &amp; Year</th>
<th>Publication Type</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Research Approach</th>
<th>Contribution to ‘CSR and Sport’ Literature (key points)</th>
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</table>
| Irwin, Lachowetz, & Clark 2010 | Journal of Management & Organisation | • To assess the effectiveness of cause-related sport marketing on business-to-business relationships | Quantitative (case study): Survey (n=422) | > Cause-related sport marketing appears a persuasive marketing tactic among key company decision-makers  
> Consumers are positively affected by a company’s involvement in cause-related sport marketing |
| Walker & Parent 2010 | Sport Management Review | • To provide a framework appropriate for the sport industry by drawing on the concepts of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR1), Corporate Social Responsiveness (CSR2) and Corporate Citizenship (CC) | Qualitative content analysis (websites) | > Provides a link in the definitional and positioning debates on social involvement  
> Imitation of social involvement strategies  
> Business transparency through publishing and reporting social involvement  
> Altruistic and instrumental reasons for social involvement lead to competitive advantages  
> A geographically contingent perspective on social involvement |
| Kolyperas & Sparks 2010 | Book chapter | • To examine how CSR affects team identification patterns;  
• CSR is seen as a marketing tool for strengthening relationships between fans and football clubs | Exploratory quantitative: Online questionnaires (n=349) | > CSR creates goodwill effects amongst fans:  
a) Feeling proud to be part of a socially-responsible club  
b) Experiencing CSR initiatives strengthens fan support for the club  
> Relevant business concept to enriching a gradually (as opposed to momentarily) built relationship between fans and the club  
> Better communication strategy needed |
| Dolles & Söderman 2010 | Journal of Management & Organisation | • To examine environmental issues (ecology & sustainability) associated with a mega-sporting event | Case study: (‘Green Goal’& 2006 FIFA World Cup): Secondary material analysis | > Detailed insights into the areas of water, waste, energy, transportation and climate protection  
> Ways of applying ecological and environmentally-friendly measurements in the planning and organisation of mega sporting events |
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<th>Author(s) &amp; Year</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walters &amp; Tacon 2010</td>
<td>Journal of Management &amp; Organisation</td>
<td>• To examine three CSR issues: stakeholder definition and salience; firm actions and responses; stakeholder actions and responses</td>
<td>Exploratory qualitative: Interviews (x15)</td>
<td>&gt; Heterogeneous stakeholder definition and salience amongst football organisations &gt; business model &amp; club’s organisational culture</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kent &amp; Walker 2010</td>
<td>International Journal of Sport Management</td>
<td>• To assess strategic philanthropy in sport as a criterion for consumer behaviour and attitudinal reactions</td>
<td>Quantitative (factorial 5x2 MANOVA design); Questionnaires (n=765)</td>
<td>&gt; Mixed support for the assertion that corporate philanthropy has a positive effect on reputation and patronage</td>
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<tr>
<td>Walker, Kent &amp; Vincent 2010</td>
<td>Sport Marketing Quarterly</td>
<td>• To assess the extent to which sport teams are using e-newsletters to disseminate CSR</td>
<td>Qualitative content analysis: US professional teams (n=30) team e-newsletter (n=818)</td>
<td>&gt; Variety of teams’ eagerness/willingness to use their e-newsletter as a means of CSR dissemination &gt; Diversity of messages/content &gt; One-way communication is insufficient for yielding intended social outcomes &gt; Lack of partnerships between teams and outside organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>McDonald, Smith &amp; Westerbeek 2009</td>
<td>Book chapter</td>
<td>• To examine the extent to which sport has been utilised in CSR programmes</td>
<td>Qualitative: Unspecified number of site visits and interviews; sample size: n=74 indexed multinational companies</td>
<td>Main categories where sport has been utilised as a means for CSR deployment: &gt; Sponsorship &gt; Philanthropic funding &gt; Volunteering &gt; Health &gt; Disability &gt; Grassroots initiatives &gt; Underprivileged &gt; Environment</td>
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<td>Author(s) &amp; Year</td>
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<td>Research Approach</td>
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| Misener & Mason 2009 | Journal of Sport Management | • To explore the potential role of sporting events for community development and social inclusion | Qualitative - collective case study: Semi-structured interviews (x31) | > Divergence of perceptions of what community development agenda should be:  
  a) Sporting events strategy directly tied to community development objectives  
  b) Civic pride as the primary benefit of events |
| Walker & Kent 2009 | Journal of Sport Management | • To examine the relationship between CSR and consumer perceptions in order to determine how the term identification influences this relationship | Explanatory mixed-method: semi-structured interviews (x11) questionnaire ($n=297$ fans) | > Positive relationship between teams’ CSR and patronage intentions  
 > Positive relationship between teams’ CSR and their perceived reputations  
 > CSR is valued by fans when considering product selection and speaking for the organisation |
| Babiak & Wolfe 2009 | Journal of Sport Management | • To examine the drivers (internal & external contextual forces) of CSR in professional sport teams | Qualitative study organisational documents analysis ($n=420$) Unstructured interviews (x8) | Proposes a framework of determinants of CSR adoption by sport teams:  
 > External pressures (such as context, content, constituents, control, cause)  
 > Internal resources (which are rare, valuable, inimitable) |
| Walters 2009 | Journal of Corporate Citizenship | • To demonstrate that the community sports trust model in the football industry is an ideal delivery partner for a commercial organisation to meet its CSR objectives | Qualitative Case Study (two football community Trusts): Unspecified semi-structured interviews secondary documents analysis | > Identifies the seven unique features of sport CSR as initially suggested by Smith & Westerbeek therefore providing external validity for that work  
 > A triangle partnership model:  
   • Charitable Trust  
   • Commercial organisation  
   • Football club |
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<tr>
<td>Sheth &amp; Babiak 2009</td>
<td>Journal of Business Ethics</td>
<td>• To explore how sport executives define CSR and what priorities teams have regarding their CSR activities</td>
<td>Exploratory mixed-method: Survey (n=27) + open-ended qualitative questions</td>
<td>Sport executives approach CSR in the following manners: &gt; community-oriented &gt; collaborative &gt; strategic Carroll’s hierarchy of CSR differs in sport industry context: &gt; ethical and philanthropic more significant than legal and economic CSR practices = youth, education, health and community; &gt; Relationship between team success and reporting CSR marginally significant; &gt; Teams with higher revenue report slightly more CSR involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walters &amp; Chadwick 2009</td>
<td>Management Decision Journal</td>
<td>• To illustrate the strategic benefits that a football club can gain from the implementation of Corporate Citizenship activities through the community trust model of governance</td>
<td>Qualitative Case Study (two football clubs): semi-structured interviews (4+3) secondary documents analysis</td>
<td>Strategic benefits for clubs when implementing CSR: &gt; removal of commercial and community tensions &gt; reputation management &gt; brand building &gt; local authority partnerships &gt; commercial partnerships</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maguire 2008</td>
<td>Soccer and Society Journal</td>
<td>• To provide a general picture of the community work undertaken by football clubs in England</td>
<td>Multi-method: Questionnaires (n=85) &amp; unspecified number of semi-structured and focus group interviews at a sample of sixteen community schemes</td>
<td>Significant growth of CSR work undertaken by football organisations with consequences: &gt; lack of staff &gt; more training needed &gt; poor and/or inconsistent external communication strategies</td>
</tr>
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<td>Author(s) &amp; Year</td>
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<td>Breithbarth &amp; Harris 2008</td>
<td>European Sport Management Quarterly</td>
<td>• To propose a conceptual model of CSR in football</td>
<td>Qualitative: Case studies (x4) (website content analysis)</td>
<td>Sport managers have insufficiently considered the following as part of their strategic business agenda: &gt; Football as agent for human value creation &gt; Football as a business agent for creating financial value for affiliated industries &gt; Football as a social agent for fostering cultural value &gt; Football as a functional agent for bringing together commercial and political actors with community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slack &amp; Shrives 2008</td>
<td>Journal of Applied Accounting</td>
<td>• To examine the extent to which football clubs in the English Premier League communicate community activities through social disclosure</td>
<td>Longitudinal deductive study: Annual Reports (content analysis) questionnaire</td>
<td>&gt; Emphasis on the communication of ‘CSR’ activities &gt; FCs’ response to increased criticism from various stakeholder groups &gt; CSR utilised to deflect media attention &gt; FCs recognise and value the annual report as an effective way to put CSR message across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith &amp; Westerbeek 2007</td>
<td>Journal of Corporate Citizenship</td>
<td>• To explore the role sport can play as a vehicle for deploying CSR</td>
<td>Theoretical</td>
<td>&gt; Mass media distribution and communication power &gt; Youth appeal &gt; Positive health impact &gt; Social interaction &gt; Sustainability awareness &gt; Cultural understanding and integration &gt; Immediate gratification benefits</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brown, Crabbe, Mellor, Blackshaw &amp; Stone 2006</td>
<td>Consulted report</td>
<td>• To provide the football sector with an understanding of how to engage with ‘communities’ of various types</td>
<td>Longitudinal qualitative studies with three major English football clubs (unspecified number of interviews)</td>
<td>A number of strategic recommendations in seven areas: &gt; Strategic frameworks &gt; Club organisation &gt; Partnerships &gt; Stadia &amp; Facilities &gt; Supporters &gt; Social inclusion &gt; Skills &amp; Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s) &amp; Year</td>
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<tr>
<td>Babiak &amp; Wolfe 2006</td>
<td>Sport Marketing Quarterly Journal</td>
<td>• To examine CSR in a mega sporting event</td>
<td>Exploratory case study: secondary source analysis</td>
<td>&gt; Focus on ethical and discretionary components of CSR &gt; Mixed motivations for CSR engagement: altruism (ethics) and pragmatism (business)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extejt 2004</td>
<td>International Journal of Sport Management</td>
<td>• To examine the why and how of sports teams’ corporate philanthropic activity</td>
<td>Quantitative: Data gathered through official channels (e.g., websites, IRS Form 990) &amp; unspecified personal communication</td>
<td>&gt; Establishment of independent charitable foundations &gt; Charitable giving is not associated with team’s profitability or revenue &gt; Youth programmes; health; community development &amp; education represent main categories for teams’ donations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell &amp; Clark 2003</td>
<td>Sport Marketing Quarterly Journal</td>
<td>• To examine cause-related sport sponsorship; attitudes, beliefs and purchase intentions of consumers</td>
<td>Survey-based exploratory study: ( n = 442 ) event spectators</td>
<td>&gt; Spectators view companies’ cause-related marketing activities positively &gt; Consumers are influenced by price despite admiration for companies’ CSR efforts &gt; Demographic differences (men–women) regarding cause-related marketing beliefs, attitude and behavioural intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morrow 2003</td>
<td>Book chapter</td>
<td>• To consider whether and how the financial transformation of football has affected its social aspects (pp. 60-66)</td>
<td>Secondary data analysis: clubs’ 1999/2000 annual reports club websites</td>
<td>&gt; Introduces the concept of Corporate Community Involvement (CCI) in football sector &gt; CCI reflects a rational management response to pressure from various stakeholder groups &gt; Limited disclosure and elaboration in the annual reports &gt; More detailed information about CCI on the clubs’ websites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watson 2000</td>
<td>Book chapter</td>
<td>To explore ‘Football in The Community’ schemes in English football</td>
<td>Mixed-method unspecified research design: questionnaires ( (n = 81) ) interviews ( (x = 70) ) participant observation</td>
<td>&gt; First study to look at ‘Football in The Community’ schemes in English football &gt; Aims and priorities of individual schemes &gt; Mechanics of funding &gt; The position of schemes within football clubs &gt; Reconciling different agendas</td>
</tr>
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‘Taking stock’ on CSR and social involvement of professional team sport organisations

MOTIVES
Coercive
• Government
• Media

Normative
• League regulators

Legitimacy
• Increased revenues
• Restoring credibility

Internal competencies
• Players
• Facilities
• Brand name
• Passion

Strategic
• Reputation building
• Stakeholders engagement
• Partnerships

IMPLEMENTATION
Content
• Youth
• Health
• Education
• Sport participation
• Environment
• Charity

Locally focused actions
• Fans
• Suppliers
• Businesses

Partnerships
• Statutory
• Commercial

Foundations
• Resource capacity
• Funding constraints
• Strategic benefits

BUSINESS CASE
Performance
• Financial (ROI)
• Comprehensive

Reputation building
• Players
• Stakeholders engagement
• Competitive advantage

Patronage
• Loyalty
• Emotional attachment

Cause-related marketing
• Partnerships building
• Strengthening existing fans loyalty
• Enhancing customers relationships

COMMUNICATION
Heterogeneous content
One-way
• Public Relations
• Legitimation

Partnerships
• Inadequate reporting
• Business opportunities
• Network building

Standardised structure
• Greater transparency
• Benchmarking
• Increased credibility

Strategic orientation
• Proactive
• Defensive
• Reactive

Figure 2.1: A literature map of CSR and social involvement in sport
As well as following Morrow (2012) by including a ‘motives’ category, Figure 2.1 also shows how ‘measurement’ has been integrated into the category of ‘business case’. The body of work on professional teams’ indirect (e.g., knock-on effects) and direct (e.g., financial) business performance that can be understood as having resulted from their adoption of CSR has been placed within this category. In addition, Lindgreen and Swaen’s (2010) discussion of the ‘stakeholder engagement’ and ‘implementation’ categories overlap heavily. Lindgreen and Swaen (2010) viewed implementation of CSR as occurring through substantial involvement with various stakeholder groups, and the implementation-based body of work focuses primarily on the content of professional teams’ social involvement. Such an observation may well call into question the applicability of their five-category-based argument to the sport context. This observation has also been made by Walters (2012), who argues that “stakeholder engagement can also be considered as a way in which to implement CSR” (p. 415).

The following four sub-sections, therefore, provide an ex-post review of the most pertinent studies which take their place in the sport-related CSR literature field. However, the placing of any one these works under its particular sub-section should not be understood as definitive. Some of these papers appear under two (or more) of the four categories offered here, and many more of them could have done so. This, perhaps, illustrates not only a profound cross-over and lack of clear-cut boundaries between these categories, but also both the vagueness and complexity of the CSR notion as discussed in previous sections of this chapter.

2.4.1 Motives

Both internal and external motives have their place in the sport-related CSR research agenda. Scholars have explored a number of motives behind CSR activities, such as: professional athletes wishing to establish charitable foundations (Babiak et al., 2012; Tainsky & Babiak, 2011); environmental management initiatives in North American professional teams (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Trendafilova, Babiak, & Heinze, 2013); sporting facilities (Uecker-Mercado & Walker, 2012); outreach work in Scottish football clubs (Hamil & Morrow, 2011); more general CSR engagement in professional North American teams (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009); and image-building in major sporting events (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006). While the focus of the latter study was on ‘what the league does’ in terms of the ethical and discretionary components of CSR, the study also found that reputation-building and the establishment of an emotional bond with customers could be possible drivers behind engagement in the practice.

One of the main features of a grounded theory-based study is the iterative process; that is ‘going back and forth’ between data, analysis and context. Such an iterative process is even relevant when, eventually, one presents or narrates his or her grounded theory-based study.
Later, Babiak and Wolfe (2009) sought to identify and determine the relative importance of CSR drivers in professional North American teams, finding that external drivers such as stakeholders, field connectivity and pressure from league regulators were more important determinants than internal resource factors such as supporter identification and passion or high-profile players and facilities. This interesting conclusion shows that CSR engagement by professional sport teams is both an institutionalised matter (in the search for legitimisation) as well as a strategic one that, in turn, is guided more by the perspective of competitive advantage than from a resource-based view.

More recently, a descriptive but enlightening study by Babiak (2010) made four general observations with regard to how executives in North American sporting leagues understand teams’ engagement in CSR programmes. The study found that firstly, institutional pressures and secondly, parameters of legitimacy remain the major drivers behind such practices. The third observation draws partly on the stakeholder perspective and demonstrates that executives engage in CSR in order to encourage the development of “stronger ties with key stakeholders to meet their demands” (Babiak, 2010, p. 546) – an external driver. The study also illustrates the increasing emphasis that executives are placing on aligning CSR initiatives with organisational resources and competencies – an internal factor. Babiak’s (2010) final observation notes the activation of the globalised appeal of major sports, in which CSR is also seen as a tool to generate interest and loyalty to a sport “not within the markets in which teams and leagues operate, but in areas where professional sport activity does not exist yet” (Babiak, 2010, p. 546).

Motives for CSR engagement have also been examined in the European football sector. For example, Hamil and Morrow’s (2011) work not only provides empirical evidence of the various structures and content that Scottish football clubs use to deliver CSR (that is, implementation) but also looks at the impetus behind such engagement. Proposing that stakeholder theory is the most appropriate approach to understanding contemporary professional football clubs in the UK, Hamil and Morrow (2011) concluded that the motive for CSR engagement in the Scottish Premier League can be (a) normative, where football clubs are influenced by the same standards of professional practice (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983); (b) strategic, where these clubs seek competitive advantage within the same organisational field; or (c) a combination of (a) and (b).

A meta-interpretation of Hamil and Morrow’s (2011) study could lead to the assumption that the CSR engagement of Scottish football clubs combines both rational and economic approaches. The former refers to businesses seeking to maximise their performance by minimising restrictions on operations, while the
latter is concerned with the businesses’ profit (Werther & Chandler, 2011). Hamil and Morrow’s (2011) study takes relevant industry (football) and national (Scottish) contexts into account and can thus be seen as a valuable contribution to this under-researched field of inquiry.

The drivers behind specifically environmentally-oriented initiatives from sporting organisations have also been subject to scrutiny. Babiak and Trendafilova (2011) found that executives in sporting organisations adopting ‘green’ practices seek and are driven by strategic benefits and legitimisation. In a follow-up study, Trendafilova et al. (2013) found that executives placed greater emphasis on institutional forces as determinants of environmentally friendly practices and associated programmes. Coercive forces, such as media, government and watchdog groups, tended to inspect and regulate these organisations. Employees and customers, along with other stakeholder groups in the sporting industry, seem to determine the magnitude and scope of sporting organisations’ CSR engagement, thereby constituting a type of normative pressure that organisations cannot evade. Perhaps unsurprisingly, mimetic behaviour is also discernible, particularly due to the interconnectedness of the organisational field in which professional teams exist and operate.

However, the core product of the sporting industry is the game itself. The protagonists are the players. Without neglecting the cautions made elsewhere that “athletes are also associated with high-profile misdemeanours” (see Morrow, 2012, p. 105), when it comes to the implementation of CSR programmes they are portrayed as role models to whom people (such as consumers and fans) are attached and by whom they are often inspired (Magnusen, Hong, & Mondello, 2011). It is for these reasons that Babiak and colleagues (2012) sought to explore athletes’ motives for setting up charitable foundations to implement socially-related initiatives. The main drivers behind such engagement were identified as altruistic or self-interested attitudes, perceived behaviour control, subjective norms, self-identity and moral obligation (Babiak et al., 2012). A positive relationship was found between an athlete and his or her sporting team where the latter already had an established foundation before the athlete went on to form his or her own (Tainsky & Babiak, 2011).

In principle, the external determinants of CSR in professional sport at least do not seem to be inconsistent with what is apparently the case in more conventional business contexts (Bruch & Walter, 2005; Porter & Kramer, 2006). It is sport’s inherent characteristics (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Godfrey, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007) that make the implementation of CSR in and through professional teams a unique exercise. These characteristics become more evident when examining implementation-oriented works that have studied the matter:
2.4.2 Implementation

Research that relates to the implementation of CSR in the sporting context focuses strongly on the content of such engagement. Extejt (2004), for example, looked at the philanthropic activities by teams in the four major US-based professional sport leagues, with the unit of analysis being the charitable foundations through which the former organisations deliver CSR-related content. This study concluded that the teams view these foundations as control mechanisms, that charitable giving is not associated with the teams’ profitability or revenue, and that the nature of their donations could be categorised under the headings of youth programmes, health, community development and education.

Babiak and Wolfe (2006) explored the CSR activities initiated by a US sports league in collaboration with the host city of major national sporting events such as the Super Bowl. Sheth and Babiak (2009), examining the same US sports leagues’ teams as Extejt (2004), found that Carroll’s (1979) philanthropic and discretionary activities are what matter most to the executives of these teams. More specifically, both altruistic activities (through philanthropy) and strategic activities (through focusing on local community while using both financial and non-financial resources) were found to be amongst the top CSR priorities in the context of professional North American teams’ context. Sheth and Babiak’s (2009) study also highlighted not only the significance of these organisations in terms of being role models, but also the importance of partnership building for delivering the teams’ CSR agenda, which requires close examination of the various stakeholder groups that can assist in and be affected by the process.

More recently, the CSR content of sport organisations in general (not just of professional teams) has been examined from a more conceptual standpoint. Walker and Parent (2010) argued that the social involvement of sporting organisations can be explained in part by the geographical reach, stakeholder influences and business operations of the organisations concerned. To some extent, Walker and Parent (2010) corroborated Sheth and Babiak’s (2009) study, positing that, given the historical roots and close relationships with local stakeholders, the social involvement of professional teams is characterised more by altruistic-based content (for example, philanthropic programmes and community outreach) and less by more instrumental and socially impactful activities.

The lack of strategic instrumentalism found in Walker and Parent’s study (2010) has also been observed in the context of European professional teams. For example, A. Brown, McGee, M. Brown, and Ashton (2010) called for a more horizontal
integration of community interests in the core business of the English football clubs, with CSR-related programmes playing a major part in their recommendations. Such recommendations may not be surprising, considering that a good number of football clubs across Europe regard connecting with the community as a challenging exercise; they also question assumptions that these professional teams are automatically embedded within their communities (Walters & Tacon, 2011).

McGuire's (2008) study regarding the community work undertaken by English football clubs had already provided a 'picture' of one of the key points in Brown et al.'s (2010) report. McGuire conducted elaborate empirical research that combined data from surveys and interviews with an emphasis on the links across contextual levels. McGuire's (2008) work showcased the fact that the scale and profile of CSR carried out by clubs has increased considerably, especially in terms of outreach work, but also highlighted issues managers face in terms of resource capacity, lack of training, and funding constraints. Parnell, Stratton, Drust and Richardson (2013) empirically corroborated one of McGuire's points by demonstrating the need for organisational changes within the charitable foundations that practise CSR. In particular, they argued that these organisations must develop and utilise more effective working practices that relate specifically to the individuals involved in the direct delivery of the programmes.

Two other empirical descriptive studies that can be located within the 'implementation' category are by Walters and Tacon (2010) and Alonso and O'Shea (2012). The former examines CSR in the context of English football through the lens of stakeholder theory and argues that CSR can be affected through stakeholder engagement after various conditional factors (including stakeholder definition and salience) have been considered and the actions and responses of both businesses and stakeholders have been taken into account. Alonso and O'Shea's (2012) study took a similar approach but with regard to football clubs in the Australian context from their role as social anchors. They argued that although these organisations can be the catalyst for networking and other forms of enhancing the social capital of their surrounding community, while at the same time fulfilling some of their business objectives, more strategic efforts are required at both organisational (club-wise) and institutional (league-wise) levels in order to meet the community's expectations.

Jenkins and James (2012) referred to such stakeholder-based expectations and relationships in their examination of how Premier League football clubs in England are addressing community-based programmes in the context of CSR. Their findings indicate that while clubs have become very active in community-related programmes, they have not managed to communicate such involvement as effectively.

8 The analysis in McGuire's study was conducted on data from 2002–2003.
as those behind their implementation would like. There also seems to be a general lack of focus on the business case for CSR, and synergies with the corporate world (as opposed to the statutory organisations) remain unexploited. Jenkins and James (2012) agreed with other researchers (e.g., Breitbarth et al., 2011; Breitbarth & Harris, 2008; Walters & Tacon, 2011) who posited that although football clubs may address CSR issues, they do so in an un-strategic fashion. The strategic approach to CSR implementation assumes even higher significance when one considers that insufficient funding (Jenkins & James, 2012) and resource constraints (Walters & Tacon, 2011) seem to be the greatest obstacles to the realisation of CSR-related programmes.

Therefore, it is evident that if CSR-related programmes are to be implemented, professional teams must work in conjunction with a number of statutory and commercial organisations. With particular regard to commercial organisations, Smith and Westerbeek (2007) highlighted the “intersection of mutual responsibilities in the combination of the financial leverage available to corporations and the symbolic power inherent in sport” (p. 43). Although sport should not be regarded as an unproblematic context (Morrow, 2012), much less a magic elixir (Inoue & Kent, 2012b), this fusion of financial and symbolic power suggested by Smith and Westerbeek (2007) seems to be valid in the professional teams’ context and has also been noted elsewhere (e.g., Alonso & O’Shea, 2012; Kolyperas & Sparks, 2010; Walters, 2009; Walters & Chadwick, 2009).

MacDonald, Smith and Westerbeek (2009) examined the extent to which mainstream companies have used sport for CSR purposes. They studied the indexed multinational companies that had the highest CSR performance rankings and showed that the CSR-through-sport activities of these companies are comprised primarily of sponsorship, followed by a focus on philanthropic funding, volunteers, health, disability, grassroots initiatives, underprivileged groups, and the environment. Levermore (2010) addressed the same subject from a more critical perspective, identifying some of the limitations involved in employing CSR through sport. For Levermore, although the sporting context provides a platform for building partnerships between institutions that would not normally work together, this development is most often driven by the needs of the donor (business) rather than those of the community the programme is supposed to serve.

Spaaij and Westerbeek (2010) highlighted the same point as Levermore (2010). Although they acknowledged the potential for sport to create and maintain social capital through CSR-related activities, they also recognised that the aim of furthering corporate business objectives might be disproportional to the production of social
capital (in favour of the former). For Spaaij and Westerbeek (2010), this favourability might be reasonable, to some extent, given the competitive business environment within which both mainstream and sport organisations operate. However, they underlined that “improved knowledge of the relationship between social gains and economic success may well lead to increasing investment in the achievement of social outcomes” (p. 1370). Levermore (2011) built on this observation by calling for fewer top-down quantitative approaches when evaluating these sport-for-development programmes, arguing that their diverse nature and sometimes “very loose objectives” (p. 352) did not lend themselves well to such appraisal.

The increased amount of discussion on CSR implementation through partnerships led Walters and Anagnostopoulos (2012) to further examine this method of CSR application in sport by investigating the social partnerships at work within UEFA’s CSR partner portfolio. The exploratory nature of that case study enabled the authors to identify a range of issues that have a bearing on the process of partnership implementation, the most important of which are capability, fit, communication and commitment. A key finding of that study, however, was that the high degree of interpersonal trust among the executives involved in implementation led to a lack of process (as opposed to project) evaluation.

However, it has been argued (Walters, 2009) that partnership-building to implement CSR can occur in a more strategic fashion by establishing charitable foundations. The charitable foundation model, therefore, has been identified as the ideal format through which commercial organisations can deliver CSR objectives (Walters & Chadwick, 2009). This latter work posits that establishing a charitable foundation offers strategic advantages for professional teams, such as the removal of commercial and community tensions, reputation management, brand building, local authority partnerships, commercial partnerships and player identification. In a similar vein, Bingham and Walters (2013), while referring to English football charitable foundations, emphasised the need for these organisations to reduce their reliance on (mainly public) grant funding and to instead seek sponsorship opportunities with commercial organisations. The main points of all three works by Walters and colleagues have been that such an exercise could bring additional funding and resources, financial stability, and the expansion of operations, as well as creating a community and business network hub. Therefore, Bingham and Walters (2013) indirectly responded to both Jenkins and James’ (2012) and Walters and Tacon’s (2011) aforementioned findings that resource constraints and the securing of funds are proving to be the greatest obstacles to pushing CSR-related content further.
It is safe to assume that the constraints and challenges discussed above have a bearing on the overall ‘outcomes’ of CSR-related activities within the field of professional teams’ organisation. The body of works that has been located under the business case for CSR broadly refers to these outcomes.

2.4.3 Business case

For Lindgreen and Swaen (2010), the ‘business case’ for CSR is based on the reasoning that CSR engagement by (sport) organisations offers a ‘win-win’ scenario for both the organisation and its community. Therefore, both empirical and theoretical works that are associated directly or indirectly with image and reputation, competitive advantage, consumer goodwill, positive employee behaviour and patronage intentions have fallen under this category.

Inoue, Kent and Lee (2011) found that CSR engagement did not, in principle, affect the financial performance of professional US teams, either in terms of match attendance or operating margin, with the latter varying across different sporting leagues. Amongst a number of observations made in this study, one is that CSR is mainly guided by the owners’ altruism, which makes the teams’ social involvement a responsive rather than strategic practice. Another key observation is a lack of communication of the teams’ CSR initiatives; this observation reinforces the other to some extent.

Measuring CSR per se in professional teams has become another focus for researchers. For example, Breitbarth et al. (2011) proposed a CSR performance scorecard for professional football clubs that considers ethical-emotional achievement as well as economic-financial and socio-political achievement. Operationalising the former dimension would be a challenge for sport managers; nevertheless, the study’s context-specific conceptual approach is vital for a better understanding of the CSR concept itself within the strategic sport management field. Considering that consumers perceive corporate ethics as an important element of the football clubs’ brand image (Blumrodt, Bryson, & Flanagan, 2012), the need for executives in professional teams to incorporate the concept of CSR in their strategic agenda becomes vital. This is particularly important considering, as an earlier empirical study substantiates (Breitbarth & Harris, 2008), that executives in football have so far insufficiently integrated CSR principles into their business and strategic management.

Other empirical works from the business case perspective have looked at issues such as the potential benefits to professional teams for operating in a more environmentally friendly manner (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011; Trendafilova &
Babiak, 2013) and questions of patronage in relation to CSR and sports consumers in North American professional teams (Walker & Kent, 2009), the golf industry (Walker & Kent, 2010), and the Olympic Games (Walker, Heere, Parent, & Drane, 2010a). Kent and Walker’s (2010) study to some extent echoes the findings of these three works by reporting mixed support for the assertion that corporate philanthropy has an overall positive effect on reputation and patronage. Nevertheless, the same authors (Walker & Kent, 2009) have previously shown that most fans view CSR favourably and that CSR should therefore be regarded as an important aspect of the overall business strategy of a professional team. This last argument is consistent with a number of empirical works on the matter (T. Kim, Kwak, K. Kim, 2010; Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2010; Roy, 2011).

Lacey and Kennett-Hensel’s (2010) longitudinal work deserves particular attention since it has been the first study to examine linkages between fans’ perception of the social involvement of a professional team and the strength of the fans’ relationship with the organisation from the start to the end of a team’s business cycle (playing season). The three relational outcomes – purchase behaviour, word-of-mouth communication and following the team’s performance – demonstrated a positive effect from the committed customers. These results show “how CSR can play a valuable role in engaging and enhancing customer relationships” (Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2010, p. 593).

Both Kim et al. (2010) and Roy (2011) drew on cause-related marketing (CRM), with the former study explaining the relationship among CSR, attitude and attendance, supporting the belief that a professional team’s CSR initiatives will enhance sport consumer’s attitudes towards that team and eventually increase their level of sport consumption. Roy’s (2011) study assessed the relationship between sponsor-cause congruence and consumer responses to cause marketing programmes for professional sporting leagues. One of Roy’s observations (2011) is that “cause marketing should be used as a strategy for strengthening relationships amongst existing fans rather than expecting to influence less interested people to like or follow the sport brand” (p. 32). Although much depends on the ability and trustworthiness of such CSR-related initiatives in professional teams (Inoue & Kent, 2013), Roy’s (2011) conclusion becomes even more interesting if it is considered alongside Lacey and Kennett-Hensel’s (2010) findings.

Within the US context, Giannoulakis and Drayer (2009) explored individuals’ perceptions of a league’s social campaign (‘NBA Cares’) to restore the credibility and image of its most valuable assets (its players). These authors conclude that such an institutionalised initiative had a generally positive effect on current and potential...
consumers. This conclusion is in line with findings from Magnusen et al.’s (2011) study, which argued for a significant relationship between athletes’ political skills and influence tactics on the consumers/fans’ advocacy intentions and by extension on the professional team’s CSR reputation.

Kolyperas and Sparks (2010) introduced a fan-centric model to the football sector from a marketing perspective – though always with patronage in mind – with the aim of defining the influential role that CSR plays in enhancing corporate (such as loyalty, emotional attachment, and pride) rather than behavioural (such as purchase intentions and merchandise consumption) benefits. The importance of fan bases arises from the finding that CSR creates goodwill effects amongst fans by enabling more positive attributes to be assigned to the football club; paradoxically, though, only a small number of those fans realise its importance and show any significant interest. The authors argue that this “reveals some worrying marketing pitfalls” and makes it necessary for football clubs to “seek better communications of CSR initiatives” (Kolyperas & Sparks, 2010, pp. 25–26).

2.4.4 Communication

The extent to which sport organisations are able to disseminate knowledge of their CSR activities, and the limitations they face when doing so, represents a relatively under-researched area of scholarly activity. The issue of communication has been explored by Walker, Kent and Vincent (2010b), who analysed US sport teams’ dissemination of CSR initiatives to their stakeholders via electronic newsletters. Besides the lack of a homogeneous content amongst the examined teams’ e-newsletters – which is not necessarily a negative finding – this study suggests that such one-way communication may not be enough to produce the intended social outcomes, thereby reinforcing the claims of CSR critics that this engagement merely serves the purposes of PR and legitimation. Another key observation from that study is the inadequate reporting on partnerships with outside organisations, a point that suggests high potential within sport organisations and commercial entities for strategic collaborations.

Spector et al.’s (2012) study may offer a partial explanation and possible solution to Walker et al.’s (2010b) observation. Examining the extent to which American ski resorts communicate environmentally-related issues at the operational level, Spector et al. (2012) found that less than half of these resorts approach the matter proactively. Accordingly, the researchers made two key recommendations that may be applicable to other sport contexts, including team sport organisations: (a) a standardised structure for online communications; and (b) greater transparency, which can be partly achieved through (a).
One way forward for such a standardised structure could be professional sport leagues’ adoption of the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) framework, through which teams disseminate information about their social involvement. To date, only three professional football clubs in the world (SC Corinthians Paulista [Brazil], Djurgårdens Fotboll [Sweden] and VfL Wolfsburg [Germany]) have produced CSR reports that meet the GRI standards, and only VfL Wolfsburg’s has also been externally certified (Connor, 2013).

Slack and Shrives’ (2008) study was an early attempt to examine the extent to which football clubs in the English Premier League communicate news of community-based programmes in their annual reports. Drawing on legitimacy theory, the authors concluded that reporting on CSR-related activities by English football clubs falls within a legitimisation strategy that also emphasises other good acts without necessarily relating them to past ills. Such communication has “been utilised to deflect media attention” (Slack & Shrives, 2008, p. 25). Hamil and Morrow’s (2011) study also touched upon the issue of communication, demonstrating that enhanced communication of CSR provides an opportunity to improve stakeholder accountability within a corporate governance structure, and facilitates the development of relational partnerships and networks.

However, the importance of communicating CSR activities should not be restricted to the (possible) direct business benefits that they can bring to the sporting organisation, as they may also result in socially beneficial behaviour. For example, the symbolic power that professional teams possess became evident in the study by Inoue and Kent (2012a). The authors found that a professional team’s positive environmental practices increase consumer internalisation of the team’s values, making it possible to persuade them to behave in an environmentally responsible manner. As discussed in the previous section, such behaviour from the consumers’ perspective may ultimately have an indirect positive effect on the organisation itself from a competitive advantage point of view through reputation-building and strengthening the brand name.

Therefore Kolyperas and Sparks (2011), recognising the significance of CSR communication in the professional teams’ setting, sought to examine not only what football clubs in different countries communicate regarding their CSR efforts, but also the ways in which this is achieved. The authors concluded that the way these organisations communicate their social involvement can be seen as evolutionary, an observation that suggests what potential benefits might be realised through a more strategically-oriented approach. The study also demonstrates that different (football) cultures have a bearing on CSR communication strategies, ranging from
proactive to defensive and reactive. This finding indirectly corroborates Godfrey, Hatch and Hansen’s (2010) warning against neglecting “relevant industry contexts and forces” (p. 341) when examining CSR.

2.5 Knowledge gaps in team sport CSR

The preceding sections revealed the remarkable amount of attention that CSR in sport organisations in general, and in professional teams in particular, has attracted from the scholarly community over the last few years. However, “much remains to be understood regarding the social activities of, and benefits for, sport organisations” with regards to CSR (Walker & Parent, 2010, p. 199). This is because we have not yet accumulated a systematically organised body of work that would make it possible to claim that the sport management field is ‘on the cutting edge’ of this phenomenon (Kent, 2011). The present study corroborates such assertions and, by drawing on the literature discussed earlier, this section postulates a number of knowledge gaps related to CSR in professional team sport organisations.

It has been well documented that the majority of professional teams in the North American context (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009), in UK football (Anagnostopoulos, 2013; Bingham & Walters, 2013) and in European football (Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011; Walters & Tacon, 2011) have now established charitable foundations for delivering their CSR-related agendas. However, a number of issues that concern all three dimensions of organisational structure in this new state of affairs remain unexplored. For example, where does the charitable foundation ‘sit’ within the professional teams’ organisational structure? More specifically, these charitable foundations are managed and governed by both a number of external trustees, who often play a key role in the strategic formulation of the CSR agenda, and also by executives from the ‘parent’ professional team, which unavoidably increases the level of organisational complexity. However, gaps exist regarding decision-making vis-à-vis the relationship between complexity and (de-)centralisation in the context of CSR. These gaps represent fertile research ground for scholars, and could potentially lead to clarification of the strategic and operational imperatives of charitable foundations.

At the organisational level of analysis, professional teams may achieve the best possible benefits from such CSR engagement by shifting the focus of scholarship away from content-based research towards more process-oriented approaches. If strategy content research focuses exclusively on which CSR-related programmes lead to optimal performance under varying environmental contexts (Chakravarthy & Doz, 1992), then research on how a professional team’s CSR organisational structure,
management systems and decision processes influence its strategic positions could offer a fertile starting point for a better understanding of the CSR notion. After all, strategy content research tends to deal “only with the interface between the firm and its environment” (Chakravarthy & Doz, 1992, p. 6), whereas more process-oriented research is also associated with the behavioural interactions of individuals, groups, and/or organisational units, within or between organisations (Hirsch, 1991) and, for that matter, professional teams. The gap to which reference is made here echoes Aguinis and Glavas’ (2012) call to conduct “research that can help us understand the processes and underlying mechanisms through which CSR actions and policies lead to particular outcomes” (p. 953).

While professional teams are increasingly embracing the notion of CSR, it is also safe to argue that, from a strategic perspective, the social involvement of these organisations remains at the development stage. Together, these two observations imply that professional teams see themselves going through an organisational change that manifests itself in areas such as the creation of charitable foundations, hiring personnel for overseeing CSR projects, or placing more emphasis on ethical issues at the internal and external levels. However, although current research tends to approach this ‘change’ professional teams have undergone from an organisational level of analysis, it is the organisational actors “who actually strategize, make decisions and execute CSR initiatives” (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012, p. 953).

Having acknowledged this, the individual level of analysis involves gaps in our understanding of how these organisational actors go about making strategic decisions (process) regarding CSR-related programmes (content) within a specific institutional setting (context). For example, which factors help teams’ organisational actors make both strategic and operational decisions about their company’s social involvement within a determined CSR landscape in which institutional ‘recipes’ must be followed both (a) at the meso-level (e.g., by the leagues that broadly govern professional teams) and (b) at the macro-level (for example, by national governments that set social and environmental political agendas)? From the opposite angle, how do teams’ organisational actors overcome the constraints and challenges associated with the formulation and subsequent implementation of CSR-related programmes? How do these actors manage possible tensions (such as charitable foundation’s objectives vis-à-vis ‘parent’ professional team’s objectives), and what type of methods are the diverse key ‘players’ who are required for the realisation of CSR (e.g., foundation trustees, team’s executives, commercial partners, state funders) using to turn altruistic devotion into strategic engagement with clear, impactful outcomes for all parties involved?
All the above-mentioned considered, this thesis notes (a) the scant scholarly attention given to the charitable corporate foundations from the mainstream and sport business sector alike, (b) the scarcity of sport management empirical studies which place the concept of decision-making at their core, (c) the lack of individual-level-focused analyses with regards to CSR formulation and implementation, and (d) the largely overlooked issues associated with ‘how’ CSR ‘happens’, as both a need and an opportunity. Consequently, it will empirically examine the managerial decision-making process within the charitable foundations of the English football clubs. The point of departure for this research, therefore, is the idea that the way in which managers themselves interpret the formulation and implementation process of CSR is key to understanding the nature and purpose of the specific CSR-related programmes they oversee. Such an understanding of the managerial decision-making process can potentially contribute towards a strategically improved design of CSR-related programmes delivered through the charitable foundations established by professional team sport organisations. The former organisations, therefore, provide the organisational context of this study. The section that follows offers an account of this context and demonstrates some key issues that reinforce the need for additional studies in this particular environment.

2.6 Context of the thesis
The increased commercialisation of football has now made the game a business sector of its own (Dolles & Söderman, 2013; Hamil & Chadwick, 2010). However, a side-effect of this commercialisation has been mounting criticism of various business practices (e.g., poor governance, financial problems, corruption, controversial players’ behaviour, etc.). The English football clubs, which make up the wealthiest football league in Europe (Deloitte, 2013), all exist in a climate of ever-increasing brand exposure and visibility. These ‘common denominators’ (i.e., questionable business practices and brand visibility) render calls for greater transparency and accountability either an unavoidable strain (Slack & Shrives, 2008), or an opportunity to strategically (re-)position ‘business affairs’ (Walters & Chadwick, 2009).

The latter, in particular, began assuming more formal dimensions in the early 2000s when ‘Football in The Community’ (FiTC) departments gradually gained independence from their football clubs by converting themselves into foundations
with charitable status and separate boards of trustees (Figure 2.2). This development has resulted in English football practising more strongly institutionalised forms of CSR than any of its European counterparts (Hovemann et al., 2011; Walters & Tacon, 2011).

In the interim, Brown, Crabbe, Mellor, Blackshaw and Stone (2006) had already recognised that this model for delivering CSR-related programmes would offer a greater degree of structural autonomy, responsibility for these organisations’ own strategic and financial direction, access to a wider variety of funding streams, and a reduced need to balance the tension between commercial and community objectives. By May 2011, 89 Premier League (PL) and Football League (FL) clubs had their own foundation (see Figure 2.3), a testament to the foundation model’s huge popularity in the football sector (Bingham & Walters, 2013).
Although Brown et al.’s (2006) recommendations were based on the assumption that the foundations would retain their association with the football club, in 2011 the PL and FL introduced a service level agreement (SLA) between a club and its foundation that recommends a minimum of two members of the club’s senior management sit on the board of trustees (Anagnostopoulos, 2013). In theory, this SLA has meant that football clubs now have the opportunity to integrate community interests in their core businesses horizontally, as called for in a later report by Brown, McGee, Brown and Ashton (2010). At the same time, however, the possibility of a new state of affairs in the composition of the board within these charitable organisations – itself the result of micro-institutional action by the leagues – raises some interesting questions. For example, does this ‘recommendation’ imply that the interests of the foundation managers have not always been perfectly aligned with the interests of the clubs’ management? Whether this is the case or not, what is the role of the foundation manager, both in formulating and implementing the CSR agenda in such a potentially multi-high-powered organisational setting? Does the manager’s specialised knowledge of day-to-day operations mean that he/she remains the dominant organisational actor regarding CSR implementation? Affirmative answers to these types of questions may be influenced by assumptions.

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9 This chart was compiled from data obtain from the Charity Commission for England and Wales (www.charity-comission.gov.uk)
based on various theoretical perspectives such as agency theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976) or managerial hegemony theory (Herman, 1981; Mace, 1971; Stiles, 2001), but empirical evidence, either in mainstream corporate or specific sporting contexts, has yet to be offered.

A better understanding of these possible organisational challenges is crucial given that changes at the organisational level (that is, the act of creating the foundations) have arguably had a positive impact on the ‘parent’ company through reputation enhancement, brand-building, partnerships with local authorities and commercial organisations, as well as possible player identification (Walters & Chadwick, 2009). This strategic focus of CSR implementation was evident in Hamil and Morrow’s (2011) study, the underlying message of which was that the development of relational partnerships and networks will be achieved through enhanced communication and subsequent careful stakeholder management. One could, of course, support that executives from the ‘parent’ football club are amongst the dominant stakeholders in the implementation of CSR in English football. This is especially likely if the leagues’ recommendation that the clubs have a presence in the foundation’s board is heeded. However, the more diversity there is among the members of the foundation (e.g., club representatives, trustees from local authorities, regional businesses and so forth), the greater the potential for conflicting interests requiring the attention and consideration of the foundation manager. The question then becomes whether the manager can remain both a good steward and loyal to the ‘parent’ company (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997) whilst also satisfying the broader social interests of other key stakeholder groups who may be involved in the process (Freeman, 1984). To this end, this research acknowledges with Hamil and Morrow (2011) the relevance and appropriateness of stakeholder theory in the examination of contemporary professional football; it also wonders however, at the individual level of analysis and in a more micro-context (i.e., football clubs vis-à-vis charitable foundation), whether additional theories (e.g., stewardship theory) may also be in play.

In such a complex, and potentially multi-theoretically-driven, organisational context, the current study – broadly situated within the business and society domain – focuses on the individual level of analysis. It sets out to examine managerial decision-making regarding the community programmes which are formulated in, and implemented by, the charitable foundations of English football clubs.
2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has sought to place the current study in the scholarly domain of ‘business and society’ by offering a historical and critical perspective of the notion of CSR followed by a brief account to the major approaches that inform the concept of decision-making. The chapter has also examined the extant literature on CSR in sport with the aim not only of developing a theoretical sensitivity, but also of demonstrating that research explicitly examining decision-making related to the implementation, business case, motives and communication of CSR in sport has yet to penetrate scholarly discussion. The main point raised in the current chapter is that, despite “our advancements in understanding CSR in sport” (Doherty, 2013, p. 5), much remains to be learnt at both the organisational and individual levels of analysis in relation to CSR in professional teams. The suggestion made here, therefore, is a move away from examining the notion per se and consider the notion as a ‘contextual platform’ upon which concepts and processes from organisation theory and organisational behaviour are examined (i.e., decision-making). The hope is that such research will lead indirectly to a better understanding of CSR itself in the field of sport management broadly, and professional sport teams specifically.

With a better understanding of the works that have thus far informed the topic of CSR, and having established the need for supplementary work on CSR decision-making in sport management, the next chapter provides a detailed account of the methodology employed in the current study.
Chapter 3
Methodology

3.1 Introduction and purpose
The current research seeks to answer the following grand tour question: ‘How do charitable foundation managers make decisions about CSR-related programmes?’ The present chapter details the research process employed in an attempt to answer this question. The chapter begins by outlining the philosophical stances that inform this thesis, before some essential explanations regarding the methodological approach adopted here (a qualitative strategy) are discussed. This discussion, drawing on the epistemological stance of social constructionism and the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism, aims to articulate the rationale behind the decision to adopt a grounded theory methodology. The chapter goes on to assess the main variants of this methodology, and the factors affecting the suitability of grounded theory for this research are also discussed. Central to this endeavour is the internal consistency of any study conducted using a grounded theory methodology, which is examined specifically through its fundamental procedures and key issues concerning data quality. Subsequently, the data collection techniques that have been employed, as well as a detailed account of the sample population and the interview procedure, are given. Finally, the use of computer software for the purposes of data management is addressed, and the chapter concludes by outlining the ethical issues associated with this research. Table 3.1 provides an overview of the research design adopted in the study; it illustrates the philosophical assumptions and the key methodological issues which, in turn, are explained in the subsequent sections of this chapter.
Table 3.1: Philosophical assumptions & methodological issues related to study’s research design.

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<td>Methodology</td>
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<td>Evaluation Criteria</td>
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3.2 Philosophical stance

The advent of the anti-positivist era has been characterised by a growing acceptance of ontological and epistemological diversity. This diversity is often shaped and mirrored by different paradigms. More than three decades ago, Burrell and Morgan (1979) expanded the collective consciousness of researchers by introducing a typology of paradigms for the analysis of social and organisational theory.\(^1\) Few can dispute that the term ‘paradigm’ has been used loosely in academic research and, as Collins (1996) adds, increasingly in management writing. Nevertheless, Burrell and Morgan use the term ‘paradigm’ in a more confined sense, examining some of the philosophical assumptions which underlie different approaches to the social sciences, with these assumptions consisting of four distinct but related elements: ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology (ibid.).

Assumptions of the **ontological** kind, where “ontology is the study of being” and concerns “what is, with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality”, relate to the fundamental nature of the social phenomena being investigated (Crotty, 1998, p. 10). The word ontology derives from the Greek word “ον” (pronounced “on”), meaning “being” and/or “existence”, and the word “λόγος”, which translates as “word”. The central question of ontology concerns whether reality is objective in nature or the result of individual cognition; ‘Is there a given reality ‘out there’ in

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\(^1\) The term ‘paradigm’ has been interpreted in various ways by different researchers. In the Kuhnian sense, paradigms are “universally recognised scientific achievements that for a time provide model problems and solutions to a community of practitioners (1962, p. viii). Burrell and Morgan use the term as a “commonality of perspective which binds the work of a group of theorists together” (1979, p. 23). I use the term ‘paradigm’ here in Burrell and Morgan’s broader sense rather than Kuhn’s more specialised definition.
the world, or is it created by one’s own mind?” The realists’ ontology contends that “objects have an independent existence and are not dependants for it on the knower” (Cohen & Mahon, 1994, p. 6) and that, “such objects, exist independently outside of the mind” (Crotty, 1998, p. 10). By contrast, a relativist (or idealist) ontological position would argue that objects and phenomena exist only in the sense that they are ‘perceived’ (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Consistent with the Straussian variant of grounded theory, the ontological stance adopted in this study assumes a relativist position - that there are (or may be) multiple external realities existing in tremendous fluidity. As Strauss (1993, p. 19) writes, “it is a universe where nothing is strictly determined; its phenomena should be partly determinable via naturalistic analysis, including the phenomena of people participating in the construction of the structures which shape their lives”. In particular, the author shares Corbin’s observation (see Corbin & Strauss, 2008) that contemporary thought on grounded theory, like the work of Clarke (2005) or Charmaz (2006), has had an influence on her own thinking regarding this methodology. In this study too, although I realise that there is no single ‘reality’ waiting to be discovered, I do believe there are external events. After all, as Schawndt (1998, p. 237 – cited in Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p.10) states, “one can reasonably hold that concepts and ideas are invented (rather than discovered) yet maintain that these inventions correspond to something in the real world”. To a large extent, this line of thinking is based upon the theoretical underpinnings of symbolic interactionism. As will be discussed in more detail, the pragmatist reasoning implies the possibility of multiple realities, or according to James (1907 - cited in Shalin, 1986, p. 11) “a pluralistic universe, comprised of many worlds, each one rational in each one way, each reflecting alternative lines of action, ends and situations”.

**Epistemological** assumptions pertain to the very basis of knowledge; its nature, how it is acquired and how it may be best communicated to others. The word epistemology derives from the Greek word “επιστήμη” which means “knowledge” (knowledge derived not from lived experiences but rather from a systematic study of a specific field or discipline), and “λόγος”. The epistemological stance invoked here assumes that “all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42).

For the set of assumptions concerning human nature, the focus is predominantly on the relationship between human beings and their environment. It can be expressed by the question: ‘how much influence do humans have over their environment, and how far can they adapt it in accordance with their needs and beliefs?’ Philosophically

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2 See section 3.4.4 in this chapter.
realist researchers who accept that there is an objective reality existing independently of human beings, with a determined nature or essence, must consider themselves restricted in their ability to affect their research environment. The other camp, who accept that the social world is the product of individual cognition, consider themselves to be largely autonomous in creating their own research environment. The current research is located within this latter camp.

The element of methodology is also part of Burrell and Morgan’s (1979) typology of paradigms, and moves the discussion away from underlying philosophical assumptions (i.e., ontology, epistemology and human nature) and towards research design and data collection. Put simply, whichever worldview researchers accept, they should strive for a certain degree of consistency within it to give credibility to the paradigm they choose. Ontological assumptions assist researchers in deciding on certain criteria for judging consistency, while analysis and interpretation should be guided by criteria from the adopted epistemological position. In addition, the researchers’ beliefs about human nature should be consistent. Thus, the question of meaning attribution should be presented in a context that admits the conditionality of their work.

In order for the current study, therefore, to satisfy philosophical and methodological criteria of consistency, a clear statement as to which paradigm informs this research is necessary.

### 3.2.1 Situating the study: Interpretive paradigm

The interpretive paradigm is grounded in the view that people socially and symbolically construct - and sustain - their own organisational realities (cf. Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Morgan & Smircich, 1980). The goal of theory building within the interpretive paradigm therefore is to generate descriptions, insights, and explanations of events: "in this way the systems of interpretation and meaning, and the structuring and organising processes, are revealed” (Gioia & Pitre, 1990, p. 588). Organisations (e.g., charitable foundations and football clubs), and for that matter the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes through decision-making processes, are viewed as being the creations of the actors involved, in the sense that they do not participate in a concrete external reality which existed prior to these actors. As Reed (1992) writes, organisations within the interpretive paradigm are often referred to as structures in process - they are the creations or, often, the creative fictions of the actors involved (Collins, 1996). From a ‘methodological’ point of view, Gioia and Pitre’s (1990) writings echo the methodology adopted by this thesis (grounded theory) when mentioning that:
Analysis begins during data collection and typically uses coding procedures to discern patterns in the (usually) qualitative data so that descriptive codes, categories, taxonomies, or interpretive schemes that are adequate at the level of meaning of the informants can be established. Thereafter, analysis, theory generation, and further data collection go hand in hand (p. 588).

Within this context, researchers acknowledge that they are not independent of the phenomenon under investigation; rather, the researchers and the subject of study have a close and interdependent relationship. Such an observation reinforces not only the choice of a grounded theory methodology, but also its Straussian variant, which will subsequently be discussed in more detail. Having established the reasons why this study is situated within the interpretive paradigm, a more detailed account of the grounded theory methodology will now be given.

### 3.3 Research design

The aim of this research is to develop a theoretical framework that explains the way in which managers in English football charitable foundations make decisions about CSR-related programmes. This requires a reflexive, interpretive stance based on an abductive\(^3\) approach and a qualitatively-oriented strategy. Various scholars argue that some areas of study naturally lend themselves more to qualitative strategies; in particular, “research that attempts to uncover the nature of persons’ experiences” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 19). In essence, a qualitatively-oriented strategy will enable the researcher to obtain in-depth information that may be difficult to convey quantitatively. Since this study specifically examines interpretations (formed by foundation managers regarding decision-making processes of CSR-related programmes), a qualitative strategy is clearly most suitable, facilitating a nuanced analysis of personal experiences and opinions. The distinction that Denzin and Lincoln (1994) draw between quantitative and qualitative types of research exemplifies the rationale behind choosing the qualitative route to answer this research question:

...qualitative implies an emphasis on processes and meanings that are not rigorously examined or measured (if measured at all) in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency. Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied ... they seek answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. In contrast, quantitative studies emphasise the measurement and analysis of the causal relationship between variables, not processes (p. 4)

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\(^3\) Issues associated with the inductive/deductive approach are explained in later sections of this chapter as discussions on philosophical issues are developed.
Although the aim of the current study has been fundamental in selecting a qualitatively-oriented strategy, the author’s own preferences also tended in this direction. Guba and Lincoln (1994) argue that personal preference is a legitimate reason for selecting a particular type of research. In their view, the personal attributes, experiences, skills and interests of the researcher can influence their selection in favour of the strategy best suited to their abilities (ibid.). It is, however, one thing to assert a preference for a particular methodological standpoint; it is another matter entirely to argue why such a standpoint should be adopted. The point here is that framing the study within a particular methodological strategy has implications that go beyond the researcher’s personal preferences. When reflecting on the field of inquiry, namely managerial decision-making in the business and society domain, it becomes clear that the context of the research rests on various assumptions. Burrell and Morgan (1979) suggest that certain research assumptions are essentially theories of organisation based upon a philosophy and theory of society, and these assumptions may be understood by examining their ontology and epistemology. Hughes and Sharrock (1990) contend that “it is necessary for philosophical issues to be understood as prerequisite, in order that sound methodology for an inquiry can be laid down in advance of the empirical research itself” (p. 5).

Having put forward the rationale behind the adoption of a qualitatively-oriented research strategy, the question then arises as to why grounded theory has been judged as the most appropriate methodology to be employed here. Why is grounded theory the most suitable methodology for gaining a better understanding of how charitable foundation managers in English football make decisions about CSR-related programmes? A rationale behind this decision is provided in the sections that follow.

3.3.1 Rationale for selecting grounded theory
There is an absence of specific theory relating to the decision-making process through which charitable foundation managers in the football sector formulate and implement CSR-related programmes. It is due to this lack of a theoretical framework that the current study formed the objective of theory building, and selected grounded theory as the means of achieving this. Considering, however, that “those undertaking qualitative studies have a baffling number of choices of approaches to inquiry” (Creswell, 2007, p. 6), the selection of grounded theory over other qualitatively oriented strategies needs to be explicitly addressed. Creswell (2007), drawing on social, behavioural and health science literature, concludes that the most frequently used methodologies for qualitative inquiry are (a) narrative, (b) phenomenology, (c)
grounded theory, (d) ethnography and (e) case studies. These methodologies (see Table 3.2 for a summary) demonstrate some key features that ultimately reinforce the choice of grounded theory, and are therefore worth discussing briefly here.

First, the narrative methodology was rejected because, among other requirements, the researcher “needs to collect extensive information about the participants, and needs to have a clear understanding of the context of the individuals’ life” (e.g., their jobs, their homes, their culture, historical situation and so forth) (Creswell, 2007, p. 57). Access difficulties and time constraints, ethical issues, and most of all the nature of this project, would neither favour nor justify the adoption of such a methodology.

Ethnography, which advocates the collection of data through participant observation (Dibben & Dolles, 2013), could have proved a fruitful methodology given that it examines how a culture-sharing group works. As Stern (1994) points out, however, “ethnography starts with a given theory, often based on much preceding work carried out by previous anthropologists” (p. 215). One point that was identified in the pre-fieldwork analysis for this study is that empirical research on CSR in sport - and in football in particular - has been informed by certain theoretical perspectives such as stakeholder theory (Hamil & Morrow, 2011 or Walters & Tacon, 2010; 2011), corporate citizenship (Walters & Chadwick, 2009), and legitimacy theory (Babiak & Trendafilova, 2011 or Slack & Shrives, 2008). It is fundamental to the current research to – at least initially – distance itself from such strong theoretical influences, in order to produce a more receptive and exploratory study. It is certainly not ‘a-theoretical’ either, “since an understanding of related theory and empirical work in order to enhance theoretical sensitivity is required” (Goulding, 2002, p. 107). This research aims to extend theoretical knowledge of decision-making on CSR-related matters in sport sector by initially moving away from the dominant theories used to examine the decision making concept within the contexts of CSR and football. In addition, other professional academic commitments would not have allowed the researcher to gain the necessary access – both in terms of scope and time – that participant observation ideally requires. Thus, in the quest for a suitable methodology, practicalities can have a major role to play in distinguishing between schools that have a good deal of epistemological crossover (see, for example, the Straussian variant of grounded theory which will be explained further below, and some forms of ethnography).

Furthermore, phenomenology and case study both could have informed the methodology of this study. Phenomenology is concerned with the meanings which certain individuals (e.g., foundation managers in the football sector) ascribe to their lived experiences of a concept or 'phenomenon' (such as the decision-making
process behind CSR-related matters). In addition, phenomenology treats culture with a good measure of caution and suspicion. That is, phenomenology requires researchers to engage with phenomena in the world and make sense of them directly and immediately. ‘Inherited understanding’ must be left aside – to the best of our ability – in order for the experience of phenomena to speak to us first-hand (Crotty, 1998). Without wishing to become side-tracked into too complex a sociological or philosophical discussion here, it is difficult to imagine how the researcher’s personal biography could have been ‘bracketed’ (i.e., this ‘inherited understanding’) from the topic under study, since the two are closely connected.

Similarly, case study involves the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system, and offers a case description and case-based themes (Creswell, 2007). These two methodologies, case study and phenomenology, could indeed address questions of ‘how’ and ‘why’ (without placing emphasis on ‘what’, i.e., the content of the CSR), but would have provided a ‘thick description’ of what the current study was trying to explore. Although Pratt (2009, p. 857) acknowledges that “‘thick description’ has not only a venerable history, but can also contribute to theory”, he suggests that it is often inadequate to limit an analysis to simple description of one’s findings. The current research aspires towards theory development rather than an in-depth description of the way charitable foundation managers make decisions about CSR-related matters in the football context. Strauss and Corbin (1990) clearly differentiate theory from description by stating that:

*Theory uses concepts. Similar data are grouped and given conceptual labels. This means placing interpretation on the data. The concepts, then, are related by means of statements of relationship. In description, data may be organised according to themes. These themes may be conceptualisations of data, but are more likely to be a précis or summaries of words taken directly from the data. There is little, if any, interpretation of data. Nor is there any attempt to relate the themes to form a conceptual scheme.* (p. 29)

Holton (2007) corroborates this statement with an even more normative argument:

*A grounded theory must offer a conceptually abstract explanation for a latent pattern of behaviour (an issue or concern) in the social setting under study. It must explain, not merely describe, what is happening in a social setting.* (emphasis added by the author) (p. 272).
This distinction became evident, for example, in the interview stage of my study: the questions asked were influenced by the ongoing analysis, and the direction of the interview became driven by the emerging theory, i.e. through theoretical sampling. From a phenomenological perspective, by contrast, “openness remains irrespective of the number of interviews; the emphasis is on ‘the experience of...’ and is driven from the individual account as opposed to the emerging theory” (Wimpenny & Gass, 2000, p. 1489).

The preceding points should be read as indicative rather than comprehensive. Upon reflection of these widely used qualitatively strategies, several of their respective attributes render them much less suitable than grounded theory methodology to inform the empirical study in question. Initially, it was the exploratory nature of the research objectives that required the application of a qualitative strategy. The capability of grounded theory to formulate an explanation of how charitable foundation managers in English football make decisions on CSR-related matters, beyond a simple description of events, has led the researcher to apply this methodology. In addition, and in accordance with Goulding’s (2002) arguments, it is a methodology that encourages creativity and self-development. Moreover, the fact that it has a set of established guidelines both for conducting research and for interpreting the data offered me a sense of security when delving into a field of research that is largely unfamiliar. Certainly, the selection of a particular methodology is most frequently accompanied by the admission that every methodology is fallible. With this in mind, an overview of grounded theory methodology, its origins, and procedures will now be outlined.
Table 3.2: Contrasting characteristics of five qualitative strategies (Creswell, 2007, pp. 78-79)

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3.4 Grounded theory

3.4.1 Some clarifications

Weed (2009) points out that grounded theory has been variously presented by research method authors as “a set of principles and practices” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 9), “a set of techniques or procedures” (Greckhamer & Koro-Ljungberg, 2005, p. 729), or “both a method, technique or research design, and the outcome of the research” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 117). The original authors of grounded theory – Glaser and Strauss (1967) – argue, however, that the term is best described by the label ‘methodology’, and this is how it has been adopted in this study; as methodology.

Fendt and Sachs (2008) contend that “to engage in grounded theory is to venture into a maelstrom of ‘realities’ and contradictions” (p. 450). One could argue that this maelstrom is characterised by a philosophical divergence as well as various procedural discrepancies. In that case, which variant of grounded theory should the current thesis espouse? Glaser’s emergent type of theory development, epistemologically informed by the positivist tradition? Or perhaps Strauss’s highly complex and systematic coding techniques, associated with symbolic interactionism, might fit the study better? Alternatively, Charmaz has recently found both ‘Glaserian’ and ‘Straussian’ versions of grounded theory to be mired in positivist rhetoric, albeit with sharp differences between them. Should this study answer her call for a more constructivist grounded theory?

In the quest for methodological rigour, the philosophical divergence between the different variants of grounded theory has to be addressed. Further, while referring to the various procedural discrepancies between the grounded theory versions, such philosophical chasms become evident. With regard to these philosophical issues, discussion in the following sections of this chapter moves to the ‘Glaserian’ version of grounded theory. This variant embarks on a path Charmaz labels as objectivist because it acknowledges its “obvious and subtle positivistic premises” (2000, p. 510), in contradiction to Strauss and Corbin’s variant which can, according to Fassinger (2005, p. 157), “be located in any number of positions along the interpretive paradigmatic continuum” (e.g., constructivist, postmodern and so forth). Given that the current study is informed by the epistemological stance of social constructionism, it can therefore be positioned within this continuum. It becomes necessary here to clarify the philosophical distinction between constructivism and constructionism. It is this distinction which, in the author’s view, provokes the procedural discrepancies – always along the interpretive paradigmatic continuum – between Charmaz’s and Strauss’ versions of grounded theory. Constructivism describes the individual human subject’s engagement with objects in the world and
their attempt to make sense of them (Crotty, 1998), while constructionism refutes the imagined purity of this situation. Instead, each of us is introduced directly to a whole world of meaning resulting from the melange of cultures and sub-cultures into which we are born (ibid.). Crotty (1998), therefore, advocates “reserving the term constructivism for epistemological considerations focusing exclusively on the ‘meaning-making activity of the individual mind’ and using constructionism where the focus includes ‘the collective generation [and transmission] of meaning’” (p. 58). Given that the purpose of this research is to seek out interpretive convergence on the matter under investigation, by talking to managers from different football organisations in order to develop the intended substantive theory, it seemed most appropriate to adopt a broadly constructionist approach.

Despite the philosophical divergence between variations of the grounded theory methodology, Weed (2009, p. 504) believes that “all its variants share a common ground”; namely, that grounded theory is an integrated research methodology which assumes that its principles have been followed from start (e.g., the conceptualisation of the research area to be addressed) to finish (e.g., the product or outcome of the research). According to Weed (2009), researchers should not claim to have adopted grounded theory unless they have utilised all the elements that characterise a grounded theory methodology. Weed illustrates his point with the analogy of a motor car: although a steering wheel and an engine may belong to a car, they alone cannot be described as a car if four wheels, seats, bodywork and so on are absent. Drawing on Weed’s (2009) arguments, this study has not used grounded theory as a ‘methodology’ in a naïve sense but as a ‘total methodology’, providing a set of principles that guide the entire research process.

In harmony with the preceding discourse, Fendt and Sachs (2008) advise researchers to make clear which variant of grounded theory is being deployed for their research and on what grounds. The current study has adhered to this recommendation, motivated by a desire for coherence and methodological rigour. The resulting discussion of procedural discrepancies between the different versions of grounded theory is given below. These procedural discrepancies will in turn shed light on ontological and epistemological divergences.
3.4.2 Diverging ‘variants’ of grounded theory

The purpose of this section is, in deference to Fendt and Sachs (2008), to establish distinct positions for the different variants of grounded theory by making clear which stance is deployed by the current study and on what grounds. Corbin (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) recognises the influence that contemporary thought on grounded theory (e.g., Charmaz, 2006; Clarke, 2005) has had on her own thinking in this area. Accordingly, although reference will be made to these latest works on grounded theory (e.g., Charmaz’s constructivist approach) the emphasis is on the two most popular variants of grounded theory used in organisation and management research (Jones & Noble, 2007). The intention here is not to resurrect the old Glaser versus Strauss debate, nor to revisit the argument over who can claim ownership of the methodology. Rather, aligning this study with the work of Jones and Noble (2007), the following sections will briefly examine the different emphases and variations between the two schools which have hampered the ongoing development of grounded theory methodology.

According to Charmaz (2006), grounded theory gained a wider audience with the appearance of Strauss’s 1990 monograph co-authored with Juliet Corbin, *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. This book also caused Strauss and Glaser to take grounded theory in divergent directions and contributed to a major split between them (Kelle, 2007). Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) exhort researchers to analyse the ontology and epistemology of these authors in order to make sense of the differences between their versions of grounded theory. According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008), in ontological terms Glaser appears as a realist whereas Strauss and Corbin (as well as Charmaz) work within a more relativist ontology, assuming as they do that the social world is created through the interaction of agents. Epistemologically, Strauss and Corbin (ibid.) adopt a generally relativist position which emphasises systematic and reductionist approaches to the analysis of data. Glaser, in contrast, promotes a more ‘relaxed’ epistemology, insisting that the data should be analysed in its entirety and not reduced to discrete elements. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) add that in some respects this is similar to the constructivist perspective seen in Charmaz, although the latter goes further in emphasising the primacy of the stories and experiences of her research subjects (ibid.).

Nonetheless, such distinctive philosophical differences between the Glaserian and Straussian schools of grounded theory are not universally acknowledged. For example, contemporary grounded theorists (e.g., Bryant, 2002, 2003; Mills et al., 2006; Charmaz 1995, 2000, 2006) posit that both camps endorse a realist ontology
and positivist epistemology. As Guba and Lincoln (1994) noted earlier, both positions are imbued with positivism and its objectivist underpinnings. In the 21st century, grounded theory has moved away from the positivism inherent in both Glaser's and Strauss and Corbin's versions. This new variant “advocates diverse local worlds and multiple realities along with the complexities of personal worlds, views and actions” (Creswell, 2007, p. 65). These are issues that Corbin (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) fully accepts. In criticism of Corbin's approach, however, Charmaz suggests that the use of complex terms, diagrams, conceptual maps and systematic approaches detract from grounded theory itself and represent an attempt on Corbin's part to increase her influence (Creswell, 2007).

Moreover, Glaser continues to regard grounded theory as a methodology of discovery in which categories emerge from a continuous comparison of the data: “We do not know what we are looking for when we start... we simply cannot say prior to the collection and analysis of data what our study will look like” (Glaser, 2001, p. 176). In this approach, the researcher enters the field with only a broad topic in mind, without specific preconceived research questions or a detailed understanding of the extant literature in the area (Jones & Noble, 2007). In Glaser's version, therefore, the researcher chooses an area of organisation or activity and through the course of the research is able to specify the phenomenon to be studied. The Straussian school of grounded theory, in contrast, identifies a specific phenomenon to be studied before the researcher enters the field. For this camp of grounded theorists, the phenomenon is the “central idea, event, happening, or incident about which a set of interactions or actions are directed at managing or handling, or to which the set of actions is related” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 96). In addition, Strauss and Corbin's techniques encourage researchers to use their own personal and professional experience and their acquired knowledge as a positive advantage in the grounded theory process, arguing that this enhances theoretical sensitivity rather than obscuring vision: “if you know an area, have some experience ... you don’t tear it out of your head, you can use it” (Strauss, 1987, p. 84). The Straussian variant of grounded theory emphasises the need to “identify the phenomenon to be studied” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 96) whereas for the Glaserian school the core category is the theoretical formulation that represents the “continual resolving of the main concern of the participants” (Jones & Noble, 2007, p. 89). The current study adopts the Straussian version of grounded theory as its guiding methodology. This choice requires, perhaps, further philosophical justification – this is provided in the section below.
3.4.3 Symbolic interactionism and Straussian grounded theory

There is a general consensus that grounded theory methodology is the product of symbolic interactionism (Strübing, 2007; Bryant & Charmaz, 2007; Weed, 2009; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2006). This theoretical perspective has indeed informed the current study, and represents the philosophical stance behind its methodology. Here, the discussion revolves around epistemological issues and the strong link of symbolic interactionism with social constructionism. An examination of the roots and premises of symbolic interactionism, therefore, should demonstrate its particular relevance to Straussian grounded theory as the specific branch of grounded theory methodology utilised in the current study.

Strübing (2007) posits that the Straussian variant of grounded theory is deeply rooted in both the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism and the intellectual tradition of American pragmatism as established in the writings of C. S. Peirce and further developed by W. James, J. Dewey and G. H. Mead. This is something Corbin herself makes clear in the latest edition of the Basics (see Corbin & Strauss, 2008):

This methodology’s epistemology has come to it in a two-step evolution, involving both the tradition of Chicago Interactionism and the philosophy of Pragmatism inherited largely from John Dewey and George Mead. (pp. 1-5)

The theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism essentially stems from pragmatism as it assumes that people are active and creative. Meanings emerge through practical actions that solve problems and through the actions by which people come to know the world. For pragmatist philosophers, therefore, ‘knowledge’ is created through action and interaction, and as Dewey (1929 – cited in Corbin & Strauss, 2008) puts it: “ideas are not statements of what is or has been but of acts to be performed” (p. 2). Shalin, as has already been noted by Strübing (2007), offers a picture of the pragmatist’s perspective on reality:

Pragmatist philosophy ... conveys an image of the world brimming with indeterminacy, pregnant with possibilities, waiting to be completed and rationalised. The fact that the world out there is ‘still’ in the making does not augur its final completion at some future point: the state of indeterminacy endemic to reality cannot be terminated once and for all. It can be alleviated only partially, in concrete situations, and with the help of a thinking agent. The latter has the power to carve out an object, to convert an indeterminate situation into a determinate one, because he is an active being. The familiar world of colour, sound and structure is his practical accomplishment, i.e. he hears because he listens to, he sees because he looks at, he discerns a pattern because he has a stake in it, and when his attention wavers, interest ceases, and action stops – the world around him sinks back into the state of indeterminacy. (Shalin, 1986, p. 10)
Drawing on Shalin’s words, Strübing (2007) firmly states that “this line of thinking does not preclude the possibility that ‘something out there’ might exist independently of social actor(s)” (p. 583). Neither does it hold reality-in-action to be an idealistic concept of ‘the real’ existing, produced and manipulated exclusively in cerebral form. Reality becomes reality only insofar and as long as it is part of the environment within which actors act (ibid.). Mead contends that “a person is a personality because he belongs to a community, because he takes over the institutions of that community into his own conduct” (1934, p. 162). So, even in the case of a single person, rather than a team or organisation, who discovers or creates some new understanding of reality (e.g., the formulation of a CSR-related programme in his/her respective football charitable foundation), s/he does this as a being already socialised according to inherited perspectives (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) – e.g., the football club’s history. As Dewey writes, “neither inquiry nor the most abstractly formal set of symbols can escape from the cultural matrix in which they live, move and have their being” (1938, p. 20 – cited in Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 3). The same concept is articulated with a slightly different emphasis by Strübing (2007) who writes that “whenever humans act with reference to their social or physical environments, they reflect their doing in light of what actions these environments might evoke in other actors” (p. 584).

Moreover, Mead (1934) contends that the concept of ‘community’ emphasises the hold our culture has on us: it dictates the way in which we see things and gives us a definite view of the world. Yet, human responses to this formative ‘community’ in turn impact upon, restrict and contribute to a restructuring of the varieties of action/interaction that can be observed in societies (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). In this research project the ‘societies’ (or communities) under study are charitable foundations (and by association their ‘parent’ football clubs), and the ‘human responses’ might be in part constituted by the managers who make decisions about preserving the historical roots of each football club (through the foundation work these managers do/oversee). As Corbin and Strauss (2008) have already noted, humans shape their institutions (in this research, for example, the football clubs/foundations) as much as the institutions shape them; they create and change the world around them through action and interaction. Thus, there is a bond between the actor (the foundation manager who makes decisions about CSR-related matters) and the environment or, to use Mead’s term ‘the community’ (in this case the charitable foundation). It is “this bond that creates the ‘situation’” (Mead, 1908, p. 315).

This study regards this premise as particularly important to the investigation into managerial decision-making process of CSR in English football. It is, of course, the manager’s engagement with these programmes (action/interaction) that gives
‘meaning’ to the idea of CSR. At the same time, however, each manager’s cultural heritage, biography, education, past experiences and so forth guide his or her decisions and overall ‘interpretation’ of the formulation (and subsequently implementation) of the programmes with which s/he is engaged. This cultural heritage – or ‘inherited understanding’ as Crotty (1998) prefers to call it – is a central concept of symbolic interactionism. Within the current study, ‘inherited understanding’ informs both how managers make decisions about CSR-related matters and subsequently how they answer the researcher’s questions, and how the researcher (himself) attributes meaning to their responses.

This ‘inherited understanding’ is not a matter that can be excluded from the intended theorisation on CSR decision-making in football. Crotty (1998), for instance, talks about the phenomena of reification and sedimentation. The former refers to our propensity to mistake ‘the sense we make of things’ for ‘the way things are’. This could be read as ‘the sense charitable foundation managers make of the notion of CSR’, but also as ‘the sense the researcher makes of what foundation managers said’. This process, blithely undertaken by most, is what Crotty calls the ‘tyranny of the familiar’; the expression implies that our understanding of the world is built upon pre-existing theoretical deposits. In this way, Crotty (1998) writes that “we become further and further removed from reality, with our sedimented cultural meanings serving as a barrier between us and the world as it really is” (p. 59). This has indeed been the most challenging methodological exercise contributing to development of a substantive theory within this study. How do I deal with two simultaneous ‘inherited understandings’ in the task of theorising in that particular context?

The first of Mead’s ‘situations’ in this research, that is, the ‘situation’ created by the managers in their respective charitable foundations, could only be handled by extensive memo-writing while developing the substantive theory. The second-level ‘situation’ – that is, between me (actor) and the data (environment) – could be dealt with by recognising the impossibility of ‘bracketing’ my personal biography from the topic I am investigating. Once one has acknowledged this impossibility, however, making explicit the values and beliefs that one brings to a study acquires a new urgency. Indeed, the declaration supplied below may help to justify the study’s theoretical perspective, as its underlying rationale is thereby revealed to be philosophically rooted in the intellectual tradition of pragmatism.

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4 According to Crotty (1998, p. 217) to reify, or engage in reification, is to take as a thing that which is not a thing.
3.5 Data collection techniques

Two data collection techniques have been employed in this study, namely organisational documents, and in-depth, semi-structured interviews. The fieldwork took place in three different phases, with phase 1 consisting of two sub-phases (1a and 1b). During phase 1a, emphasis was placed on the analysis of organisational documents, whereas the following phases of the fieldwork were based on constant comparative data analysis from the interviews.

3.5.1 Organisational documents

Organisational documents can provide the business and management researcher with valuable background information about the organisation (Bryman & Bell, 2007). As documents can offer at least partial insights into past managerial decisions and actions, they can also “be useful in building up a ‘timeline’ of the organisation’s history” (Bryman & Bell, 2007, p. 554). Such information can be very important for researchers conducting studies of organisations using such methods as qualitative interviews (ibid.). Creswell (2009, p. 180) refers to some specific advantages of this type of data collection:

- It enables the researcher to obtain the language and words of participants;
- Information can be assessed at a time convenient to the researcher, as this is an unobtrusive method of data collection;
- Represents data which are thoughtful in that participants have given attention to compiling them;
- As written evidence, it saves a researcher the time and expense of transcribing.

A variety of organisational documents have been used in this study including annual CSR and community reports, mission statements regarding CSR-related programmes, press releases, PowerPoint presentations for internal use or other presentations to externally promote the football club’s (through the charitable foundation) CSR activities, or even internal memos. All this documentary material was either available on the official websites of the football leagues, clubs/charitable foundations or, in few cases, was provided by the participants on the day of the interview. In total 25 documents from sixteen different football organisations (see Table 3.3) provided information on the context within which CSR-related programmes are implemented, and simultaneously enhanced the researcher’s theoretical sensitivity to the nuances of the topic under investigation. Given that most of this documentary material was produced to present a particular conclusion regarding the application of CSR, it must be interrogated and examined in the context of other sources of data. In essence,
such documents can be used as a platform for developing insights into the processes and factors that lie behind the decision-making about CSR-related programmes in the football sector.

Table 3.3: Organisational Documents (total number of pages: 896)

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<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Title of Document</th>
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<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (PL)</td>
<td>Community Review ‘25 Years’</td>
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<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (PL)</td>
<td>‘Sustainability Report 2009-2010’</td>
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<td>Football Club/Foundation (FLC)</td>
<td>Community Sports &amp; Education Foundation 2011</td>
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<td>Football Club/Foundation (PL)</td>
<td>‘Respect Programme Magazine’</td>
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<td>League (Fb-L)</td>
<td>Creating Chances’ (2011)</td>
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<td>League (Fb-L)</td>
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<td>Football Club/Foundation (FLC)</td>
<td>‘Community Report 2009’</td>
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<td>Football Club/Foundation (FLC)</td>
<td>‘The United Initiative’ (U &amp; I – Working Together)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (FLC)</td>
<td>‘Lighting up Lives’ (Yearbook 2008)</td>
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<td>League Trust</td>
<td>Community Matters: The FLT Review 2007-2010</td>
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<td>League Trust</td>
<td>‘Community Strategy’ (Make Every Goal Count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (PL)</td>
<td>‘Creating Opportunities that Change Lives’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Association (Fb-A)</td>
<td>‘Football and Social Responsibility’ (Internal Memo)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (FLC)</td>
<td>‘Making a Positive Difference for All Through Sport &amp; Learning’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (FLC)</td>
<td>‘Albion Project Focus’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Club/Foundation (PL)</td>
<td>‘Community Trust Programme’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Football Association (Fb-A)</td>
<td>PFA Community Player Involvement Evaluation 2009-2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.2 Interviews

An interview is a purposeful discussion between two or more people (Kahn & Cannell, 1957 – cited in Saunders et al., 2009, p. 318). Consistent with the epistemological stance adopted in this study, the interview approach sees the interviewer and respondent as ‘conversational partners’ (Rubin & Rubin, 1995) in a process of
‘actively creating meaning’ on a given topic (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995). It is within the interview setting that meaning is created and this, in turn, is subject to the perspective of the respondent, their relationship with the interviewer, the interview context and the nature of the subject being discussed (ibid.).

Although different interview typologies were considered, the in-depth, semi-structured format was judged to be both the most suitable type of interview for the purposes of this study and the most compatible with theStraussian variant of grounded theory. Moreover, the researcher’s limited experience in interviewing for a rigorous and demanding research project has also been a factor in leading toward a relatively formal interview format. This decision is corroborated by Charmaz (2006), who writes that:

_I prefer to keep the interview informal and conversational; however, novices need more structure [emphasis added]. Having an interview guide with well-planned open-ended questions and ready probes can increase your confidence and permit you to concentrate on what the person is saying. Otherwise you may miss obvious points to explore because you become distracted by what to ask next and how to ask it._ (p. 29)

The advantages of conducting semi-structured interviews include a better understanding of context, a comprehension of the motivating rationales behind behaviours and actions, and a better appreciation of the meanings that an interviewee may attach to a particular case (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). To this end, having enriched my theoretical sensitivity by reading about the notion of CSR itself, and also by researching the characteristics of the English football sector, the empirical fieldwork started with an interview guide in mind. As mentioned earlier, all researchers enter the field with some level of pre-understanding (Gummesson, 2000) or theoretical sensitivity (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), and not with the ‘blank slate’ suggested by Glaser (2003). This initial, thematically-based interview guide was therefore based on the pre-understanding the researcher possesses; without, of course, neglecting the fact that grounded theory interviewing differs from other ‘types’ of interviewing, in that “the researcher is supposed to narrow the range of interview questions so as to gather specific data for developing a theoretical framework during the process of interviewing” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 29).

Examples of the initial questions during the interviews included, _inter alia_: tell me about the job you do here; how long have you been in your current position?; what do you think of CSR?; share with me your beliefs regarding CSR issues in relation to your job; describe the values that affect decisions or actions you undertake in your job; talk to me about today’s professional football; what does CSR mean for you?; what is the role of the foundation here?; how does CSR ‘happen’ here?; what drives
the application of CSR here?; what do you think CSR means for the wider public (fans, sponsors, other stakeholder groups)?; does CSR work?; how do you know it works (or doesn't work)?

The interview guide was flexible to the direction of the conversation and the specific organisational context (e.g., whether the charitable foundations had Premier League or Championship status), and between the different phases of the empirical fieldwork itself. This is precisely what Charmaz (2006) advocates when referring to interviews based in grounded theory: “they are open-ended yet directed; shaped yet emergent, and paced yet unrestricted” (p. 28).

3.5.3 The study’s population

The current study is populated by the charitable foundations of the top two divisions of English football: the 20 football clubs with a Premiership status (Premier League or PL) and the 24 football clubs with a Championship status (Football League Championship or FLC). There are clear reasons for focusing only on the top two divisions of English football. The most pertinent relates to the mechanics of funding allocation that support the formulation and implementation of CSR. Despite the variations in this area, there is a direct link between the clubs from these two divisions - they can be relegated or promoted from one league to the other. The PL demonstrates this link by financially assisting those football clubs that are relegated to the Championship with ‘solidarity money’.5 Given that the available fund of money for CSR-related projects is much larger for PL clubs than FLC clubs, this playing-status link between the two divisions – and subsequently the implications this has on the strategic development of CSR-related projects – could be only captured by examining charitable foundations of clubs from both divisions. Although the variation between PL clubs and FLC clubs when it comes to CSR funding allocation is substantial, this is not the case between the FLC clubs and the FL's remaining 48 clubs in Leagues 1 (FL1) and 2 (FL2). This fact was the primary reason behind a more practical decision with regard to the population of this study. Trying to approach (and subsequently visit) 48 more football charitable foundations across the country would have made the task impractical, considering issues of time, cost and also the amount of data that would have to be managed.

5 Further expansion on this point is beyond the scope of this study.
3.5.4 The study’s sample

According to Saunders et al. (2009), “researchers adopting a grounded theory methodology tend to use purposive sampling” (p. 239). What is important in purposive sampling is not the actual number of cases or participants, but as Taylor and Bogdan (1984) assert, “… the potential of each ‘case’ to aid the researcher in developing theoretical insights into the area of social life being studied” (p. 83). However, in grounded theory-based studies researchers also practise theoretical sampling. The main principle of theoretical sampling is to identify the categories that emerge from the data, in order to increase the researcher’s understanding of the developing theoretical framework that directs the sampling (Glaser, 1978). In essence, what makes theoretical sampling different from conventional methods is that it is responsive to the data rather than having been established before the research begins. This responsive approach makes sampling open and flexible (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Normally, the researcher begins a study with a general study population and continues to sample from that group (ibid.); as mentioned, in my case the population constitutes managers who oversee CSR-related practices in English football clubs’ charitable foundations from the first two professional divisions. During theoretical sampling the focus is not on people, but on incidents, events or happenings; it is these that lead to the situations in which people find themselves. In the initial sampling, researchers seek to generate as many categories as possible. Once researchers have some categories, the objective of their sampling is altered to the developing, densifying and saturating of those categories in consistent and flexible ways (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The process is as follows: “data collection leads to analysis; analysis leads to concepts; concepts generate questions; questions lead to more data collection so that the researcher might learn more about those concepts” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 145). This circular process continues until the research reaches the point of ‘saturation’; the point in the research where all concepts are clearly defined and explained.

Having Taylor and Bogdan’s (1984) as well as Corbin and Strauss’ (2008) premises in mind, I sought for theoretical sampling through snowball and purposive sampling. To this end, a total of 30 face-to-face meetings with 32 managers were conducted. The sample provided a good mixture of football-playing status (at the time of the interview) as it consisted of 12 charitable foundations whose ‘parent’ clubs had Premiership status, and 12 charitable foundations associated with Championship status clubs. Of those 32 managers, five were working directly for the club (yet

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6 Creswell (2007) suggests that for a grounded theory-based study a minimum of 20 interviews should be conducted. This research did achieve this ‘requirement’, but that was not its aim. The study, instead, aimed at theoretical sampling as explained in this section.
responsible for the CSR strategic agenda), 20 were engaged with the club's charitable foundation and one had dual capacity in both organisations. On two occasions, more than one member of the foundation or club was interviewed at the same time. In addition, four managers in the two leagues also took part in this empirical research. Two more interviews were conducted with the CSR manager of the governing body of European football (UEFA) and the community director of the English Professional Footballers' Association (PFA).

The selected interviewees were chosen because they were directors, heads of departments and senior executives directly responsible for making decisions about and overseeing the general CSR work being done. The choice of participants, therefore, was made on the basis that these were individuals specialising in the area and consequently possessing the maximum amount of information as far as the formulation of CSR strategy was concerned and thus the decision-making process behind it. To avoid confusion, however, when reference is made to ‘manager’ the reader should assume this is the person responsible for making decisions in relation to CSR-related programmes. This clarification is important given the variety of job titles held by the individuals who took part in this research (see Table 3.4). Moreover, the fact that not all participants were managing and overseeing the charitable foundation of their respective football club testifies to the need for theoretical sampling; that was an essential exercise for capturing the complexity of the inquiry.

7 In one case, although I initially contacted the individual responsible for the management of the foundation, it was suggested that I should speak about CSR with the club's CEO instead. I regarded this as a great opportunity for theoretical sampling purposes especially regarding the tensions between the foundation and the 'parent' football club identified in some of the previous interviews.
### Table 3.4: Study participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job titles</th>
<th>Type of Organisation</th>
<th>Interview details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manager - (CSR Unit)</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>5 October 2009 (1h 18 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer - (CSR Unit)</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>5 October 2009 (1h 18 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager - (FSR Unit)</td>
<td>Governing Body</td>
<td>2 November 2009 (1h 16 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head - (CSR Unit)</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>6 November 2009 (1h 02 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director - (External Affairs, Communication &amp; CSR)</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>12 December 2009 (59 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager - (CSR Unit)</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>18 December 2009 (1h 01 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>15 January 2010 (1h 09 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>1 February 2010 (53 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>2 February 2010 (56 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>9 February 2010 (46 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>9 February 2010 (57 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>12 February 2010 (50 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>18 February 2010 (1h 05 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chairman</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>16 February 2010 (50 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>18 February 2010 (1h 46 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>22 March 2011 (1h 04 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer - (Community Department)</td>
<td>Football Club (Premiership)</td>
<td>28 March 2011 (56 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>29 March 2011 (1h 07 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>4 April 2011 (54 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>6 May 2011 (1h 32 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO &amp; Director of Communications</td>
<td>Foundation &amp; FC (Championship)</td>
<td>12 May 2011 (1h)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>18 May 2011 (58 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>19 May 2011 (43 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>16 June 2011 (57 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Manager</td>
<td>League Trust</td>
<td>21 June 2011 (1h 01 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>23 June 2011 (45 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations Manager</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>24 June 2011 (1h 10 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Coordinator</td>
<td>Foundation (Premiership)</td>
<td>24 June 2011 (1h 10 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director (Community Unit)</td>
<td>Association</td>
<td>27 June 2011 (57 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Manager</td>
<td>League Trust</td>
<td>29 June 2011 (1h 05 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Development Manager</td>
<td>Foundation (Championship)</td>
<td>7 July 2011 (45 min)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>Foundation (Championship)</td>
<td>22 July 2011 (1h 20 min)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Phase 1b**

**Phase 2**

**Phase 3**

**Reframing the theory**
3.5.5 Gaining access

Decisions relating to the sample were made on the basis of their relevance to the aim of developing a substantive theory of managerial decision-making within the charitable foundations of English football clubs. As is typical of any research, securing access to these organisations did not prove an easy exercise.\(^8\) Previous doctoral studies on football context have acknowledged that gaining access to professional football organisations was one of the biggest challenges for the researchers (cf. Chadwick, 2004; Bühler, 2006). Some football clubs, for example, even state explicitly on their official websites that members of their personnel cannot accept requests for research assistance (e.g., Arsenal FC; Bolton FC; Blackburn Rovers FC).

In the initial stages of this research, and in accordance with the guidelines suggested by Thomas (1995), personal contacts were primarily used to gain access to football clubs’ charitable foundations and football governing bodies (i.e., Leagues and Associations). Consequently, my first contact came through my acquaintance with a ‘community’ manager from a Premiership football club where I worked between 2003 and 2008. I also relied on the intention expressed to me by the Premier League’s Head of CSR to assist with this particular project when I met him personally and briefly discussed my research at conference.\(^9\) Equally, the Football League’s then Director of External Affairs, Communication and CSR expressed a willingness to assist me by asking another Football League employee to contact those football clubs playing at Championship level who had not replied to my initial requests for an interview. These contacts proved indispensable in facilitating access to my chosen research environment. I acknowledge, however, that grounded theory methodology requires a prolonged engagement with the informants in order to satisfy one of its most important quality criteria, namely theoretical saturation. In order to overcome the possible barrier of a restricted period of engagement, all participants were initially informed of the possibility of multiple visits (or communications) regarding the research.

All the interviews were conducted as face-to-face meetings and took place either in the participants’ offices or in rooms within the football grounds booked for this particular purpose. On two occasions meetings were held in a public place. Only one interview was undertaken outside England, with UEFA’s CSR manager in UEFA’s headquarters in Nyon, Switzerland. The whole of the study’s population

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\(^8\) Although the 55 per cent response rate (24 charitable foundations/clubs out of 44) that this research achieved does not have particular significance for a qualitative-based study, it is nevertheless a high percentage given the reluctance that football organisations often demonstrate towards student research projects. Considering this response rate from an alternative perspective, it may be seen as an indication by these organisations of a further commitment to CSR, or of a willingness to discuss “football’s best kept secret” (Watson, 2000).

(20 PL clubs’ foundations and 24 FLC clubs’ foundations) were initially contacted by letter. Similar to Bühler’s (2006) study, and following the recommendations of Czaja and Blair (1996), “special attention was given to this ‘Introductory Letter’; it had to be ‘eye-catching’ yet professional, clear but brief, and compelling but neutral” (p. 82). Consequently, each letter included a personal salutation, a quotation as an eye-catching device indicating the subject of research, a brief description of the research project, a rationale for selecting the football club/foundation in question, a reassurance of confidentiality and anonymity as well as the invitation to contact my principal advisor for this doctoral research in order to cross-check the seriousness of the inquiry.

In addition, following recommendations made by Gillham (2000), the letter was written in the first person plural (we) rather than the first person singular (I) and was printed on university-headed paper in order to emphasise, again, the seriousness of the research project. Each letter was then signed and posted by the researcher. In order to encourage managers to take part, two different incentives were mentioned in the Introductory Letter. First, a summary of the future findings was promised (i.e., an executive summary and/or a PowerPoint presentation), as this is normal practice in academic research projects. The second incentive was the chance to win either a magnum of champagne for themselves or a donation of £100 to their nominated charity, to be presented to one randomly chosen participant. A copy of this letter can be found in the Appendices.

3.5.6 Data Management

Bryman and Bell (2007) claim that “qualitative researchers are interested not just in what people say but also in the way that they say it” (p. 489). To ‘capture’ this, a digital voice recorder was used during all interviews. One of the main advantages of using a digital voice recorder is that “the accuracy of transcription is improved” (Bryman & Bell, 2007, p. 494), although Saunders et al. (2009, p. 341) caution researchers that “there are also disadvantages to audio-recording the interviews, such as to adversely affect the relationship between interviewee and interviewer, the possibility of a technical problem and the time required to transcribe the audio-recording”. Although these disadvantages were taken into consideration, the advice of Healey and Rawlinson (1994) was followed: a researcher should explain to interviewees the reasons for using a recorder rather than merely requesting permission to do so. As a result, the explanation that this study utilises grounded theory methodology (so

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10 This idea was adopted by Bühler (2006) who used a similar incentive for his doctoral thesis. I kept my promise and on Friday 26th of October 2012 the Executive Community Manager of the Premier League ‘picked out’ the lucky participant. In addition, in May 2013, an executive summary report was sent to all managers who took part in this research.
the ‘richer’ the data, the better the study’s trustworthiness) was fully understood by the participants.

NVivo software has been used in this project to merely facilitate the organisation of the collated data. Although I recognise the fact that NVivo especially assisted me in forming a more efficient structure for capturing and organising data, along with maximising transparency in this dissertation, I have opted to use its capacity as an archival deposit of study data, codes and related memos. To this end, I transcribed each interview in every detail and, in consistence with the grounded theory methodology, started the transcribing process in parallel with the data collection; this continued for a span of approximately twenty-five months. Data management became a challenging task, with almost 900 pages of organisational documents, 240 single-spaced pages totalling 200,000 words and a total interview time exceeding 25 hours. However, with the help of the NVivo software “data asphyxiation” (Pettigrew, 1990, p. 281) levels were minimised.

Since English is not my first language, the transcription of each interview often took two full working days. It was necessary to play back each interview numerous times to ensure that all words and phrases had been accurately transcribed, especially when interviewees spoke with regional accents. In some cases, where there were major difficulties in understanding, the help of native English speakers was sought in listening to the recordings. Abiding, however, by issues of confidentiality, the obscure parts of the interview were isolated; an additional advantage of the digital voice recorder over conventional cassette tape recorders.

Furthermore, in the period following transcription, member checks were conducted (Newman, 2000). This process involves sending the participants their transcriptions for re-evaluation, so that they can ensure the accuracy of their responses in word and meaning. Although Saunders et al. (2009) recognise that this process can be helpful in ensuring factual accuracy, they also caution researchers that participants tend to correct their own grammar and use of language, often altering the meaning. I have tried to minimise this by writing memos while transcribing the interviews and before sending the full transcripts to participants. To this end, appropriate (but minor) changes were made to the transcriptions on just three occasions following the member check process.
3.6 Coding procedures: the Straussian way explained

The foundation of grounded theory development is the conceptualisation of data. According to Holton (2007, p. 266), “the essential relationship between data and theory is a conceptual code and it is this coding that allows the researcher to transcend the empirical level by fragmenting the data”. Saldaña (2009) writes that a code in qualitative inquiry is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data. The Straussian grounded theory variant embraces three types of coding. These are (a) open coding; (b) axial coding and (c) selective coding. Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest that we should treat the divisions between the three coding stages as artificial; in a single coding session researchers tend to move from one type of coding to another, especially between open and axial coding.

This first type of coding was conducted during phase 1 of the fieldwork which included organisational documents analysis, i.e. phase 1a, and data from the first set of interviews, i.e. phase 1b \( (n=6) \). The open coding was conducted by asking questions, such as: ‘what is this?’; ‘what does it represent?’; ‘what does s/he say here?’ (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Table 3.5 illustrates an example of analysis applied to documentary material and memo-taking during the open coding process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extracted data from organisational documents</th>
<th>Open codes</th>
<th>Description &amp; reflections/memos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Through strengthening the department's work with partners, [we] will continue to draw upon experience and work together to achieve this vision”</td>
<td><strong>Strengthening</strong></td>
<td>The in-vivo code ‘strengthening’ is used for this extract; in this document, it is recognised that by bringing in experts (through the practice of partnership building) the vision they have as an organisation becomes easier to achieve. What type of experience this document refers to, however?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“The Foundation creates innovative partnerships with other people focused organisations that are committed to sharing best practice and working together”</td>
<td><strong>Conditional partnering</strong></td>
<td>This extract was coded as ‘conditional partnering’ as we wanted to evidence one prerequisite foundations have in order to build partnerships with other organisations. So it is not just about ‘strengthening’ through partnerships. They want to work together with committed partners that, perhaps, believe in the programme(s) as much as these foundations do. Of course, how and when this commitment is assessed is not clear, but this vagueness invites questions about the property (i.e., commitment).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During phase 1 (1a and 1b) of interview fieldwork and analysis of organisational documents, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) advice was followed to break down data into discrete parts (codes) by close examination and comparison for similarities and difference. To this end, I found myself drawing diagrams by hand on paper and/or on a whiteboard, printing memos and writing notes on the margins of the interview transcripts or using multi-coloured highlighting pens. Below are just two examples illustrating the methods of analysis applied to interview data and documentary material respectively as well as memo-taking at the initial stages of the coding process.
This text has been removed due to third party copyright. The unabridged version of the thesis can be viewed at the Lanchester Library, Coventry University.

**Picture 3.2:** Example of coding organisational document (Phase 1a)
My early efforts at open coding data from the initial collection were highly descriptive in nature and thus had limited (if any) potential for abstraction. In other words, there was still a strong descriptive tendency in my analytical thinking. Below I provide some more detailed examples related to the process of generating the initial open codes by drawing on the informally annotated data collected in Phase 1a of organisational documents analysis, and Phase 1b of the first set of interviews.
### Table 3.6: Example of initial open coding interview transcripts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Data</th>
<th>Open Codes</th>
<th>Description &amp; reflections/memos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“The thing that I think is helping is having the ability to share information, but also to have underneath the information some substance. So it’s not, for example, me saying ‘we are wonderful’ – anybody could come to me and say: ‘well, where is the proof?’” (PL-fc2)</td>
<td>Communicating</td>
<td>The manager refers to one element that helps the decision-making process for CSR-related programmes; sharing with others everything this foundation does seems critical here. But is it internally, externally or both that this sharing of information can make a difference? The manager also talks about the ability to share this information. I assume that s/he has that in the foundation; but is it enough? What if a foundation does not have this ability? What are the means that justify one has this ability?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.7: Example of initial open coding interview transcripts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Data</th>
<th>Open Codes</th>
<th>Description &amp; reflections/memos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“I almost feel that the role of the foundation here is to counteract that in a way, because all the money and all that’s almost negative about football at the moment, and what we are doing is kind of the positive side of things” (PL-fc3)</td>
<td>Counteracting</td>
<td>In the above extract, the manager first recognises/admits that today football is associated with a number of issues that do not project a positive image. S/he then puts forward the argument that one of the reasons why football organisations are now engaged in CSR is in order to reduce the effect that these negative messages have on the organisation itself and the game in general. The words ‘almost’ and ‘in a way’ make me assume, however, that this manager considers this CSR engagement as something more than just trying to offset the negative side of football. What else then? is one of the questions it comes to my mind. I guess it’s equally important to find out more about what this recognition means when they make decisions about CSR-related programmes. How does it affect their strategic planning?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3.1:

Table 3.8: Example of open coding organisational document

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Open Codes</th>
<th>Description &amp; reflections/memos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot; [...] where clubs have utilised players in a more positive and constructive way&quot;</td>
<td>Advancing</td>
<td>I coded the above extract ‘advancing’ because I read it as the clubs’ making progress in integrating their players into overall CSR implementation. This is interesting because, in early interviews, various managers emphasised the difficulty they had in justifying what they try to do through the various CSR-related programmes in light of the provocative behaviour of some players both on and off the field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AND</td>
<td>Effecting positive social change</td>
<td>I used an in-vivo code for the above extract. This is why these organisations do what they do; this is the ultimate goal, or should be I guess. What is interesting in this extract, however, is the emphasis on the relationships with the partners; trying to bring about positive social change, therefore, is happening through working with others (see next initial code)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aforementioned examples elucidate the way I initially coded the data during the first phase (1a and 1b) of the fieldwork that took place from October to December 2009. Given, however, the limitations of space within the thesis format, it is not possible to provide the same level of detail for all emergent initial codes.
The analysis of the first interview in Phase 1b highlighted the major role that the football governing bodies have in the process of CSR implementation. The next step, therefore, was to obtain a more ‘institutionalised’ perspective, and thus interviews conducted with both football leagues responsible for the organisation and administration of the top two football divisions, as well as to the governing body of European football in order to explore its role in such a process. This is not an atypical exercise in a grounded theory study. The insights from UEFA, the PL and the FL helped researchers to think beyond the micro social structures and immediate interactions to larger social conditions and consequences (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

To this end, 488 conceptualised and in-vivo codes were generated during open coding in Phase 1 (a & b) of the fieldwork; examples included ‘winning comes first’, ‘reserving the roots’, ‘raising the bar’, ‘foundation stone’, ‘prudent engagement’, ‘controlled adjustability’, ‘contextual knowledge’, ‘responsive alignment’, ‘tick-boxing syndrome’ and ‘grappling with cynicism’. After the open coding process, preliminary categorisation of these early codes took place. Essentially, through constant comparative method, this stage consisted of revising and re-arranging the 488 open codes under 129 ‘parent’ codes.

It was during Phase 2 of the fieldwork that preliminary axial coding was performed. Axial coding is the process of relating categories to their subcategories; put differently, coding around a single category. Strauss and Corbin (1990) write that:

*In axial coding our focus is on specifying a category (phenomenon) in terms of the conditions that give rise to it; the context (its specific set of properties) in which it is embedded; the action/interactional strategies by which it is handled, managed, carried out; and the consequences of those strategies.* (p. 97)

In essence, the scope at this stage was that of reassembling existing data, which had been fractured during the open coding, through constant comparison with new data collated through additional interviews (n = 8) from January to March 2010. This process resulted in re-arranging the initial 129 ‘parent’ codes into 28 more abstract open categories (see next chapter).

Finally, selective coding was performed in which additional interviews were guided by these 28 open categories and pursued questions emerging from the analysis of data gathered in the preceding two phases. The emergent 28 open categories were subsequently refined through the constant comparative method into four even more abstract categories. In this phase I tried to build on the 28 categories by further communicating with foundation managers (n = 12) as well as with managers from the FL’s Charitable Trust organisation (n = 2). In addition to these meetings, an interview was conducted with the Professional Footballers’ Association community.
director \((n = 1)\). During Phase 3, efforts were made to locate the conditional structure of the decision-making processes about CSR-related issues and identify the means by which a category had emerged. The result was the formation of four axial categories, namely harmonising, safeguarding, manoeuvring, and transcending, according to both their properties and their dimensional characteristics. ‘Properties’ refers to the “characteristic of a category, the delineation of which defines and gives it meaning” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 101), while ‘dimensions’ refers to “the range of variance that the property demonstrates” (Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 98). The refining of the axial categories, which entailed the consideration of those contextual parameters and broader structural conditions, was achieved through the Paradigm Model. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990) the researcher arrives at this stage having developed the categories in terms of their salient properties, dimensions and associated paradigmatic relationships.

In short, although the actual process of axial coding through the procedures of the paradigm is “quite a complex process of ‘inductive and deductive thinking’, involving several steps” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 107), it adds depth and structure to the huge mass of data that has been organised during the open coding process. Indeed, Strauss and Corbin’s paradigm enabled me to relate various parts of the emerged theoretical framework in terms of causal conditions, context, strategies and consequences.

Through the Paradigm Model, I was looking for an answer to the question “what is going on here?” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 130). The answer to this question was represented by four simultaneous micro-social processes, which appeared, however, to separately capture how managers in these charitable organisations make decisions, and hence seemed to lack an aggregated explanatory conceptual power. Put differently, each of these four categories tells part of the story, yet none appeared to capture it completely. If this happens to be the case, then a more abstract social process may be needed that encapsulates all four sub-processes mentioned above (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

To this end, additional interviews were conducted \((n = 2)\) with a twofold purpose in mind: (a) to look for what each one of these four sub-processes really conceals; that is, re-examining them so a concept could depict the process more abstractly; and (b) to identify those concepts that seem to explain in an aggregated manner the way in which managers in these organisations make decisions. It was then that I tried to refine the core category of the substantive theory, and this last set of interviews served to pull together earlier categories under the core category and its main properties, and therefore provide a logical explanation for this integration.
3.7 Ethical Considerations

As qualitative data in the form of personal interviews provides the majority of the data for this study, the voluntary participation of research subjects was vital in eliciting data of the necessary richness. It has been argued, however, (see, for example, Olesen, 2007, p. 425; Holton, 2006, p. 59) that strict adherence to standard ethical considerations in grounded theory-based studies may be unnecessary given that this methodology does not make extensive use of detailed or lengthy quotations, but rather conceptualises the data and thus largely abstracts it from its context. I am only in partial agreement with this assertion. It is true that the conceptualisation of data forms the backbone of this methodology, but a good number of quotations are used to support the conceptualisation process and the 'transparency' of my thinking. Therefore, I follow the principle that “data should be presented in such a way that respondents should be able to recognise themselves, while the reader should not be able to identify them” (Barnes, 1979, p. 39). Moreover, with the introduction of the Data Protection Act (1998; 2000), considerations of anonymity and privacy carry not only ethical but legal implications too. The Act protects the rights of individuals in respect to their personal data, including that held by academic researchers. To this end, following standard ethical guidance for the use of interviews as a research method in business and organisational studies (cf. Saunders et al., 2009, pp. 168-209; Collis & Hussey, 2009, pp. 43-47) and in sport management research (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, pp. 77-98) as well as academic institutions’ ethical guidelines, interviewees were assured of the following rights:

- Anonymity in the treatment of personal information;
- Right to withdraw permission to use the interview as a source of information at any time;
- The information gathered in the interview was to be used only for the purpose of this thesis, and related academic work.

Participants were also informed as to who will own the data, and of the final results of the research, as well as the methods used to store the information (the last point was explicitly requested by Salford University’s Ethical Committee). All interview participants provided their consent for their views to be reported in this thesis and related academic work. Although it has been deemed necessary to use the original job titles of interviewees, all participants were guaranteed anonymity with no names being recorded on the transcriptions at any point in the research. Consequently, both for data management and archival purposes, but predominantly for ethical purposes, interview transcripts (as well as field notes) were assigned

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11 Here I refer to both University of Salford and Coventry University.
numbers and letters that correlated to each interview. For example, an interview with a manager from a Premier League charitable foundation is labelled ‘PL-fc1’; from the Championship ‘FLC-fc1’; from a football governing body ‘Fb-L’; and from a football association ‘Fb-A’. The number next to the letters indicates the specific participant. Moreover, when reference is made to a ‘PL-fc’, the reader should assume that the interviewee represents the ‘parent’ club’s charitable foundation. Of course, when relationship issues between the two organisations (i.e., the ‘parent’ football club and the charitable foundation) become relevant to the research, appropriate distinction between the types of organisation are made.

3.8 Chapter Summary

The main focus of this chapter has been to provide a detailed account of the research methodology employed in this study, with the principle aim being to ensure soundness and consistency between research philosophy, methodology, data collection and analysis techniques. Reflecting on the nature of the field of inquiry, an interpretive, qualitative-oriented strategy was selected, with use of grounded theory methodology. The key points (in reverse order) highlighted in this chapter are as follows:

1) The use of a semi-structured interview technique (supported by organisational documentary material) to gain an understanding of context, rationales behind action/interaction and to give a better appreciation of the meanings that organisational actors (managers) in the charitable foundations of the English football clubs attach to the decision-making process of CSR-related matters;

2) The selection of grounded theory over other qualitative research strategies as the most suitable, given its capacity for developing an explanation of the way charitable foundation managers make decisions about CSR-related matters that moves beyond a simple description of what people are doing or saying in the substantive area;

3) The selection of the Straussian variant of grounded theory to inform this study, for the reasons that (a) it identifies a specific phenomenon to be studied before the researcher enters the field (in this case, managerial decision-making in the English football charitable foundations); (b) it employs specific and structured procedures of analysis that particularly aid inexperienced grounded theory researchers; and (c) it takes into consideration the wider structural conditions pertaining to a phenomenon (through the Paradigm Model);

4) Symbolic interactionism established as the theoretical perspective informing this study. In the context of this study, the engagement of managers’ with the
notion of CSR is regarded as giving ‘meaning’ to the decision making about CSR-related matters. At the same time, a social constructionist perspective examines how the researcher’s personal biography and theoretical sensitivity give ‘meaning’ to the data;

5) Drawing on Burrell and Morgan’s (1979) typology of paradigms for the analysis of social and organisational theory, this research is situated in the interpretive paradigm. Here, organisations (charitable foundations) are viewed as being the creations of the actors involved (managers), in the sense that they do not exist as a concrete external reality prior to the actors;

6) Consistent with the Straussian variant of grounded theory, the ontological stance adopted here assumes a relativist position – that there are multiple external realities marked by tremendous fluidity, whereas the epistemological stance assumes that “all knowledge is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42).

With these philosophical and methodological considerations in place, the empirical work itself may now be addressed. An account may now be given of the analytic process informing the development of a substantive theory, grounded in charitable foundation managers’ decision-making processes regarding CSR in English football.
Chapter 4
Data analysis and synthesis

4.1 Introduction and purpose
The aim of this research is to explore managerial decision-making within the charitable foundations of English football clubs. The present chapter outlines the process of analysing and synthesising data collated in order to achieve this aim. It is divided into three parts. The first section (4.2) demonstrates how the early 28 open categories were generated through open coding. The second section (4.3) concerns the adjusted axial coding process, during which contextual conditions and additional data gave explanatory power to the revised four axial categories of harmonising, safeguarding, manoeuvring and transcending and thus took the analysis to a higher level of abstraction. The third section (4.4) is devoted to selective coding, which represents the final stage of the Straussian coding method. This stage involves the selection of the ‘core’ category ‘assessable transcendence’ and its main properties (passion, communication, trust, performance) resulting from the data analysis and synthesis.

It is worth remembering here that the divisions between the three coding stages are porous or even, as Strauss and Corbin (1990) have put it, artificial. This was indeed my experience as I found myself constantly moving from one type of coding to another, especially during open and axial coding. These three stages of data analysis and synthesis are discussed sequentially in this chapter not simply for ease of reading but predominantly as an endeavour to demonstrate the conceptualisation process, and the ‘transparency’ of my thinking, in as detailed a manner as possible.

4.2 Open categories
This section explains the initial stage of coding the data collated during Phase 1 (1a and 1b) of interview fieldwork and analysis of organisational documents. Four hundred eighty eight (488) initial codes generated during initial open coding (IC) were revised down to 129 ‘parent’ codes (PC) that went on to form 28 open categories. These open categories represent the building blocks for the substantive grounded theory this research aimed to develop. While there are no systematic links between these open categories, efforts have been made to illustrate possible links between codes within each open category. This was done by creating a descriptive ‘storyline’ for the codes. This technique anticipates the narrative description of the phenomenon under study developed after the third phase of coding in grounded
theory; that is, the selective coding that produces the core category. I adopted an abridged version of the same technique (abridged in terms of both length and conceptual and theoretical discussion) at this earlier stage in order to demonstrate the rationale behind the generation of each open category and so to share my analytical and thinking process with the reader.

To this end, two examples of the 28 open categories in question are given below. These two exemplary open categories provide a brief narrative description along with a figure of the codes that have been sub-grouped as ‘parent’ codes, with their initial codes placed around them. The description of each open category and its ‘parent’ and initial codes is supplied along with (just some of the) fragments of illustrative data that support the groupings.

4.2.1 GRASPING
The open category GRASPING refers to what Gummesson (2000) calls the pre-understanding of a situation. Here, the ‘situation’ concerns professional experience and training, academic knowledge and various sentiments these managers possess in relation to the job they do. Many of the informants, for example, have either played professional football or are associated in one way or another with sport in general. Therefore, they have themselves witnessed what effect football can have on somebody’s life (‘Witnessing’).

I saw where football touches people at different levels, so that helped; that involvement I think has shaped where we are going in terms of CSR (PL-fc1a).

I was growing up as a player myself; I saw the power of the role model of a footballer, so how certainly young children react and look up to the role models of footballers, so I saw that power, then they started, as I was coming to the end of my career they started developing these educational programs, young children underachieving at school would come into classrooms based at the stadium and learn new skills through football. I spent a bit of time on that, I saw the difference how underachieving pupils at school suddenly attained far higher marks because of the learning through the football and thought, yeah, football can actually help improve education, and now we have moved that a step on health, equality, social inclusion all the stuff across social - all social aspects in this country football or sport can make a difference (Fb-L1).

The fact that sport in general, and football in particular, has become for many managers the inspiration for their (professional) lives appears to be an element that (if only subconsciously) influences the way they go about formulating CSR-related programmes. Their lengthy engagement with similar roles has also granted them
a good level of experience (‘Led by experience’) while their overall ‘Professional background’ assists them in getting to grips with the task they were assigned to undertake (for example by transferring and capitalising on various skills acquired from different settings).

I did that for the next eight years probably when we had a new Community Director come into the club who decided that he wanted to use my expertise as well. And so I did some work within the community program as well as doing the academy work (FLC-fc3).

I have worked in football for 10 years now so I have a degree in Coaching Science. I am a coach by trade and I have sort of developed into a sort of management position. I have only ever worked for football clubs on a CSR agenda so I have been at this club for five years, prior to that I was in another football club for five years (FLC-fc6).

The managers’ understanding of local social issues (‘Regional familiarity’) is equally important as it helps them to target specific issues during the formulation of their CSR-related programmes.

[…] because of the knowledge that I had of the city and the wider region, I could then make decisions on what we are going to do (PL-fc1a).

I know what the issues are in this area because I am from here (FLC-fc1).

All this ‘pre-understanding’ has a potential bearing on the way managers make decisions regarding CSR formulation, yet I will have to address more specific questions to these managers concerning what such an ‘early engagement’ really means when it comes to designing their programmes.
4.2.2 LEARNING

The open category LEARNING involves those social processes that have helped managers to shape their views on the concept of CSR. This in turn assists them in making decisions for their foundations about CSR-related content. The previously discussed open category (GRASPING) has demonstrated that most of these managers are guided by a rich ‘football past’ which is the root of their faith in what they do. This open category, however, takes the discussion further; in essence, it shows how managers capitalise on this rich football background by knowledge sharing and information gathering alongside trial-and-error processes. The concept of possible social, as well as business-related, benefit is relatively new within the football context (‘Ignoring’-PC-92). Consequently, managers who oversee the application of CSR in English football are constantly trying to appreciate how things can be done better and/or differently (‘Ongoing enlightening’-PC-93).

No, I had no idea football was doing this before I joined, no idea and that’s the...What am I doing and I cannot tell you the story enough because I am now so passionate about this, it’s the most exciting thing in football by miles. I had no idea before; I was a big football fan, I was just going to matches all time, you see people coming on the pitch at half time, you think, oh, that’s great, but you have no idea of the impact, no idea (Fb-L2). - PC-92
This ignorance, there is lot of people ignorant about it, myself to a certain degree; most of the staff will be, maybe further, but not been realized how it can impact on their particular lifestyle or how they perform their duties. I think it needs somebody to... teach us (PL-fc5). - **PC-92**

We then realized that actually in working with the schools there was a lot more that we could do with our brand in terms of getting kids to address serious social issues that would help the school, so that’s where the school assemblies came from. Then we recognized that some of the children here are going back to incredibly dysfunctional families, and it wasn’t enough to just deal with the child, it was really important to deal with the whole families and that’s where this family-oriented project grew from (PL-fc6). - **PC-93**

So it’s my own experience first of all that opened my eyes to it, then learning a bit more about the CSR concept over five years, perhaps hearing a bit more about America did it, what they were doing (Fb-L1). - **PC-93**

Such an ongoing process seems to be the result of a mimetic, yet selective, exercise of ‘how others are doing it’; others may include mainstream businesses as well as sport organisations with more experience of and, possibly, longer engagement with CSR-related practices (‘Best practice seeking’).

When I first came back five years ago I said [to one of my managers] ‘look, we need to go and see the best in this game, we need to see who is doing the best so let’s travel and go to Charlton and see them’, and we spent a day with them, just to see what they did and how they did it (FLC-fc5).

So we take best practice from Australia, cricket over in summer, Aussie rules as well. We do a lot of work with NBA, the NFL, knowledge sharing; information gathering because we know that a lot of what these organisations deliver is top notch; so, we can take little gems of information from the news but that’s usually important to us (Fb-L1).

We start actually talking about it with our accountants, a lot of big businesses, the Starbucks, the internationals, the Coca Colas of this world; you can go on their website and you can click on the CSR and they will have a report and they quantify what they do (PL-fc1a).

This micro-social process of learning is not restricted to externally-based sources but is also (perhaps more importantly) the result of a trial-and-error process in which CSR philosophy is contextualised and the possible outcomes of such engagement are recognised (‘Hind sighting’).

I think the reason it’s [CSR] so important for this football club is because we actually see the difference it makes, so the CSR here is - we are giving something back but we are actually making a difference and I think that’s why we see it now and the club sees it as so important, because over time now we have seen the difference it makes (PL-fc3).
It would be dreadfully wrong for me to say that everything we do works, it doesn’t; there are things that we have tried and we thought for whatever reason that’s not work (PL-fc2).

Looking at the open category LEARNING in conjunction with GRASPING, I discern elements of internal organisational drivers as well as mimetic practices that echo more institutional, (i.e., external) pressures. I may now need to form a set of questions addressing how the processes of ‘learning’ and ‘grasping’ have a bearing on the formulation of CSR in these foundations.

**Figure 4.2: Open Category LEARNING**

Space limitations prohibit detailed narrative descriptions of all 28 open categories. Consequently, Table 4.1 offers a snapshot of the remaining 26 open categories, each of them representing a micro-social process that was provisionally conceptualised (but not, yet, abstracted) in terms of the insights it offers into the ways in which foundation managers make decisions regarding CSR-related matters.
Chapter 4: Data analysis and synthesis

Christos Anagnostopoulos

So everything we do has to recognise that the football club first and foremost has survived as a business. Sustainable financially as well as socially, absolutely and that’s vital (PL-fc2).

I understand at the highest level that they are very busy people and they have got priorities to the business and I totally get that (FLC-fc2).

We are proposing to get into working with 25+ people who are redundant because the money is all moving there anyway. The government clearly cannot have 10,000 people here made redundant and not put money into try and resolve that (FLC-fc5).

[...] but for me, when you look at what is actually required to run a very, very good community CSR team, financially – I mean when you look at players – I mean it’s probably one player’s wage. One player’s wage for a year would actually pay to run a community, a good community program for a year; and that to me is sometimes... I just think...we are scratching around (FLC-fc3).

[...] a lot of the decisions we will take now are very much around working with people that want to work with us. So when we are looking at programmes; that is a massive factor of my decision making. So if we are going to do this program, are our partners going to deliver? Are we going to achieve what we want to achieve? so we maximise the potential because we have done some programs, which... we don’t want to go back to work in isolation again because it doesn’t work, you can’t do it, you have to have these partnerships, but at the same time we only want to be working with partners that put in as much as we put in; so I think that influences the decision (FLC-fc4).

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<tr>
<td><strong>Illustrative data extracts</strong></td>
<td>'being business'</td>
<td><strong>ACKNOWLEDGING</strong> refers to the wider context in which managers have to make decisions about CSR-related programmes. Today’s football has become a business pursuit and nothing these foundation managers do can be separated from their recognition of this.</td>
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<td>So everything we do has to recognise that the football club first and foremost has survived as a business. Sustainable financially as well as socially, absolutely and that’s vital (PL-fc2). I understand at the highest level that they are very busy people and they have got priorities to the business and I totally get that (FLC-fc2).</td>
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<td>We are proposing to get into working with 25+ people who are redundant because the money is all moving there anyway. The government clearly cannot have 10,000 people here made redundant and not put money into try and resolve that (FLC-fc5).</td>
<td>'playing status'</td>
<td><strong>ADJUSTING</strong> refers to the adaptability and flexibility these managers have to demonstrate while making decisions about CSR-related programmes.</td>
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<td>[...] but for me, when you look at what is actually required to run a very, very good community CSR team, financially – I mean when you look at players – I mean it’s probably one player’s wage. One player’s wage for a year would actually pay to run a community, a good community program for a year; and that to me is sometimes... I just think...we are scratching around (FLC-fc3).</td>
<td>'being receptive'</td>
<td><strong>ASPIRING</strong> largely refers to managers’ prospects when making decisions about CSR-related programmes.</td>
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<td>[...] a lot of the decisions we will take now are very much around working with people that want to work with us. So when we are looking at programmes; that is a massive factor of my decision making. So if we are going to do this program, are our partners going to deliver? Are we going to achieve what we want to achieve? so we maximise the potential because we have done some programs, which... we don’t want to go back to work in isolation again because it doesn’t work, you can’t do it, you have to have these partnerships, but at the same time we only want to be working with partners that put in as much as we put in; so I think that influences the decision (FLC-fc4).</td>
<td>'devaluing'</td>
<td><strong>ASSESSING</strong> refers to the various micro-processes during which managers make decisions on collaborations and partnerships for their CSR-related programmes. Given that the work these football foundations do has been recognised (see also the open category BEING RECOGNISED), managers now need to ensure that any engagement with other parties protects ('Protecting') the hard-earned integrity and reliability of their work and does not risk 'Devaluing' the brand itself.</td>
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**Table 4.1: Open categories**

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<td>The idea in essence is to complement and add value or fill a need where there is [...] If you are going to work with the health service, with PCT, then you have got to work with the professionals, and they are the ones that have got that professional knowledge or you can add value to that (FLC-fc2).</td>
<td>'adding value'</td>
<td>ASSISTING</td>
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<td>I think public and private organizations that have traditionally existed outside of football and perhaps sometimes even outside of sport, they have seen we can help deliver; you know, they can use football to benefit what they are trying to achieve (FLC-fc1). What seems to have happened in terms of finance and resourcing is that all of a sudden the outside world has seen what football can contribute to this area, which is a good thing (PL-fc4).</td>
<td>'commercial business'</td>
<td>BEING RECOGNISED</td>
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<td>We believe that it was right to try and bridge that gap between the communities and the players [...] you can't pay somebody 4 million a year and expect them to go and live in a community that is earning a £100 a week; you can't expect that [...] therefore keeping the connection alive between the fans and the football club (FLC-fc5).</td>
<td>'connecting'</td>
<td>BRIDGING</td>
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<td>We don't shout very loudly about this; we have a little articles in our program but we don't go to the press very often with some of these stories; we don't use them as a PR tool because we do need to have kind of real effects...so we don't pushing on that, look how wonderful we are. So we don't force it on people (PL-fc1a).</td>
<td>'conscious acting'</td>
<td>COMMUNICATING refers to any information sharing that has a bearing on overall CSR strategy. It covers how the content of CSR programmes is being communicated to the outside world, for example through club and foundation websites or CSR reports.</td>
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<td>We got to survive, we got to – we are not-for-profit organization, but we are not-for-loss organization either. So our community work has to cover our cost and so there are certain things that we do which are service needs; so we provide a service, we get income from it, but our overall strategy is to improve, a lot of the community to improve (FLC-fc2).</td>
<td>'balancing actions'</td>
<td>COMPROMISING refers to the general give-and-take situation in which these managers find themselves when making decisions about the formulation of CSR-related programmes.</td>
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<td>So if we went out to that remit and did something, say, with old age pensioners, we would have to do it from an inter-generational point of view of trying to get someone under 25 involved with, otherwise we are breaking our objects; and each club will have the same - should be geared by the same thing; so they can be as wider as you want... (PL-fc4). There is no way that you can do a bit of everything and retain that quality; you can’t, I don’t believe that for a minute. So we have got an environment program but it’s just a small, but we have got one and it’s a really good program and if someone came along with some money, we could expand it and it would be even better, but you know what, if that didn’t happen, I am not bothered (FLC-fc4).</td>
<td>'reverse effect'</td>
<td>CONTEXTUALISING refers to the various conditions and preconditions impinging on how managers make their decisions about CSR-related programmes. There is, for example, an admittance that despite football's appeal across a wide range of areas these football foundations should not – or in other cases would rather not – become involved with certain issues.</td>
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<td><strong>Examples of Open Codes (Phase 1a &amp; 1b)</strong></td>
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<td>'conscious acting'</td>
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<td>'capacity constraints'</td>
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<td><strong>Open Categories (Phase 2)</strong></td>
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<td>'balancing actions'</td>
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<td>'stretching'</td>
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<td>'trading-off'</td>
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**COMMUNICATING**

COMMUNICATING refers to any information sharing that has a bearing on overall CSR strategy. It covers how the content of CSR programmes is being communicated to the outside world, for example through club and foundation websites or CSR reports.

**COMPROMISING**

COMPROMISING refers to the general give-and-take situation in which these managers find themselves when making decisions about the formulation of CSR-related programmes.

**CONTEXTUALISING**

CONTEXTUALISING refers to the various conditions and preconditions impinging on how managers make their decisions about CSR-related programmes. There is, for example, an admittance that despite football’s appeal across a wide range of areas these football foundations should not – or in other cases would rather not – become involved with certain issues.
Table 4.1: Open categories

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<tr>
<td><strong>Illustrative data extracts</strong></td>
<td><strong>Examples of Open Codes (Phase 1a &amp; 1b)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Definition of Open Category</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>I have the view that you should not have 3 billion or whatever it is from the media - which is what the Premier League is going to take in the next three years - and you then turn around and say, &quot;can you, in the Health Service, give these clubs some money to do work on health?&quot; Sorry, we should be going to the Health Service and say, we can bring this to you, e.g. £100,000. What are you going to give us to help with it as well? (FLC-fc5).</td>
<td>'being ingrained' 'creating human capital' 'noblesse oblige'</td>
<td>DUTY-BOUND</td>
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<tr>
<td>Football generates huge amounts of passion, all football clubs supporters have pride in their club, it's not like going shopping [...] At a football club, the brand affinity is strong and it probably goes back three, four, five generations and sometimes we underestimate the privileged position that we have in playing an important role in those people's lives (PL-fc5).</td>
<td>'distinctiveness' 'reference point'</td>
<td>EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED</td>
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<td>We don't do things on Sky Sports with players just launching something which is one off; we have turned down funding for one off things when they haven't been sustainable. We will only do sustainable things because we believe it helps and it's also important because when you are employing 2,500 people in those charities, in the clubs, you can't have them dipping in and out of jobs; you need to give them jobs where they can stay; in a sustainable work, so unfair to say we are going to have a two month project...They have got to be sustainable (Fb-L2).</td>
<td>'taking it forward' 'constant hunting' 'substantive engagement'</td>
<td>ENSURING</td>
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<td>Open Categories (Phase 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I go asking for money, that’s the first thing anybody looks at: how many people involved; the more people involved the easier to get the money (PL-fc2).</td>
<td>‘benchmarking’</td>
<td>EVALUATING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So 10 years ago you wouldn’t have that [...] the sort of trustees that we are attracting to come on to that Board are more experienced, more dynamic, and are helping us to grow further (FLC-fc1). I wanted to bring [...] in expertise to the scheme that would really drive it forward, make it more diverse, make it bigger; make it better; make it more relevant (FLC-fc4).</td>
<td>‘selective undertaking’</td>
<td>GROWING UP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[We] don’t decide which issues to focus upon; if we can use the term loosely, society decides that for us (PL-fc2). If we think there is something that is big on agenda, government agenda and there is going to be funding for it or money available, the new thing shall I say, we come up with a concept, so generally me or [my Head] will develop that concept with staff and then we find money to implement it or if we don’t need funding to implement it, because for some our provision we do charge participants to take part (FLC-fc6).</td>
<td>‘aligning’</td>
<td>HARMONISING</td>
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**Table 4.1: Open categories**

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<tr>
<td>[...] they are often the hard to reach groups in our society and often the ones causing those troubles; reality on the street, no one can get to them like football apart from positive music; but music is not set up like us; music doesn’t have a community centre set up with an attractiveness of football pitch, that’s a reality (Fb-L2).</td>
<td>‘fostering engagement’ ‘structured mechanism’ ‘players’ appeal’</td>
<td>HOOKING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have a community program, are we good? Oh, yes, our ego is much better because we got a ticking box. The chairman professes that we are a community club; as soon as we hit problems anywhere along the line they forget the word ‘community’. I am cynical about it because that’s every club, it’s not just here (FLC-fc5).</td>
<td>‘Americanisation’ ‘common vision’ ‘cross-departmental reliance’</td>
<td>INTERNAL MECHANICS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know... I almost feel that the role of the foundation here is to counteract that [they refer to business-like approaches], in a way, because all the money and all these negative things about football at the moment, and so what we are doing is kind of the positive side of things (PL-fc3). I think because our relationship with FA, UEFA, FIFA absolutely key, huge, and quite a lot of times they have put quite heavy regulatory pressure on us. And basically our response is, look, we are good citizens, we are a good league, look at what we are doing, it’s not just about having a good England team in this country but it’s about having a good league and it’s about that league being good citizens, now if we can get that message across to our government and to the governing bodies that is absolutely key for us (Fb-L1).</td>
<td>‘offsetting’ ‘image building’ ‘political space’</td>
<td>LEGITIMISING</td>
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<tr>
<td>All the programs that we do are led by local need. So, I don’t wake up in the morning and go: we will run a social inclusion program in this area; what we do is, the police will come to me and say ‘we have got issues with residents, they have nothing to do, they have said to us they want to do football...’; we go and do that (FLC-fc4). We do become more local and this club and my previous clubs; so in my experience is very much about – it’s not a national brand, we are never going to be a national brand, it’s a local one (FLC-fc2). If you look straight at just the community programs per se, for my job, we were involved in actually developing the regeneration framework for this area. So the regeneration framework in partnership with the City Council and the community dictates what I have delivered. The community programs grew up out of the needs we found in the community (PL-fc6).</td>
<td>'maximum return' 'inseparably intertwined' 'regional particularities' LOCALISING is associated with the local issues managers consider when making decisions on CSR-related programmes. The crux of the LOCALISING category is that (a) decisions regarding CSR-related programmes are driven by the needs of the area in which each football club resides; (b) the implementation of those decisions occurs in collaboration with the local community; and (c) managers consider the locally-focused CSR-related programmes to have the best potential return on the investments their foundations make</td>
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<td>I mean probably when we were in the Premier League we saw a bit of an increase in our participation levels on our generic programs; when they are watching Premier League football matches, people will pack up every week, now when we are playing against [a Championship team], no disrespect, but you struggle a little bit (FLC-fc6).</td>
<td>'benefiting' 'facilitating' 'outstripping'</td>
<td>ON-FIELD EFFECT refers to the precarious link between ‘on the pitch’ performance and ‘off the pitch’ decision-making processes. Moments of ‘success’ can lift the spirit of all parties (e.g., club management, foundation staff, programme participants, partners, sponsors and so forth) that contribute to CSR-related programmes. Managers who oversee these football foundations are intentionally or unintentionally ‘benefiting’ when the team’s results are positive.</td>
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<tr>
<td>With CSR this is the big problem, you open one door and then another one opens, and another one opens; it’s very, very difficult to get to the boundaries of whom you work with (PL-fc1a). So it’s very much then linking all terms of activities, but again our partners and the exit routes are not within just the foundation; there are 150-200 spin offs of we might engage, then where do we send, where do we come back in? (PLC-fc2).</td>
<td>’fertile setting’ ’institutional conditions’</td>
<td>SCOPE FOR ADVANCING refers to the wider environmental conditions that facilitate the timely application of CSR in football and allow its full potential to be recognised. Managers consider the context in which their foundations operate, and within which they have to make decisions about CSR practice, a ’fertile setting’ for engagement. They are presented with many opportunities to become involved with projects, and the demand for CSR is constantly increasing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would just have issues with the money and I think when everything we involve in so much have money, that does make our role more challenging because people feel that there is so much in the club anyway that sometimes you think, you know, if we try to go out and do things people want so much back from you, because, oh, you are a Premier League club, you’ve got so many millions, you have got this, you have got that. So I think sometimes it does make our role more challenging (PL-fc3).</td>
<td>’cynicism’ ’misapprehensions’ ’capacity’ ’contradictions’ ’costly undertakings’</td>
<td>STRUGGLING refers to circumstances that can render formulating CSR-related programmes laborious for managers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanks to this know-how that we get from our CSR partners I don’t think we could run all these programmes without them - I don’t know if we want to (Fb-L2). We do nothing in isolation; everything we do is with partners. We could work without partnerships but it wouldn’t be as successful. Because they quite often bring funding, so local authority will give us money because we have to cover our costs; how do I cover a cost of a coach going out there? If it’s a deprived area, an area that’s high in unsocial behaviour or poor area the young people apparently can’t afford to pay for the service; so we need funding (PLC-fc6).</td>
<td>’key information’ ’synergies’ ’expertise’ ’funding’</td>
<td>TEAMING UP involves the collaborations and co-operations between these football foundations and other parties that are required in order for CSR-related programmes to be formulated and implemented.</td>
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<td>Examples of Open Codes (Phase 1a &amp; 1b)</td>
<td>Definition of Open Category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think there are companies that do it properly and right – CSR is not just about or shouldn’t be just about putting money into the community, it should be getting to understand the community, reacting and supporting and helping the needs in that community and trying to capacity build within the community (FLC-fc2).</td>
<td>‘sustainability’ ‘ticking-box exercise’ ‘window-dressing’ ‘leaking the surface’</td>
<td>TRANSCENDING refers to the managers’ determination to apply CSR thinking within their business sector seriously, sincerely and in a manner that surpasses meaningless undertakings and strives for real, substantial involvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So it’s starting to drift into football, maybe because there are more business people coming into the game who have come from those organizations that have used it previously. But if you are talking specifically about those three words, you know, it’s not necessarily a word that has been used within football, I think it’s a word that’s always been used by businesses, corporations (FLC-fc1).</td>
<td>‘controversial concept’ ‘gaining momentum’ ‘recondite terminology’</td>
<td>UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE refers to the terminology itself – i.e., ‘corporate social responsibility’ – that is gradually entering football business operations.</td>
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4.2.3 Summary of open coding analysis

The open coding phase discussed in section 4.2 illustrates the way in which I have dealt with the first procedure of the Straussian variant of grounded theory. During this initial process of data analysis, (some) initial as well as ‘parent’ codes demonstrate strong contextual characteristics (i.e., football-related) that might signify a possible descriptive analytical tone rather than the desired abstraction. Reflecting on the outcome of my open coding before embarking on the second phase of the fieldwork, I acknowledge that this might be the case. However, equipped with the supportive clarifications made by Corbin and Strauss (2008) that (a) “concepts vary in levels of abstraction” (p. 52) and (b) “when a researcher is doing initial coding early in the analysis, it is likely that some of the concepts delineated from data will eventually be identified as pertaining to context” (p. 88), I feel confident enough that these 28 open categories provide a platform that may guide me towards higher-level abstraction during and after Phase 3 of the fieldwork. In the section that follows, therefore, I will be aiming for higher-level abstraction by taking the open categories and examining the conditions and processes that have given them explanatory power. The ultimate goal during this phase of analysis will be to synthesise and subsequently form categories which will, in turn, explain the core category: the central phenomenon arising from the data.
4.3 Refining open categories

This section demonstrates how the emergent (and initially rather descriptive) 28 open categories have subsequently been refined, through the constant comparative method, into four axial categories: harmonising, safeguarding, manoeuvring and transcending (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Refining Open Categories into Axial Categories

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Refined Axial Categories [Phase 3]</th>
<th>Initial Open Categories [Phase 1(a &amp; b) and 2]</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HARMONISING</td>
<td>Adjusting; Compromising; Contextualising; Localising; Teaming up; Assisting; Harmonising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAFEGUARDING</td>
<td>Acknowledging; Being recognised; Bridging; Legitimising; Duty-bound; Assessing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANOEUVRING</td>
<td>Communicating; Internal mechanics; Struggling; Unaccustomed parlance; On-field effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANSCENDING</td>
<td>Aspiring; Growing up; Evaluating; Emotionally attached; Ensuring; Grasping; Hooking; Learning; Scope for advancing; Transcending</td>
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</table>

The placing of the initial 28 open categories under one of the subsequently-formed four axial categories should not be understood as a fixed outcome. Some of these 28 axial categories could have been subsumed under two (or more) of the four axial categories; an exercise that would demonstrate the multiple impacts these open categories have on the managerial decision-making process. I have decided, however, to demonstrate this complex situation at the final stage of this data analysis and synthesis – the so-called selective coding – where the ‘descriptive storyline’ is adopted. In the current section I consider it more important to demonstrate the conceptualisation process for the axial categories, putting the emphasis on their principal1 properties and their dimensional characteristics rather than trying to safeguard the kind of narrative fluency glimpsed in the previous section and expanded on more fully in the next. As a consequence, although this section does delve into the data in a relatively detailed way, this analysis is undertaken in a necessarily fragmentary fashion. A fuller understanding of the conceptual process discussed within it may be reached on reading the following section (4.5), in which the four abstract axial categories harmonising, safeguarding, manoeuvring and transcending will be bedrock for; and give meaning to, the core pattern of ‘assessable

1 There are many properties that can hold together a concept, let alone processes like the four ones discussed in this section. By ‘principal’ I mean those properties which seem to be the most pertinent ones and without which the process in question would be poorly explained. The properties are always discussed in relation to the set of data that justifies them.
Transcendence’. As Urquhart (2013) reminds us, however, “theories, by definition, have relationships between the constructs” (p. 165). In the following sections I depict such relationships through diagrams, thereby (a) illustrating how open categories are related and consequently (b) demonstrating the analytical process behind the formulation of each of the four axial categories.

It is also crucial to reiterate that the separation of the coding stages undertaken in this thesis is a somewhat artificial exercise. Moving back and forth from open to axial coding is both an expected and a common practice in grounded theory. To this end, some elements of the repetition that is crucial for the development of the theory will be encountered in the following sections, but for clarity’s sake such incidences have been kept to a minimum. Theoretical memos have also been included in order to illustrate the conceptual process behind the grouping of these main categories. These memos are presented much as they were originally written, that is not as fully thought-out conceptual points but rather as informal ‘notes-to-self’ (in the author’s second language) that show my thought processes (refer to appendices for a wide selection of detailed memos). Moreover, more often than not the ideas expressed in memos have been dismissed upon later reflection; some of them, however, proved to be the seeds for a well-conceptualised theory. This section draws only on those more significant notes.

4.3.1 The axial category Harmonising

Phase 3 of the fieldwork was guided by the open categories, and pursued questions emerging from the analysis of data gathered in Phases 1 and 2. I was interested, therefore, in finding out more about a number of crucial points. First of these was the question of how the changing conditions in the managers’ immediate and external environments (e.g., team’s relegation or promotion, current economic climate, political landscape, change in club’s ownership and so on) were affecting their decisions in relation to CSR-related programmes (ADJUSTING). Admitting that the work the managers do is a supplementary undertaking, and knowing that regardless of their decisions the programmes they oversee will not have a great impact on people’s lives, I also wondered what more was needed to achieve the greatest possible impact (ASSISTING). Furthermore, I wanted to discover why emphasis is given to the communities in which the football clubs reside, with hardly any CSR-related decisions reaching beyond that immediate territory (LOCALISING), and sought to question how far the managers were willing (or able) to go in order to use their limited resources in as efficient a way as possible (CONTEXTUALISING and COMPROMISING). Given that their jobs can only be realised in partnerships with
others, I also planned to ask what the key decisions might be for managers when (considering) working with others (TEAMING UP). Finally, I wished to ascertain whether managerial decisions are aligned with social issues alone or whether other contextual parameters have a bearing on this process (HARMONISING). Figure 4.3.1a below illustrates my thinking process with regard to the relationships among the open categories that ultimately led to the Harmonising category.
Figure 4.3.1a: Axial Category Harmonising and relationships between its open categories
4.3.1.1 Definition of Harmonising

Harmonising is the process that explains those conditions which affect how managers in football clubs’ charitable foundations make decisions concerning CSR-related programmes. This process entails a variable degree of dependence upon: the available resources – both financial and human – these organisations (may) have; the existence or otherwise of specified requirements that facilitate or constrain their engagement on CSR-related programmes; and a need for flexibility that allows these organisations to adjust themselves to new situations and conditions. Table 4.3.1b below illustrates the properties and dimensions of the axial category Harmonising. Further, predominantly by drawing on the memo-writings done during Phase 3 of the fieldwork, I demonstrate why the properties ‘dependence’, ‘responsiveness’ and ‘adjustment’ hold together this particular axial category.

Table 4.3.1b: Properties and dimensions of Harmonising

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<tr>
<th>Axial Category</th>
<th>HARMONISING</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Properties</strong></td>
<td>Dependence</td>
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<td><strong>Dimensions</strong></td>
<td>Low / High</td>
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4.3.1.2 Harmonising: properties and dimensions

4.3.1.2.1 Dependence

Chapter 2 provided a brief picture of the structure within which English football’s CSR is currently practiced. Reflecting on these structural conditions (see below memo #1/a), it becomes evident that the platform upon which these managers ‘stand’ when making decisions about CSR-related programmes is established by some ‘institutional recipes’ issuing from the football authorities (the leagues). In other words, the charitable foundations run by these managers are very much dependent on a specific institutional framework; they must, for example, have certain organisational structures in place, they are required to design programmes that fall under the five broad themes the leagues support, and so on. The charitable foundations’ managers depend not only on the funding that the leagues provide (subject to meeting certain criteria – something that in turn has a bearing on the decision-making they exercise –) but also on the partner organisations with whom they liaise in order to implement their decisions (see Appendices: memo: #1a–1). Such dependence also seems to extend to some key personnel whom these managers
have begun recruiting to serve on the foundations’ boards. These people usually have very high local standing or expertise and can provide invaluable information on the social issues that local authorities and governmental agencies plan to tackle; this information can then help managers tailor their applications for funds (see Appendices: memo: #1a–2).
Memo #1/a---Property: DEPENDENCE

The managers are talking about the ‘pressure’ they face when making CSR-related decisions. They lack resources; that is funding, money, but they also lack staff. Some talk about capacity which is a word that, I think, encapsulates all the above. I guess they feel ‘pressure’ because there are needs (demand) and not enough capacity (supply). I think I have to look at the context in which these managers are required to make decisions and, perhaps, the best way to do so is to look back; to look at the recent history => It was mainly since mid-2000s that things started changing dramatically in how CSR-related programmes were to be delivered by the English football clubs. I look again at the graph in chapter 2 that illustrates the growth of establishing charitable foundations; it is indeed that period. Pretty much that time, Kelso (2006) writes that PL agreed, after the British government persuaded it, to distribute an increased percentage of revenue resulting from the next – at the time - TV deal for ‘CSR’ purposes => £155m over three years. Such decisions meant that football clubs should start having the appropriate organisational and professional structures in place to be able to administer and handle this unprecedented pot of money. The Premier League put a specific money distribution framework in place and the managers who oversee the CSR work in English football depend on these structures. In addition, football clubs established corporate foundations for delivering their CSR (I recall Brown et al.’s consultancy report to the Football Foundation in 2007 promoting various reasons for the CSR departments’ detachment from the ‘parent’ FC ~> not sure whether all of them were accurate). These charitable organisations, however, by definition, depend on external organisations which provide funding in order for the foundations to deliver CSR. Actually, if they don’t do so, they cannot go back to the league(s) and bid for the available pots of money, since the latter need to be matched with funding from organisations these foundations are liaising with. So in essence, the foundations depend on their partner organisations. Going back, I imagine that in order to be in a position to convince these partner organisations that they can do a good job, professional structures need to be in place. Core funding for getting your foundation organised comes from the league(s). So, again, there is a dependence on the league; I prefer the word dependence to compliance, as the former goes beyond what the league requires. I don’t think that the decision-making process these managers go through is restricted to compliance issues only. Dependence, of course, varies dimensionally in ‘degree’ from ‘HIGH to LOW’, and that it can ‘last’ (duration) a short or a long time that is to be continuous, intermittent, and temporary over a course of a time. For example, the managers have to support their decisions by getting the organisational structure in place, but this doesn’t last forever; they still depend on the league(s) for the available funding, but the degree of certain elements of this dependence changes/reduces. There may be a high dependence on a specific partner; but if the social local agenda changes, such dependence may be reduced and other external organisation(s) to take this role(s). I discern, therefore, elements of dependence – albeit with dimensional variations – in all seven open categories that constitute the axial category of Harmonising. I am looking again, for example, the open category TEAMING UP; in there I was talking about partnership buildings and bringing influential trustees in the board (i.e., dependence on them); ASSISTING: the argument there was that these foundations can only be the ‘foundation stone’ for more sustainable actions, i.e., dependence on other parties; the open category LOCALISING too has elements of dependence since if decisions about CSR programmes are made with local issues in mind then these foundations’ actions/plans (i.e., the ‘content’) depends on such issues (which may vary from region to region). The open category COMPROMISING also entails the property of dependence since one of the key issues facing managers is the need to secure funding, this makes them ‘money-dependent’; that is by trying to secure funding they implement programmes which generate income but do not fit with their preferred way of doing things. Because of such dependency, it seems to me that managers are going through the process of trying to harmonise all these contextual parameters while making decisions on CSR related issues. The property of dependence and its dimensional characteristics does not provide the full picture of the Harmonising process, however. I need to look deeper at the data.
4.3.1.2.2 Responsiveness

Responsiveness is a key feature of the axial category Harmonising. Managers in the charitable foundations make decisions on CSR-related issues by trying to respond to social needs and demands. However, sometimes directly and sometimes indirectly, they also respond to the league in which their ‘parent’ football club plays. These leagues have already set the CSR agenda for their clubs in conjunction with statutory and governmental organisations and agencies (see Appendices: memo #1b/1). The ‘Localising’ process managers go through (as discussed during the forming of the open categories) is important here (see Appendices: memo: #1b–2).

Memo #1/b---Property: RESPONSIVENESS

What is happening here? I have put together a number of open categories which, I think, are best explained by the axial category Harmonising. A few days ago, I was writing a memo about the property dependence which I believed –and I still do –plays a prominent role in the axial category of Harmonising during managerial decision-making. In my view, managers make decisions and these decisions constitute a responsive action to social needs and demands. Such responsiveness does not imply just reaction, but entails a proactive engagement too. I recall, for example, what one of the participants shared with me in one of the interviews I had: this manager, after conducting research in his/her local community went to the league and convinced the funders really that some social issues cannot be tackled by using the power of football only, but other means (i.e., sports, activities etc.) can be the catalyst for social change. Up until that point, the leagues hardly supported projects that had no football as their core element. That was, for me a proactive responsiveness. It was also a conditional responsiveness since the manager was willing to respond to the needs of his/her local community but not necessarily as dictated by the funders (be it leagues, statutory agencies and the like). To me, therefore, responsiveness is a key property of the axial category Harmonising but its main dimensions can vary from totally unconditional responsiveness (that is, for example, “tell us what we need to do, how, when and we will deliver”) to conditional responsiveness where local parameters (see LOCALISING), capacity (see TEAMING UP), scope (see ASSISTING) or means/ways (see different sports: CONTEXTUALISING) are taking into account by the managers when making decisions on getting involved or not. So, returning to an earlier memo written about dependence, the axial category of Harmonising entails much more than that; it entails a responsive state during which managerial decision-making, depending on the circumstances, is happening. Yet, what are these circumstances? Is it something missing here? The axial category of Harmonising is influenced by ‘recipes’, by ‘essential ingredients’ (dependence) and is ‘happening’ as a result of various responsive actions (responsiveness). But does the Harmonising process rest stable in decision-making? Is it fixed? Do managers try to harmonise their decisions based simply on issues of dependence and responsiveness in a constantly changing external (as well as internal) environment? I think a closer look at the open categories ADJUSTING and CONTEXTUALISING could provide me with some useful directions here.
4.3.1.2.3 Adjustment

Adjustment is the third principal property of the axial category Harmonising. It draws mainly on the earlier open category ‘ADJUSTING’, which referred to the adaptability and flexibility managers must demonstrate while making decisions on CSR-related matters. Certain factors have a great bearing on the managerial decision-making process. These factors can be associated with the immediate context within which decisions are being made, such as changes of the playing status of the ‘parent’ football club (see Appendices: memo: #1c–1), a change in club’s ownership (see Appendices: memo: #1c–2) or the appointment or departure of an influential trustee in the foundation. They may also relate to wider environmental conditions, changes in government and/or economic circumstances (see below memo #1/c). Managers are required to harmonise their decisions based on adjustment processes which, in dimensional terms, vary from gradual to rapid.
Adjustment appears to be one of the principal properties that hold together the axial category Harmonising. One cannot harmonise decisions, actions, interactions unless there is a degree of adjustment, can s/he? What are those factors that constitute that property as a principal one, I wonder? That is, what are the properties of this property? Trying to make sense of the data, I think there are three key circumstances/situations that seem to justify the need for adjustment in the managerial decision-making process regarding CSR strategy. First, managers need to adjust their strategy to what happens in the playing field; that is the playing status of the team, i.e., in what division the team plays (long & medium-term) but also to the team’s performance week-in week-out (short-term). The former has major implications mainly associated with financial sources (much more available funding for PL teams in comparison to Championship clubs and substantially less opportunities for those clubs who relegate to League 1, 2, etc.). The latter has more to do with the ‘feeling good’ factor that surrounds the organisation(s). But how do these two parameters have a bearing on managerial decision-making really? If the team wins, does it mean that managers decide to do that or this? Certainly, no; they might have extra support from the ‘parent’ club if things go well, however. Or if things go wrong on the field, the ‘parent’ club may need the foundation’s support. One participant highlighted just that in one of our discussions:

I mean when we got relegated to League 1 that was terrible times. I had been here during the times of us being in administration, but it was the power of the community that kept the club going. In a roundabout way with the image that we kept people’s spirits high, by still doing the holiday courses because we were self-sufficient separate bank accounts; they couldn’t touch [...] you know, we were saying so, for a period of time we were the club because they are going through a torrid time, just you know; in administration. People were losing their jobs, but to keep the spirits up to the fans we did so much good work and we thought it would hit it. Our holiday courses took a little bit of a hit because people fell out all over the club. But these things kept going, the school still received and [...] we do underestimate the power of the badge in schools. They would still love if you could find something, come and do football courses free in your school. Yes great, they just – kids just love the power of the badge (FLC-fc11).

A football foundation, given the dependence on the way things go on the field of play, seems to require much more flexibility and adjustment in the way decisions are made than, for example, the VODAFONE’s or the Coca Cola’s corporate foundations (although these brands, too, can go through difficult times). How do managers cope with that, however? Well, what the above extract offers is insightful, but possibly incomplete. The bold answer I was receiving from the managers was a rather simple one: “it is beyond our control; we can’t do anything about it” was a testament made by pretty much every manager. Such incapability, however, does not preclude the need for adjustment, does it? For example, much bigger difference exists when teams switch divisions. Given the available funding at PL level, it is always tempting to try and do more than the foundation used to do when at the lower league. Such exercise may entail serious risks, however. Managers have told me that they don’t go mad if this happens, since (a) they don’t have the capacity to accommodate within 3-4 months all these extra opportunities that a foundation with PL status can enjoy, and (b) it is nice when they do more things and try to tackle social issues, but any parachute programme (i.e., go–deliver-leave) is likely to be less beneficial than not going at all at the first place. I was intrigued to find out more on this; that is, what is the strategy behind when promotion/relegation happens? What sorts of decisions are being made to cope with such new situations?

I refer to one very illustrative example/extract below.
I think the one thing I will say to our credit is that we, last summer, this time last year when we got promotion through the play-offs, we went to three or four Premier League clubs and we can deliberately pick them on the basis that they were not United, Chelsea, Arsenal. The clubs that are guaranteed to be in the Champions League, or guaranteed to be in the Premier League like Everton or City or whatever. We went to the clubs who were on the edge of being potential candidates for relegation or had been relegated. Every club said to us, work on the basis that you only have a year in the Premier League. And we said okay, right, we took it on board and we said, right actually yeah, they are right. [...] We will do what we can to try and build capacity, build resources, based on a year in the Premier League. And if we get relegated we will deal with where we are. So there are two issues. One is, yeah we will lose the access to potential new funding of up to half a million pounds which is a massive loss for this town. But what we never had we don’t miss, so we are where we are and we have grown it and we have now got this what the Premier League referred to as their legacy for [this city] because we have been successful in tapping into KICKZ project money [and] into Premier League PFA community fund money. We have been successful at looking at potential new capital development in the city; that’s for the benefit of people in [that city]. And they will support us with that as well. So I think we have maximized our involvements in the Premier League this year and we have never, at any point said we want a second year because we are entitled to it, because there are no guarantees in football. So we left emotions out and although it might sound a kind of contradiction, we approached the matter with a more strategic view. This is what we are; we will try and do in the year, if we are in the Premier League. If we get more than that, then strategically we can build on it but we are okay with what we have done as long as we have maximized our opportunities (PL-fc10).

The above extract is a characteristic one of what sort of decisions foundation managers make in order to deal with the ‘changing’ conditions tracked to performance on the field. Of course, how this works in practice is another matter. Do the partners who go crazy to liaise with a ‘successful’ team carry on if things change? I read again the above extract and I think I see a possible answer. What these managers try to do is to create that platform –benefiting from the temporary success – upon which to build when success goes. Building relationships, earning trust with key personnel in key organisations with whom to work in the future. This is the strategy. I should call this rationalised adjusting. And actually this is something that the Leagues themselves advise these managers. One participant from one of the Leagues said to me just that:

It’s something they can’t control, coming to managers; this is beyond their control. So they have to sort of put this aside, but it just makes their life a little bit more difficult. So what you are trying to do is you are trying to build relationships with teachers, head teachers, local authority, sponsors, funding bodies, they can transcend that, they can say: “well, we know you are having a hard time, but you do a lot for the community”. And I think that’s the job. But it doesn’t make the job any easier; that’s for sure (Fb-L4).

While adjustment constitutes a key property for Harmonising, it is not restricted to the on-the-field results alone.

Below I discuss the reasons why.
Memo #1/c---Property: ADJUSTMENT

Beyond the on-field effect, data leads me to suppose that there are two more sub-properties which make adjustment meaningful in the process of Harmonising these are the politico-economic conditions that dictate funding (the driving force of these charitable foundations) and the social conditions which, in turn, dictate the need for action to be taken. Neither former nor latter remains stable, thus decision-making from the foundation managers’ point of view needs to be harmonised with unstable conditions. Below, I refer to four extracts from of Phase 2 of the fieldwork to justify my arguments:

• No two days are the same, no one day is equivalent to another day that you ever had. Whilst they might be in the day-to-day activity of what you are doing, the challenges that come your way, society moves and changes that are different – the agendas are different from 10 years ago, what it was 5 years ago. And it brings many sort of different challenges... (PL-fc11)

• Actually we don’t decide what issues we should focus on; if we can use the term loosely ‘society’ decides that for us (PL-fc2)

• I mean, I’m used to that because that’s what we do, I’m used to it. We always find funding from somewhere because they’ll always be areas of deprivation, there will always be crime, there will always be things that people say “we need help”. Now, whichever government comes into this area, the problems won’t go away and whether they do stuff, they’ll always say “oh, they love football, don’t they? Can you help us?” Of course we can, of course we can. So I am a fan of the funding, although it has been cut in different funding and people panic about that; the problems don’t change. They don’t go away, they’re still there. So no matter how dull or dumb a person in charge of the funding is, he or she will have pressure on them to tick that box and try and minimize what’s going on out there. And we can help! (FLC-fc9)

• For me to be honest with you, it is something I have been used to for the last ten years; is a way of life in the kind of industry that we work in. You know, whether it’s political thing, whether its change of governments or whatever, people seem to be unwilling to commit to funding programs for anything more than three years (FLC-fc12)

I think what the manager (PL-fc11) says here epitomises this particular property; everything is in flux. At the beginning of this data segment the need for adjustment reads as having to be a tremendously rapid process. I don’t think, however, that in this particular case we talk about that much rapid adjustments. In my view, s/he means that since the social issues that require intervention from various agencies (one of them being the foundation s/he works in?) change, so does the strategy and therefore the decisions that need to be taken by those who oversee these agencies/organisations. The second data segment in this table is vager but it again illustrates the need for adjustment when managers try to harmonise their CSR agendas. I am reading carefully the two extracts from FLC-fc9 and FLC-fc12, however, and it is become evident that these managers are OK with such a state in flux. I don’t mean they are happy, but they are used to that and they are comfortable as well as confident that they will find their way around to overcome changes in the wider politico-economic setting. Their confidence, I think, results from their experience –i.e. they’ve been there before – but also from the fact that their task (that is to contribute to society, local community to better say) seems as an on-going engagement. Their decisions need to be simply harmonised with the new conditions/circumstances/situations. What does this require, I wonder? I guess the managers need to have ears and eyes in the decision-making centres in order for the adjustment to be as gradual as possible. By saying that, the property of dependence comes to mind again and its link/relation with both adjustment and responsiveness; all the properties holding together the Harmonising process.
4.3.1.3 Paradigm Model: Harmonising

The Paradigm Model helps to explain how categories are related and how such relationships give meaning to the more abstract axial categories; in this case the axial category Harmonising (see Figure 4.3.1b). Three types of conditions have had a bearing on the ‘phenomenon’ in question. The set of events (causal conditions) leading to the occurrence or development of the axial category Harmonising was the establishment of the charitable foundations, which resulted in ‘organisational independence’ for these managers from the ‘parent’ football club. These recently established charitable organisations, therefore, are managed by people who need to align their decisions with various procedures and practices related to organisational and governance issues. At the same time though, the charitable status of these organisations necessitates collaboration with other organisations in order to justify the former’s very existence (TEAMING UP). There are, however, factors that may alter the impact of the causal conditions on the axial category Harmonising; these factors can be related to the ‘parent’ club’s playing performance as well as wider environmental circumstances (intervening conditions). Charitable foundations are, therefore, very much dependent on how the ‘parent’ football club does on the field as well as the various politico-economic conditions that facilitate (or obstruct) the funding pools upon which these managers draw and depend in order to make decisions about the strategic direction of their organisations. Such unstable conditions entail the need for flexibility and adjustment in the overall decision-making process (ADJUSTING). To summarise, the causal and intervening factors for a ‘harmonised’ managerial decision-making process have been respectively (a) the establishment of charitable foundations, and the introduction of institutional procedures that development has entailed and (b) the football club’s playing status (and thus the respective access to funding for CSR causes) allied with the politico-economic state of affairs that dictates public funding.

In addition to these causal and intervening factors, contextual conditions further reinforce the axial category Harmonising. For example, managers make decisions based on local social needs (LOCALISING) although a lack of resources (both financial and human) gives rise to the need for trade-offs (COMPROMISING). In many instances, the ownership of the ‘parent’ football club either facilitates or constrains the harmonising process (HARMONISING). In essence these three types of condition affecting managerial decision-making formulate the total structure, or set of circumstances, in which the axial category Harmonising is grounded.
Because of this set of conditions, the charitable foundations managers act and interact in relation to the process of **Harmonising** and their actions/interactions are very much associated with the establishment of partnerships and the building of relationships. The former presents as an essential exercise for the implementation of CSR-related programmes (TEAMING UP) while the latter becomes the prerequisite for their sustainability, by either providing the necessary exit routes for participants (ASSISTING) or overcoming difficult moments created by the ‘parent’ club’s poor performance (ADJUSTING). Actions and interactions have, in turn, their own properties. Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 104) describe these as ‘Processual’ or evolving through time: building relationships, for example, is an exercise based on trust which is developed over time. ‘Purposeful, or ‘Goal oriented’ actions can be seen in all the compromises these managers make in order to subsidise other programmes, while ‘Failed action/interactions’ characterise the times when a manager could or should have liaised with a partner organisation for a particular programme and did not. Any type of action/interaction of course has its consequences: the consequences here are that through the process of **Harmonising** managers run these charitable foundations much more professionally than when they were established in the early 2000s and make decisions in a more strategically-minded fashion. As Strauss and Corbin (1990) underline, however, these consequences may themselves become part of the conditions that influence subsequent sets of actions/interactions the managers undertake. As such, they constitute both properties and dimensional characteristics of the open category **Harmonising**.
4.3.2 The axial category Safeguarding

Safeguarding is another axial category resulting from the constant comparison of the open categories. The re-examination of these provisional open categories led me to ask additional questions during Phase 3 of the fieldwork, *inter alia*: how does the recognition that today's football clubs are increasingly adopting business practices, and that their sustainability is associated with off-the-field performances, have a bearing on the managerial decision-making within these charitable foundations (ACKNOWLEDGING)? If the wider commercialisation and the business-led practices adopted by football clubs (e.g., costly match-day tickets, stadium relocations to the outskirts of cities and towns and so forth) have widened the gap between clubs and (local) supporters, what challenges do these foundation managers face when trying to restore the relationship (BRIDGING)? In particular, is this attempt concerned with merely 'bridging the gap' or also with 'building for the future'? For either reason (or both), is such endeavour a will that derives from both the financial capability and the appeal these foundations have to various groups of people (DUTY-BOUND)?

Given that the legitimacy of football is being increasingly questioned (e.g., excessive players' salaries and transfer fees, objectionable player behaviour, racism allegations, ownership controversies, financial instability and so on), how does the concept of an 'offsetting engagement' impact on the decisions managers make on CSR-related
matters (LEGITIMISING)? Lastly, if working with partners in order to deliver CSR-related programmes is not only an essential undertaking (e.g., expertise, funding, sustainability), but also the result of the growing recognition these foundations enjoy for their ability to contribute towards positive social change (BEING RECOGNISED), what sort of decisions do these foundation managers have to make to ensure that the ‘parent’ football club’s ‘brand name’ is not compromised as a result (ASSESSING)? Again, these questions were asked during Phase 3 of the fieldwork in an endeavour to build on the initial open categories and move my discussion on to a higher level of abstraction. Figure 4.3.2a below illustrates my thinking process with regard to the relationships among the open categories that ultimately led to the axial category Safeguarding.
Figure 4.3.2a: Axial Category Safeguarding and relationships between its Open Categories
4.3.2.1 Definition of Safeguarding

Safeguarding is the process that explains the set of reasons which leads managers to make the decisions they do regarding CSR-related programmes. This process entails a degree of appreciation that what these charitable foundations do should also serve the ‘parent’ club’s business objectives (ranging from, for example, identifying young players to creating the next generation of fans). This appreciation, in turn, is manifested into either strategically integrated or more ad hoc support. Regardless of the way in which such support is being expressed, self-preservation is an ethos that seems to exist both within the charitable foundations and their ‘parent’ football clubs. Table 4.3.2a below illustrates the properties and dimensions of the axial category Safeguarding. In the next section I manifest why the properties ‘appreciation’, ‘support’ and ‘self-preservation’ hold the category together, predominantly by drawing on the memo-writings done during Phase 3 of the fieldwork.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Axial Category</th>
<th>SAFEGUARDING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Properties</td>
<td>Appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimensions</td>
<td>Normal / Deviation</td>
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</tbody>
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4.3.2.2 Safeguarding: properties and dimensions

4.3.2.2.1 Appreciation

There is a consensus that, in order to compete in an increasingly commercialised (sport) environment, contemporary football clubs need to adopt sound business strategies. One result of this is that foundation managers need to adopt Safeguarding strategies as part of their decision-making process. Managers who oversee charitable foundations, therefore, appreciate that their organisations are associated with companies operating within a very specific part of business sector that presents a number of peculiar characteristics. The appreciation of this may be characterised as normal or deviant in varying degrees; the former dimension implies that the sole role of these foundations is either to be the ‘positive’ image that enables football clubs to achieve their business objectives or to fulfil the social responsibilities of the company, while the latter recognises football clubs as social institutions and so conceptualises the role of the foundations (and hence the managerial decision-making regarding their strategic direction) as (a) to meet wider social needs, rather
than merely service the business needs of the club, and (b) to preserve the social norms upon which these football clubs were formed (see also the property ‘Self-preservation’).

**Memo #2/a---Property: APPRECIATION**

In an earlier memo (see Appendices memo: #2a-1), and largely by drawing on one of the initial open categories (ACKNOWLEDGING) I was wondering how much of an influence appreciation is on the managerial decision-making within the charitable foundations, i.e., the ‘grasping’ from the foundations’ managers point of view, that today’s football is becoming more and more a business pursuit. Reflecting on this, I now see it as a rather irrelevant question; or maybe not? These managers, i.e., the persons who oversee the football clubs’ CSR by running their charitable foundations, would not have been there if the very same football clubs hadn’t been commercially-oriented and business-driven organisations. My point here is that charitable foundations are one of the ways in which commercial companies can engage in or support (generally speaking) charitable giving. Given this, the managers’ acceptance, recognition, appreciation - as I put it here - seems to be self-explanatory. Why, therefore, do I consider it as one of the principle properties of the axial category Safeguarding? Perhaps its dimensional characteristics have something to offer to my question. From the discussions I had with these foundations managers, such appreciation ranging from ‘absolute’ to ‘partial’ => the latter meaning that these managers do not see the establishment of these foundations as a necessary or expected obligation/responsibility of the football companies because they are now generating substantive revenues (but not, of course, profits) thanks to the highly commercialised environment in which they operate; instead, these managers see the establishment of these charitable foundations as the best way to protect the football club’s ‘soul’ from the very same over-commercialisation and business-driven philosophy. I found this extremely important, as it clearly differentiates (at least in the managers’ minds) the role and very nature of these charitable football organisations from similar foundations established by mainstream companies/corporations such as the Coca-Colas, Microsofts and Vodafone of this world. The axial category Safeguarding, therefore, seems to require an initial appreciation that football today is a business-driven pursuit. In this context, such appreciation doesn’t go without saying. It is not only a responsibility towards society fulfilled by the football company (i.e. inside-out), but it is also an act for preserving the roots and the values upon which these once social institutions were formed (i.e., outside-in). I guess this could be seen as the key dimensional characteristic for this particular property of the axial category Safeguarding. “We form a charitable foundation because we have a responsibility towards the society and through which we fulfil it” is the ‘normal’; whereas “we form a foundation and through which we reserve the roots and protect the ‘soul’ of the company” can be seen as deviation. If what I write here holds any truth, then the property of support discussed in an even earlier memo starts making more sense.
4.3.2.2 Support

Given that foundation managers appreciate the increasingly commercial nature of the environment in which the ‘parent’ football clubs operate, decision-making within the foundations entails a kind of support for the fulfilment of the off-the-field objectives of the ‘parent’ football club. For example, what foundations do may be seen as a contribution towards ‘bridging the gap’ created by this highly commercialised setting; it can also (or instead) be seen as a contribution towards ‘generating the new generation of fans’. Either way, this kind of support can vary in character from being ‘regular’ and/or ‘absolute’ to ‘ad hoc’ and/or ‘partial’. What seem to determine such dimensional characteristics are the foundation’s relationships with, and the general buy-in from, the ‘parent’ football club’s management. The more the ‘parent’ football club recognises the benefits of working closely with the charitable foundation, the more support these managers can offer by integrating CSR-related programmes into the foundation’s operations. Even if, however, this support is only partial and/or ad hoc, the property still complements that of appreciation and is hence a key feature of the axial category Safeguarding.
Memo #2/b---Property: SUPPORT

I am going over and over again through my data and support seems to be one of the principle properties of the axial category Safeguarding. Actually, it seems to be the following up link with the property appreciation; as a matter of fact, the consequence of the latter property. Foundation managers make decisions on CSR-related issues while having in mind that, to some degree, they are the extension of the ‘parent’ football club. In other words, their socially-responsible types of engagements feature the club’s needs/objectives and such exercises can be seen as direct or indirect support for the latter. Some foundations tend to work more closely with the club and such support is manifested in a much more regular and absolute assistance, whereas other foundations – not always because they want to, but because the parent clubs support these foundations less [I have more to say about those tensions further] – try to assist the clubs in a more partial and ad hoc way, by - in essence - RESPONDING to calls made from the club. One of the participants highlights this variation in the extract below:

I guess you’ll find that different clubs have different ways of dealing with the community department [i.e., Charitable Foundations]; some are very much part of the club and are seen as an extension of the marketing department. Others are something that’s kind of pushed away into the background and as long as it doesn’t cost the club money that’s alright but they’re not really interested in them (PL-fc9).

But again, I think that something’s missing here for me to fully grasp what the axial category Safeguarding really encapsulates. I go back to the open categories which formed this axial category and I see that I was talking about ACKNOWLEDGING, BRIDGING, LEGITIMISING and ASSESSING. ACKNOWLEDGING and BRIDGING could be seen as being attached to the properties of appreciation and support respectively. So, the former seems to be the springboard for the latter to happen; but if the property appreciation answers my ‘how come...Safeguarding?’ question, and the property support answers my ‘what is...Safeguarding?’ question, the ‘why...Safeguarding?’ question remains unanswered here. I guess it is the property of self-preservation about which I was writing few days ago, but I could not fit it in my conceptual thinking. I guess, if self-preservation can contribute towards the ‘why...Safeguarding’ question, then I think that the axial category Safeguarding is gaining the necessary conceptual power?

4.3.2.2.3 Self-preservation

Self-preservation is the third principal property that underpins the axial category Safeguarding. It draws chiefly on the open categories LEGITIMISING and ASSESSING and provides the rationale behind the decision-making process undertaken by the charitable foundation managers. The property self-preservation carries a double meaning in this context, referring both to the ‘parent’ football club and the charitable foundation. For example, decisions made through the axial category Safeguarding have features of legitimisation and offsetting, but also elements of sustainability that concern the football company as well as the foundation itself.
The dimensional characteristics of this property range mainly from short- to long-term, with the former being more associated with legitimacy and the latter with longevity and sustainability. At the same time, managers do not neglect the fact that the foundation’s appeal is the result of its association with the ‘parent’ football club and therefore all decisions made (from what programme to deliver to who to partner with) must ensure that the latter’s brand name is strengthened and protected from reputational risks.

**Memo #2/c -- Property: SELF-PRESERVATION**

Almost a week ago (see Memo #2/b), I was writing in that memo that the properties of appreciation and support offer me answers to the ‘how come?’ and ‘what’ questions in relation to the axial category Safeguarding. I was feeling, however, that something was missing and that the axial category was somehow incomplete. What was missing was answers associated with ‘why’ the axial category Safeguarding is one of the key features in the decision-making process these foundation managers go through. Going back to the data I discerned some of the reasons why this is the case. By referring to self-preservation as the third principle property of this axial category, I mean these decisions made by the managers that aim to protect the brand, to keep the social roots/values each club stands for (I do not forget, and more importantly the foundation managers do not forget either – despite their appreciation about the business-led practices that seem to dictate contemporary football – that football clubs are often seen as social institutions – I even recall the 2006 Independent European Sport Review by Arnault which recognised the social role sport teams have in the European context), to offset potential bad practices employed by the club, but also to provide the platform upon which sustainable business can be achieved, both for the ‘parent’ football club and the charitable foundation itself. There seems to be, therefore, a seamless process when talking about Safeguarding: first, the managers appreciate the fact that because of the highly commercialised context in which football clubs operate, they are obliged to support them by contributing towards their off the field objectives (which of course are so closely associated with the on-field ones) and this is done, in turn, because of the need for self-preservation.

**4.3.2.3 Paradigm Model: Safeguarding**

As has already been seen with the axial category Harmonising (4.3.1.3), here I again use Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) Paradigm Model to explain how categories are related within, and how such relationships give meaning to, the axial category Safeguarding (see Figure 4.3.2b below). Again, three types of condition have a bearing on the ‘phenomenon’ in question. The primary set of events (causal conditions) that has led to the occurrence or development of the axial category Safeguarding concerns (a) the business-led practices adopted by the football clubs which have, in turn, resulted from the commercialisation of the game (ACKNOWLEDGING) and (b)
the growing recognition that these charitable foundations receive for their ability to contribute towards positive social change (BEING RECOGNISED and DUTY-BOUND). This commercialisation is, at the same time, also behind the frequent criticisms of excessive transfer fees and player salaries, poor governance, financial instability and ownership controversies (i.e., intervening conditions). Alongside this, technological advancements, costly match-day ticket strategies and stadium relocations (BRIDGING) constitute some more particular reasons which can disconnect the once local fan-base from the football clubs (contextual conditions). As a consequence, questions concerning the legitimacy of football clubs and their position in society have proliferated (LEGITIMISING). In essence, these three types of condition work together to formulate the total structure or set of circumstances that ground the axial category Safeguarding within the context of managerial decisions made in the English football’s charitable foundations.

Because of this set of conditions, the charitable foundation managers act and interact in relation to the process of Safeguarding. Their actions/interactions are very much associated with aligning (some of) their decisions about CSR content with the ‘parent’ football club’s objectives (BRIDGING and LEGITIMISING). Again, such actions/interactions have their own properties which are described as: ‘Processual’ or evolving in time (implementing programmes that will hopefully create the new generation of fans takes years of working closely the foundation and the football club); ‘Purposeful or goal oriented’ (those ad hoc initiatives that aim to alleviate bad publicity due to, for example an incident involving one of the team’s players); and ‘Failed actions/interactions’, which in the case of Safeguarding could be a partnership that the foundation has established that eventually exposes the foundation and, by association, the ‘parent’ club to reputational risk.

Of course, all these actions/interactions have their own consequences. Consequences resulting through the process of Safeguarding might be related to (a) a more legitimate status for the ‘parent’ football clubs and/or (b) a sustainable future for company and foundation alike. Bridging the gap and creating the next generation of fans certainly have implications for the business side of the football club. In addition, by being careful of who they work with and what sort of programmes they engage in, foundations managers can protect the club’s brand name whilst simultaneously raising their profile as a responsible and highly professionalised charitable organisation; something that, in turn, leads both organisations towards a sustainable future.
4.3.3 The axial category Manoeuvring

Manoeuvring is the third axial category to result from the constant comparison of the initial open categories. The re-examination of these provisional open categories led me to ask additional questions during Phase 3 of the fieldwork. For example, although the CSR acronym itself can be difficult to grasp for both charitable foundations and certain key stakeholder groups (such as the ‘parent’ football club, the fans or the statutory agencies), it remains the appropriate terminology for opening doors with the commercial/corporate world. Therefore, the question is how such incompatible situations influence managerial decisions about CSR-related matters (UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE). Moreover, situations like the abovementioned highlight the need for the foundation managers to share what they do – both at internal and external levels – through various communication channels (COMMUNICATING), without neglecting the fact that they operate in a rather contradictory setting that is characterised by cynicism and misapprehensions (STRUGGLING). However, such a need requires resources that these foundations do not possess. This led me to ask questions such as: how do these managers achieve such goals (for example, overcoming cynicism and misapprehensions) by passing the message of the benefits that genuine CSR can bring along in the most efficient and effective way possible (STRUGGLING)? Also, although the foundation managers were
talking about receiving recognition from the ‘parent’ football club’s management, they were also implying that such recognition often remains rhetorical since the full integration of what these foundations actually do has not been fully embraced in the ‘parent’ clubs’ strategic agenda (INTERNAL MECHANICS). Such an observation seems to be the result of the tendency of football clubs to emphasise short-term results (ON-FIELD EFFECT), which led me to ask how these foundation managers deal with such (potential) ‘tunnel vision’ situations when making decisions on CSR-related programmes. Again, these questions were asked during Phase 3 of the fieldwork in an effort to build on the initial open categories and move my discussion to a higher level of abstraction. Figure 4.3.3a below illustrates my thinking process with regard to the relationships among the open categories that ultimately led to the Manoeuvring category.
Figure 4.3.3a: Axial Category Manoeuvring and relationships between its Open Categories
4.3.3.1 Definition of Manoeuvring

Manoeuvring is *modus operandi* that foundation managers employ to deal with the factors that constrict the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes. This process comprises the *tactical* action that is required to tackle the *challenges* and *constraints* the foundation managers are faced with when making decisions. Challenges are associated more with the formulation phase of CSR-related programmes and can vary dimensionally from momentary to perpetual. Constraints are related more to the implementation phase and are linked to the limitations that foundation managers face in their external and internal environments. Managers respond to these *challenges* and *constraints* with either soft or *firm* tactics. Table 4.3.3a below illustrates the properties and dimensions of the axial category Manoeuvring. In the next section, I draw on the memo-writings conducted during Phase 3 of the fieldwork to explain why the properties constraints, challenges and tactics hold the category Manoeuvring together.

Table 4.3.3a: Properties and dimensions of Manoeuvring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Axial Category</th>
<th>MANOEUVRING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Properties</td>
<td>Constraints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimensions</td>
<td>External / Internal</td>
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4.3.3.2 Manoeuvring: properties and dimensions

4.3.3.2.1 Constraints

Through the social process of Safeguarding, foundation managers accept the business-related pressures their ‘parent’ football clubs face, and the decisions these managers make support the clubs while protecting their own organisations. This occurs through another social process (Harmonising), in which managerial decision-making is the result of a responsive and adjusted action that is simultaneously dependent upon various types of resources. However, neither Safeguarding nor Harmonising occur smoothly. Charitable foundation managers are faced with a number of constraints; that is, various states of affairs that limit or control what they are able to do. These states of affairs can vary from being strictly external to purely internal, or can be a combination of both in terms of one causing the other. As mentioned, these constraints are linked to more practical situations, which are mostly associated with, for example, partnership establishments (see Appendices:
memo #3a-1), financially-related matters (see Appendices: memo #3a-2) and issues of communication (see Appendices: memo #3a-3).

**Memo #3/a---Property: CONSTRAINTS**

I am writing this memo while reflecting on the memos written in April (See Appendices: #3a-1, #3a-2 and #3a-3). I am referring to the constraints that limit foundation managers’ operational power with regard to the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes. But why do I consider constraints as one of the principle properties of the social process Manoeuvring? I guess constraints induce this social process; in other words, constraints are the reason why foundation managers need to go through the process of Manoeuvring in order to make decisions that take the CSR-related programmes (and, by extension, their organisations) to a level of greater impact for the social groups that various programmes are (or should be) targeting. In those memos, I was talking about practical constraints such as timely and frequently uploading of CSR-related stories to the club’s website in order to share the work these foundations do at both the internal and (mainly) the external levels. Due to a lack of resources, foundation managers cannot ‘afford’ to keep up communication at the desired standards. This further limits what they can do, since the work of many key stakeholders remains an ‘UNCUSTOMED PARLANCE’. More importantly, commercial/corporate organisations have little information about what these foundations can offer to their CSR agenda. Even statutory organisations think carefully before engaging with football clubs (since they do not necessarily differentiate the foundations from the ‘parent’ company). I was also writing about the absence of support (financial or otherwise) from the ‘parent’ football club that could boost these foundations’ operations and strategic plans. Such a lack of support limits – and in some cases, such as stories on the club’s website, controls – what these foundation managers can do. Indeed, these constraints have some practical implications and can be seen as the reason for Manoeuvring. However, I don’t think that this property offers me the full picture; that is, fully explains the social process of Manoeuvring. Yes, these managers go through this process in order to overcome the constraints that hold them back. But I believe a key answer is missing here. If the various practical constraints induce Manoeuvring, what induces the cause? What causes these constraints? I guess there are certain reasons why these constraints exist (or the extent to which they exist). I need to go back and look at the data again with specific questions in mind: what creates the obstacles that these managers need to Manoeuvre for/against in order to make decisions on CSR-related matters? Why do these constraints exist and, therefore, why do the managers, through Manoeuvring, try to overcome them? Unless I answer these questions, the axial category Manoeuvring will lack conceptual power.
4.3.3.2.2 Challenges

Challenges is the second principal property that underpins the axial category Manoeuvring. In this case, the meaning of the property challenges does not refer to something new and difficult that requires great effort and determination; instead, it refers to the questioning of something's value: in this case, the value of the work the charitable foundations do. In other words, it refers to the (lack of) buy-in from those parties, whether it is the ‘parent’ football club or any organisation that foundation managers rely upon in order to formulate and subsequently implement CSR-related programmes. Such questioning of the charitable foundation’s capability to help meet the club’s business objectives or tackle social issues can range from momentary (see Appendices: memo #3b-3) to a perpetual situation (see Appendices: memo #3b-2). It is the degree of effectiveness of the social process of Manoeuvring through the set of actions that determines the dimensional characteristics of the property challenges.
Memo #3/b---Property: CHALLENGES

A few weeks ago, when I was writing a memo about one of the principal properties of the axial category Manoeuvring (see: constraints, memo: #3/a), I felt the need to find out, by re-examining the data, what causes all these constraints that foundation managers face when trying to implement CSR-related programmes. I was saying that I had to go through this process in order for the axial category to hold any conceptual power. Reflecting upon earlier memos I had written, I discerned that these constraints are the result of ‘value questioning’ from people who influence the job (and therefore the decision-making process) that the foundation managers (want to) do. Consequently, these managers face certain challenges (I define this property as the ‘questioning of something’s value’) that cause the very same constraints. UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE, partly INTERNAL MECHANICS and certainly ON-FIELD EFFECT (that is, the fact that what happens on the field has implications on how foundation managers deal with CSR-related matters) require Manoeuvring in the way that these managers make decisions [...] 

However, one of the principal properties of the axial category Safeguarding was support => there (see memo #2/b), I was saying that some foundations tend to work more closely with the ‘parent’ club and such support is manifested in a much more natural and absolute relationship, whereas other foundations try to assist the ‘parent’ clubs in a more partial and ad hoc way (not always because they want to, but because the ‘parent’ clubs support these foundations less). Now I can see some clear linkages between the two social processes (Safeguarding and Manoeuvring) through some of their properties. Despite such challenges, which induce more practical constraints (perhaps reflected in open categories such as COMMUNICATING, STRUGGLING and partly INTERNAL MECHANICS), these foundation managers still make decisions, formulate CSR-related programmes, implement these programmes, build partnerships, and still exist! In other words, challenges (and subsequently constraints) do not stop them from delivering. Of course, the dimensional characteristics of the property challenges vary depending on the issue. Additional financial support may be a perpetual challenge for the foundation to overcome, yet convincing a City Council board (which to that point may not have engaged with the foundation) to commission a project might be a matter of a well-planned one-hour meeting. External partners such as statutory organisations may seek evidence that programmes have the potential to hit certain targets (i.e., to increase sporting participation), whereas the ‘parent’ football club may want more immediate, hard results (e.g., increased gate receipts at the next game?), which is apparently difficult to achieve given the scope and nature of most of the social/outreach-oriented work these foundations are engaged in (e.g., creating a new generation of fans may take years). Therefore, foundation managers try to overcome all of these challenges through the process of Manoeuvring. What is missing here, however, may be the way in which Manoeuvring occurs. I think the open category INTERNAL MECHANICS has a lot to offer and I have to go back and re-examine data from Phase 2 together with data collated during Phase 3.
### 4.3.3.2.3 Tactics

*Tactics* is the third principal property of the axial category *Manoeuvring*. It draws mainly on the earlier open category INTERNAL MECHANICS, in which I wondered whether the processes of ‘political manoeuvring’ and ‘sharing’ are sufficient for the foundation managers to overcome a possible lack of vision and conflicts of interest within their own immediate working environment. Although the question remains unanswered, even after data collated during phase 3 of the fieldwork, it is evident that foundation managers do employ *tactics* in order to overcome immediate obstacles (that is, *constraints*) and/or create the platform upon which *challenges* can be abated. The employed *tactics* can range from being soft – that is, more indirect and interpersonal (e.g., collaboration, socializing) (see Appendices: memo #3c-1) – to firm, which can be harsh and direct and relies on concrete outcomes (see Appendices: memo #3c-4).
Memo #3/c---Property: TACTICS

Making decisions on CSR-related matters is not a straightforward exercise for the foundation managers. This is because they have to deal with some practical obstacles (e.g., communication channels, funding, resources, etc.), which I have termed *constraints* (memo #3/a). Going through the data, I determined that these *constraints* exist because there is a general lack of 'buy-in' from both the 'parent’ company (i.e., the football club) and some key organisations (i.e., statutory agencies); I labelled this questioning of foundation's work as *challenges* (memo #3/b), as managers must overcome it. The managers are in a constant 'battle' to overcome these *challenges* that will, in turn, help them minimise the inevitable *constraints* that exist in every process. I know that they do this based on the fact that, despite these *constraints* and *challenges* (both of which are identified in the early open categories INTERNAL MECHANICS, STRUGGLING, UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE, ON-FIELD EFFECT and COMMUNICATING, that have all provided the basis of the axial category *Manoeuvring*), these foundations are becoming very 'popular', for example, within the business world (I recall the early open category BEING RECOGNISED).

In other words, the rise in the spread of foundations proves their relevance. The main question, however, was how these managers 'keep going', how they actually keep strengthening their organisations and actually looking like they do overcome *challenges* and *constraints*? Interpreting the data collated in Phase 3, I see that these managers achieve all this by employing various *tactics* to get as much as possible from the ‘targets’ against whom they use these *tactics*. In earlier memos, I talked about forming ‘internal alliances’ (i.e., targeting the ‘parent’ football club) and ‘external alliances’ (i.e., targeting statutory agencies) [See Appendices: memo #3c-1] in an effort to show the value of what they do for those people who can be influential in ‘breaking these walls’ and providing solutions to practical issues. The foundation managers also adopt less indirect *tactics* by offering concrete and immediate benefits (mainly) to the ‘parent’ football club, thereby demonstrating in the most evident and characteristic way how much more the club should ‘invest’ in their existence. For certain issues, however, the managers feel obliged to make things happen themselves, to some extent ‘forcing’ (again, in most cases) the ‘parent’ football club to recognise them and the potentially missed opportunity of not taking full advantage of the foundations’ existence. In some cases, participants said that by employing such more drastic actions, they actually forced the ‘parent’ club to have a closer look at what they do (and what more they can offer).

What I am saying here is that *constraints* exist because of the *challenges* that exist and the *tactics* that are employed to deal with these *challenges*. If *challenges* are weakened, *constraints* are reduced. I have termed this process as *Manoeuvring*.

4.3.3.3 Paradigm Model: Manoeuvring

In this section, similarly to the way in which I expounded the axial categories Harmonising (4.3.1.3) and Safeguarding (4.3.2.3), I use Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) Paradigm Model to explain how categories are related within the axial category *Manoeuvring* and how such relationships give meaning to it (see Figure
4.3.3b). Again, three types of conditions have a bearing on the ‘phenomenon’ in question. The primary set of events (causal conditions) that has led to the occurrence or development of the axial category Manoeuvring concerns the so-called short-termism mindset (and its attendant difficulties) of the ‘parent’ football clubs’ point of view in making strategic decisions that are not closely linked to or associated with on-field performance/results. Examples include investing in players and associated personnel such as coaches and scouting staff, or further investing in facilities/equipment/technology that also seem more related to the playing status of the ‘parent’ company (ON-FIELD EFFECT). Despite such apparent ‘tunnel vision’ from the clubs’ perspective, three factors (or ‘intervening conditions’) appear to alter the impact (positive or negative) that causal conditions have on the axial category Manoeuvring. These factors are (a) the rapid rise in the foreign-investor ownership model in English football, (b) the growing recognition that cross-departmental collaboration is now becoming an essential exercise given that the commercial/corporate world is increasingly seeking to deliver its CSR agendas through sport (and, for that matter, through football), and (c) the various tensions that arise between the commercial departments of the ‘parent’ football clubs and the charitable foundations (see INTERNAL MECHANICS for all three points). In addition to these causal and intervening factors, contextual conditions further reinforce this category. For example, cynicism is considered to be the result of ignorance and/or the impression that what these foundations do in terms of CSR is part of a ‘trading-off’ exercise. Although managers realise that ignorance and misinterpretation can only be confronted by getting the message across, they are sometimes in the uneasy situation of being unable to convince people of the importance of their task (UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE). Moreover, and because of the enormous amounts of money involved in football, statutory agencies retain the false impression that these charitable organisations have unlimited resources to ‘do it themselves’ (see open category STRUGGLING).

In essence, these three types of condition work together to formulate the overall structure or set of circumstances that ground the axial category Manoeuvring within the context of managerial decisions made concerning English football’s CSR. Because of this set of conditions, therefore, the foundation managers act and interact in relation to the process of Manoeuvring. Their actions/interactions are closely associated with employing various types of tactics (COMMUNICATING) in order to perform as well as they can in any given circumstance. Again, such actions/interactions have their own properties, which are described here. ‘Processual’ or evolving over time can include inviting influential people from the ‘parent’ football club and from statutory agencies that have been sceptical about liaising with the foundation, which
can help create the platform upon which the value of what these foundations do can be recognised. However, this takes time and further communicational aptitude from the managers’ point of view. ‘Purposeful or goal-oriented’ refers to ensuring a commercial deal (such as a sponsorship) on the back of the work that the foundation does, thereby accommodating the so-called short-term mindset that is most often seen in football clubs. In the case of Manoeuvring, ‘Failed actions/interactions’ may be failures to achieve ‘success’ through any of the abovementioned ways, possibly resulting in much more drastic action such as distancing the foundation’s operations from the ‘parent’ club as far as the service level agreement allows (for example, a manager may decide to launch an independent website after failing to see his/her stories displayed on the club’s website in a timely and frequent manner).

Of course, all of these actions/interactions have their own consequences. Consequences resulting from the process of Manoeuvring might be related to (a) raising the foundation’s profile internally (e.g., its relation with the ‘parent’ football club’s management), which could, in turn, (b) help achieve a much more strategically-oriented relationship with the club itself, and (c) raising the foundation’s profile externally (such as its relationship with key local organisations that are often the main funders for CSR-related programmes).

Figure 4.3.3b: Paradigm Model for Manoeuvring
4.3.4 The axial category Transcending

Transcending is the fourth axial category that results from the constant comparison of the initial open categories. The name of this category has been taken from an earlier developed open category that referred to the managers’ determination to apply socially responsible programmes in a manner that surpasses meaningless undertakings and strives only for substantial involvement; in other words, explaining what the managers’ prospects are when making decisions (ASPIRING). Accordingly, Phase 3 of the fieldwork was guided by the initial open categories, and pursued questions that emerged from the analysis of data gathered in Phases 1 and 2. I was interested to find out more about a number of crucial points that seemed to be required in order to fulfil and facilitate managers’ aspirations. For example, the context within which these managers make decisions is facilitated not only by a degree of brand loyalty (EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED) but also by the unusual magnitude that sport – and, for that matter, football – demonstrates (HOOKING). Given this, the question becomes: how do these managers capitalise on this unique platform in order to fulfil such ambitions/aspirations? In addition, having ascertained that the managers have witnessed the power of football themselves (GRASPING) and continuously strive to understand what genuine CSR involves (LEARNING), I wanted to further explore how such intrinsic drivers (GRASPING and LEARNING) help managers push the boundaries (that is, transcend) when making decisions on CSR-related matters. Beyond these intrinsic reasons, it may also be the structural development (GROWING UP) that these foundations enjoy, in conjunction with the fertile setting for more socially responsible business approaches (that is, the growing appeal CSR has within the corporate world) (SCOPE FOR ADVANCING), that encourages managers to ‘aim for more’ in the context of football. However, this raises the question of what needs to be done in order for Transcending to occur. Can it occur simply by providing a platform upon which statutory organisations can do additional work (ENSURING)? The social process of Transcending seems to have no limits. It may be that these limits become visible (EVALUATING) by setting benchmarks across all football foundations (as well as at internal and individual level), which enables new targets to be set and subsequently ‘transcended’. It is this type of issue that I sought to answer during Phase 3 of the fieldwork in the hope that I could then raise my discussion to a higher level of abstraction. Figure 4.3.4a below illustrates my thinking process with regard to the relationships among the open categories that ultimately led to the Transcending axial category.
Figure 4.3.4a: Axial Category Transcending and relationships between its Open Categories
**4.3.4.1 Definition of Transcending**

Transcending is the process that spurs foundation managers’ decision-making as a result of the large scope for further CSR-oriented involvement. This process seems to occur because of the high degree of passion these managers have for their job. While Transcending is marked by passion, which can vary from being all-embracing to bounded, the element of trust helps take the process forward. Trust may be absolute or partial, and the enhancement of CSR-related engagement is facilitated in response to this. Enhancement can vary from being concrete to imprecise, a dimensional variation that can render Transcending as either a purposeful process or merely an abstract managerial desire. Table 4.3.4a below illustrates the properties and the extreme dimensional ends of the axial category Transcending. In the next section, I draw on the memo writing done during Phase 3 of the fieldwork to explain how the properties of ‘passion’, ‘trust’ and ‘enhancement’ hold the category Transcending together.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Axial Category</th>
<th>PASSION</th>
<th>TRUST</th>
<th>ENHANCEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Properties</td>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Enhancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimensions</td>
<td>All-embracing / Bounded</td>
<td>Absolute / Partial</td>
<td>Concrete / Imprecise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.3.4.2 Transcending: properties and dimensions**

**4.3.4.2.1 Passion**

Passion is one of the main properties that underpins Transcending. Managerial decisions appear to be driven by the managers’ passion for their job. The passion stems from the fact that not only does the job connect the managers with a sport that they love and support, but also because such involvement offers them the platform from which they can tackle some of the social challenges facing contemporary society. In this context, it seems that the property passion carries a double meaning, referring both to the managers and what the product (the team, the game, the players) generates among fans/consumers. Therefore, the dimensional characteristics of this property range (a) from intrinsic (managers’ passion) to extrinsic (passion generated by the ‘product’) and (b) from all-embracing to bounded. The first extreme of the second dimension [(b)] refers to the capacity of passion to render the challenging tasks facing foundation managers and having to make decisions about a worthwhile undertaking (see Appendices: memo #4a-2). The other extreme of, again, the second
dimension refers to the risk of managerial decisions becoming side-tracked in the sense that everything becomes about football, which leaves the impression that Transcending can occur by focusing only on football; for example, it can merely be an engagement hook that attracts people’s attention to the CSR-related programmes on offer, or measured only by outcomes such as building a fan base (see Appendices: memo #4a-3).
Memo #4/a---Property: PASSION

Passion is closely associated with the open categories of EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED and HOOKING. Therefore, passion results from the properties identified in these early open categories and, to some extent, explains why the implementation of CSR in the sporting context has proved significantly effective. I also recall an early empirical study that examined CSR in sport, which suggested that passion is one of the most significant determinants of CSR design and implementation in sport (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). Others have also suggested that participating in sport-oriented CSR activities can provide immediate gratification benefits (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walters, 2009). All of this helps me see why foundation managers want to go beyond what they currently deliver, and the decisions they make have this end in mind (Transcending). I initially placed the property passion only under the dimensional continuum, which ranged from constructive to counter-productive. With this dimension I was trying to encapsulate that the attribute of passion can lead to some great outcomes, but also to some positive ones, without allowing the process of implementing CSR to reach its full potential. I described this as counter-productive. I later changed the dimensional characteristics of this property, since ‘constructive’ and ‘counter-productive’ seemed to be the outcomes of the degree to which the property of passion is demonstrated during the decision-making process (perhaps even counter-productive was not the appropriate term in the first place). I realised that if managers’ passion is ‘all-embracing,’ then CSR implementation becomes constructive. If passion is ‘bounded’, then the results may be less impactful. However, I believe there is more to it; I should also talk about extrinsic and intrinsic passion. The former is pretty much what the literature suggests; that is, that sports provide a super-fit context for the employment of CSR-related programmes. There is also the intrinsic dimension of passion – the one that has guided foundation managers from their early age and which helps these managers towards Transcending. I need to go back to the data set, even to Phase 1, and look again and more carefully at the data that formed some of the early open categories, such as EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED and HOOKING. Also, what does the literature say about passion and work, or, more specifically, passion and work performance?

Passion is not evident only to the above-mentioned early open categories that form the current axial category Transcending. LEARNING can happen unintentionally, but by looking back at the data I see that foundation managers seek best practice examples; they constantly try to find out better ways of doing what they do. Therefore, can one ‘learn’ or ‘grasp’ something (see GRASPING) without really wanting to go this extra mile? Can somebody who does not have passion about his/her job go that extra mile towards LEARNING? Foundation managers emphasise the lack of resources, but at the same time that there is SCOPE FOR ADVANCING. Their records demonstrate that they do good work and this has been acknowledged (see open category BEING RECOGNISED). ‘Hidden’ behind these good results, coupled with the genuine reasons of lacking resources, why should a non-passionate manager bother with Transcending? That could be just a box-ticking exercise for them with no pressure to ENSURE that the programmes they make decisions about (will) provide the necessary exit roots and some sort of sustainability. Even the open category EVALUATING demonstrates that: the managers emphasise the need to measure the impact of the programmes they decide to implement – not only because funders demand it, but also because they want to improve the same programmes themselves (for example, by increasing the number of participants). However, is passion enough for Transcending to occur? What if passion isn’t enough to open those ‘doors’ that will help (I recall HARMONISING and its property ‘Dependence’) achieve Transcending? What else is necessary? What is missing here?
4.3.4.2.2 Trust

In section 4.3.1.2.1, I proposed that one of the principal properties holding together the axial category Harmonising is dependence, and explained how the early open category TEAMING-UP played a crucial role in the kind of managerial decision-making that occurs within football’s charitable foundations. However, although these various types of collaboration are essential for making things happen, they do not seem to be sufficient for Transcending. Without trust from the various stakeholder groups that influence the managers’ decision-making, Transcending is difficult (if not impossible). Therefore, trust constitutes the second principle property underpinning this axial category. The extent to which trust exists in charitable foundations at both internal (i.e., with the ‘parent’ football club) and external (i.e., with corporate/statutory organisations and programme participants) levels determines the degree of transcendence that can be achieved. The dimensional characteristics of Transcending range from absolute to partial. At one extreme of the dimension is a ‘critical laissez-faire’ approach from the club’s perspective towards both the charitable foundations and any interest from external organisations in liaising with these foundations, in the belief that the latter ‘can do the job’. The other extreme is related to the various challenges, discussed in the axial category Manoeuvring, that foundation managers must overcome and thus demonstrates links between the properties of these two axial categories.
Memo #4/b—Property: TRUST

In memo #4/a, I wrote that although passion is essential for the process of Transcending, passion alone is not enough. Going through the data and my earlier memo writings, I feel quite confident that the property of trust has a major role to play if the way foundation managers make decisions regarding CSR-related matters entails Transcending. The more the degree of trust approaches the abstract notion of ‘absolute’, the closer to Transcending managerial decisions (and, consequently, their actions) become. For example, these foundations are increasingly adopting professional practices and more strategic approaches (see GROWING UP) in the way they practice CSR. Because of this, the element of trust has played and will continue to play a key role. The greater the trust between the foundations and their partners, and vice versa, the larger the GROWING UP, hence closer to Transcending? EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED and HOOKING are the two open categories that can arguably intrinsically possess the attribute of trust. In an earlier memo, I talked about the importance of HOOKING in particular for ‘switching the light’ inside the participants, but at the same time as doing that, Transcending cannot occur. I have also proposed that the micro-social process of LEARNING earns its place in this axial category. Managers continuously go through best practice examples in order to make sure that decisions they make are in line with the current development/ideas regarding CSR thinking. The extent to which the managers trust that such best practice examples can fit within the immediate context/environment (I recall CONTEXTUALISING from the axial category Harmonising) in which these foundations exist and operate determines how far beyond the current practices these organisations can go. Here, I talk also about ENSURING, which is about providing the exit roots and sustainable paths for the programmes with which these foundations are involved. Do these managers, for their part, trust that the proposed exit roots can ensure that their involvement helps the local community instead of alienating it? Or even the other way around: do the funders trust these foundations that can take such involvement a step further? Also, even if there is clearly SCOPE FOR ADVANCING, it is on the basis of the established (or to be developed) trust that this can be capitalised, thus taking the overall process to levels of Transcending.

This is all good and makes sense, but I feel there is something missing. Two specific questions keep revolving in my mind: (1) What is Transcending all about really and how is it defined in the managers’ minds? (2) If trust (together with passion) is a necessary component for Transcending, how do we ensure that trust moves from the dimensional state of ‘partial’ towards a state of ‘absolute’? The question here is not whether trust is necessary for Transcending (however the latter term is defined), but how do we increase the levels of trust to get closer to Transcending? One possible answer to the second question could be ‘hidden’ amongst the open categories (i.e. EVALUATING) that ultimately form the current axial category. However, if evidence (through measurement/evaluation) can raise trust levels amongst the stakeholders responsible for CSR, then ‘more’ can be achieved. I will term this ‘more’ as enhancement, which will provide an answer to my first question. Therefore, Transcending is all about the enhancement of CSR practice. Such enhancement, and its dimensional characteristics, will make the third principal property of Transcending.
4.3.4.2.3 Enhancement

Enhancement is the third principal property that underpins the axial category Transcending. This property draws chiefly on the open categories ASPIRING, SCOPE FOR ADVANCING and EVALUATING and refers to the improvement of CSR-related programmes, as provided by the charitable foundations of the English football clubs. Transcending requires the attributes of passion and trust, but enhancement of the overall engagement seems to provide the bedrock of the axial category in question. The dimensional characteristics of this property range from concrete to imprecise. The concrete extreme of the dimension refers to substantial and explicit evidence that the general CSR-related engagement of the charitable foundations has a positive impact on all the aspects discussed in the axial category Safeguarding. The imprecise extreme concerns indeterminate involvement(s) that satisfy only specific Safeguarding aspects of limited stakeholder groups. To this end, the dimensional characteristics of this property evidenced in Transcending demonstrate linkages with the axial category of Safeguarding.
Part of the decision-making process that charitable foundation managers go through is the micro-social process of Transcending. **Passion, trust and enhancement** of the programmes on offer are the three main properties that hold this axial category together. Enhancement cannot occur without passion or without trust, and a person who ‘enjoys’ the latter (two) will aim for the former. Enhancement of the CSR-related programmes is closely associated with the early open category EVALUATING. This category initially emerged from data that highlighted the significance of capturing the impact of the foundations’ involvement. In earlier memos, I made the point that measuring alone is the first step but cannot by itself help someone reach enhancement. The key is to build on the outcomes that have resulted from EVALUATING in order to move towards empowerment, which, in turn, can demonstrate that Transcending has occurred. This is perhaps something like setting up benchmark(s)? Looking at the early codes that formed the open category ENSURING, enhancement is there too. ENSURING was allied with the issue of sustainability and exit roots within CSR-related engagement. Enhancement of the available exit roots can empower the targeted groups to have a better life, better working conditions, better educational results, better health and so on. By aiming for such empowerment, the charitable foundations create a kind of reputation capital that can have a bearing both on the way and the extent to which they operate (GROWING UP). However, enhancement of these programmes can be achieved through the constant LEARNING that these managers go through, led by their passion and trust that best practices initiated by others (or in different contexts, such as outside sport) can also be suitable for their community. The question is why are they striving towards enhancement of CSR-related programmes? Certainly, intrinsic socio-psychological reasons have a role to play (see, for example, what EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED, HOOKING and GRASPING entail), but I think the most important reason is the SCOPE FOR ADVANCING. Managers are confronted with all of these social needs while implementing the various programmes, coupled with the popularity and affluent state the game of football enjoys that leads these charitable foundations managers to make decisions; a process that entails, amongst other things, the process of Transcending. I feel that I am getting closer to my theory, but I will need to conduct additional interviews to determine whether these assumptions that I have been making in these last memo-writings hold any truth in the managers’ minds.

### 4.3.4.3 Paradigm Model: Transcending

Similarly to the way in which I expounded the other three axial categories – Harmonising (4.3.1.3), Safeguarding (4.3.2.3) and Manoeuvring (4.3.3.3) – in this section I use Strauss and Corbin’s (1990) Paradigm Model once again to explain how categories are related within Transcending and how such relationships give meaning to the axial category (see Figure 4.3.4b). Again, three types of condition have a bearing on the ‘phenomenon’ in question. The primary set of events (causal conditions) that has led to the occurrence or development of the axial category Transcending are associated with the property of passion that informs this category.
and concerns (a) the set of ideas and attitudes (that is, values and overall ethos) associated with the managers who run the charitable foundations in the context of English football (GRASPING), and (b) the generation of emotions and the high level of gratification that the game of football (but also sports in general) can offer to the various type of groups that the CSR-related programmes target (HOOKING and EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED). However, certain factors may alter the impact of the causal conditions on the axial category Transcending. In this context, the term ‘alter’ does not necessarily have negative connotations for the category itself. For example, the unfavourable economic conditions that the United Kingdom, and as a consequence the third sector, are experiencing, together with the reduced budget available to the charitable foundations (outside the Premier League) for the formulation and implementation their programmes (that is, intervening conditions), seem to have a adverse effect on the levels of passion that foundation managers demonstrate towards Transcending. Alongside these conditions, three reasons create an environment (SCOPE FOR ADVANCING) that may not facilitate Transcending but certainly requires it (that is, contextual conditions). These contextual conditions are: (a) the multiple and diverse social issues and the trust that the statutory agencies place in these charitable organisations to help tackle these issues, (b) the ever-increasing interest of the corporate world in realising its own CSR agenda through these (sport/football) foundations and (c) the generally wealthy football landscape (see, for example, the increasingly lucrative deals for TV rights).

Because of this set of conditions, the charitable foundation managers act and interact in relation to the process of Transcending. Their actions/interactions are closely associated with constantly trying to inform themselves of the best CSR practices, not only across the sporting sector (such as the US National Basketball Association, UEFA, Basketball Euroleague), but also within more mainstream industries (LEARNING). While such process helps the managers comprehend the difficult balance that is required within the business and society domain, it is through the concrete outcomes of the CSR-related programmes run by these foundations that the process of Transcending can occur (ENSURING and EVALUATING). Again, such actions/interactions have their own properties, which are described as: ‘Processual’ or evolving over time (it may take several years to measure the impact of programmes in the lives of the participants or even whether the ‘parent’ football club will eventually capitalise from the investment on a specific programme); ‘Purposeful or goal-oriented’ (outsourcing the measurement and evaluation of CSR-related programmes due to lack of resources and/or expertise within the
foundation); and ‘Failed actions/interactions’, which in the case of **Transcending** could be a partnership that the foundation has established in the hope that it would provide the necessary exit roots or desired sustainability for a specific programme, yet without meeting such expectations.

Of course, all of these actions/interactions have their own consequences. Consequences that result from the process of **Transcending** might be related to (a) the organisational development (GROWING UP) of those charitable organisations in terms of capacity building (such as being able to become involved in different types of programmes) and expertise acquisition (such as internally evaluating their CSR engagement with sophisticated methods), and hence (b) achieving the **enhancement** of their engagement, which can ultimately offer the desired empowerment of the programmes’ beneficiaries (ASPIRING).

![Figure 4.3.4b: Paradigm Model for Transcending](image)

### 4.4 Selective Coding

The axial coding discussed in section 4.3 illustrates the way in which this study has dealt with the second procedure of the Straussian variant of grounded theory. During this process of data analysis and synthesis, 28 open categories were refined through
constant comparison of existing data, but mainly using new data collated in Phase 3. This exercise resulted in the formation of four axial categories (Harmonising, Safeguarding, Manoeuvring, and Transcending) which are grounded on a number of principle properties with their own dimensional characteristics. However, although the above-mentioned four micro-social processes to some extent capture how managers in these charitable organisations make decisions, they seemed to lack an aggregated explanatory conceptual power. During selective coding, I looked for what each one of these four micro-social processes really concealed whilst also trying to identify those concepts that could explain, in an aggregated manner, the managerial decision-making process as it occurs within these organisations. Selective coding was also facilitated by two additional interviews. This last set of interviews ultimately served to pull together earlier categories under the core category and its main properties, and therefore to provide a logical explanation for this integration.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) propose three main techniques that can be used to facilitate the identification of the core category and the integration of concepts: (a) by writing the ‘story line’ in a descriptive manner, about ‘what seems to be going on here’, (b) by the use of diagrams for illustrating the relationships between categories, and (c) by writing reflective memos accompanied from and supported by, if needed, relevant literature. All three techniques were employed in this last phase of data analysis and synthesis and are presented concisely in the following section.

4.4.1 Towards a grounded theory of decision-making in CSR in sport

Through safeguarding, foundation managers acknowledge the business-related pressures facing their ‘parent’ football clubs, and the fact that, in order to compete in an increasingly commercialised (sporting) environment, these clubs must adopt sound business strategies (Dolles & Söderman, 2013; Moore & Levermore, 2011). Such ‘appreciation’, moreover, does not neglect the fact that these companies operate within a very specific part of a business sector that presents a number of peculiar characteristics (Hamil & Chadwick, 2010; Morrow, 2003). To this end, the decisions these managers make ‘support’ the clubs and ‘self-preserve’ their own organisations as well as the clubs, albeit indirectly. The ultimate goal of safeguarding, therefore, seems to be the business performance of both organisations (see memo 4.4.1a).
Memo 4.4.1a: Safeguarding

Three properties seem to hold the axial category safeguarding: appreciation, support, and self-preservation. I was writing that decisions made through safeguarding have elements of legitimisation and offsetting. These two elements are also found to be the case in the literature regarding implementation of CSR (e.g., Slack & Shrives, 2008). Safeguarding has also elements of sustainability that concern the football company as well as the foundation itself; Walters and Chadwick (2009), for example, in their empirical study illustrated the strategic benefits - and hence elements of business sustainability - of employing CSR through charitable foundations. Issues associated with legitimacy seem to have a more short-term dimension, whereas issues associated with longevity and sustainability a more long-term dimension. But the three above-mentioned properties/concepts that hold safeguarding do not seem to abstractly capture what this micro-social process is all about. So what do these managers do? They make decisions because they have to/want to safeguard the ‘parent’ company (as well as their foundation). But in order for this to happen, their decisions and their subsequent actions (i.e., the community programmes and associated activities) must have an impact; they must produce ‘results’ that give meaning to safeguarding. In other words, ‘performance’ is required. This ‘performance’ is linked to those properties that hold safeguarding. These properties, though, are more associated with the business side of both the club and the foundation. So, what seems to be happening here is that managers seek for business performance through safeguarding. However, the concept of performance connotes to evaluation, measurement, assessment etc.

This safeguarding occurs simultaneously with another micro-social process (harmonising), in which managerial decision-making is the result of a ‘responsive’ and ‘adjusted’ action that is concurrently ‘dependent’ upon various types of resources, and it is predominantly concerned with social performance (see memo 4.4.1b).
Memo 4.4.1b: Harmonising

While working on the axial category harmonising I was referring to this micro-social process as representing those conditions that affect the way managerial decision-making occurs in these charitable organisations. By re-examining the data I realise that harmonising does not just refer to these conditions, but essentially it relates to the ‘content’, the ‘actions’, the ‘programmes’, the ‘initiatives’ that these charitable foundations undertake. For example, their dependency on (a) the Leagues’ funding (Morgan, 2010), (b) the partner organisations with which they liaison in order to implement what has been decided (Bingham & Walters, 2013), and (c) some key personnel (i.e., external trustees) who can provide useful information on the social issues that local authorities and governmental agencies plan to tackle, all this dependency is concerned with social change, in most cases, at local level. These managers, therefore, respond and adjust their programmes to the local social needs. So what these individuals are aiming for is to do well at what their organisations are meant for: that is, to support their communities from a social perspective. But, what ‘doing well’ means? I think I need to bring here one of the principal properties evidenced in the micro-social process transcending: the enhancement. The two extracts below highlight just that:

CSR is not just about or shouldn’t be just about putting money into the community; it should be getting to understand the community, reacting and supporting and helping the needs in that community and trying to capacity-build within the community. If you are always servicing a need without solving the issue, you just […] it just continues – if all the community work you have to do is just providing the service and not moving that organization or that community to the next level to empower themselves to become self-sufficient and growing, then we just continue as we are (FLC-fc2).

You provide exit routes for your achieved outcomes. So if your target is, say, for the £1k the NHS give you to achieve 80 outcomes – that is, 80 obese people – 80 obese people isn’t going to affect the national obesity strategy. So that is your achieved outcome, you’ve done that. Your exit route will be to provide an exit route for those 80 people to go on to potentially a gym or a sports club or a further education course because they might have enjoyed the pathway – the sustainable element of the programme is how more outcomes can be achieved by using your achieved outcomes (PL-fc12).

In essence, therefore, the micro-social process harmonising concerns outputs (i.e., the immediate result of a programme run by the foundation), outcomes (i.e., the consequences of the outputs for the group that a programme targets) and impacts (i.e., the wider effects that go beyond a programme’s participants). Similarly to safeguarding, all this relates to ‘performance’; dissimilarly to safeguarding harmonising is about a different type of ‘performance’, that is social performance. Both types of ‘performance’, however, have connotations to measurement and assessment. During axial coding I was writing that the dimensional characteristics of enhancement range from concrete to imprecise. The concrete extreme of the dimension refers to substantial and explicit evidence that the general CSR-related engagement of the foundations has a positive impact on all the aspects discussed in both harmonising and safeguarding. The imprecise extreme concerns indeterminate actions that either satisfy only specific safeguarding aspects of limited stakeholder groups (for example, constantly offsetting players’ misdemeanours) and hence not reaching the full potential of business performance, or concern social involvement (i.e., through harmonising) that does not capture the impact and therefore fails to lead to higher social performance. Evaluation/assessment, therefore, is key.
However, neither safeguarding nor harmonising occur smoothly. It is through the micro-social process manoeuvring that foundations managers deal with the factors that constrict harmonising and safeguarding. Relatedly, manoeuvring requires the development of communication skills (at the individual level) (see memo 4.4.1c). This development will, with varying degrees of directness, help overcome practical constraints and visionary challenges not only at the ‘intra-organisational’ level (that is, internally, between the football club and the foundation, but also at the inter-organisational level (externally; that is, between the foundation and statutory as well as commercial organisations). At the ‘intra-organisational’ level, communication may contribute towards business performance (see safeguarding), whereas at the inter-organisational level, football’s involvement may contribute towards social performance (see harmonising).

Memo 4.4.1c: Manoeuvring

The principal properties constraints, challenges, and tactics hold the axial category manoeuvring. In a more abstract manner, however, the micro-social process manoeuvring seems to be all about communication. Through communication foundation managers can potentially overcome ‘tunnel vision’ and conflicts of interest within their own immediate working environment. In reality, foundation managers manoeuvre (by employing various tactics) in order to overcome immediate obstacles (that is, constraints) and therefore influence superiors to provide necessary support and resources, and/or create a platform upon which challenges can be abated. So ‘what seems to be happening here?’ Apparently, communication is key at internal level since constraints and challenges seem to still exist between foundations and ‘parent’ clubs. The better the internal communication is between these two parties, perhaps the more the chances for improved business performance. But constraints and challenges also exist with the counterpart organisations when it comes to CSR implementation; that is, with the external environment. I wonder, therefore, whether enhanced external communication can contribute towards improved social performance (i.e., through harmonising?)
Managers seek to improve both business and social performance, which is manifested in a fourth micro-social process – *transcending* – that is also evident in their decision-making process (see memo 4.4.1d).

**Memo 4.4.1d: Transcending**

The axial category *transcending* was about passion, trust, and enhancement. Though what I discern is that *enhancement* is ‘everywhere’ in the decision-making process foundation managers go through. It is about enhancing harmonising, it is about enhancing safeguarding, it is, of course, about enhancing manoeuvring. In other words, it is about better (business & social) performance through better (internal & external) communication. If one of the three principal properties of transcending seems to be evident in all four micro-social processes that axial coding yielded, then the remaining two principal properties of transcending seem to be the stimuli for enhancement (and consequently indirectly present in all four micro-social processes). The passion stems from the fact that the job connects the managers with a sport that they love and support, but also mainly because such involvement offers these individuals a platform upon which to help tackle some of the challenges facing society. In other words, the element of passion goes beyond being merely enthusiastic in nature; that is, “capturing the strong, intense liking for and enjoyment of the job” (Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011). The element of passion also appears to be cognitive in nature. That is, it captures the perceived importance or significance of the job to the individual; for example, the job becomes internalised to the self and defines who the individual is (Cardon, Wincent, & Singh, 2009; Vallerand et al., 2003). I see passion in the managerial decision-making process as the intrinsic stimulus for seeking enhancement (of business/social performance and internal/external communication).

However, without the element of trust from the various stakeholder groups that have a bearing on the managers’ decision-making, enhancement (through transcending) becomes difficult (if not impossible). Therefore, trust constitutes the extrinsic stimulus that underpins this micro-social process. The extent to which trust exists between the foundations at the internal level (i.e., with the ‘parent’ football club) and at the external level (i.e., with corporate/statutory organisations and, crucially, programmes’ participants) determines the degree of business/social performance that can be achieved. Interestingly, trust seems to be dependent on (internal/external) communication whereas passion to be determined by the degree of (internal/external) communication.

During selective coding, the social process illustrated in Figure 4.4.1 pulls together the earlier developed four axial categories and its main properties under one core pattern and therefore providing a logical explanation for this integration. In essence, the core pattern that emerged from this study is one of assessable transcendance; a process that, fortified by passion, contingent on trust, sustained by communication and
substantiated by factual performance, enables CSR formulation and implementation through charitable foundations in football. Accordingly, two interrelated aspects of the decision-making process constitute a common thread in this research: (a) the recognition that social consciousness stimulates the process of assessable transcendence in an indispensable and limitless way, and (b) an understanding that the process of assessable transcendence cannot occur without either continuous achievement or the dissemination of concrete ‘CSR impact’.²

² The definition and scope of the term ‘CSR impact’ is given in the next Chapter.
Chapter 4: Data analysis and synthesis

4.5 Chapter Summary
The present chapter has outlined the process of data analysis and synthesis undertaken in this empirical study. Divided into three major parts, the first provided an account of how 28 open categories were generated through open coding. Following this, a more detailed section, supported by reflective memos and the Paradigm Model, focused on the axial coding process during which contextual conditions and additional data gave explanatory power to the revised four axial categories harmonising, safeguarding, manoeuvring, and transcending and thus took the analysis to a higher level of abstraction. Finally, during selective coding, four concepts (performance, passion, trust, and communication) were identified as holding, in an abstract fashion, the ‘core’ social process ‘assessable transcendence’; this process, in turn, explains the way in which foundation managers make decisions with regards to CSR in English football.

The next chapter’s focus is on placing the emergent theory in critical conversation with existing bodies of literature. The aim next is, therefore, to integrate ‘assessable transcendence’, its associative meaning, and the four principal concepts that hold it together with the empirical and conceptual works broadly related to CSR, organisational behaviour and sport (football) management.
Chapter 5
Discussion: Towards theoretical integration of ‘assessable transcendence’

5.1 Introduction and purpose
The previous chapter detailed the process of analysing and synthesizing data collated during the three phases of the fieldwork. This process resulted in the development of the substantive theory ‘assessable transcendence’, which illustrates the managerial decision-making process in the charitable corporate foundations of English football clubs. The purpose of this chapter is to place the above-mentioned theory within the broad literature of ‘business and society’ and CSR decision-making and discuss its relevance therein. Essentially, this chapter concerns the second phase of the literature review which was conducted after the emergence of the substantive theory that this study has developed.

According to Locke (2001, pp. 121-214), the literature relevant to the findings in grounded theory-based studies is either integrated into the data analysis and synthesis or incorporated into a separate chapter. This study has opted for the latter in order to provide an as clear as possible distinction between the results and the contributions this study makes.

An important clarification, however, should be made regarding relevant literature. Although this study broadly locates itself within the ‘business and society’ domain for the examination of the decision-making concept within a substantive area, what follows was not necessarily identified as being relevant at the beginning of the study. For example, some of the key concepts that emerged from analysing and synthesising the data led the author to draw – in various degrees of directness – on different fields (e.g., human resource management, communication, organisational psychology) in an endeavour to achieve a more rounded theoretical integration for the substantive theory in question. The ‘positioning’ of this theory, however; ‘within’ or ‘alongside’ theoretical approaches/perspectives/models was made with the acknowledgement that this study concerns a theoretical interpretation and explanation of a delimited matter in a particular area (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

To this end, the following discussion, supported by illustrative data extracts, begins with a ‘long shot’ of the strategy in the ‘business and society’ domain before gradually focusing on the key concepts of the emerging theory; this approach demonstrates the transferability1 of the study’s findings within the relevant body of knowledge. Section 5.2 locates the emerging theory in the field of strategy, because strategy became a key concept in the way foundation managers go about making

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1 This is equivalent to ‘external validity’ in quantitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).
decisions in their organisations. It does so by first offering three reasons why strategy has a role to play in the ‘business and society’ domain in general, and CSR in particular (5.2.1). It then draws on Wittington’s (1993; 2001) four perspectives on strategy (5.3), while, when appropriate, integrating the main five approaches of decision-making (introduced in Chapter 2) into the discussion. At this broad level, and in order to facilitate understanding, when necessary the ‘parent’ company and its charitable foundation are treated as one organisational unit. Having examined ‘assessable transcendence’ in relation to Wittington’s grid, the next section (5.4) revolves around the dominant theoretical approaches that inform strategic decision-making in nonprofit organisations. The last section (5.5) narrows the discussion even further and discusses the emerged key concepts that hold ‘assessable transcendence’, (i.e., performance, communication, passion, and trust) within the extant literature on CSR in professional team sport organisations. It does so in order to highlight the key theoretical and managerial contributions of this study to this particular, and sector-specific, body of knowledge. Figure 5.1 illustrates the ‘long-shot-to-close-up’ approach which structures the current chapter.
5.2 ‘Assessable transcendence’ in the field of strategy

5.2.1 CSR and strategic management

Whetten, Rands and Godfrey (2002) justify scholarly discussion about the responsibilities of business to society in a handbook of strategy and management (see Pettigrew, Thomas, & Whittington, 2002) with three arguments, all of which bear strong relevance to the present thesis. First, strategy scholars “can learn a great deal about the categorical arguments used to justify the claims regarding what constitutes a firm’s legitimate responsibilities” (Whetten et al., 2002, p. 373) by examining the strategies adopted by businesses in relation to their external conditions, such as relationships with external stakeholders. Since the term ‘business and society’ denotes the study of relationships which may extend outside the business, external business strategy and CSR are inherently connected. The current thesis demonstrates that although foundation managers acknowledge that the ‘parent’ football clubs operate within a highly competitive business environment where their viability depends on business-related decisions, at the same time social performance (subject to effective relationships with various external stakeholder groups) can have a bearing on, if not greatly facilitate, such business-related decisions.

The second reason given for connecting a business’ social responsibilities to the strategic management field is associated with those “vexing conceptual challenges” (Whetten et al., 2002, p. 374) that can, ultimately, become the impetus for further theorisation in areas such as organisational dilemmas and paradoxes. In this empirical investigation, such organisational dilemmas and paradoxes, or what Gammelsæter (2010) refers to as multiple institutional logics (see, amongst others, ‘idealism’ and ‘managerialism’), become particularly evident within professional team sport organisations. The current study suggests that it takes manoeuvring – that is, communication at both external and internal levels – for a “socio-economic synthesis” (Molteni & Pedrini, 2010, p. 628) to be achieved, and thus for possible organisational dilemmas and/or competing approaches to be overcome.

The third reason is that ‘business and society’ literature contains numerous leads for new areas of investigation, such as environmental niches or human resources, which would expand well-established (strategic) management fields (Whetten et al., 2002). Given, for example, how key the concept of niche is to the study of business strategy (Porter, 1980), strategy scholars can inform their understanding of emerging social issues by viewing this process through the analytical lens of niche formation (Whetten et al., 2002). This was indeed evident in the findings of the current study. ‘Assessable transcendence’ concerns a good number of community programmes through which the foundations try to tackle various social issues; this involvement can be regarded as a platform for environmental niche formation from which football
clubs can shape their business strategy. Likewise, given that human resources play an increasingly important role in the overall strategy of a firm (Barney, 1991), the ways in which human resources issues affect businesses aspiring to social responsibility offer another research avenue to strategy scholars (Whetten et al., 2002). This research, for example, advocates that in order for transcending to occur, and thus for business and social performance to increase, investment in competent human resources for the evaluation and dissemination of the overall social involvement of the organisation (i.e., club and foundation as one unit) is of paramount importance.

Although the above-mentioned indicative reasons demonstrate how CSR and strategy are (or can be) linked with each other, neither theorising about nor practicing the two simultaneously is an easy exercise. This difficulty arises not only because of the fractured, complex and vague nature of the CSR notion as discussed in Chapter Two, but also because of the disagreement amongst practitioners, researchers and theorists over what strategy is for and how strategy is done. Whittington’s (1993; 2001) grid of the four perspectives on strategy offers a friendly way of explaining such ‘disagreements’, and the following section draws on this grid to discuss ‘assessable transcendence’ within the field of strategy and strategic decision-making. According to French (2009), Whittington (2001) places more emphasis than many other scholars on non-profit-making outcomes, and consequently this four-schools-of-thought grid of what strategy is for and how is done appears to be that most relevant to ‘assessable transcendence’. The intention here, however, is neither to revisit the debate of how strategy can (or should) be done nor to try reconcile the different perspectives. Rather, partly aligning this study with the work of Henderson and Zvesper (2002), the following section shows how Whittington’s grid can be used to theoretically understand the social process ‘assessable transcendence’.

5.3 Perspectives on strategy

Whittington’s (2001) grid (Figure 5.2) summarises in a simple and enlightened way the different assumptions about how business, strategy and decision-making work. Drawing on the Classical, Evolutionary, Processual and Systemic perspectives on strategy, Whittington (2001) explains their fundamental differences in two aspects: the outcomes and the processes by which strategy is made. Vertically, the focus is on whether strategy is focussed on profit maximisation or concerns other organisational goals and possible outcomes. Horizontally, the grid is divided into deliberate and emergent processes.

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2 Whittington (2001, p. 129) admits that the four perspectives on strategy in his book are largely confined to ‘business’ strategy, as these draw heavily upon private-sector assumptions. He states, however, that these perspectives can also be applicable to public sector and the emergent quasi-privatised enterprises of recent years.
5.3.1 Classical perspective

Formulating and implementing strategy from the Classical perspective means that “profitability is the supreme goal of business, and rational planning the means to achieve it” (Whittington, 1993, p. 11). Whittington’s statement echoes the arguments made by the early (e.g., Chandler, 1962; Ansoff, 1965; Sloan, 1963) and later (e.g., Porter, 1980) proponents of this perspective that strategy should be subject to rational processes of deliberate calculation and analysis and designed to maximise long-term advantage. Such proponents also demand that conception (i.e., formulation) be separated from execution (i.e., implementation). All this implies that, despite the recognition of the dynamic environment in which an organisation exists and operates, the former is essentially predictable (Henderson & Zvesper, 2002). The Classical perspective, therefore, seems to be in line with the management science approach of organisational decision-making. The environment is predictable, because data relevant to the decision are easily identified and quantifiable, and therefore problems become structured and thus logically confronted. As a consequence, the decision-making process is based upon well thought-out and clear organisational objectives, a comprehensive knowledge of the environment/market for which strategy has been formulated and subsequently implemented. Its ultimate aim is long-run organisational success.
5.3.1.1 ‘Assessable transcendence’ from a Classical perspective

According to the Classical perspective, the strategy of a professional football club should be geared towards profit maximization. Over the last 20 years or so, football clubs have increasingly been incorporated into the commercial leisure sector (Dolles & Söderman, 2013; Hamil & Chadwick, 2010). Deloitte reports that for the 2011-2012 season, the overall revenues of the 92 English professional football clubs exceeded £3 billion, of which more than £2.3 billion was generated by Premier League (PL) and £476 million by Championship clubs (Deloitte, 2013). Although these figures demonstrate that football clubs are now increasingly adopting business strategies, these companies are far from constituting a profitable business sector (cf., Hamil & Walters, 2010; Kuper & Szymanski, 2009; Wilson, Plumley, & Ramchandani, 2013). Indeed, the net debt of the 20 PL football clubs at the end of the 2011-12 season amounted to £2.4 billion, while the net debt of the 22 Championship football clubs for the same period was £0.9 billion (Deloitte, 2013). These figures alone clearly indicate that either a football club’s strategy is not geared towards making profit in strict financial terms or, if it is, this strategy is certainly extremely problematic.

Foundation managers acknowledge the business-related pressures facing their ‘parent’ football clubs in order to compete in an increasingly commercialised, and highly unprofitable, environment. To this end, the decisions these managers make (largely expressed through the micro-social process safeguarding) can also be seen as deliberate and aimed towards business performance, which can ultimately lead to competitive advantage over other forms of entertainment. However, while the ‘parent’ club’s primary interest through CSR-related programmes seems to be “to see bums on the seats” (FLC-fc4), the foundation managers see their job as to “do things for the good of the charity and for the good of the community we work in” (FLC-fc10). Despite, therefore, the indirect ‘support’ foundations offer to the ‘parent’ club though the implementation of various community programmes, foundation managers are running charitable organizations which are in turn subject to varying degrees of regulation that highlight the relationship between key stakeholders and good performance. As another foundation manager reminds us:

I have to make sure that the charity runs; I have to make sure that money is coming in to pay wages; we’re not for profit so we have to make sure there is enough money to pay everything. And then I have to answer to the trustees who run the charity (FLC-fc7).
In contrast, the only CEO of a ‘parent’ football club that took part in this research states emphatically that:

The core objectives of CSR? I would say the profit, people, planning; well, the driving force behind the football club is winning football matches. That’s the core business and that’s what we are judged on. I get judged on profit. That’s what my job is, to run the business and make a profit. If social responsibility can be integrated into that, that’s fine; but is it going to be a driving force for me? No, because I don’t see immediately where that’s going to improve my profit lines (PL-fc5).

These divergent priorities and attitudes between ‘parent’ clubs and foundations can be seen as exemplifying Whittington’s (2001) dimensional outcomes. Here, one camp (i.e., the ‘parent’ club) favours an instant ‘hard’ business-related outcome while the other (i.e., the foundation) is guided by a ‘soft’ and more socially-driven rationale.

What’s more, the foundation managers are required to make decisions in an unstable and not easily calculable environment. This environment is characterised by two principal parameters, which seem to form the inner and outer context (Pettigrew, 1985) in which decisions are being made. The former refers to the ‘playing status’; that is, whether the ‘parent’ club is a PL or a Championship team. This parameter does not apply equally to all foundations, but in theory all teams can be relegated or promoted. If that happens, there are consequences for funding opportunities from both ‘institutionalised’ pots of money³ and third parties such as partners or sponsors. The latter parameter refers to the landscape in which charitable organisations generally operate and is characterised, more often than not, by financial uncertainty and instability. It is this state of environmental flux in which football foundations operate that recently led Bingham and Walters (2013) to call on these organisations to diversify their revenue streams by developing (ideally) long-term social partnerships that address the CSR agendas of commercial organisations.

It becomes evident, therefore, that ‘assessable transcendence’ relates neither to just profit-maximizing, nor can it bring the optimal outcome by good planning and by mastering the inner and outer environment. On these grounds, it would be difficult – if not inaccurate – to argue that decisions with regards to CSR in English football are guided by the fundamental tenets of the Classical perspective on strategy.

5.3.2 Evolutionary perspective

Like Classicists, the Evolutionists also approach strategy with the belief that organisational survival rests on profit-maximising. The main difference between the two perspectives, however, lies in the role environment plays in the process

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³ A more detailed discussion of this is given later in this chapter (see section 5.4.2.1)
of formulating and implementing strategy. Contrary to the Classical perspective which advocates that managerial activity can control environmental conditions through screening and positioning, Evolutionists conceive the environment – and its numerous forces that enact on organisational strategies – as “too unpredictable to anticipate effectively” (Wittington, 2001, p. 3). From this perspective, therefore, strategy cannot be that deliberate; rather, it is more continuous struggle for achieving the best possible environmental fit and less managerial environmentally-detached calculation that will determine organisational success or failure. As Wittington (1993) puts it, “in searching for the best strategy, it is best to let the environment do the selecting, not the managers” (p. 22). Such managerial incapacity to improve profitability reliably through strategic interventions means that the role of operations management (i.e., through control of costs) is the chief means by which managers exercise direction – something that equates, according to Henderson and Zvesper (2002), “good management with good operations rather than strategic decision-making” (p. 478). Although not as clearly linked as the management science approach and the Classical perspective, the garbage can model (Cohen, March, & Olsen, 1972) echoes the Evolutionary perspective in its perception of the role chance and timing play in the organisational decision-making process. Indeed, Evolutionary theorists (see Aldrich, 1979) have argued that environmental fit is more likely to be the result of chance and good fortune, even error, than the outcome of deliberate strategic choice (Whittington, 1993).

5.3.2.1 ‘Assessable transcendence’ from an Evolutionary perspective

Given that the Evolutionary perspective sees profit maximisation as the natural outcome of strategy, and because (see previous section) this is arguably not the only driving force in the managerial decision-making process regarding CSR-related programmes, it would therefore be logical to assume that ‘assessable transcendence’ cannot be seen as being theoretically informed by the principal tenets of this perspective either. This, however, might be an over-simplistic assumption for two reasons explained below.

First, the social initiatives with which these foundations are engaged nowadays differ greatly both in scope and scale from the strictly football coaching-based programmes which had been their focus for years. One reason for such operational expansion is that corporations with CSR ambitions have become more interested in sport as a vehicle for deploying social initiatives and amplifying their branding impact (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). For example, in 2008, 255 projects were listed
with sport used as a mechanism to facilitate development (Levermore, 2010), while the indexed multinational companies with the highest CSR performance rankings were found to be increasingly using sport for their CSR agendas (MacDonald, Smith, & Westerbeek, 2009). This state-of-affairs that has been developing in the environment in which these charitable organisations operate requires some harmonising with these (new) environmental forces. To some degree, therefore, there is not much deliberate strategizing but rather “markets, not managers, choose the prevailing strategies within a particular environment” (Whittington, 2001, p. 17). As one foundation manager concurs:

What seems to have happened in terms of finance and resourcing is that all of a sudden the outside world has seen what football can contribute to this area, which is a good thing (PL-fc4).

Environmental fit, however, is not restricted to the diversification of the foundations’ operational portfolio in accordance with private sector intentions; it is ‘adjustment’ and ‘responsiveness’ to more traditional pools of funding that dictate strategic directions. One of the participants characteristically said that “actually, we don’t decide what issues we should focus on; if we can use the term loosely ‘society’ decides that for us” (PL-fc2), while another illustrates just that by referring to a specific sort of action that his/her organisation was about to undertake:

We are proposing to get into working with 25 plus people who are redundant because the money is all moving there anyway. The government clearly cannot have 10,000 people here made redundant and not put money into try and resolve that (FLC-fc5).

Secondly, although decisions made by the foundation managers are not guided by the profit-maximising motif (a standard, given the charitable status of those organisations), the same individuals do recognise that good CSR-related programmes mean good ‘business’. This, it means ‘trading surplus’ (that is, ‘profit’ in charitable organisations’ parlance,) which, in turn, ensures the foundations’ viability (that is, safeguarding though ‘self-preservation’).

[...] we’ve got that as a backdrop, so we’ve got certain amount of money in the charity that, if I do touch it, probably that would be the end of the time for me because that money is for us to deal with the worst case scenario. So we have put in a pot of money [...] definitely we’re not money orientated, but just give us a drive to think that money is there, it is our safety net (FLC-fc7).
Furthermore, foundation managers have unequivocally reported the caution they demonstrate when making decisions about what and how CSR-related programmes are to be implemented.

We will only appoint staff and deliver projects off the back of funding that is confirmed; we won’t speculate and do it because we think we can get this or we think we can secure that; we will appoint and we will run things once the funding is confirmed (FLC-fc6).

Such actions corroborate one of the principal tenets of the Evolutionary perspective, which regards managers as conscientious individuals whose prime objective is to ensure the survival of the organisation through sound operational, rather than strategic, decisions.

When I first started [...] the foundation was in all sorts of mess. The year before I got here, we reported losses of £123,000; and it had been for six years, loss, loss, loss, loss, loss, loss. So the club financially assisted with a loan, restructured, got rid of some staff [...] with regards to strategy and direction in the foundation, and which way we will go in, wide open; and to be honest there wasn’t a probably a lot of interest in it because the major problem was financial and structural and commercial. So it’s all about just steadying the boat, just get us back on track, do whatever you need to do to get the finances in check and to get the staff in check and to just sort the organisation out. It wasn’t about strategy, it wasn’t about direction; it wasn’t about the big picture (PL-fc7).

These two interrelated reasons entail elements of the micro-social processes harmonising and safeguarding in the form of ‘environmental fit’ and ‘sensible operational management’ respectively, offering thus reasonable grounds to assume that ‘assessable transcendence’ manifests principles from the Evolutionary perspective on strategy. Moreover, managers’ decision-making seems to be furthered by the apparently good, yet challenging, timing (characteristic of the garbage can model) for business, inside and outside sport, to demonstrate social responsibility.

With CSR this is the big problem, you open one door and then another one opens and another one opens; it’s very, very difficult to get to the boundaries of whom you work with (PL-fc1a).

Tenets of the garbage can model also seem therefore to be at play, for example in the lack of an orderly sequence of steps as to who initiates CSR-related programmes and how, or through trial-and-error actions. The extracts below exemplify just that:
I think now - from being a top-down decision-making process - programmes and initiatives can actually start from the bottom. Because we have got some good programmes running - it’s embedded in the business - so people can now make decisions – no make decisions – make suggestions, whereas before we never spoke to each other about [...] For instance, we have been doing some stuff around healthy living, one of the security guards has actually come to us and said, fantastic, why don’t we, at the training ground, start an organic garden? So that’s coming from a guy that you never see, he just sits in his little office over there by the car park and directs traffic and tells people where they can park around the stadium, and he has actually come forward with an idea, so it just shows you that in a short space of time the attitudes have changed within the business (PL-fc1a).

We have a staff meeting each week and think about what we can do that’s different this year; we just brainstorm it and banter the ideas around. Oh, [the club’s CEO] is full ideas, usually crazy ideas that we think that’s bonkers and then two minutes later you are doing it and it works. So, yeah, a lot comes from [him], a lot just comes from the staff here. It’s both ways (PL-fc3).

It would be dreadfully wrong for me to say that everything we do works, it doesn’t; there are things that we have tried and we thought for whatever reason that’s not work – failure is defined in terms of participation largely. If for example we have a programme that is operating and we get little or no responses with or the results are turning not right we wouldn’t continue with it just for the sake of it (PL-fc2).

Overall, what is discernable is a continuous managerial endeavour for organisational survival in an anything but stable and controllable environment. This environment however favours greater involvement in CSR-related programmes, often through decisions taken in a haphazard and random fashion. Within such an environment, decision-making processes display some characteristics of profit-maximizing. Chief among these is prudent managerial activity (i.e., cost control), which aims towards ensuring short term viability for the foundation and – indirectly - long-term sustainability for the ‘parent’ company (i.e., dual safeguarding).

5.3.3 Processual perspective

Processual approaches to strategy acknowledge managerial inability to calculate a highly complex and unstable environment rationally, and thus favour the more emergent approach also advocated by Evolutionists. The fundamental tenets of this perspective lie in the cognitive limits of rational action (March & Simon, 1958), and the micro-politics of organisations (Cyert & March, 1963). Contrary to the Evolutionist perspective, however, Processualists are sceptical about profit-maximising outcomes. This is mainly because organisations are not united in optimising a single utility (e.g., profit), but are, rather, essentially coalitions of individuals who bring
their own personal objectives and cognitive biases to the organisation (Wittington, 2001). What Whittington says here echoes the *Carnegie model* of organisational decision-making, which is characterised by micro-processes such as ‘managing coalitions’ and ‘problemistic searches’. Power, conflict and personal/departmental interests render decision-making a political process, whereas quick solutions with short-term results offer *satisficing* rather than optimal outcomes.

### 5.3.3.1 ‘Assessable transcendence’ from a Processual perspective

‘Assessable transcendence’ is about maximising both *social* and *business performance*. That is, without overlooking the importance of profit-maximising (in business and charity parlance alike), it corroborates the pluralistic outcomes of strategy-making advocated by Processualists. The institutionalisation of CSR in English football though the gradual establishment of charitable foundations governed by a separate board of trustees and managed by a paid administrator (i.e., the foundation manager) has created a multi-high-powered organisational setting which, perhaps inevitably, has also increased conflicting interests amongst key organisational actors with regards to the formulation and implementation of CSR.

Two very characteristic and rather revealing extracts highlight just that:

> We struggle here with engaging the very top people within the football club to acknowledge what we do, acknowledge the benefit of what we do and almost...‘invest’ is the wrong word because they would never invest in it. For some within the club we may exist because there is a statutory obligation to have a community organization. If they could get away with it they would...– there is one or two. [...] So it is a strange picture; and I am not sure whether they can understand when it comes to what we do or what we’re trying to achieve. Some can be, one in particular is very dismissive of whatever we do and this is the one that doesn’t actually believe that we’re a charity; he thinks we’re just a political gimmick (PL-fc9).
You know about the solidarity money that come from PL down to the FL clubs, don’t you? The Premier League decided that the Championship clubs will get more money from the solidarity fund. So they decided to give them £1.4m each or £2.4m, I’m not sure, a massive amount for the Championship clubs anyway. League 1 will get £275,000 and League 2 will get £250,000. All clubs met together and League 1 and League 2 clubs said: “no, we aren't having that; Championship clubs are getting so much and we are just getting £250K, £275K”. The Premier League person who was sitting there said “there is no more money from us; the only pot of money we have got now is the money we give to the FL Community Trust”. The clubs voted to take that money. The clubs decided to take that money off their own community trusts [...] in essence we are talking about facilitating payments to their costs by £25,000. That’s all. So the Premier League said: “We will not give you any more money; there’s £1.4m a year that we give to community schemes. If you want, it’s up to you what you are going to do with that” and the clubs said: “well, I take them”. So we’ve been shocked out from our own people but as we said before, the Premier League should have ring fenced that money like we ring fence all our money. They didn’t ring-fence it. So, you know, in effect, they’ve let us down or clubs have let us down (Fb-L3).

Such conflicting interests have naturally led the foundation managers to develop their political skills in order to achieve the most satisficing (March & Simon, 1958) solution in any given occasion. In this study, the multiplicity of interests and political compromising – i.e., fundamental tenets of the Processual perspective on strategy (Henderson & Zvesper, 2002) – are largely manifested by one of the four micro-social processes of ‘assessable transcendence’: manoeuvring. This process, expressed more abstractly as internal and external communication, is used for the facilitation of managerial actions towards transcending both social and business performance. The bargaining process involves what Cyert and March (1963, p. 31) describe as “policy side-payments” in return for agreement (Whittington, 2001). For example, the foundation manager may be willing to implement a specific community programme of social, yet not necessarily financial, return in order to satisfy (particular) executives from the ‘parent’ football club.

Our Chief Executive sees in it for us being in the community and how important that is. Our schools’ programmes work runs at a loss every term; we lose money when we are out there. We do that because that is the biggest signal of the club want us to do (FLC-fc7).

By acting in this way, the foundation manager can then “[...] go in and see the Chief Executive anytime I want to; I don’t have to wait until the Trustees meeting. So I say ‘look, we have got this, we’ve got that’; we have got this sort of respect for each other” (FLC-fc7). Strategy thus becomes “the product of political compromise, not profit-maximising calculation” (Whittington, 2001, p. 22).
Chapter 5: Towards theoretical integration

The examination of ‘assessable transcendence’ from the Processual perspective brings to the fore the highly political context in which foundation managers need to make decisions, as well as the dynamic environment in which their organisations operate. Through continual manoeuvring, these managers seek to achieve the most ‘satisficing’ result at both internal (e.g., with the football club) and external levels (e.g., with the partners/funders). This ‘satisficing’ result will, in turn, take them as close as possible to transcending the social and business outcomes that CSR-related programmes can yield.

5.3.4 Systemic perspective
Contrary to the two above-mentioned process-oriented perspectives (i.e., Processual and Evolutionary), Whittington (2001) argues that Systemic theorists do not downgrade organisations’ capacity for forward planning and acting effectively within their environment. Moreover, the fundamental difference between the Systemic and Classical perspectives is that the former concerns managers (that is, strategic decision-makers) who are profoundly rooted in thickly interwoven social systems rather than detached individuals who are ‘calculating’ the optimal strategic actions required to move forward. Put differently, the “forms and goals of strategy-making depend particularly on social context, and that strategy should therefore be undertaken with sociological sensitivity” (Wittington, 2001, p. 5). The adoption of such a relativist stance denotes that (a) not all organisations are perfect profit-maximizers, and (b) compromises and influences are not only restricted to the internal (organisational) level, but also extend to a wider (local) network that defines both the means and the ends of action taken by organisational decision-makers. Indeed, while acknowledging (a), Dolles and Söderman (2013) have recently conceptualised (b) through a ‘network of value captures’. Local communities are a key feature in their conceptualisation in the sense that “football clubs remain largely untouchable by economic forces that determine the fate of other [emphasis added] companies” (p. 384).

5.3.4.1 ‘Assessable transcendence’ from a Systemic perspective
The Systemic perspective examines the influence of the wider social forces, culture,
and institutions that impinge on various business strategies (Henderson & Zvesper, 2002). Corroborating arguments made in the football management literature (e.g., Brown et al., 2010; Gammelsæter & Senaux, 2011; Morrow, 2003; Walters & Chadwick, 2009), Dolles and Söderman (2013) remind us that “football is firmly rooted in the local setting and plays a vital part of the cultural and social make-up of local communities” (p. 384). Consequently, an examination of (strategic) decision-making with regards to CSR-related programmes that overlooked either these socio-cultural ties (Hamil & Morrow, 2011) or the social groups, interests and resources of the surrounding context (Wittington, 2001) would be inadequate, and a more detailed account of this ‘social system’ in which managerial decision-making occurs is necessary.

Football clubs in England have a relatively long history of engaging in community-based work. This engagement was first formalized by the establishment of the national ‘Football in the Community’ (FiTC) programme in the mid-1980s (Russell, 1997). The programme was a joint initiative by the Football League (FL) and the Professional Footballers’ Association (PFA) through the Footballers’ Further Education and Vocational Training Scheme (Walters, 2009). According to Mellor (2005), the reputation of football declined during the mid-1980s with social problems such as hooliganism being sufficiently high-profile to demand state intervention. Despite the fact that FiTC schemes around the country have, for years, been recognized as an effective means of improving community engagement (Watson, 2000; McGuire, 2008), it has been claimed that the relationship between football clubs and communities is no longer as close as it once was (Brown et al., 2006). Taylor (2004) suggests two main contributing factors to this new ambiguous relationship between club and community: shifting economic and social circumstances, and the influence of television. An indirect consequence of these two factors has been increased political pressure from central government.

The first factor has three underlining characteristics. It encompasses the decline of the UK manufacturing base that defined the civil workforce for most of the twentieth century; migration away from inner-city areas; and changes in the cultural and social activities of most UK citizens. The extracts below highlight these socio-cultural changes, which – to a large degree – determine the nature of the CSR-related programmes these foundation managers formulate, demonstrating thus that a ‘detachment’ of these decision-makers from their ‘social system’ is practically impossible.
We are also in a city here where, probably the first in England that will be an ethnic majority city as the ethnic breakdown is particularly that Southeast Asian Muslim population, which traditionally are not watchers of football or participants in football; there are Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Indians in the city and that’s increasing rapidly. Now, football isn’t the number one sport in those countries and our job is to try and make sure that the children in this country are playing football and continues to play football and then eventually when they become adults you hope they will actually become football fans and buy tickets or shirts of [the club] (PL-fc1a).

The football club is very, very different now than it was in 1994, but so is the community that we serve; [the city] has become vastly diverse, I think we have something like 82 different nationalities within the city, which presents a massive, not problem because problem is not the right word but in terms of a community office being equitable and creating access, it comes with its own problem but a challenging problem once that we are really enthused and supposed to be tackling (FLC-fc4).

As far as the second factor is concerned, while King (2002) believes that the 1992 BSkyB contract was a crucial moment in the transformation of the top level of English professional football because “it linked the game to Thatcherite developments” (p. 117), the “Sky-ification” of football, as Taylor (2004, p. 50) calls it, has also had a great effect on the way we understand community. Fans are no longer expected to live close to their team’s base or to attend matches in order to feel “part of the club” (ibid.). These fans now constitute ‘fan communities’ that require different treatment to the more traditional body of football supporters. The influence of television is obviously crucial to this development, and its use is key to addressing it; as a consequence, football clubs now depend heavily on television revenues.

According to Taylor (2004), the factors of community dispersion and television are the principal reasons for football clubs’ having come under increasing external pressure to re-consider, and subsequently to re-establish, relations with their communities. At a moment of particularly drastic and rapid transformation within English football, New Labour won a landslide election in the UK. Under the ideological principle of the ‘Third Way’4, the party introduced a number of reforms in welfare and other areas of public policy that focused on creating a strong sense of responsibility across society. Hine and Preuss (2009) write that having assumed government in the wake of the economic liberalization of the 1980s and 1990s, New Labour had to perform a balancing act between the values of their traditional constituencies and the need to be seen as pro- (or at least not anti-) business. For Wilson (2000, cited in Hine & Preuss, 2009), this prompted the government to avoid the heavy-handed regulation characteristic of previous Labour administrations by appealing to the logic of the market and fair competition as methods of ‘regulating’ activity.

4 See Giddens (2000), and Brown, Crabbe, & Mellor, (2008) for a more relevant to football discussion.
Mellor (2008) identifies the football sector as part of New Labour’s political agenda. His argument is illustrated by the establishment of the Football Task Force (FTF), which was designed to monitor how far the football sector was meeting its “social obligations” (ibid, p. 318). Mellor (2008) also observes that, with the arrival of New Labour, the community work in which clubs were expected to engage expanded beyond traditional children’s coaching schemes and player appearances. Football clubs were placed in a new position of responsibility, stemming from the fact that the sport was identified by the British Government as potentially being “a key deliverer of policy objectives” in areas as diverse as health, education, community cohesion, regeneration and crime reduction (cf., Mellor, 2008, p. 319; Tacon, 2007, p. 2). The rationales underlying CSR strategy in English football, therefore, seem to be what Systemic theorists call “peculiar to particular social contexts” (Wittington, 2001, p. 26). Indeed, the differences between national social systems emphasised in the Systemic perspective have recently been empirically supported in the context of CSR in football (cf., Hovemann, Breitbarth, & Walzel, 2011; Walters & Tacon, 2011) with different levels of CSR commitment and diverse forms of CSR activities having been found to exist amongst European football leagues.

The above contextual background encapsulates the ‘set of conditions’ (see harmonising) under which managerial decision-making in charitable foundations occurs. What’s more, the social context to which Systemic theorists refer seems to be in accordance with the philosophical assumptions that inform this study (see Chapter 3). For example, Mead (1934) has argued that “a person is a personality because he [sic] belongs to a community, because he takes over the institutions of that community into his own conduct” (p. 162). To contextualise Mead’s point with the current discussion: even if a foundation manager formulates and subsequently implements a CSR-related programme, this person does so having already been ‘socialised’ according to inherited perspectives. In this case those perspectives might be the football club’s history, local social needs and so forth. The following extract illustrates the Systemic theorists’ crucial point that decision-makers are profoundly rooted in thickly interwoven social systems:

We are talking about the club here; so you have people who have been here for long time and have built up an ethos, philosophy [...] this allows you, this gives you wings to go out and do things [...] so I walk in the footsteps of legends and I am looking after that while I am here [...] my job here is [...] working at the roots where the club has been (PL-fc4).

The relevance that the Systemic perspective seems to have to the emerging theory ‘assessable transcendence’ is found in the “play by the local rules” proposition
(Whittington, 2001, p. 10) and the recognition that not all companies are perfect profit-maximizers. Its relevance is also manifested in the fact that decisions regarding CSR-related programmes are highly influenced by the leagues (see section 5.4.2.1), which provide much of the funding. In this respect, although foundations managers go through a trial-and-error process often characterised by a lack of an orderly sequence of steps as to how CSR-related programmes are initiated, this process is less ‘emergent’ than the Evolutionary and Processual perspectives advocate. That is because foundation managers align their decisions to a specific CSR landscape within which, at least for short term (3-5 years), they strategize in as ‘deliberate’ and calculated a fashion possible.

5.3.5 ‘Assessable transcendence’ and perspectives on strategy
The strategy adopted by English football clubs, through their charitable corporate foundations, seems to find places in all but one of the four quadrants of Whittington’s (2001) grid (see Table 5.1). For example, the micro-social process harmonising that managers go through displays elements of the Systemic perspective in so much as it relies on relatively rational planning, yet at the same time being profoundly interwoven in the local context and greatly influenced by the socio-economic-political environment as well as by the playing status of the ‘parent’ company. On the other hand, safeguarding displays characteristics associated with the Evolutionary approach, which sees profit maximisation (in both business and charity terms) as the natural outcome of strategy making. Through this perspective, a more emergent process, dependent on environmental forces (e.g., commercial businesses’ increased interest in CSR), seems to be at play which allows organisations to survive; short-term-wise for the foundations and more long-term-wise for the ‘parent’ football clubs. Strategic decision-making from an Evolutionary and Systemic perspective may lead to transcending, yet the latter largely depends on the degree of effective communication skills (at both internal and external level) that foundation managers possess and/or develop. Manoeuvring, then, could be viewed from the Processual perspective, which proposes that the objectives and practices of strategy depend on the ‘compromising’ and ‘learning’ processes which often lead in different directions to the ones initially planned (through harmonising and safeguarding). To reiterate, it is evident that clear boundaries do not exist between the generic perspectives on strategy proposed by Wittington (2001); on the contrary, the data collated for this study indicates a great deal of overlap within these perspectives. Such overlapping seems to be also evident when one places ‘assessable transcendence’ vis-à-vis the most used theoretical approaches for the examination of strategic decision-making.
in and governance\textsuperscript{5} of nonprofit organisations. The following sections demonstrate that by highlighting the paradoxical elements that the emerging substantive theory embodies.

\textbf{Table 5.1: ‘Assessable transcendence’ in relation to strategy perspectives}
(modified by Whittington, 2001, p. 39)

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\textsuperscript{5} In definitional terms, ‘governance’ has not been a straightforward concept. Henry and Lee (in Beech & Chadwick, 2004) offer three useful approaches (namely, systemic, organisational, and political) to understanding governance in sport, and more recently Gammelsæter and Senaux (in Söderman & Dolles, 2013) have discussed these approaches in the context of football. Within this thesis, section 5.4.2 below predominantly refers to organisational governance.
5.4 The need for a multi-theoretical paradox approach

5.4.1 Paradox and organisations

In her review of the concept of paradox in organisation studies, Lewis (2000) defines ‘paradox’ as denoting contradictory yet interrelated elements which seem logical in isolation but absurd and irrational when appearing simultaneously. Organisational and management scholars are increasingly recognising both the inevitability of paradoxes in their research endeavours (Clarke-Hill, Li, & Davies, 2003) and that these paradoxes are integral to effective organisational functioning (Cameron & Quin, 1988).

Despite this, and despite the increasing application of the paradox label in organisation studies, empirical works explicitly focused on paradox remain sparse (Jules & Good, 2012). Hatch and Ehrlich (1993) claim that this unfocused exploration of paradox may stem from the difficulty researchers face in locating and bracketing the phenomena. Lewis’ (2000) literature review suggests three possible ways to overcome such challenges: researchers apply (a) a narrative approach and by analysing discourse identify the paradox, (b) a psychodynamic approach where through different techniques they conduct research with, rather than on, actors and hence both parties involved are assisted in identifying the paradox and (c) a multi-theoretical approach in which opposing theoretical perspectives may identify multiple perceptions of a situation. Although all three approaches are valuable in identifying paradox, this section largely adopts (c) whilst utilising the kind of narrative approach advocated in (a) to demonstrate how decisions about CSR-related programmes are being made within the charitable arms of football clubs.

5.4.2 Multi-theoretical paradox approach

Competing approaches help sharpen a researcher’s focus on opposing facets of paradox (Sundaramurthy & Lewis, 2003) by enabling them to move beyond oversimplified and often polarised notions to understand the complexity, variety and obscurity of organisational behaviour (Cameron & Quinn, 1988). The works of Cornforth (2004), Miller-Millesen (2003), Brown (2005), and more recently Van Puyvelde, Caers, Du Bois, & Jegers (2012) guide this study’s exploration of (strategic) decision-making with regards to CSR-related programmes. The premise here is that a multi-theoretical paradox approach may augment and unify the frequently partial and limited accounts of organisational behaviour, and particularly of the strategic decision-making process managers undertake, which result from the most popular theoretical approaches when used in isolation.

Lewis (2000) refers to this approach as “multi-paradigm”; the term ‘multi-theoretical’ has been preferred in this study in order to avoid confusion with more epistemologically-related discussions made in Chapter 3.
Managerial hegemony theory (Mace, 1971; Herman, 1981; Stiles, 2001), resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), agency theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976) and stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, & Donaldson, 1997) provide a bedrock for this study's findings as it searches for a better understanding of how managers make (strategic) decisions in relation to CSR.

To begin with, as its name connotes, managerial hegemony theory assumes that the board (in this study, the board of trustees) does not actually govern the organisation, since this responsibility has been assumed by the paid administrator (in this study, the foundation manager) who, through the exercise of day-to-day operations, acquires specialised knowledge of the business and thus renders the board a legal fiction dominated by his or her presence (Stiles, 2001). The manager's predominance is also suggested by the fact that this person often selects the board. As Stiles (2001) reminds us, this is why Mace (1971) calls boards the 'creatures of the CEO' while Herman (1981) dismisses them as 'rubber stamps'.

According to resource dependency theory, however, the same boards are seen as pools of resources necessary to keep organisations afloat (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The main premise here is that since organisational survival depends on many resources, and no one organisation controls them all, the board serves to span boundaries between them. Middleton (1987) contends that the board performs four main functions in a nonprofit organisation. First, it reduces interdependencies in the organisation's operational environment. Second, adaptation to constantly unstable conditions is assured by the collection of information from the external environment. Merely gathering and passing on information to the manager, however, has little benefit unless this information actually protects the organisation from environmental interference; accordingly, the board's last function is to serve as the organisations' representative body to external constituencies.

Institutional theory, in turn, places an even stronger emphasis on environmental determinism. According to this theory, both organisational structure and processes are the result of institutional regulations (i.e., coercive isomorphism), 'recipes' for best practices (i.e., mimetic isomorphism) and pressures to professionalise (i.e., normative isomorphism) (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). In this way, certain behaviour and courses of action become legitimate simply because this is the accepted way of doing things (Miller-Millesen, 2003). Coercive isomorphism is fundamentally based on the fear of sanction, which plays deterministic role in the way boards act and behave (Scott, 1995). DiMaggio and Powel (1983) suggest that, as the field becomes institutionalised – 'field' meaning those organizations that, in the aggregate,
constitute a recognized area of institutional life – then mimetic isomorphism occurs. Organisations tend to adopt similar practices and forms, carrying out a mimetic process by which they model themselves on other organizations perceived to be more legitimate or successful. Lastly, normative isomorphism occurs when organisations are influenced by similar standards of professional practice.

Although both resource dependency theory and institutional theory emphasise the deterministic role of the environment, principal-agency theory and stewardship theory re-focus our discussion to an internal level. In principal-agency theory (more often known as ‘agency theory’), for example, the principal delegates control to an agent (in this study, the foundation manager) who is expected to act in a way that is consistent with the interests of the principal (Jensen & Meckling, 1976); in this study, the ‘parent’ football club. According to this theory, the primary function of the board is to control the manager, but, in essence, the theory posits a relationship of conflict between the former and the latter (Brown, 2005). As Miller-Millesen (2003, p. 528) highlights, “a fundamental assumption of the theory is that the interests of the managers will not always be perfectly aligned with the interests of the shareholders”. Despite agency theory being the most frequently used approach in corporate governance studies (cf., Brown 2005, p. 320; Miller-Millesen, 2003, p. 528; Van Puyvelde et al., 2012, p. 436), Cornforth (2003) points out that in the nonprofit context far more ambiguity exists over who the principal is than in corporate settings. The application of this theory within the nonprofit sector is thus made more challenging.

In contrast to agency theory, which is rooted in economics and finance, stewardship theory recognises a range of non-financial motives for managerial behaviour such as intrinsic satisfaction in successful performance, respect for authority and a personal work ethic (Muth & Donaldson, 1998). In this respect, managers are seen as good stewards of and loyal to the organisation’s assets, something that essentially reflects co-operation between the board and the manager for the best possible performance of the organisation as a whole.

This brief account of some of the most widely used theories in corporate and nonprofit governance research demonstrates that each theory’s fundamental tenets challenge their counterparts, and hence shows the need for any researcher wishing to employ them simultaneously to accept the paradoxes that lie between them. For example, while reflecting on the process of ‘assessable transcendence’, it became clear to the author that the aforementioned theoretical approaches have no clear-cut boundaries. The current study then, as will be seen, manifests the paradox of strong overlap that has frequently been observed between the five theories.
5.4.2.1 *Harmonising* through ‘environmental determinism’

Both the PL and the FL have central community development teams which dictate policy and oversee the operations of all their football clubs’ foundations. The leagues provide core funding to the foundations on the grounds of fulfilling organisational standards (Morgan, 2010), but the foundations also have the option to apply (or bid) to the leagues for additional funding, subject to match-funding and investment in the four thematic areas of community cohesion, education, health, and sports participation. The funding is managed and administered by the Premier League Charitable Fund (PLCF), the PL’s registered charitable arm. The PL funding runs on a three-year cycle, following the same pattern as television funding. In order for each club to secure core funding from the PLCF it has to fulfil the ‘fit-for-purpose’ standard (also known as ‘capability status’). According to Morgan (2010) this criterion mainly serves as the vehicle by which football clubs (more specifically, the established foundations as their charitable arms) meet their legal requirements, particularly in terms of charitable law, financial accounting, the safeguarding of children, workforce development and risk management. The ‘fit-for-purpose’ standard demands that the trustees of the foundation provide a number of documents such as employee handbooks, pension schemes, standard contracts, healthcare provisions, public liability insurance, evidence of Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) disclosure processes, and importantly, a detailed three-year business plan. Once approved by the PLCF, the foundation qualifies for an unrestricted grant (or core funding) amounting to £45,000 a year for the three-year period 2010–2013 (an 80% increase on the period 2007–2010). In addition, there is also an Organisational Improvement Grant (OIG) designed to enhance the overall operations of the foundations. The OIG can provide a maximum amount of £60,000 towards certain needs identified by the foundations regarding, for example, their infrastructure (offices, IT equipment, independent website etc.) with the proviso that the PLCF acknowledges the value of the investment. The funding is granted over a three-year period: £30,000 in year one, £20,000 in year two and £10,000 in year three. The PLCF stipulates the manner in which these grants are spent.7

Beyond these two strands of core funding, the foundations have the option to apply for the Premier League Professional Football Association (PLPFA) community fund. For the 2010–2013 period the total amount available was approximately £12.6 million. Each foundation could bid for a maximum of £200,000, an amount subject to match-funding and investment in the four social themes mentioned above (Figure 5.3). That means a foundation can bid for a maximum of £200,000 but the PL expects

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7 Figures reported in this section have been obtained during the interview with PL-fc7, and subsequently cross-referenced with other participants [(PL-fc9) and (Fb-L3)]. For a detailed account of the ‘funding mechanics’ of CSR in English football, see *Routledge Handbook of Sport and CSR*, (Paramio et al., 2013 (Eds.) – Chapter 6, by Anagnostopoulos).
them to match a minimum of 80% of this amount (i.e., £160,000), forming a total of £360,000 for the proposed programme over three years. According to the 2010 ‘Creating Chances’ report 52 projects were activated through the 2007-2010 PLPFA community fund, generating almost £9 million of matched-funding through various partnerships.

The FL Trust operates a different system for allocating the funding that it receives from the PL. Since its establishment, the FL Trust has introduced an accreditation system based on criteria its clubs’ respective foundations must meet in order to receive available funding. As yet, no FL foundation has achieved gold status. However, between 2007 and 2010 the FL Trust supported 69 foundations in achieving bronze accreditation and 46 in achieving silver. The foundations received core funding of £24,000 towards fulfilling bronze status, whereas for silver status the core funding amounted to £48,000. With the 2010-2013 television deal, the total amount of money given to the FL Trust for the implementation of CSR-related programmes dropped from £4 million to £2.6 million per year. As a result, all FL clubs (including those with Championship status) receive £25,000 per year as core funding regardless of their accreditation status. Instead, a discretionary pot of money (similar to that which the PL provides for its clubs, albeit on a much smaller scale here) has been introduced for which only foundations attached to a Championship status club can apply. These foundations can bid for a maximum of £25,000 per year in discretionary funding for a three-year project (£75,000 in total). A minimum of 25% match-funding is required in order for the foundations to be granted this amount. With such tight funding procedures to follow as well as institutional ‘recipes’ to conform to, foundation managers in the English football context must now be more strategic in the ways they make decisions about CSR-related programmes.

DiMaggio and Powel (1983) contend that subsidiaries (in this study, the foundations) must adopt structures and processes (i.e., the implementation of specific CSR-related programmes) compatible with the ‘parent’ organisation in order to survive. However, these (micro)-institutional ‘expectations’ from the leagues provide the macro-framework within which more micro-strategic decisions are being made. Therefore, the leagues can be viewed as setting the scene without seeking to impose uniformity for the sake of it: “[the] PL is very supportive and really understands community work and although their funding helps a lot, we don’t chase programmes that do not fit with what we are doing” (PL-fc8).

With pots of money available, the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes may be driven either by seizing a (funding) opportunity – “I mean, some things we deliver because the funding is there, and as long as it sits within our
charitable objectives then we do it [...] so that’s not really a consideration with those programmes" (PL-fc3) – or by responding to ‘recipes from above’, as indicated by interviewee FLC-fc3: "some of it will be done by the targets that were given by FL".

Organisational compliance is necessary and managers are required to run their foundations by both meeting certain professional standards and criteria (a combination of coercive and normative isomorphism) and implementing CSR-related programmes which largely fall under specific themes. However, it is worth reminding that decisions made by these managers seemed to be influenced by a broader environmental determinism (e.g., the earlier-mentioned remark of one foundation manager that “society decides that for us” [PL-fc2]) that is not solely restricted to ‘recipes’ from the leagues. Another participant illustrates the crucial point by referring to a three-way harmonising process:

First of all, we receive funding from the PL which is very much tracking a national agenda of things like child obesity, participation, social exclusion and so on. So, when we apply for bids and funding through the PL, we have to take the elements of the national agenda that they are specifying and then harmonize that with the local agenda and our local issues (PL-fc7).

In other words, the so-called environmental determinism referred to in this section entails a multi-level institutional perspective: social policy that is (in) directly determined by central government’s social policy, filtered by the leagues’ organisational and governance requirements and defined in a local specific setting. Therefore, the latter consideration which the managers must address is based on the geographical location of each football club (“we are not in a city where there are two or more clubs; we are not in London where there is, I don’t know, how many clubs; we are an island and we got that island mentality” [PL-fc3]).

If further contextual parameters hold true regarding the implementation of CSR, then approaching the matter solely from an institutional approach can only ever provide us with limited knowledge. It therefore becomes legitimate to examine how these managers seem to enable themselves to delve deeper into regionally-based social issues and formulate the strategies needed to address them. The following section attempts to illustrate the way(s) in which, through ‘assessable transcendence’, this is done.
5.4.2.2 Safeguarding and harmonising: a dual ‘conditional responsiveness’

While providing the wider organisational context in which CSR ‘happens’, readers may recall that resources are one of the major issues regarding the implementation of CSR-related programmes through the foundations. Given that these nonprofit organisations are hugely dependent on various resources, managers recognise the importance of football clubs (through the foundation) having “a presence at the local strategic steering groups where the majority of decision-making is made” (FLC-fc2), and, thus, the choice of trustees could even be considered as an early stage in the overall implementation of CSR.

Presence at various local strategic groups is consequently ensured through the recruitment of key trustees: “[…] we have solicitors sit on the national FA, local FA, chamber of commerce, the city council; we try to mix quite a lot of experience and some new powerful players on there as well; on the standard committee, you know, the guys at the city council know all the politics” (FLC-fc11).

The above extracts illustrate that resource dependency theory (especially as it allows for the expectation that external trustees will span boundaries) plays a critical role in the strategic implementation of CSR in English football, as it emphasises the importance of access to key information (Johnson et al., 1996). This perspective also encompasses the strategic need within CSR to secure the resources necessary for the actual realisation of its programmes. For instance, “we have been doing a lot of educational work but we don’t have any qualified teachers within the business so we had to work with other partners to get that” (PL-fc11). This is not only an issue concerning lack of resources; the foundation managers also recognised a lack of expertise regarding their involvement in certain programmes. One manager, for example, had this to say in connection with the delivery of a mental health project:

We are not experts in that. I don’t think we would have ever really said we are going to start a programme like this. But when the experts came, they said, ‘this is the problem, this is why we need your help, we will assist you to do it’. Then we realised how we can implement it and how we can play a part (PL-fc2).

This sentiment constitutes an acceptance that “we are not people who are going to solve all these difficulties, but by working with the experts we can help create some pathways” (FLC-fc11), alongside a recognition of the need for timely information from those intimate with the relevant issues (i.e., through local decision-making centres). This attitude characterises, perhaps, the engagement of these foundations as a conditional responsive action. This ‘conditional responsiveness’ is subject to good relations with key stakeholders at the formulation level, through astute recruitment of trustees, and at the implementation level through working together with experts.
in their respective programmes. The importance of key stakeholders has also been highlighted in the literature (see Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Walters & Tacon, 2010). But how do foundation managers go about dealing with the multiple facets of CSR implementation? This is where managerial hegemony theory has something to offer, as the following section explains.

### 5.4.2.3 Transcending through ‘self-assertiveness’

Although the foundations’ boards are now composed of some very influential trustees, it seems to be that the manager is uniquely instrumental in both the way their organisations are governed and in setting the overall CSR agenda. For example, arguments amongst the trustees (both external and representatives of the ‘parent’ club) over the direction strategy is taking are not infrequent and thus manoeuvring is required: “I remember several times arguing with the chief and senior managers and the rest of the board when I think things are wrong” (PL-fc3). More characteristically, another foundation manager illustrates the ‘hegemonic’ role s/he has on the board by referring to an incident concerning the reinforcement of the board itself:

> In one of the first meetings we had with the trustees, one of them noticed that there was neither a female member nor somebody from a minority ethnic group in the board. I then told them that I challenge you as a group to identify me a person that fits and can put something in the foundation; if you want me to put a female in here because it makes you feel better, I don’t think it is a wise thing to do (FLC-fc4).

This extract moves the discussion towards considerations of governance, and appears to corroborate Mace’s (1971) stance that, since boards are the ‘creatures’ of the manager, trustees in most cases will be at a relative disadvantage. But the dominance of the foundation manager within the board becomes crucial when the nature of the CSR programmes themselves is being decided: “I report to the trustees and advise them [emphasis added] of which way to go because obviously I am on the ground with them” (PL-fc4). Thus, as Stiles (2001) argues, while familiarity with and knowledge of the day-to-day operations as well as “the knowledge that I had of the city and the wider region” (PL-fc2) do not necessarily put the board at a disadvantage, they unquestionably furnish the manager with a strong lead in the decision-making process of CSR-related programmes.

Furthermore, recognition of the specialist knowledge held by managers is not restricted to the external trustees but also extends to the ‘parent’ club’s management: “I think our chairman here understands that there is a bit of knowledge about community interaction and I am genuinely thinking he respects the fact that such knowledge puts
everything we do in the right direction for all parties” (FLC-fc5). What seems to be in evidence here is the element of trust between the ‘parent’ club and the charitable foundation. Trust is ‘there’ not only due to the managers’ claims of ‘knowing the job’, but also because the other parties involved in the process (particularly the ‘parent’ club) see that the managers actually deliver, as one participant emphatically notes: “[...] I am sure there is [trust] because of our track-record and what we have delivered. Financially it’s wiping its face, operationally it’s not causing any problems, PR is going well, so why would they worry?” (FLC-fc8).

What seems to hold true throughout all interviews conducted for this study is that the managers perceive the ‘parent’ organisations to be quite comfortable with “allowing myself and my [emphasis added] board of trustees to set the strategic agenda [...] in my time here they never said we are not happy with that direction and we want you to go and do this [...]” (FLC-fc2). Familiarity and knowledge become, hence, the springboard for interpersonal trust; it is positive outcomes, however, that safeguard good relationships with key external and internal stakeholders and, ultimately, cause foundation managers to consider themselves “[...] strong enough to stand up to any suggestion that may occur [...] but it is on me to plan, organise and deliver the activities that I think are valuable in the local community” (FLC-fc10).

It is also worth mentioning here that the knowledge the foundation managers possess regarding their work can even enable them to challenge institutional forces as weighty as the leagues themselves. One participant, for example, referred to how s/he managed to convince (that is, through manoeuvring) the league that it should not provide funding exclusively for football-related programmes, because the sport does not have universal appeal:

I went to the league and we ‘sold’ it; I said that you [league] got to understand that not everyone knows football, not everyone wants to play football, and we got it! 18 months later we won the sport industry award for that not football-based project that we ran in our region (FLC-fc4).

Despite the pre-eminence of foundation managers in various matters, they and the ‘parent’ football clubs’ management do not always follow the same logic when it comes to CSR engagement.

5.4.2.4 ‘Dysfunctional affiliation’: moving forward through manoeuvring

Principal-agency theory’s main premise is that the principal’s and agent’s interests may differ. This study has yielded some evidence in support of this thesis. For

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8 A more detailed discussion about the role ‘trust’ plays in the social process of ‘assessable transcendence’ is given later in this chapter.
example, some managers believe that ‘parent’ clubs view their foundations as “an extension of the marketing department” (PL-fc9) which can be “pushed away into the background” with the view that “as long as it doesn’t cost the club money that’s alright” (ibid.). These extracts demonstrate a pluralistic vision on the one hand and a ‘hard reality’ on the other, despite the recognition expressed by the only CEO of a football club that took part in this study that “CSR engagement will have an increasing impact on the decision-making process”, yet “it is never going to dictate or be seen as the driving force behind the decisions we take in our core business, football” (PL-fc5).

Most of the informants in this study, therefore, appear to agree to a lack of genuine understanding from the club’s point of view regarding the ‘work’ their foundations do: “well, we have ‘support’; but the thing is they [i.e., the ‘parent’ club] don’t know how they can use us in a real way; we are, what I call, a tick-boxing syndrome for them” (FLC-fc5). This lack of understanding leads foundation managers to believe that, often, the clubs’ management “is missing the trick” (FLC-fc7) because the work these foundations do “is simply phenomenal” (ibid.). Another manager explains this missed opportunity in terms of perceived competition for resources:

| Our commercial department is way away from where I am; they should be using us to get as much as they can but they don’t because they are always worried that we [i.e., the foundation] are going to get a pound of their money, from, let’s say, a possible sponsorship deal (FLC-fc5). |

In contrast, the ‘parent’ club’s primary interest seems to be “to see bums on the seats, and what they often tell me is that, ‘OK, in many health projects, we see 10 overweight children but what’s the point? It is not 3000 kids’ [...] do you see my point?” (FLC-fc7). In more extreme cases, it can be seen that the managerial objectives of the foundation are not necessarily aligned with the ‘parent’ club’s interests (or the other way around). The study’s participants expressed this in a number of ways. One manager, for example, characterises the relationship with the club management as a “struggle”, stating that, “for some within the club we may exist because there is a statutory obligation to have a community organisation [...] in fact, one of the trustees doesn’t even consider us a real charitable organisation; for this person we are a mere political gimmick...” (PL-fc9). In such cases, the extent to which CSR is integrated into the football club’s overall strategy is debatable, with the football club’s contribution and commitment to the foundation appearing very limited. One manager expressed this view in a particularly cynical vein: “the amount of work they [i.e., the club’s trustees] do for this foundation is about similar to that chair [pointing to an empty seat in the interview room]” (FLC-fc9).

The preceding discussion testifies that, more often than not, the ‘parent’ club and the foundation do not share a vision for CSR. This leads the study to suggest that a
rather dysfunctional affiliation exists between the ‘parent’ club and its charitable foundation. Although the micro-social process *manoeuvring* largely explains how foundation managers go about managing such conflicting interests with regard to CSR, stewardship theory provides an appropriate approach within which theoretical answers to this matter may also be offered.

### 5.4.2.5 ‘Brand shelter’ through safeguarding

In contrast to agency theory, stewardship theory regards foundation managers as stewards. In this characterisation, they are motivated to act not out of self-interest but in the best interests of their principals (Ferkins, Shilbury, & McDonald, 2009). This appears to be the case amongst the managers interviewed who recognise that football is part of a wider business industry (*“what people get wrong in football is they think it is about football [...] no, it’s about entertainment; entertainment is what we are in”* [FLC-fc5]), and as a result of this acknowledgement, “*everything we do has to recognise that the football club first and foremost survives as a business, sustainable financially as well as socially*” (PL-fc2).

The foundation managers’ acceptance, therefore, of the need to align their strategic direction with the clubs’ interests substantiates stewardship theory’s main premise that the steward/manager is primarily concerned with enhancing the (business) *performance* of the organisation (i.e., the ‘parent’ football club). Indeed, as one foundation manager points out, “*the board of trustees is not [so] naive [as] to think that we don’t have a very significant responsibility to the football club itself*” (FLC-fc8). Drawing on an extract used earlier, the sense of duty that foundation managers feel towards the ‘parent’ club becomes evident:

> Our schools’ programmes work runs at a loss every term; we lose money when we are ‘out there’. We do that because this is the biggest signal of [what] the club want us to do: being out there and promoting the club actually (FLC-fc7).

This example is a manifestation of Muth and Donaldson’s (1998) explanation that, from the stewardship approach, when confronted with a course of action seen as (personally) ‘unrewarding’, the manager will put duty first. The abovementioned example is undeniably an ‘unrewarding’ course of action; as another foundation manager reminds us, nonprofit organisations are “not-for-loss either” (FLC-fc2).
Foundation managers understand that the sustainability of the football club itself rests on some business-focused undertakings that potentially contribute towards both retaining the existing clientele and attracting new generations of fans: “so, yeah, when we are looking at our plans in terms of where we are looking to expand our areas or the subject matters that we are getting involved in, then, of course, the club does feature in that” (FLC-fc8). This consideration is informed by the changing social make-up of a football club’s support base as explained by a large number of sociologically-oriented football studies (e.g., Giulianotti, 2002; King, 2003; Taylor, 2004), and briefly discussed through the Systemic perspective on strategy.

Closely associated with the above-mentioned and relatively tangible task of contributing to the viability of the ‘parent’ club, as good stewards foundation managers are also there to safeguard organisational ‘resources’. Consequently, they consider the foundation’s role as “one of the most important jobs that the club takes on board; this is because it’s working on the roots of where the club has been; and social responsibility is about keeping your own roots” (PL-fc4). This foundation manager seems to refer to those symbolic, intangible assets football clubs possess. These have been discussed by Yang and Sonmez (2005), and more recently empirically examined by Mnzava (2013); they have been shown to have a direct influence not only on the clubs’ associated business activities (Mnzava, 2013), but on the actual operation of the foundations themselves too. This is an easy point to lose sight of, as one foundation manager observed:

The whole thing of giving us money...OK, but you know without that badge we would be just a normal community group which would be doing exactly the same work, and no matter how fantastic we might be we would not have the same profile, we would not attract the same amount of money etc. [...] that’s something that people forget, but that’s something that I have to constantly keep in my mind (FLC-fc13).

Another foundation manager reinforces the same point whilst also corroborating Cornforth’s (2003) assertion that, from the stewardship approach, managers and the board are there to add value to the organisation they serve:

It is important that the people who are in charge of the brand – and amongst them it is me, of course – understand the brand is there because a lot of people have secured that brand for a long time; so I walk in the footsteps of legends and I am looking after that while I am here; so, if I want to move on and to keep the brand what it is when I leave, but stronger, then I have to secure that (PL-fc4).
Making decisions about CSR-related programmes for these managers, therefore, seems to be a type of ‘looking back, thinking ahead’ exercise which becomes through safeguarding, either deliberately or subconsciously, an act of ‘brand shelter’.

5.4.3 Towards a multi-theoretical paradox integration
The preceding discussion offers a rather paradoxical assessment when one attempts to integrate ‘assessable transcendence’ in the extant theoretical body of knowledge of nonprofit organisations. The current study, therefore, seems to both substantiate and contradict Brown et al.’s (2006) report, highly regarded by the football community, which found the independent foundation preferable to a community department within a club in terms of, inter alia, a greater degree of structural autonomy, responsibility for its own strategic direction, and less need to balance the tension between commercial and community objectives. What emerged from this study seems to be a paradoxical context in which foundation managers make (strategic) decisions in an endeavour to harmonise multiple environmental and institutional ‘recipes’ (institutional theory), with the view – amongst other things – to protect the ‘parent’ company (stewardship theory). Managers are confident that they have the capability to do so (managerial hegemony theory), yet realise that this capability is the result of a heavy reliance on external and/or internal resources (resource dependency theory). These considerations come together to create the micro-context, here identified as a dysfunctional setting (agency theory), in which managers are required to make the decisions that confirm their role as managers.

5.5 ‘Assessable transcendence’: key concepts in relation to literature
The purpose of the preceding sections has been to theoretically ‘integrate’ and discuss the emerging substantive theory in relation to perspectives on strategy (Whittington, 2001) and the dominant theoretical approaches to organisational governance within the non-profit sector (Cornforth, 2003). The following sections examine the key concepts of ‘assessable transcendence’ (passion, trust, communication, and performance) in the corresponding literature and in relation to studies that focus on CSR in sport. This re-focussing of the discussion aims to identify how the theory and its associative concepts may offer new insights in the context of CSR and professional team sport organisations. The discussion that follows is, therefore, the foundation of a number of research propositions. These propositions will be presented in the next and final chapter of the thesis.
It is worth remembering that ‘assessable transcendence’ concerns a social process that explains managerial decision-making in the charitable corporate foundations of English football clubs. It consists of an intrinsic (that is, passion) and an extrinsic (that is, trust) stimulus, both of which are central components of the micro-social process transcending. These two stimuli, however, require the support of both internal and external communication (abstractly expressed through the micro-social process manoeuvring), and thus all three together form a ‘coalition’ which can optimise both business and social performance (largely expressed by the two micro-processes safeguarding and harmonising) (Figure 5.3). Each of these four components of the emerging theory is discussed below.

5.5.1 Passion
Passion is generally defined as a strong inclination towards an activity that people like, find important and in which they invest time and energy (Vallerand, 2008). Due to its relationship with ‘identification’ (a key construct in team sport literature (Wann & Branscombe, 1993)), it has been suggested that passion is one of the factors that make sport unique with respect to CSR (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; 2013a). The concept in this context refers to the emotion that the ‘product’ (i.e., the team, the players, the game itself) generates amongst sport fans/consumers (Babiak & Wolfe, 2013b). For example, Inoue and Kent (2012c) provide empirical evidence,
albeit without examining passion \textit{per se}, that when a sport team proactively incorporates environmental practices into its operations, an internalisation process occurs whereby “consumers would likely perceive value congruence with the team and subsequently adopt pro-environmental behaviour” (p. 428). Such findings echo earlier studies suggesting that the sport industry offers the ideal platform from which to deploy CSR (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007) and that professional sport in particular has definite advantages over other industries in implementing CSR-related programmes (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006).

In the context of sport, the concept of passion has been empirically examined with respect to football fans (Vallerand et al., 2008) and professional athletes (Donahue et al., 2009; Vallerand et al., 2006; 2008), but not within team sport organisations. Emotions in general, and for that matter passion, have not been explicitly studied by sport management scholars in relation to decision-making or, more specifically, to the notion of CSR. Even when the concept of passion emerges as one of the key internal factors for CSR implementation (e.g., in the study by Babiak and Wolfe, 2009), this finding relates more to the external environmental factors of the sport industry. Babiak and Wolfe (2009) indirectly acknowledge this fact by stating that “sport executives have yet to appreciate the unique nature of their resources” (p. 733 – emphasis added).

The current study, therefore, offers an insight previously overlooked in the literature of CSR and sport. This novel insight relates to the concept of \textit{passion at work} (or work/job passion) and refers to the same emotional attribute that Babiak and Wolfe (2009; 2013a), and more implicitly other studies (e.g., Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Inoue & Kent, 2012b; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007; Walters, 2009) advocate when examining CSR in sport. In this thesis, the concept of passion concerns an emotion expressed from, and experienced by, organisational actors. According to King (2005), in recent years there has been a slight loosening of management’s separation of reason and emotions, with the latter now becoming “an increasingly popular focus for management research” (Wright & Nyberg, 2012, p. 1562). There is even an emerging field of ‘emotionology work’ – that is, “the adaptation and management of standards of emotional expression within organisations” (ibid, p. 1563).

Within this context, the current thesis observes an indispensable emotion at work in the managerial decision-making processes which have been its focus. This emotion takes the form of an intense longing that the individuals responsible for the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes feel towards undertakings that are, in turn, deeply meaningful to their identities. Crucially,
and in accordance with arguments made elsewhere (e.g., Allenbaugh, 2002; King, 2005), emotions (such as passion) can be instrumental and useful within an organisation only if they help achieve a ‘rational’ goal, be it business- or socially-oriented. In this regard, foundation managers seem to have a passion for ‘more’ (i.e., \textit{transcendence}), which, built around broader personal social consciousness stimuli, ‘helps’ their organisations grow and secure returns to ‘investors’; that is, statutory funders, commercial partners, and the ‘parent’ football club itself. These individuals’ perceptions of job and organisational conditions have led Zigarmi and Nimon (2011) to argue that “the essence of work passion is the intention to act consistently using behaviours that are constructive for the organisation’s desired outcomes as well as the individual’s” (p. 451).

Moreover, this study has shown that, besides the fact that managers both like and enjoy their roles, these individuals also acknowledge the significance that their job has for the ‘parent’ club as well as for the various stakeholder groups that the community programmes capture and focus on. The passion stems from the fact that the job both connects the managers with a sport that they love and offers them a means for helping to tackle some of the biggest challenges facing society. The element of passion, therefore, seems to go beyond being merely affective in nature; that is, beyond “capturing the strong, intense liking for and enjoyment of the job” (Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011).

I love the job that I do, so that’s an extra driver; and for me it’s an extra driver because I’m willing to go and work harder for the club and I enjoy my work, so work I harder (PL-fc8).

The element of passion also appears to be cognitive in nature; that is, it captures the perceived importance or significance of the job for the individual. More specifically, the job becomes internalised to the self and defines who the individual is (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009; Vallerand et al., 2003). As one foundation manager noted, “This isn’t work, this is a way of life” (PL-fc4). Other participants have also explicitly acknowledged the importance of their role in their professional, and by extension social, environment:

I think what is noticeable to anybody who comes in here or who works alongside us is the sort of passion and the belief in what we do. Not all employees here are this club’s fans. Some of them are, some of them aren’t, but they all understand the responsibility and the power that we have got and the difference that we can make (PL-fc3).
I feel a passion to helping people rather than [...] just football. So my passion comes from whether it’s about football or whether we run a hair-and-beauty module or whether we run a DJ module, or whether we run a break-dance module; the same outcome should be: we’re affecting young people in that area. So I’m more conscious that I can use the brand of the club to engage young children more so than just doing football (FLC-fc9).

This job? I am not saying they are not passionate the rest of the football club, but the community guys seem to have a real passion about what they do and we’re probably the farthest down the pecking order of when it comes to funding and everything else. There is such a passion about what we do, and that’s probably why we’re actually doing the job [...] I think the passion of my staff is for that to happen (FLC-fc7).

I can talk forever about this because it’s so interesting what we do. People say to me, well, you took a major move when you moved from [X company] to get involved with a football club but you went and managed the community project. And I said yes but every day I go to work and think what are we going to do better today? What are we going to do with this? Can I help somebody today sort of come to work with what I do? It’s true, every morning; I don’t loath coming to work, I am 61, I could retire, I have a pension from [X company], a final salary year pension...do I need to work? (FLC-fc5).

Such conceptualisation of affective and cognitive passion for a job sets this key concept apart from prior job-related attitudinal constructs such as motivation (internal and external), satisfaction, commitment, involvement and identification (Ho et al., 2011; Zigarmi et al., 2009). Table 5.2 below offers a summary of how work passion is conceptually distinguished from the above-mentioned constructs, and thus demonstrates why it appears to be the emotion (i.e., internal stimulus) most relevant to the social process ‘assessable transcendence’.
Table 5.2: Work passion versus other job-related constructs (adapted from Ho et al., 2011)

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In this study, the intrinsic dimension of the concept (work) passion ranges from all-embracing to bounded.\(^9\) The former refers to the capacity of passion to render the challenging tasks facing foundation managers and having to make decisions about a worthwhile undertaking. The latter refers to the risk of managerial decisions becoming side-tracked because everything in these organisations ends up being ‘about football’; an observation that suggests the micro-social process transcending and its associated social and business performance may occur only within that specific sport.

They don’t have to be footballers, they don’t have to be interested in football. What we do want to help them though is to understand that they have got 35, 40 years ahead of them of working. Well, try and get into a job that you might want to have an interest in. You might be passionate about, like I am about football. I am so privileged and grateful that I have had 35 years of working in this sport that I love and still love. If they can get that, they might love gardening. Well, let’s get you into gardening and go and give you a start, a head start, a leg-up if you like towards getting into that (PL-fc10, see also extract from FLC-fc9 above).

The concept of passion as an internal emotional stimulus (in either of the dimensional forms expressed in this study) seems therefore to be at play abstractly in the social process ‘assessable transcendence’. However, prior social psychological research has empirically conceptualised passion by separating it into two distinct types, namely harmonious and obsessive passion (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003). Ho et al. (2011) explain that the former type entails a voluntary internalisation of the work in the sense that individuals choose to be passionate about a job because they classify it as significant to themselves. The obsessive type of passion also entails an internalisation of the job, but in this case internalisation is derived from certain pressures or outcomes attached to the job itself (Mageau et al., 2005; Vallerand et al., 2003). Ho et al. (2011) mention that “these pressures or outcomes come to control the person, who then feels compelled to pursue the activity in order to maintain this sense of prestige and self-worth” (p. 30).

Interestingly, literature suggests that the two above-mentioned types of work passion capture distinct concepts and therefore that “an employee can have one type of passion but not the other” (Ho et al., 2011, p. 30). Ho and her colleagues (2011) empirically demonstrate that “work performance depends on the type of passion that one has” (p. 40); therefore, being a passionate manager does not necessarily mean (e.g.) that one will enjoy performance-related benefits. This finding seems to be both important and relevant to the current thesis as it links the concept of passion with that of performance (see section 5.5.4). However, two observations need to be

\(^9\) See Chapter 4, section 4.3.4.2.1 (Passion)
made here. First, Ho et al.’s (2011) study examined individual-based performance in the form of employees’ annual appraisals by their direct supervisors.\textsuperscript{10} This is in line with the current thesis’ individual-level analysis, yet the concept of ‘performance’ that abstractly emerged in this study relates more to organisational (e.g., foundations and clubs) and social (e.g., output, outcomes and impact) performance, rather than to that of individual managers. Second, while Ho et al. (2011) conceptualised work passion for a job as a whole, they did not examine the possibility that individuals may have different types of passion about different tasks within the same job.

In the current study, however, and despite the unquestionable presence of passion in ‘assessable transcendence’, a combination of (a) the increasing recognition football foundations enjoy from external organisations for the effectiveness of their delivery\textsuperscript{11}, (b) the contradictory setting in which decisions in CSR-related programmes must be taken\textsuperscript{12}, (c) the highly competitive and funding-dependent context in which these foundations operate\textsuperscript{13}, and (d) the need to counteract any negative connotations that today’s football context possesses\textsuperscript{14} in an endeavour to ‘get the balance right’\textsuperscript{15}, form a complex environment consisting of different ‘job tasks’, which may well make these managers feel bound to pursue various job-related actions. Such actions are not ‘free’ or ‘voluntary’ undertakings, but are rather motivated by a compulsion to maintain the business and socially-related acceptance resulting from the job (i.e., an obsessive type of passion). The following extracts illustrate the highly complex working environment these managers (and their personnel) are ‘passionate’ about, and for which they must optimise performance:

\begin{itemize}
  \item[a)] With CSR this is the big problem, you open one door and then another one opens and another one opens; it’s very, very difficult to get to the boundaries of whom you work with (PL-fc1a).
  \item[b)] So we work very, very hard at reducing the carbon footprint and our energy usage and so on and so on, and yet on the contrary we have footballers and others that drive around in huge cars that use massive amounts of petrol and pollute, you would argue more than a smaller car would and that’s often seen as a difficulty. So that’s the obvious one that most people pick up on (PL-fc2).
\end{itemize}

\textsuperscript{10} In the sporting context, this approach is similar to that of Vallerand et al. (2006; 2008).
\textsuperscript{11} See Chapter 4, open category BEING RECOGNISED.
\textsuperscript{12} See Chapter 4, open category STRUGGLING.
\textsuperscript{13} ibid.
\textsuperscript{14} See Chapter 4, open category ACKNOWLEDGING.
\textsuperscript{15} See Chapter 4, open category LEGITIMISING.
c) I spend 50% of my time, and certainly all my staff spend at least 50% of their time actually generating income. And they’re generating income to subsidize other activities that they are running [...] we’re spending 50% of our time looking at funding, they should be no need to do that because even politicians would now know that football clubs have got such an influence on young people (FLC-fc10).

d) I don’t know [...] I almost feel that the role of the foundation here is to counteract that [i.e., business-like approaches], in a way, because all the money and all that’s almost negative about football at the moment, and so what we are doing is kind of the positive side of things (PL-fc3).

Determining whether the organisational behaviour of managers who oversee the application of CSR in English football is expressed by harmoniously or obsessively-driven passion goes beyond the parameters and scope of the current study. That said, the concept of work passion warrants further consideration by both researchers and practitioners. This is especially so given the economically challenging era in which these charitable organisations are asked to contribute towards both social and business-related objectives (Bingham & Walters, 2013), and despite their arguably under-resourced capacity including at personnel level (McGuire, 2008). As a consequence, managers will need to be more “frugal and wise with their decisions as they seek to recruit, foster and retain qualified and motivated personnel” (Zigarmi et al., 2009, p. 301), an attitude which it is hoped will assist them to perform the tasks for which they have been assigned responsibility with harmonious passion.

Passion at work, even harmonious passion, is not enough on its own for *transcending* to occur. The concept of trust has also been abstractly identified as playing a key role in the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes in the context of English football. To this concept, and its associative literature, is where this chapter now turns its attention.
5.5.2 Trust

Conceptual differences in how to approach trust\textsuperscript{16} are increasingly evident (Bachmann, 2011; Bigley & Pearce, 1998; Tyler, 2003; Uslaner, 2008). These differences have rendered the scholarly study of trust an exercise “clouded with confusion” (Hwang & Burgers, 1997, p. 67). Consequently, a closer look at the foundations of the concept itself will assist in ‘theoretically’ grasping the place trust has in the process of ‘assessable transcendence’. This is both a necessary and a crucial undertaking if the emerging theory is to be taken forward for further empirical examination. After all, as Bachmann (2011) puts it, “we have now arrived at the crossroads where fundamental decisions regarding the directions of future research are to be made if we [...] want to continue deepening our understanding of the role that trust plays in business contexts” (p. 203).

According to Six and Sorge (2008), trust has been defined as a psychological state in which one intends to accept being vulnerable to the actions of another individual (a trustee). This intention is based upon the expectation that the other will perform a particular action that is important to the trustor (i.e., the person doing the trusting) (cf., Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). Although Six and Sorge (2008) use the word ‘individual’ when defining trust, literature on managerial and business relationships advocates the need to distinguish between micro- and macro-level approaches to trust with different scholars using varying terms to highlight the distinction between the two approaches. For example, Atkinson and Butcher (2003) refer to ‘personal’ and ‘impersonal’ trust; Bachmann (2001) distinguishes the concept in the form of ‘interaction-based trust’ and ‘institutional-based trust’; and, in the context of strategic alliances in particular, Ariño, de la Torre and Ring (2005) talk about ‘inter-personal trust’ and ‘relational quality’.

The concept’s theoretical and empirical treatment, therefore, “remains extremely fragmented” (McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003, p. 91) despite organisational and management scholars’ on-going analysis of the nature and functions of trust over several decades. Building on the distinction between micro- and macro-level trust, Dietz and Hartog (2006) explain this ‘fragmented’ landscape in which trust is examined by pointing to three broad strands in the literature. The first concerns trust within organisations and therefore conceptualises it as an intra-organisational phenomenon (here, e.g., trust between foundation managers and executive personnel of the ‘parent’ club represents individual-based trust). The second strand deals with

\textsuperscript{16} Organisational and management literature on the concept of trust (for all levels of analysis) is extensive. A comprehensive literature review of the concept is beyond the scope of this chapter, as it is for the other concepts that hold ‘assessable transcendence’ (i.e., passion, communication, performance).
trust between organisations, i.e., trust as an inter-organisational phenomenon (here, e.g., between charitable foundations and commercial/statutory organisations). The third strand relates more to marketing principles through its focus trust between organisations and their customers (here, e.g., between foundations and programmes’ participants and/or fans-customers).

Trust, as a key component of ‘assessable transcendence’, seems to be at play in all three of Dietz and Hartog’s (2006) ‘strands’. At intra-organisational level, for example, the research participants agreed that the ‘parent’ football clubs acknowledge the foundations’ ability (as well as their individual abilities as managers) to be a useful ‘partner’ in meeting the club’s business objectives (see, e.g., FLC-fc8 below). At inter-organisational level too, foundation managers emphasised the increased interest commercial businesses outside sport in particular are showing in their operational activities (see, e.g., FLC-fc6 below). Furthermore, the element of trust also has an important place in the relationships these foundations have established (or wish to establish) with those groups of people targeted by CSR-related programmes (see, e.g., PL-fc12 below).

I think there is some trust, I am sure there is trust particularly here because of our track-record at what we have delivered and the positive PR that the club has got from it (FLC-fc8).

The private sector is happy to give you the money and let you go on with it because they don’t have an expertise in that, you are doing it for them (FLC-fc6).

One of the big issues that emerged from recent consultation we’ve done with 20 young people here in our local area is that they don’t trust, not just us, they don’t trust the outside world. Not one they trust. So they see us as a bit of a joke really, you know, coming in, all nice and dressed and parachuting in and parachuting out and making promises and naturally the problem is the on-going social issues that faces everybody in deprived areas. So until you can build their trust all of the amount of money you can put into these schemes [...] (PL-fc12).

For the foundation managers, ‘perceived’ trust from the various stakeholder groups that have – with varying degrees of directness – a bearing on their decision-making seems to be the necessary antecedent for the optimization of both social and business performance. As the above-mentioned extracts illustrate, trust seems to have a central role in the implementation of CSR-related programmes. This study, therefore, corroborates literature on CSR in English football (e.g., Bingham & Walters, 2013; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Jenkins & James, 2012; Parnell et al., 2013; Walters, 2009; Walters & Chadwick, 2009) that has also argued – more or less explicitly – that external stakeholder groups believe these managers and their organisations ‘can do the job’ of successfully delivering impactful CSR-related programmes. This
consensus, however, raises the question of whether what the foundation managers refer to as trust is actually ‘trust’ or ‘trustworthiness’. The conflation of these two distinctive concepts (Hardin, 2002) often leads to operationalisation issues (Dietz & Hartog, 2006), which in turn further perplex the already convoluted trust research landscape. To avoid adding to the confusion, the main components and dimensions of these two concepts are provided below. This summary partly aligns the current study with the works of Sharp, Thwaites, Curtis and Millar (2012) and Dietz and Hartog (2006), and endeavours to demonstrate the relevance of both concepts to, and clarify their role in, the emerging theory of ‘assessable transcendence’.

5.3.2.1 Trust and trustworthiness: components and dimensions
The five most common components of trust that have been identified in the literature are uncertainty, risk, vulnerability, expectations, and interdependence (Hudson, 2004; Rousseau et al., 1998).

Uncertainty relates to the limited knowledge that the trustor has regarding whether the trustee will do what s/he has been trusted to do. Because such uncertainty entails the possibility of the trustee failing to meet his/her obligations to the trustor, the latter takes a risk in trusting the former. As Rousseau and his colleagues have put it, “uncertainty is the source of risk, and risk creates the opportunity for trust” (1998 –cited in Sharp et al., 2012, p. 3). Although uncertainty can be the source of risk, one must also be willing to take on risk in order to trust somebody. Such willingness, expressed in the literature on trust as vulnerability, exists because the trustor has certain expectations that the trustee will accomplish what has been agreed between the two parties. The last component for trusting relationships concerns interdependence between the trustor and trustee. According to Sharp et al. (2012), it is “a situation where the interests of at least one of the parties cannot be fulfilled without dependence on another party” (p. 4). Table 5.3 manifests the five most common components of trust through indicative data upon which ‘assessable transcendence’ has been conceptually grounded.
Table 5.3: Five common components of trust.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components of trust</th>
<th>Illustrative data extracts</th>
<th>Notes / Comments</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Uncertainty</strong></td>
<td>&gt; One of our soft outcomes is to try and get more fans, so how do you prove that that’s happening? Our marketing department is working to re-develop our customer relations management system, our CRM system, so they can actually start to measure that. So a lot of the work we are doing as community group is hard to justify, so we are doing that work and we are hoping then that the CRM system in the next five years will be at least prove, little Johnny started on that program and now look at him, he has left school and he just bought himself – he comes every week to the game, he bought himself a seat or he bought himself a shirt. So we can actually say, look, we saw him first when he was a five year old child on one of our programs and now he has become a fan. So we won't really know if that has been a success for another three to five years probably when the CRM system is able to kick out that information for the club (PL-fc1a).</td>
<td>The football club trusts the foundation to contribute towards the former’s business-related objectives. However, neither of the two (club and foundation) is certain that the trustee (i.e., the foundation) will fulfill its obligation. Granted, this is partly because of the nature of the task, but still uncertainty is ‘there’. The ‘constitutional’ relationship that exists between the club and the foundation does not exclude the possibility of ‘uncertainty’ regarding the latter’s performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Risk</strong></td>
<td>&gt; [...] it’s the people; and a lot of anything is about is people, people are vital. I mean in one local authority we have great people who understand, are open to change, and not scared of taking risks (FLC-fc4).</td>
<td>Statutory organisations are willing to take risks and to trust the football foundations for social change - is risk higher in this context?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vulnerability</strong></td>
<td>&gt; So, he’s quite happy that we are seeing between four and five thousand children a week and they are all getting a sample or a taste of the football club and not entirely picking up their football allegiance from the television. So, his attitude [i.e., the CEO’s] is for us to be out and do as much as we possibly can. And for children to enjoy this football club as much as is possible and he is willing to back that up in all sorts of ways, practical ways like ticket allocation etc. (FLC-fc10).</td>
<td>Despite the uncertainty that the task entails [e.g., to create the new generation of the club’s supporters], willingness to back-up the foundation’s programmes is expressed in various ways.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Expectations**    | > So I have an obligation to meet the aspirations and expectations of the board but at the same time the board is not naive enough to think that we don’t have a very significant responsibility to the club (FLC-fc8).  
> The Chief Executive here is very, very focused on community work, therefore he puts pressure on everyone [...] He’s got a view on what he sees as community work (FLC-fc10).  
> If you have built that expectation and you let somebody down, it's worse than ever having the experience in the first place (FLC-fc8). | The manager is trusted by both the foundation's Board and the club. Both, however, do so on return of outcomes: the Board of Trustees expects socially-related outcomes, the club business-related outcomes. Programme participants also trust the foundation and expect it to help them move forward. |
| **Interdependence** | > Our Chief Exec loves talking about our work. He seems genuinely very proud of it [...] they trust us because they know what we are doing and I guess they are happy to support us [...] don’t forget the other departments rely on us a lot, not a lot but you know, we work for them, e.g., marketing runs the soccer schools but we staff the soccer schools; also we work closely with them when the commercial department do events; e.g., some corporate sponsors want some coaching done [...] the club’s marketing department going to meet the new sponsors and central business partners, they say, this is what we can bring to you; but also we have this community department who does this and this (PL-fc8).  
> We rely on the football club in all sorts of ways and we service this football club in all sorts of ways (FLC-fc7). | Foundations in the English football sector have proved to be successful and popular largely thanks to their constitutional relationship with the football clubs and the latter’s appeal. Not least, many programmes are in place thanks to funding that the clubs have allocated for such purposes. These foundations, however, also assist (albeit not as much as they would like) the football clubs in achieving business-related objectives. |
Although the purpose of this study is not to determine the weightiness of each of these components of trust (or indeed the concept of trust itself), there is little doubt that trust is not a simple “either/or” matter (Dietz & Hartog, 2006, p. 563). In fact, “the degree to which one trusts another varies along a continuum of intensity” (Williams, 2001, p. 379). The current study posits that the degree to which trust exists between the foundations at the internal (i.e., with the ‘parent’ football club) and at the external (i.e., with corporate/statutory organisations and, crucially, programmes’ participants) level will partly determine the degree of transcending that can be achieved. It has also been suggested that the dimensional characteristics of trust range from absolute to partial. At one end of the dimension is a ‘critical laissez-faire’ approach from the club’s perspective towards the foundations, as well as from external organisations in liaising with these foundations, in the belief that the latter have the ability to perform the assigned task satisfactorily. The other extreme relates to the various ‘challenges’ (as discussed in manoeuvring) that foundation managers have to overcome, and thus demonstrates a lack of trust at both internal and external level.

The dimensional characteristics of what is posited to be the extrinsic stimulus for facilitating the managerial decision-making process offer a much more rounded manifestation once they have been integrated into the relevant ‘body of knowledge’. Accordingly, Figure 5.4 summarises the dimensions of trust as identified in the

17 Dietz and Hartog (2006) propose this continuum while referring specifically to intra-organisational trust; that is, trust inside organisations which relates to individual-based trust. Although this is in line with the study’s focus on the individual level of analysis, it should be noted that the emerged concept of trust extends beyond the micro-level approach, having been conceptualized at inter-organisational level too. To some extent, this becomes evident in an earlier work by Child and Faulkner (1998) who, in the context of strategic alliances, assign three dimensions to organisational trust, namely: calculative trust, mutual understanding and bonding (i.e., identity-based trust).
At the left-hand extreme of the continuum, Rousseau et al. (1998) have talked about the degree of “deterrence-based trust” (p. 399) which chiefly manifests distrust rather than trust itself. This dimension of (sic) trust, therefore, encompasses none of the five most common components of trust discussed in this section. In other words, from the trustor's perspective, there is no risk to be taken, no spark of vulnerability, and thus no expectations of a trustee’s goodwill to be assumed. This is because when distrust exists, compliance is guaranteed through external sanctions and force (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). This study has generally showed that distrust – as conceptualized in the literature – is not at play in the research area, and that managerial decision-making in the charitable foundations is not affected by means of ‘sanctions and force’ (thanks in part to the independent status these organisations enjoy). As one foundation manager puts it: “if it is a major decision then constitutionally the club has the right to veto. But it hasn’t used that at any point; and I can’t imagine any reason why they would unless they felt that the reputation of the club was at risk” (FLC-fc8).

Neither, however, can the “calculus-based” trust coined by Lewicki and Bunker (1996, p. 119) be considered as ‘real trust’ since the trustor approaches the relationship from a purely cost-benefit analysis perspective and with a continuing “deep a priori suspicion of the other [i.e., trustee]” (Dietz & Hartog, 2006, p. 563). In just one characteristic case, this sort of suspicion was expressed by a foundation manager who stated that “for some within the club we may exist because there is a statutory obligation to have a community organisation [...] in fact, one of the trustees doesn’t even consider us a real charitable organisation; for this person we are a mere political gimmick [...]” (PL-fc9). Calculus-based trust is the result more of macro-level evidence than of each individual’s relationship with the trustor (see Figure 5.4). For example, at intra-organisational level (e.g., foundation managers vs. football club’s executives), this type of trust primarily exists as a result of the ‘unproblematic’ relationship between trustors and trustees evidenced throughout this study. One of the participants has put it in a very illuminating way: “[...] I am sure there is [trust] because of our track-record and what we have delivered. Financially it’s wiping its face, operationally it’s not causing any problems, PR is going well, so why would they worry?” (FLC-fc8).

According to Lewicki and Bunker (1996), so-called ‘real trust’ (see ‘threshold’ in Figure 5.4) begins when the trustor stops being suspicious and s/he has been confidently persuaded that the trustee has the competence needed to cope with the task. In other words, the trust is built upon the trustor’s prior knowledge (hence ‘knowledge-based’) that despite any uncertainties and entailed risks, history has
proven that expectations will be met. At inter-organisational level, with studies evidencing, for instance, the clear overlap between sport and healthy living (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007), it is not surprising that statutory organisations are becoming increasingly willing to take the ‘risk’ (and therefore become vulnerable) to use football as a conduit for delivering health programmes and initiatives designed around physical exercise.\textsuperscript{19} Indeed, as various research participants have mentioned throughout this study, “the local authority and the Primary Care Trust recognised [emphasis added] that we can meet people that they can’t reach, so it’s working together since our values as a football club are to ensure that we reach these people” (PL-fc6).

Over time, however, the degree of trust can become more subjective and emotional in nature. Rousseau et al. (1998) call this strong trustor confidence in the other party’s ability to meet set expectations "relational-based trust" (p. 399). Here, it is the quality of the relationship that defines and determines trust between the two parties rather than the actual trustee’s specific behaviours (Dietz & Hartog, 2006). The importance of having (or developing) 'relational-based' trust has been highlighted in certain cases as being a crucial prerequisite (a) for maintaining the quality of delivery (see, e.g., FLC-fc2), (b) for strengthening existing collaborations (see, e.g., FLC-fc4); or (c) as a ‘safety net’ should the uncertain environment in which these organisations operate put these managers in difficult situations (see, e.g., Fb-L4). The extracts below illustrate these scenarios:

I took over Project and Operations Manager role in 2004. I had a fulltime chairman at the time who basically took the higher strategic role of the Foundation, but I worked in partnership with him. Got to a point in 2008 when his direction and my direction was slightly different; there was a quality-quantity conundrum going on, do we go for – we have grown, we had 52 full-time members of staff by this point and it was a 2.3 million turnover a year. And the chairman’s view was that we go down a quantity route, we put people who may be qualified to deliver certain programs to make sure that we had the money to service the base that was 100,000 a year month salaries. My view was much more, long turnaround – I had been there for 11 years building relationships with schools, building relationships with the organizations that was a trust relation, it was a quality relation; if you don’t deliver quality then you might be around for 12 months but you certainly won’t be around the next year. So actually, we agree to disagree and I took voluntary redundancy at the time (FLC-fc2).

\textsuperscript{19} For example, the FLs football foundations engage more than 50,000 participants through more than 300 locally-based health projects on an annual basis (FL Trust, 2010). Moreover, the latest evaluation report by the PL (Creating Chances 2012, available at www.premierleague.com) mentions that PL Health programmes in 16 football clubs have engaged more than 10,000 men, and over 70\% made positive health changes as a result.
[...] the community was changing about how public sector money was being spend and was coming into local authorities and organisations; I developed quite a lot of really positive relationships with people over time just because the first manager I always had here said to me, “if you can help someone, you should always try and help because you never know when you might need some help off that,” and that’s what we did for about 18 months, we helped everyone, anyone and everyone, and all of a sudden it was like a snowball effect where the police would phone me up and say, “Great work that we did, in six months we got 20 grand, we want to put this program in place”, and the local authority would phone us up and say, “Listen, we have got this amount of money to do this program” and all of a sudden it starts snowballing (FLC-fc4).

It’s something they can’t control, coming to managers; this is beyond their control. So they have to sort of put this aside, but it just makes their life a little bit more difficult. So what you are trying to do is you are trying to build relationships with teachers, head teachers, local authorities, sponsors, funding bodies, they can transcend that, they can say: “well, we know you are having a hard time, but you do a lot for the community”. And I think that’s the job. But it doesn’t make the job any easier; that’s for sure (Fb-L4).

The right-hand extreme of the continuum (Figure 5.4) might come close to what this study has been referring to as ‘absolute’ trust. In hindsight, however, what has been expressed as ‘absolute’ seemed to also encompass a certain ‘lack of interest’ from the trustor’s point of view. Conversely, Lewicki and Bunker (1996, p. 122) refer in “identification-based trust” to an identity common to both parties (trustor and trustee) in which “each can represent the other’s interests with their full confidence” (Dietz & Hartog, 2006, p. 564). However, as discussed earlier (see section 5.4.2.4), in the present context there exists (at least at intra-organisational level) a dysfunctional affiliation that requires manoeuvring in order to move closer to transcending. As a consequence, to suggest that ‘identification-based’ trust exists between the foundations and football clubs might not accurately reflect the actual state-of-affairs in this organisational context.

An interesting question may be into which dimensional box in the above-mentioned continuum the key concept of ‘assessable transcendence’ should be placed; however, providing a concrete answer to such a question falls outside the scope of this study. That said, some observations drawn from preceding discussions within this chapter may, in turn, provide the necessary groundwork for further research.

It appears that the two extreme ends of the trust continuum – if applicable at all – may only constitute rare cases within the English football sector and thus represent an exception rather than a rule. As regards calculus-based trust, an enlightening insight comes from the only football club CEO to take part in this research. While this person openly expresses his/her uncertainty about whether ‘trusting’ the so-called
idea of CSR would be beneficial to the ‘parent’ company, s/he nevertheless decides to bring the ‘community-based work’ the foundation does closer to the football club. The participant therefore shows that, despite suspicion, benefits of trust have outweighed the potential costs:

I am being honest with you. I am yet to be convinced and I haven’t really paid a great deal of interest in social responsibility […] I have to see the arguments and discuss it, I mean I have to understand it better to see, but I am quite receptive to new ideas. If it was proven to me, there were benefits to the company, then, yes; but, I think that’s going to take, two, three, four, five years […] I mean four months ago, our Football in the Community Department wasn’t part of the [club’s] family and they probably are our best marketing tool; other than a winning football team. So we now embrace them and brought them into the club, we support them and they, in turn, go out into the community and spread the name of the Football Club (PL-fc5).

Furthermore, at intra-organisational level, the foundation managers’ (frequently) long-standing service\(^{20}\) could favour the establishment of a relational-based trust with the football club. However, over the last decade or so changes in football club ownership (Nauright & Ramfjord, 2010; Walters & Hamil, 2010) have inevitably brought in new personnel at executive level and possibly a differentiated staff turnover in the organisations as a whole. These factors may render the establishment of ‘relational-based’ trust unrealistic. Without dismissing the possibility of a relational-based trust between foundation managers and a club’s executives, the following extracts largely indicate that while the matter of trust in relation to CSR in English football might have passed the so-called ‘trust threshold’, knowledge- rather than relational-based trust seems to be the normative model.

I wouldn’t have existed here, survived here if they didn’t believe in it too and that’s actually been through three ownerships; that’s continued to three ownerships while I have been here. So we have maintained that, and developed it, and I am absolutely convinced that at every single level there is great pride in that (PL-fc2).

I think I am in here, we are fortunate, we have senior management who can see the benefit of what we are trying to do, I think they understand that. I think sometimes there will be some owners who embrace it more than others and I have been here for a long time, so I have seen quite a lot of ownerships, so I have seen different levels of commitment to what we do (FLC-fc1).

\(^{20}\) Years at the managerial post at the time of the interview; some examples: PL-fc1=7, PL-fc2=7, PL-fc3=8, PL-fc4=32, FLC-fc1=16, FLC-fc4=6, FLC-fc5=15, FLC-fc6=5, FLC-fc7=24, FLC-fc8=6, PL-fc11=9, FLC-fc11=17.
In a space of 2 years we have 3 different owners; the most recent owners – obviously, there hasn’t really been time to see how that’s going to impact, but the people who are working for him have been down here and they looked really positive about what we do. So I am hoping that’s going to remain as positive; there is no reason why not, because I think they can see the difference it makes (PL-fc3).

Building particularly on ‘knowledge-based’ trust, the foundation managers have emphasised their entitlement to trust throughout this study on grounds of their organisations’ quality in delivering community programmes that may have positive social and business results.21 It has also been postulated that trust from various external stakeholder groups is needed in order for transcending to occur. In essence, what the trustees (i.e., the foundation managers) emphasise is their trustworthiness - that is, their quality - in performing those tasks for which they have been assigned responsibility.

However, it must be reiterated here that trust and trustworthiness have been viewed in the literature as distinct, yet related concepts (Hardin, 2002). Sharp and her colleagues (2012, p. 4) draw on the seminal work by Mayer et al. (1995) and explain that trustworthiness comprises three components, namely: ability (i.e., the trustor’s perception of the trustee’s knowledge, skills and competencies); benevolence (i.e., the extent to which a trustor believes that a trustee will act in the best interest of the trustor); and integrity (i.e., the extent to which the trustor perceives the trustee to be acting in accordance with a set of values and norms shared with, or acceptable to, the trustor).

This study’s findings suggest that all three components of trustworthiness are at play from the foundation managers’ point of view (that is, the trustees).22 Ability, for example, is notably supported through the argument that transcending can now be achieved (this suggestion is also dependent on these managers’ self-assertiveness, see section 5.4.2.3). Furthermore, the components of benevolence and integrity are both expressed through the micro-social process of safeguarding, in which managers greatly appreciate that what their organisations do should also serve the ‘parent’ club’s business objectives. The extracts below illustrate these two components of trustworthiness:

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21 See, for example, Chapter 4 open categories BEING RECOGNISED and GROWING UP respectively, or in this Chapter section 5.4.2.3 (‘Transcending through self-assertiveness’).

22 This study’s focus has been on the managerial decision-making in the charitable foundations; therefore, the emerged concept of trust can only be theoretically examined from a trustee’s, rather than a trustor’s, perspective. The only exemption has been an early interview with the CEO of a PL football club that proved to offer some very useful insights, despite possible single-informant bias.
I think our chairman here understands that there is a bit of knowledge about community interaction and I am genuinely thinking he respects the fact that such knowledge puts everything we do in the right direction for all parties (FLC-fc5). [BENEVOLENCE]

It is important that the people who are in charge of the brand – and amongst them it is me, of course – understand the brand is there because a lot of people have secured that brand for a long time; so I walk in the footsteps of legends and I am looking after that while I am here; so, if I want to move on and to keep the brand what it is when I leave, but stronger, then I have to secure that (PL-fc4). [INTEGRITY]

The current study acknowledges the importance of distinguishing trust from trustworthiness, as literature on socio-psychological conceptualisations of trust suggests (Sharp et al., 2012). However, it is the concept of trust that supports the emerging theoretical framework ‘assessable transcendence’. This is because the process of transcending requires an extrinsic stimulus, expressed as further willingness (i.e., vulnerability) to rely on these organisations for the optimization of both social and business performance. Managers wish to be trusted more by key stakeholders; the realisation of this wish, they believe, will further facilitate their decision-making with regards to the implementation of CSR-related programmes.

The supply of this ‘missing’ trust, which should facilitate transcending, very much depends on these organisations’ distinctive features (i.e., trustworthiness). This study’s findings demonstrate that the time has now come for trustworthiness to be regarded as a standard amongst the charitable foundations; yet, key stakeholders are not currently offering the extrinsic stimulus (i.e., trust) that would enable foundation managers to make more impactful decisions. One way for a manager/organisation to build up (further) trust is through emphasising his, her, or the organisation’s trustworthiness. This can be achieved through communication: the third concept of ‘assessable transcendence’. In the current study, communication encapsulates something distinct from both affective and cognitive emotions (i.e., passion) and socio-psychological states amongst individuals (i.e., trust), and as such brings a more practical dimension to the discussion. The next section, therefore, will focus on the concept of communication and its associative literature.
5.5.3 Communication

At its simplest, communication is a social interaction through messages (Fiske, 1990). Funk and Filo (2012) consider the function of communication when stating that “the communication of ideas and feelings within a culture serves to both educate and persuade at the individual and societal level” (p. 282). Literature on ‘business and society’ is now paying particular attention to the issue of communication. For example, mainstream CSR handbooks are now devoted to the topic (see, e.g., Ihlen, Bartlett, & May, 2011) while sector-specific CSR handbooks include entire sections on the issue (see, e.g., Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013). As identified while reviewing the literature (see Chapter 2), one of the four key managerial issues related to CSR and sport is communication. In the current study too, communication – as emerged from the micro-social process manoeuvring – constitutes one of the main concepts of ‘assessable transcendence’. In this social process, communication seems to be the moderating factor in transcending social and business performance (social and business performance being themselves abstract manifestations of managerial decision-making resulting from the micro-social processes harmonising and safeguarding respectively). In the emerging theoretical framework, communication is referred to as either external or internal. In organisational communication literature, concerns have been raised about dividing the concept in this way due to the strong links between external and internal communication and the fuzzy organisational boundaries drawn between the two (Cheney & Christensen, 2001). This study recognises the link between internal and external communication, and the terms as used here refer to two interconnected moderating factors: the former is more associated with the social performance, the latter with business performance. As with the previously discussed two concepts (i.e., passion and trust), the aim of this section is to situate the concept of communication within the relevant existing bodies of literature and thus offer an explanation of its relationship to established theoretical frameworks.

5.5.3.1 External communication

Mindful stakeholder management has been identified as one of the most important tasks which today’s sport organisations in general (Russo & Vito, 2011), and football clubs in particular (Dolles & Söderman, 2013; Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Walters & Tacon, 2010), must integrate into their overall strategy. Indeed, the European Commission emphasises that CSR’s continuing importance in today’s business

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23 Organisational communication is one of the four broad domains of communication that addresses more philosophically and theoretically-oriented issues. It has been distinguished from business, management and corporate communication (see Miller (1996), special issue in Management Communication Quarterly).
landscape largely depends on the creation of strong lines of communication between organisations and stakeholders (Podnar, 2008). In the football sector, social activities are increasingly being disclosed through formal means of communication (Slack & Shrives, 2008), albeit with significant variations across national contexts (Kolyperas & Sparks, 2011). Generally, however, CSR-related undertakings remain under-communicated (Jenkins & James, 2012), and are usually peripheral to the wider football clubs’ reporting (Morrow, 2013).

Mainstream literature that focusses on the strategic implications of CSR implementation has distinguished the functions of communication as persuasive and/or informative (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006). While persuasive communication aims to positively and directly influence the company’s customers towards purchasing products and/or services, the purpose of informative communication is mainly to build reputation and facilitate various positive knock-on effects for the business (Podnar, 2008). Throughout this study, foundation managers have gestured towards the need for greatly improved informative communication with external stakeholders. Indeed, literature has identified low awareness of an organisation’s CSR activities amongst external stakeholders as a principal barrier to reaping strategic benefit from those activities (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2008; Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2007). It has been postulated, therefore, that informative communication with external stakeholders could indirectly contribute towards transcending social performance; that is, increasing the depth and breadth of CSR-related programmes.

In one of the final interviews conducted to refine the theory that emerged from this study,24 a foundation manager reiterated what other participants had previously reported regarding communication:

> For me communication is a massive thing. We need people to know what we do, we need people to know who we are, you know, and I don’t think we do that enough for the moment [...] we also need to be looking at communicating what we do to potential partners, potential funders and again we don’t do that; if you look at the community page on the website it includes children’s birthday parties and it doesn’t tell you anything about what we do. And having previously worked for a funder I know that the first thing they will do when they get an application in is to go and look at the website (FLC-fc12).

Although improved informative communication could bring these organisations closer to their strategic objectives (and to [local] society’s needs), it is crucial to identify which external stakeholders these foundation managers have in mind. The above data excerpt includes a number of interesting points: (a) the firm

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24 Refer to Table 3.4 in Chapter 3.
recognition that communication is very important; (b) the insufficient way in which the issue has been embraced so far; (c) the superficial –if not unnecessary – content that is disseminated; (d) the key role of the website in the communication process and (e) the need for targeting specific stakeholder groups with whom, or through whom, CSR-related programmes can be realised. This last point is what the concept of (external) communication signifies within the social process ‘assessable transcendence’. An enhanced communication strategy to the general public may well increase the foundation’s profile (and by extension, the football club’s brand image/reputation), but it cannot help transcend (social) performance. In the two vignettes below, the strategic development manager of a charitable foundation makes the crucial distinction:

The PFA have a magazine that they do every three months which focuses on players, and what players do in the community which is great because they are role models and ambassadors and everything. We realised after five years of doing this profile that we have never been in the magazine. Seriously, so we thought hang on, it is part of our job. So we’ve done that, so it’s going in the next issue [...] But what do we get out of that? Realistically, what are we going to get out of it? It is not going to help us particularly, is it? It’s not going to get us more funding, it’s not going get us the resources, not going to get us an extension to our partnerships with NHS or local authority. But you know, it’s nice to get – I guess, still a recognition…But do I care if people, say in Portsmouth, see it or not? Realistically - and I am the strategic development manager - if someone in Portsmouth gets an idea from us, great; but it doesn’t help me do my job. It’s not going to help me get more access money or anything else, is it? Yeah, we build a reputation, but… (PL-fc10).

I think, over the 18 months here particularly we have built up the lines of communication with the council and the NHS. And they are probably for us the most important communication lines because yeah, it’s great to get messages out to the town through the paper or television or whatever. But actually the lines of communication with NHS and local authority have to be clear. […] All I can say is it is critical. It’s absolutely vital that you have those clear lines (PL-fc10).

By targeting these salient stakeholder groups, foundation managers do not just increase the potential for transcending to occur; they may also indirectly help reduce the challenges they face regarding the external communication of CSR-related programmes. This ‘struggle’ results from the frequent cynicism evoked by the contradictory business environment within which managerial decisions must be taken.
There will be people who say, ‘It’s just a way the football club solving its conscience; PR’. Well, it’s not, actually underneath it is a massive [sic] bloody education program (FLC-fc5).

We don’t tell the story because in this country people don’t like good news [...] I think this country is extremely cynical about CSR unless they are told the real reasons [...] I think CSR, to a great deal of people, certain research I did in the private sector showed that people were very cynical to CSR; now people do these things simply to look good, they don’t do them to do good (Fb-L2).

Morsing, Schultz and Nielsen (2008) offer a model which may assist foundation managers in both dealing with such cynicism and focusing on the salient stakeholders through tailor-made CSR content. Morsing et al.’s (2008) CSR communication model consists of two processes targeting different stakeholder groups. The first, the ‘expert CSR communication process’, is aimed towards – to use examples from the current study – local authorities, statutory organisations (e.g., police, the NHS), state schools, local community organisations, and supporters’ trusts as well as private sector organisations that liaise through sponsorship(s) with both the charitable foundation and the football club. The second process, defined by Morsing et al. (2008) as the ‘endorsed CSR communication process’ is an indirect way of communicating CSR content to larger, less distinct groups of stakeholders (e.g., fans, local residents, international supporters etc.). This indirect communication is performed by “elite readers” (Morsing et al., 2008, p. 105), ‘experts’ from the first process who convey knowledge of CSR-related work to these groups (see Figure 5.5 below). The larger groups may be less influential for the implementation of CSR, yet are still valuable stakeholders. To put this in a narrower context: given the often dysfunctional affiliation between the charitable foundations and the ‘parent’ football clubs,25 one could even argue that a more effective strategy for the latter to be ‘convinced’ of the foundations’ critical role in today’s football environment would through an ‘endorsed CSR communication process’.

25 See in this Chapter, section 5.4.2.4.
Focussing on the salient stakeholders will not only help *transcending* to occur but should also assist in challenging cynicism. This is because CSR communication via third party experts is generally perceived as “a key to avoid appearing as a self-complacent and self-serving organisation in the eyes of the general public” (Morsing et al., 2008, p. 107). Indeed, empirical research has shown that consumers’ reaction to a company’s CSR engagement tends to be more positive when this is learnt from a neutral and independent organisation rather than the company itself (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Yoon, Gurhan-Canli, & Schwarz, 2006). In other words, “the less controllable the communicator is, the more credible it is, and vice versa” (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010, p. 13). One participant illustrates the point:

> I can sit here and we can talk until 10 o’clock tonight and I could tell you the best things in the world, but it’s just talk; it’s just me telling you, we are brilliant, because that’s my job; but what I would rather do is introduce yourself a partner and they can talk to you about the partnership or produce a testimony or actually some hard evidence that says this works and this makes a difference or this person etc. (FLC-fc2).

In the context of English football, the increasingly popular and instrumental ‘supporters’ trusts’ can play the role of the ‘third party expert’ in this process. As Hamil and Morrow (2011) have aptly put it, “the engaged nature of clubs’ stakeholders presents an opportunity to promote stakeholder involvement strategies around CSR communication, rather than one way stakeholder information strategies” (p. 164). Some foundations are doing this by “get[ing] the fans involved in the work we do. So we do projects that can get more and more fans involved, it’s like ‘tell me I will listen, show me I will see, involve me I will understand’; so the more we get people involved, then the more they will understand the work we are doing” (PL-fc4). Such two-
way communication approaches, articulated as “sensegiving” and “sensemaking” (Morsing & Schultz, 2006, p. 352), or as “pushing” and “pulling” (Walker et al., 2010b, p. 192) can even help the foundation managers understand what matters most to the recipients of these community programmes and then tailor activities to their needs. Responding in this way increases chances for both business and social transcendence.

Moreover, this double-process model may offer a solution to another related issue foundation managers face concerning external communication. Research participants have mentioned that terminology associated with CSR (even with the acronym itself) causes difficulty, particularly amongst fans and the general public, in coming to grips with what it is all about:

Through the ‘endorsed CSR communication process’, however, only a simplified version of CSR content reaches the less ‘instrumental’ stakeholder groups. This simplification is carried out by the ‘elite readers’ for whom the essential ‘facts and figures’, – that is, the “rather congenial [...] scientific discourse” (Morsing et al., 2008, p. 106) – does not necessarily constitute ‘unaccustomed parlance’. Indeed, this distinction has been acknowledged by the participants, with one explaining that CSR is “a word that’s always been used by businesses, corporations [...] there are more business people coming into the game who have maybe come from those organizations who have used it previously” (FLC-fc1).

Although described separately, the two abovementioned communication processes are actually highly interdependent in the sense that without ‘facts and figures’ reaching the instrumental stakeholder groups, the ‘endorsed communication process’ cannot be realised. In the context of this discussion, this means that cynicism cannot be strategically dealt with unless both processes are taking place. That said, sophisticated communication to influential external stakeholders requires, first and foremost, capacity from the foundations’ perspective; that is, the allocation

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26 See open category UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE
27 See Chapter 4, Open Categories.
of necessary resources such as in-house or outsourced personnel. However, both this study and relevant literature (e.g., Jenkins & James, 2012; McGuire, 2008) have emphasised the under-resourced capacity, including personnel, of these charitable foundations. Referring specifically to the issue of communication, one participant makes it clear: “we have consciously made decisions that we can’t do certain things because we are not big enough yet” (PL-fc10). One way for these managers to deal with the capacity issue within their organisations may be through closer collaboration with the ‘parent’ company. This in turn, however, requires enhanced communication at the intra-organisational or internal level; such communication is the focus of the following section.

5.5.3.2 Internal Communication

Bovée and Thill (2000) define internal communication as “the exchange of information and ideas within an organisation” (p. 7). In the present study, however, internal communication goes beyond a mere exchange of information and has more instrumental connotations. In essence, the meaning attached to the concept ‘internal communication’ relates to managerial endeavours to secure more buy-in from the ‘parent’ football club by using interpersonal influence tactics based on the logic of reciprocity. Interpersonal influence tactics have been generally defined as actions people take to change the attitudes, beliefs or behaviours of target individuals (Barry & Shapiro, 1992). Indeed, the emerging social process ‘assessable transcendence’ posits that in order for the transcendence of business performance to occur, foundation managers, through the micro-social process manoeuvring, must use different ‘tactics’ to overcome the ‘constraints’ and ‘challenges’ encountered in their relationship with the football club.28

Yukl and Falbe (1990) argue that one of the most important determinants of managerial effectiveness is success in influencing subordinates, peers and superiors. The peculiar and paradoxical29 organisational context of the present study, in which the boundaries between foundation and ‘parent’ company are frequently ill-defined, makes the examination of this type of ‘internal communication’ challenging. This is particularly so because foundation managers are trying to influence ‘colleagues’ without having the formal authority to do so. Paraphrasing Cohen and Bradford (1989, p. 7), a foundation manager cannot ‘order’ the club’s marketing manager to integrate a community programme into his/her potentially already set agenda; ‘command’ the club’s CEO to back a proposal to attach a charity to a sponsorship;

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28 It is worth remembering here that manoeuvring and its associative properties (i.e., ‘constraints’, ‘challenges’ and ‘tactics’) refers to organisations beyond the football club (as implicitly discussed in the previous section, see 5.5.3.1)

29 See section 5.4 in this Chapter.
‘demand’ players participate in specific community programmes; or generally ‘fight’ top management (i.e., the club’s owner(s)) for greater resources.

According to Bradford and Cohen (1989), in the absence of formal authority influence is acquired through principles of reciprocity. Reciprocity is “probably the best known exchange rule in Social Exchange Theory” (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 875), and the latter is amongst the most influential theories for understanding workplace behaviour (ibid.). Social Exchange Theory (SET) propounds that individuals interact with others because they expect to benefit from this interaction. Gouldner (1960) outlined the nature of reciprocity within exchange and offered three different types of the concept: (a) reciprocity as a folk belief, (b) reciprocity as a moral norm, and (c) reciprocity as a transactional pattern of interdependent exchanges. The first type entails the cultural belief that people eventually get what they deserve; that is, “everything works out in the end” (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 876). The second type refers to the norms prescribing how an individual should behave, and that those who follow these norms are obligated to behave reciprocally (ibid). The third type of reciprocity requires a bidirectional transaction upon, and subject to, which outcomes are based (hence interdependent).

Certainly, these three types of reciprocity are not mutually exclusive. However, within these foundation managers’ organisational context – the context in which they make decisions with the potential to enhance the outcomes of their jobs – the third type of reciprocity seems to guide their actions most. These organisational actors, therefore, are trying to accomplish the task of securing as large and as consistent a buy-in possible from the ‘parent’ football club in exchange for contributing towards the latter’s business-related objectives. This endeavour is based on the belief that transcending cannot be achieved by either the foundation (i.e., being ‘independent’) or the club (i.e., being ‘dependent’) in isolation; instead, for these individuals the defining characteristic of social exchange is interdependence (Molm, 1994), which involves mutual and complementary arrangements (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This discussion recalls that relating to the concept of trust, with interdependence being one of trust’s main components. This is, of course, not surprising given that trust has been identified as the critical social exchange mediator (Molm, Takahashi, & Peterson, 2000).

In their seminal work, Bradford and Cohen (1989) have argued that in interpersonal exchanges within organisational contexts “exchange rates” (p. 10) are not restricted to common monetary currencies, even when the agent is a manager and the target a subordinate (although in this case monetary transactions may be the sole currency in the form, e.g., of money or promotion). When, however, organisational actors
(e.g., a foundation manager) try to influence colleagues (e.g., the club’s marketing manager) or supervisors (e.g., the (sic) Chairman of the football club), then these agents need to broaden the range of what can be exchanged between themselves and their targets. Bradford and Cohen (1989) use the metaphor of ‘currencies’ to formulate five categories which illustrate what might be important to agents and targets during the process of organisational influence (see Table 5.4).

Of course, several currencies can be traded across several categories depending on what the agent is seeking to achieve by the target’s ‘involvement’. For example, a foundation manager may influence the club’s marketing manager by stressing that the latter’s involvement in a particular community programme will have significance for the club’s wider strategic positioning (i.e., an inspiration-related currency) which, as a result, can aid in his/her promotion when the opportunity arises (i.e., position-related currency), the foundation manager having openly expressed his/her appreciation and indebtedness to this person in various club board meetings (i.e., personal-related currency).
Without dismissing the possibility of several currencies working together, it has become evident in the present study that reciprocity is sought, by and large, through task-related currencies. Crucially for the creation of mutually satisfactory exchanges, the foundation managers’ ‘internal communication’ seems to be in line with the four principles of exchange process suggested by Bradford and Cohen (1989). First of all, the micro-social process *safeguarding* has shown that in general foundation managers think of the club’s personnel as potential allies rather than adversaries.
(this is not always the case, however, from the target’s point of view, hence the need for manoeuvring). Secondly, they know that their ‘targeted ally’ – here the club – exists and operates in a peculiar, challenging business environment and that its people (e.g., commercial or marketing executives) have their own objectives to meet and targets to attain (‘[…] the reason why that happens because their people are incentivized to put their wages on commission’ (FLC-fc9)). Thirdly, foundation managers are aware that they – and by extension their organisations – possess ‘currencies’ that can be valuable for the club and may be exchanged for additional buy-in. This additional buy-in is, as has already been noted, necessary in order for transcending to occur. The recognition by a PL club’s CEO that the foundation is “probably our best marketing tool, other than a winning football team” (PL-fc5) certainly identifies a ‘currency’ that the agent can use in influencing the ‘targeted ally’. Fourthly, foundation managers have also started understanding the exchange transaction itself – albeit at various degrees of effectiveness – and so win-win outcomes can be achieved. One participant from the League recognizes that the ‘exchange transaction itself’ is one element that can be further developed from the foundation managers’ perspective.

They [i.e., the FOOTBALL CLUB] are probably not interested in things that you or I might be interested in here. They probably are interested in how many more fans come to the game and how many more people buy burgers and more people buy shirts, media shows […] I think our smartest schemes now are beginning to look for ways they can do that. So they can go back to them and just show look, it might be something on the back of some sponsorship deal. We brought you the sponsor because they wouldn’t sponsor you as a club but they will sponsor the community initiative; then we will get a bigger partnership for the club by doing these schools work we have brought, e.g., extra 10,000 tickets over this season which brought you whatever the income […] I think that’s what they need to do a little bit smarter [i.e., the FOUNDATIONS] (Fb-L4).

One of the key points in Bradford and Cohen’s (1989) fourth principle of the exchange process is that success in influencing others is both situational and relationship-dependent (between the agent and the target), and consequently overuse of the same technique can diminish success rates. After all, as Yukl and Falbe (1990) point out, influence objectives vary and so a manager can find him/herself trying to influence others to, for example (a) modify their plans and schedules, (b) approve and support the manager’s plans and proposals, (c) provide additional resources needed to accomplish major tasks, (d) accept and carry out new assignments, and

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30 See Chapter 4, open category ACKNOWLEDGING and section 4.3.2.2.1 (Appreciation).
31 This comes close to what literature on the concept of (individual) power calls ‘expert power’ (see French & Raven’s (1959) five-part typology for a more detailed discussion).
(e) provide relevant and timely information (p. 134). Naturally, therefore, when people want to get their way, they proceed by using various influence tactics (B. van Knippenberg, D., van Knippenberg, Blaauw, & Vermunt, 1999). Indeed, the present study has suggested that foundation managers use different ‘tactics’ in order to overcome ‘constraints’ and abate ‘challenges’, with both these properties containing elements of Yukl and Falbe’s (1990) five objectives.

*Manoeuvring’s* principal property, ‘tactics’, has been dimensionally ranged from indirect and interpersonal (i.e., soft) to blunt and direct (i.e., firm). However, the dimensional characteristics of ‘tactics’ offer a much more rounded manifestation when integrated into the relevant ‘body of knowledge’. Prior empirical research on influence behaviour has clustered the influence process in a number of tactics (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). In their seminal work, Kipnis and his colleagues (1980) classified the ways in which influence can be exerted by proposing eight categories of tactics: assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, exchange, coalitions, upward appeal, blocking and sanctions. As the name of each category connotes, some tactics offer the target greater freedom than others in deciding whether to accept the influence being wielded (van Knippenberg et al., 1999). Based on the ‘strength’ of each tactic, therefore, subsequent studies (Kipnis, 1984; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988) re-grouped the aforementioned categories to distinguish between hard and soft tactics. As van Knippenberg et al. (1999) explain, “[....] soft tactics can be considered to be less controlling and less aggressive than their harder, more forceful counterparts” (p. 807).

As discussed earlier, foundation managers lack formal authority over their principal ‘targets’ and consequently it is mainly through reciprocity that more buy-in from the ‘parent’ football club can be ensured. Therefore, the use of hard tactics such as ‘blocking’ or ‘sanctions’ would not make strategic sense and (unsurprisingly) has not emerged in the present study as a part of managerial decision-making. In this regard, (internal) communication as explained in this section is aligned more with the work of Yukl and Falbe (1990), which eschews some of the ‘hard’ tactics (such as ‘blocking’ and ‘sanctions’) found in Kipnis et al.’s (1980) seminal study. Table 5.5 details some of the influence tactics proposed by Yukl and Falbe (1990) together with indicative data that illustrates the relevance of ‘assessable transcendence’ to influence behaviour literature.

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32 “Hindering the target in carrying out specific actions” (van Knippenberg et al., 1999, p. 807).
33 “Threatening the target with or carrying out administratively compulsory measures” (ibid.).
**Table 5.5:** Scale definitions of influence tactics (modified by Yukl & Falbe, 1990, p. 133).

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Within the confines of the current thesis, space does not allow for determining the weight each of these individual influence tactics may bear in the foundation managers’ decision-making process. However, it is useful to observe that the foundation managers generally adopt soft and reciprocity-based influence tactics whereby they recruit influential stakeholders through consultation, coalitions, and ‘upward appeals’; through sensegiving and sensemaking processes, the managers hope that these tactical actions will convince these salient stakeholders of the value of closer collaboration with the charitable foundation. It is obvious from this observation that rational-based tactics are lacking in the foundation managers’ communications with the ‘parent’ club. Rational persuasion requires factual evidence and is currently much more in use with external communication, which concerns social performance, rather than the internal communication, which relates to business performance.

Nevertheless, performance is a key manifestation of how foundation managers go about making decisions. As such, it too has a central role in the social process of ‘assessable transcendence’ and will be discussed below in the context of its associative literature.

5.5.4 Performance

In the previous section, it was argued that both immediate organisational context and the broader environment limit foundation managers’ capability to adopt an optimising strategic CSR approach. The purpose of this section to demonstrate that, such constraints on rationality notwithstanding, these decision-makers are far from approaching their tasks irrationally. For example, they do not formulate and implement CSR-related programmes purely because they are passionate (possibly obsessively) about their jobs or because they are trusted by salient stakeholder groups. Rather, a subjective rationality (or as Simon (1957) calls it, bounded rationality) seems to be at play in which managers try to maximise the outcomes possible given their, and others’, constraints and capabilities. This section therefore relates to ‘bounded rationality’, with emphasis on ‘rationality’. In an organisational and management context, the term ‘rationality’ is strongly associated with the concept of performance - the fourth concept holding together and giving meaning to the social process ‘assessable transcendence’.

Performance in nonprofit organisations is a complex issue (Winand, Rihoux, Robinson, & Zintz, 2013). This is especially true when organisations operate with a twofold purpose. Charitable corporate foundations such as those discussed in this study come close to what Clark, Rosenzweig, Long and Olsen (2004) refer to as Double
Bottom Line (DBL) business ventures, which strive to achieve measurable social and financial outcomes. As one manager interviewed specifies: “I am a servant to two masters. I am servant to the club and also to the board of trustees of the foundation; and the foundation’s board is made up by members of the club as well as independent trustees” (FLC-fc8). Furthermore, if one considers within this organisational context that performance is also a social construct which does not exist independently of the beliefs and the actions of individuals (Herman & Renz, 1999), then the idea of performance becomes “fraught with conceptual ambiguities and difficulties in measurement” (Winand et al., 2013, p. 740).

In the emerging theoretical framework, performance is either social- (see, micro-social process harmonising), or business- (see, micro-social process safeguarding) oriented. In essence, in the present thesis the concept offers an abstract manifestation of what the foundation managers strive for (i.e., transcending), largely through manoeuvring. Although presented as distinct issues (see Figure 5.3), from the foundation managers’ point of view the two types of performance are closely tied. Social performance plays the dominant role in their decision-making, not least because a charity’s principal objectives are social in nature. However, managerial decision-making within these organisations also entails a belief that CSR-related programmes can actually contribute to business performance (i.e., the ‘business case’ of CSR). This belief – although authentic – is at the same time tendentious in the sense that it is derived from the managers’ confidence that any evident impact on the club’s business performance can subsequently lead to higher social performance in the foundation. This would follow on from the club’s increased buy-in which could be, in turn, translated into higher commitment and consequently the allocation of the additional resources necessary in order for social performance to transcend. Indeed, Sutherland (2013) provides a personal account of this ‘from within’ and illustrates the difference that support from the ‘parent’ club, itself enjoying benefits from the implementation of a CSR-related programme, can make to the success of an initiative.

35 See also in this Chapter, section 5.3.2.1 (‘Assessable transcendence’ from an evolutionary perspective).
36 See Chapter 2, section 2.5.4.
37 The previous section (i.e., ‘Internal Communication’) provides a partial explanation for this.
38 See section 5.4.2.2 for the role resource dependence theory has in ‘assessable transcendence’.
39 This case study draws on a programme implemented by the Charlton Athletic Community Trust; Sutherland has been the Commercial Director of the ‘parent’ club as well as the founder of the Trust (see Paramio-Salcines et al., 2013, Chapter 19).
This sort of ‘indirect’ rationality towards *transcending* business performance does not, of course, rule out the ‘business case for CSR’ that asserts that a company can ‘do well by doing good’ (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003). As discussed in Chapter 2, the examination of business-related outcomes as a result of CSR engagement in terms of financial (e.g., Inoue, et al., 2011; Trendafilova & Babiak, 2013), reputational (e.g., Giannoulakis & Drayer, 2009; Walker & Kent, 2009), or relational (e.g., Kolyperas & Sparks, 2010; Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2010) performance has produced some preliminary insights.

At practical level, in order for *transcending* (and consequently both social and business performance ‘enhancement’ 40) to be possible, the measurement of CSR-related programmes must go beyond simply influencing initial CSR decisions (Taylor, 2012, p. 69). If organisations are constantly ‘doing’ (e.g., "we spend our time actually doing...We don’t spend our time promoting what we do" FLC-fc10) and not measuring, then not only will accountability suffer but it will also be difficult to see if the work is actually achieving anything (Casey-Challies, 2008). Therefore, the process of logging ‘CSR impact’ is **the prerequisite for transcending** to occur: This observation echoes the second aspect of the decision-making process that has emerged in this study (see 5.5.3), which posits that ‘transcendence’ is not possible without either continuous achievement or the **communication of concrete ‘CSR impact’.**

‘CSR impact’ is a key term in our discussion as, in many ways, it determines performance. Paraphrasing Clark et al. (2004), ‘CSR impact’ refers here to the portion of a total outcome that results directly from a CSR-related programme implemented by a charitable foundation, above and beyond what would have happened anyway. ‘CSR impact’ is the result of measurement, and the latter already plays a prominent role in the overall CSR strategy in English football; throughout this study, respondents have emphasised the importance that measuring has in the context of CSR:

| Everything we do we monitor. Well, let me rephrase that, everything we do which is funded we monitor qualitatively and quantitatively, so we do the whole stats on gender, age, wards, and post or sector they live in, ethnicity and then we do the softer outcomes, we do case studies, interviews and things like that. So we do monitor everything funded because we have to report to funders (FLC-fc6). |
| We evaluate absolutely everything, partly because the funding bodies require it, and then it just becomes an integral part of what you do (PL-fc3). |

40 See Chapter 4, section 4.3.4.2.3 (property ‘enhancement’).
So the culture across my organization has to be of yes, go up, deliver your socks off, but make sure you are capturing the impact that you are having [...] so there is such an importance I think to spend enough time to reflect and evaluate where you are going and what you are doing... (FLC-fc2).

Despite the resource constraints that limit these managers from the kind of thorough and rigorous CSR measurement that could, in turn, help them formulate more potentially effective strategies (i.e., bounded rationality), measurement has nevertheless become integral to the way CSR in English football ‘happens’. ‘Measuring CSR’, however, is one thing; ‘capturing the CSR impact’ is quite another. The three data extracts above have been included here because a careful reading of what the managers say (see emphasis) reveals a number of simple, yet important, issues.

Firstly, from the minute there is input, i.e., an activity is proposed to deal with a social issue, that input can be measured. Once a CSR-related programme has been decided, then outputs can be measured too. The term output refers to the actual undertakings of the programme. Secondly, measurement is a normative undertaking. In other words, it is mainly carried out because these foundations are under pressure to ‘professionalise’ their overall operations.41 Such normative-driven measurement focuses predominantly on outputs, as well as on outcomes, which are the immediate changes triggered by outputs. Lastly, participants also use the term impact, which concerns more long-term consequences resulting from outcomes and has strong connotations with evaluation. Therefore, when FLC-fc2 says “go and capture the impact […] reflect and evaluate” (see third extract) that manager is describing output or, at most, outcomes measurement.

Although the above observations appear to reinforce the assumption that performance (through the necessary exercise of measurement) informs managerial decision-making, at the same time they also imply that measurement may be undertaken to satisfy a number of different purposes. Maas (2008) corroborates this, arguing that different methods of measurement – which are, by no means, mutually exclusive – serve different objectives. For example, screening relates most to inputs; that is, the measurement of whether there is need for a CSR-related programme to be implemented, while other methods such as monitoring and reporting are aimed towards measuring outputs and outcomes. Maas (2008) states that monitoring, in particular, can “assist management with ongoing operational decision-making […] and identify business model modifications” (p. 77). Reporting relates specifically to data gathering for the purpose of informing salient stakeholders (e.g., the leagues,

41 See also section 5.4.2.1 (Harmonising through ‘environmental determinism”).
statutory and private sector organisations, the football club’s management, etc.).\textsuperscript{42} Evaluating, on the other hand, is ex-post impact assessment of achievement that necessitates sustained and follow-up engagement with a programme’s participants. Table 5.6 manifests, through indicative and exemplary data, all four methods of measuring ‘performance’ with regards to CSR in English football.

\textsuperscript{42} See previous section (5.5.3).
### Table 5.6: Four methods of measuring ‘performance’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PURPOSES FOR MEASUREMENT</th>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE DATA EXTRACTS</th>
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| **SCREENING**            | > We investigate and take on the issues of the social trends of [the local area] and we try to predict the issues and the needs and the population changes and trends of that community (PL-fc2).  
> A lot of what we do is the consultations that’s going into it. So we have a lot of people coming to us and say oh, this needs to happen in this area, in this community, and we go in and we speak to the people, and actually that’s not what they want [...] we went in and we spoke to 9,000 girls aged between 11 and 16 around why they didn’t do physical activity, we got all this information about cost, transport, self-esteem all these, the things that you would expect, so we said, right, okay. So if we could reduce these barriers of participation, so make them free, put the money in your local community, girls only sessions, all these kind of stuff, would you come and they were like, yeah, we would, but only if it was an activity that we wanted to do, and we were like, okay, what do you want to do? I mean, it was very much around dance, this thing where they run up buildings and flip over and all these kind of stuff; I think football is about the seventh on the list, well down the list. So we came back and the local authority willing to put in £300,000 to this project and I was kind of, bit of a dilemma because here we are as a football club going to Premier League for £226,000 for £526,000 for a non-football program but it was needed because we have done the consultation, there were massive health and inequalities (FLC-fc4). |
| **MONITORING**           | > [...] so we have to produce our business plans and we need to do in our reviews, every project, every scheme that we run we are doing an evaluation of and we keep record of [...] (FLC-fc3).  
> We have got KPIs (Key Performance Indicators), this is what you know, reporting to them now (FLC-fc11). |
| **REPORTING**            | > When I go asking for money, that’s the first thing anybody looks at, how many people involved, the more people involved the easier to get the money - participation largely [...] in terms of both the fans and investor stakeholders that’s changed significantly and we do very clearly have to look after the investors and the information that they want about what we do in the community [...] it actually demonstrates the value of their investment so I think that’s important (PL-fc2).  
> NHS want to see more kids - not off the street- but being active, that’s all they want to see, kids being active [...] They want them getting in a regular sort of routine if you like; twice a week [...] (FLC-fc7). |
| **EVALUATING**           | > I mean, monitoring and evaluation is something, especially nowadays we have to do a lot of; we are very strong on delivery, we need [...] we recognize our weaknesses and one of them is the paper work. We want to be with the young people but [...] we might be in the school for half a day. Are you really going to say that you have changed children’s’ attitudes in just half a day? I don’t think it’s immediate. It’s more long term. So you might need to revisit these children when they are adults and we are not the only [...] our programmes is a small part of everything else (PL-fc8).  
> [...] there is such an importance I think to spend enough time to reflect and evaluate where you are going and what you are doing [...] CSR is not just about or shouldn’t be just about putting money into the community; it should be getting to understand the community, reacting and supporting and helping the needs in that community and trying to capacity-build within the community. If you are always servicing a need without solving the issue, you just [...] it just continues – if all the community work you have to do is just providing the service and not moving that organization or that community to the next level to empower themselves to become self-sufficient and growing, then we just continue as we are (FLC-fc2).  
> You provide exit routes for your achieved outcomes. So if your target is, say, for the £1k the NHS give you to achieve 80 outcomes – that is, 80 obese people – 80 obese people isn’t going to affect the national obesity strategy. So that is your achieved outcome, you’ve done that. Your exit route will be to provide an exit route for those 80 people to go on to potentially a gym or a sports club or a further education course because they might have enjoyed the pathway – the sustainable element of the programme is how more outcomes can be achieved by using your achieved outcomes (PL-fc12). |
These four types of measurement are closely interrelated. What seems to be the case here, however, is that measuring is mainly undertaken - with various degrees of effectiveness - through screening, monitoring and reporting, yet it is evaluating what will take the overall CSR implementation process to the highest possible level (i.e., satisficing). For these managers, attendance at the local strategic steering groups where the majority of decision-making is made constitutes the screening which allows them to increase the possibility of transcending social performance. Moreover, given that these foundations’ operations rely heavily on funding from statutory organisations (Bingham & Walters, 2013) monitoring outcomes – even as a ‘ticking box’ exercise – and then reporting back to the funders is a natural consequence of their working relationship. This may not be the case with private sector organisations, although increased pressures on the football sector to show its socially responsible ‘face’ (Slack & Shrives, 2008) may promote this kind of measurement.

The point here is not to downplay the importance of screening, monitoring or reporting. In fact, the process of screening demonstrates the strategic orientation these organisations have developed over recent years; monitoring can assist with allocating these organisations’ limited resources more efficiently; and reporting plays a key role at both internal and external levels of communication. For the foundation managers, however, the transcendence of both social and business performance can only happen through evaluation; that is through assessing ‘CSR impact’. Maas (2008) provides a list of 16 available impact measurement methods, but two recently developed conceptual frameworks from sport management scholars may offer a more contextual approach to evaluation. One new model concerns community initiatives (i.e., what the present study refers to throughout as CSR-related programmes) and therefore emphasises social performance, while the other adopts a more football club-oriented approach and thus offers theoretical links with the concept of business performance.

Inoue and Kent’s (2013, pp. 301-303) grid (Figure 5.6) summarises how the social impact of CSR can be better understood along two dimensions: the unit of analysis and the timing of impact. The former dimension is concerned with the beneficiaries of a CSR-related programme at individual and community level. The latter, time-based dimension is related to intermediate or long-term impacts that the implemented programmes are observed to have on either individuals or communities.
One could argue that the Intermediate/Individual box in Inoue and Kent’s (2013) framework most closely describes what charitable foundations in English football do through ‘monitoring’-based measurement.

Seeing young people, some with disabilities, both mental health issues or physical challenges to overcome or just generally people who haven’t had an opportunity in life and starting to turn their lives around for them is incredibly powerful (FLC-fc8).

In order to get closer to the remaining three states, however, two things are required: (a) internal investment in the form of resources - according to Casey-Challies (2008), this is likely to be more cost effective than external development43- and (b) more systematic collaborations with local authorities at evaluation, rather than screening level. In short, transcending social performance refers to what Inoue and Kent (2013) call “cultural and infrastructural changes and improved quality of life in the community” (p. 13) and is accurately illustrated in the vignette below, in which

43 At the time of writing this thesis, the two Leagues, and their associative football clubs, have started working in a more systematic way with Substance; a Manchester-based social research cooperative working in the youth, sport, community and personal development sectors, which helps projects and organisations to improve and demonstrate their impact and value.
one of the participants explains how his/her aspirations inform the way s/he makes decisions about CSR-related programmes.

So our community work has to cover our cost and so there are certain things that we do which are service needs, so we provide a service, we get income from it, but our overall strategy is to improve, the lot of the community to improve […] So our physical regeneration would be to connect all that into sport; in recreational educational environment involving outbound activities […] have you heard [of] [X, a local area]? I hadn't heard of [X] and that's the local borough. There is not a cinema in [X] - this is six times [bigger] [THAN ANOTHER LOCAL AREA], six times - there is no cinema, there is not a bowling alley, there is not a library, there is not a really good swimming pool; i.e., the things that attract people to the area, are very, very basic. Where in most areas there are some affluent people, in [X], however, it's pretty much all deprived areas. So what we want to do, and therefore the aspiration level, is the people see as their acts of passage is to get pregnant, to have a baby, to get a council house, to go on the dole and third generation unemployment. Sometimes we got to break to that cycle and provide something that brings employment to the area; that can bring high income to this area, did I move into [X]? No I didn't. People lived in [A LARGE NEARBY CITY] because the schools are better, because everything is better; but long term, what I want to be involved in, what this community programmes must be involving in is changing that perception and changing that environment, so physical regeneration is part of it.

Inoue and Kent’s (2013) framework offers sound theoretical ground for further exploration of what is described here as social performance. However, it lacks practical provision. By contrast, Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel’s (2011) CSR performance scorecard for professional football clubs (see Figure 5.7) offers a practical way of measuring CSR in this business sector. The scorecard consists of three dimensions of performance, - economic, integrative-political and ethical-emotional – each of which may include a number of key performance indicators. The scorecard is designed to help managers in football clubs (club and foundation as one unit of analysis) to see, as the authors state, “the bigger picture of their approach to CSR as part of their overall strategy” (Breitbarth et al., 2011, p. 732). As it relies on self-assessment, the proposed performance scorecard could perhaps be used most effectively by foundation managers at intra-organisational level to demonstrate the impact CSR-related programmes have in the three given areas, all of which are key for a “social business” like a football club (Morrow, 2013), and consequently broaden the avenues for additional buy-in from the club’s top management.
A potential implementation issue exists with the scorecard, however, relating to the essential commitment of the club (Breitbarth et al., 2011). Manoeuvring may have a role to play here in enabling a foundation manager to collect crucial data to which she or he may not normally have access (e.g., in the economic dimension). If a club’s commitment can be established, then it is hoped that the “evaluation process [will become] routine over time” (Breitbarth et al., 2011, p. 735).

The above discussion demonstrates that CSR assessment must become part of general and formal organisational accountability, both at foundation and football club level and, ideally, integrated between organisations. Walker, Heere and Kim (2013) have recently argued that when it comes to CSR sport organisations are largely characterised by “evaluation-phobia” (p. 309): they are frightened by the possibility of illustrating ineffectiveness and thereby “fostering negative publicity” (ibid., p. 314). The present thesis has found no evidence to support this claim. On the contrary, those who oversee CSR application in English football clubs emphasise the need for much more rigorous and systematic evaluation which would, in turn, improve their organisations’ contribution to (the local) society (see *transcending*).

At the same time, it must not be forgotten that ‘CSR impact’ takes time. It is only over the last decade or so that professional football clubs have begun implementing CSR-related programmes in a systematic and profesionalised fashion. For that reason, Levermore’s (2011; 2013) questioning of the ‘depth’ and ‘breadth’ of CSR measurement in the sport industry may be valid. A focus on monitoring and reporting, two nevertheless important measurement processes, in isolation does not lead to the
required ‘depth’ and ‘breadth’ or to what this thesis calls ‘assessable transcendence’. On the other hand, as Casey-Challies (2008) points out, “if an organisation is constantly ‘measuring and not doing’, any impacts found will lack substance” (p. 3). At the moment, those who have the responsibility for the formulation and implementation of CSR in English football have no option but to opt for ‘doing’, although they strongly acknowledge that performance can only be optimised by assessing CSR impact through rigorous evaluation (i.e., ‘assessable transcendence’).

5.5 Chapter Summary
This chapter has sought to place the emerging theory ‘assessable transcendence’ in critical conversation with the relevant literature by adopting a ‘long-shot-to-close-up’ approach. Supported throughout by illustrative data extracts, this theoretical discussion began with a ‘long shot’ of strategy in the ‘business and society’ domain, the scholarly field within which the study locates itself. This discussion was facilitated by Wittington’s (1993; 2001) four perspectives on strategy and a great deal of overlap between them was demonstrated, particularly between the processual, evolutionary and systemic perspectives. The discussion was then narrowed to the dominant theoretical approaches that inform strategic decision-making in nonprofit organisations and gave a rather paradoxical assessment of attempts to integrate ‘assessable transcendence’ into the extant theoretical body of knowledge of nonprofit organisations. The final section focused down the discussion even further to discuss the emerged key concepts that hold ‘assessable transcendence’ (i.e., passion, trust, communication and performance) in relation to both their associative literatures and the relevant studies focusing on CSR and sport. Although this process offered some new insights, it yielded more questions than concrete answers regarding the formulation and implementation of CSR in the context of professional team sport organisations. New questions grounded on empirical and systematic research endeavours are, of course, worthwhile in themselves; however, Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest that questions arising from theoretical discussion can “at any point be rephrased as a set of propositions” (p. 32) and used in this guise to direct further research. This further research may in turn offer different, or more concrete, sets of questions relating to the propositions. Accordingly, the next and final chapter of this thesis will present the emerging grounded theory ‘assessable transcendence’ as a well-codified set of propositions, as well as highlighting the main contributions to knowledge that the study has made.
6.1 Introduction and purpose

By drawing on the organisational context of the charitable foundations of English football, this study has developed a theoretical framework that explains the way in which individuals within those foundations make decisions. It has done so through a grounded theory methodology, which has involved collecting data from organisational documents and interviews with key personnel for the strategic application of CSR in the area under study. Through a process of constant comparative data analysis, theoretical sampling, theoretical memos and relevant literature integration, four key micro-social processes have emerged. These processes in turn have given rise to four concepts that hold together the theoretical framework of ‘assessable transcendence’. Figure 6.1 below provides a snapshot of the research process undertaken.

The purpose of this chapter is to: summarise the substantive grounded theory ‘assessable transcendence’ (6.2); highlight the significance of, and the original contributions to knowledge achieved by, the current thesis (6.3); present the researcher’s reflections on the employed methodology (6.4); appraise the overall outcome of the work undertaken (6.5); discuss its limitations (6.6); and finally offer further areas of scholarship as direct result of the study’s exploratory findings (6.7), before a brief summary of the chapter itself is given (6.8).
SUBSTANTIVE AREA: Charitable Corporate Foundations in English Football

CODING

- Open Coding
  - 488 Initial Codes
  - 129 Parent Codes
  - 28 Open Categories

- Theoretical Coding
  - HARMONISING
  - SAFEGUARDING
  - MANOEUVRING
  - TRANSCENDING

- Theoretical Sampling

EXTANT LITERATURE

- Analysis of Organisational Documents
- Entering the Field

THEORETICAL SENSITIVITY

SUBSTANTIVE THEORY

- PASSION
- PERFORMANCE
- COMMUNICATION
- TRUST

- Assessable Transcendence

THEORETICAL SATURATION?

- Theoretical Saturation?
- NO
- YES

THEORETICAL MEMOS

- Generates
- Enables
- Guides Literature Review

ABSTRACT THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

Figure 6.1: Research Summary
6.2 A summary of the theory ‘assessable transcendence’

In this research, theory has been defined as “an explanatory scheme comprising a set of concepts related to each other through logical patterns of connectivity” (Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 113) and was aimed at increasing the understanding of CSR formulation and implementation in English football through the lens of managerial decision-making. The starting point for this research was that the way in which managers themselves interpret the formulation process of CSR is key to understanding the strategic issues which relate to the implementation of the community programmes these individuals oversee. ‘Assessable transcendence’ is therefore an individual-based substantive theory that offers a better understanding of how foundation managers go about making decisions regarding CSR-related programmes.

In essence, ‘assessable transcendence’ pertains to cognitive similarity, a concept that implies some form of similar attribution of meaning, understanding or interpretation amongst individuals in multiple organisations (Rentsch, Small, & Hanges, 2008). I therefore sought for interpretive convergence on decision-making, talking to managers from different charitable foundations in order to develop the individual level-based substantive theory. Moreover, I deliberately select the term ‘similar’ rather than ‘shared’ with regard to cognitive similarity, because the latter implies homogeneity. In this I followed the example of Rentsch and her colleagues (2008). No manager – in his or her organisational environment – is likely to develop interpretations identical to those of other managers in other charitable foundations regarding decision-making about CSR, and so these interpretations cannot be called ‘shared’. However, they may well develop ‘similar’ interpretations. From this perspective, as Rentsch et al. (2008) emphasise, “cognition is assumed to exist exclusively within the individual” (p. 144).

To this end, this work allowed the generation of a substantive theory, presented in the form of a model (see Figure 6.2), which illustrates - in an abstract fashion - the way in which charitable foundation managers make CSR-related decisions in the context of English football. The decisions made by the foundation managers concern programmes which aim to impact on the local society through the micro-social process harmonising, as well on the business objectives of the ‘parent’ club through the micro-social process safeguarding. In ideal situations there is complementarity between what harmonising and safeguarding entail (hence the double arrow between these two micro-social processes). However, formulating and implementing CSR-related programmes does not occur smoothly when either contributing to the local community (see harmonising) or servicing the ‘parent’ company (see safeguarding). Well-thought communicative strategies - at both
internal and external level (see manoeuvring) - are required in order for the first two micro-social processes to happen at all (see double arrows between manoeuvring and harmonising / safeguarding). At the same time however, through manoeuvring, these managers also aim for transcending (see one-directional arrow between these two micro-social processes) which, in turn, may lead (hence the dotted lines) to more impactful CSR involvement in both social and business aspects (expressed by harmonising and safeguarding respectively).

In a conceptually abstract fashion, ‘assessable transcendence’ concerns a process that, fortified by passion, contingent on trust, sustained by communication and substantiated by factual performance, enables the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes in this context. The social process that emerged from this study, therefore, consists of an intrinsic (that is, passion) and an extrinsic (that is, trust) stimulus, both of which are central components of the micro-social process transcending. These two stimuli, however, require the support of both internal and external communication (abstractly expressed through the micro-social process manoeuvring), and thus all three together form a ‘coalition’ which can enhance both business and social performance (largely expressed by the first two micro-social processes, namely safeguarding and harmonising). Accordingly, two interrelated aspects of the decision-making process constitute a common thread in this research: (a) the recognition that social consciousness stimulates the process of assessable
transcendence in an indispensable and limitless way, and (b) an understanding that transcendence cannot occur without either continuous achievement or the dissemination of concrete ‘CSR impact’ in social and business forms alike (hence assessable).

I must reiterate that social performance plays the dominant role in the managers’ decision-making, not least because a charity’s principal objectives are social in nature. It is true that managerial decision-making within these organisations also entails a belief that CSR-related programmes can actually contribute to business performance. For example, they can enhance brand image, inspire a new generation of fans, identify young players, ensure a sponsorship deal on the back of a community project, or secure planning permission through favorable access to local decision-making centres. These contributions can all show that the job these managers do is worth the ‘investment’ as it clearly benefits the ‘parent’ club. Although this belief is authentic, it is also tendentious in the sense that it is derived from the managers’ confidence that any evident impact on the club’s business performance can lead to higher social performance. This would follow on from the club’s increased buy-in, which could translate into higher commitment and, consequently, the allocation of the additional resources that are needed for social performance to transcend. This commitment and resource allocation enables these foundations to expand their operational scope, but mainly to move from merely ‘servicing the needs’ towards accomplishing profound social change. In essence, it is upon this authentic yet tendentious belief that ‘assessable transcendence’ holds its ground; indeed, it constitutes the crux of the current thesis.

To this end, it seems that foundation managers perceive the way in which CSR-related programmes do (or should) unfold in their organisational field as a ‘bolt-on’, ‘collaborative’ or ‘harmonised’ strategy (see Figure 6.3).
In an abstract fashion, the ‘bolt-on’ strategy entails compliance with the League’s ‘recipes’ and responsiveness to market demands and society’s expectations. More often than not, sporadic common practices that bring together the foundation, the ‘parent’ company and key stakeholders (for example, commercial and statutory organisations) offer disproportional benefits between the business (that is, the ‘parent’ company or/and the involved commercial organisations) and the social side (that is, foundation or/and statutory organisations). This means that CSR-related programmes may either have a stronger inclination towards social benefits (thereby creating a business deficit) or place greater emphasis on business benefits (thereby increasing the social deficit). These results are largely due to either (a) deterrence or calculus-based trust amongst the principal stakeholders for the implementation of these CSR-related programmes; (b) ineffectual communication at the internal level (that is, between the charitable foundation and the ‘parent’ company); (c) untargeted communicative strategies to external stakeholders; or (d) bounded passion from the foundation managers who – necessarily, but somewhat reluctantly – try to satisfy specific stakeholder groups in order to remain operationally alive. When there is a minimal degree of disproportionality between social and business benefits, a ‘bolt-on’-type strategy is characterized by low benefits for both the business and the social aspects of such strategy (that is, a ‘balanced’ account that comes closer to the arrow seen in Figure 6.3).
The ‘collaborative’-type strategy is the one that currently characterizes the implementation of many CSR-related programmes. In this strategy, there seems to be a mutual recognition of what each organisation involved in the process (for example, the foundation, the ‘parent’ club, commercial partners and/or statutory organisations) can offer; this is largely the result of a knowledge-based trust amongst those organisations. Moreover, tangible outcomes (that is, those that are both social and business-related) through collaborative practices facilitate the communication strategies exercised by the foundation managers at both the internal and external levels and offer them the opportunity to manifest their (all-embracing) passion for their job (that is, by implementing programmes that extend beyond the sport of football). Although the ‘collaborative’ type of strategy can also offer disproportional business and social benefits, it is generally a more effective strategy for either compared to the ‘bolt-on’ type, but is not as effective as the ‘harmonised’ type.

The ‘harmonised’-type strategy largely encapsulates the state of ‘transcendence’ that the foundation managers aim to achieve through assessable practices. This type of strategy is based on a shared vision, principally between the foundation and the ‘parent’ company, which leads to a well-thought out social involvement. In essence, harmonised strategies echo what Bruch and Walter (2005) and Porter and Kramer (2006) called ‘strategic philanthropy’ and ‘strategic CSR’ respectively. Here, foundation managers align CSR-related programmes with the core tangible competencies (such as facilities) and intangible (such as brands) competencies of the ‘parent’ company, thereby utilising the club’s unique abilities to benefit society. At the same time, however, these managers take the expectations of stakeholders (such as fans) and market expectations (such as sponsors) into account so that the ‘parent’ company may benefit from the effect of the foundation’s activities in the marketplace. In a football context, this type of CSR strategy is the result of (a) a relational- or identification-based trust between (but not solely) the foundation and the ‘parent’ company; (b) smooth internal communication, which is based on task-related currencies (Bradford & Cohen, 1989); (c) well-thought out information-based external communication to key stakeholder groups, which is (d) driven by all-embracing managerial passion that leads to impactful and long-term benefits at the social and business levels.

However, it is worth highlighting the dynamic situation amongst the three abovementioned types of CSR strategies. Changes to the internal or external environment (for example, the appointment of an influential trustee, new club ownership, league status, a new sponsor; a change in national government) can change a ‘bolt-on’ strategy to a ‘collaborative’ or even a ‘harmonised’ strategy, or vice
versa (as indicated by the two-directional arrow in Figure 6.3). Although time is a key element in this dynamic state of affairs, the greatest business and social benefits can be realised when social and business deficits are minimal.

Having summarised what emerged from this exploratory study, the next section highlights the significance of the current thesis together with the original contributions it makes in the field of sport management.

6.3 Significance and original contributions of the research
Having acknowledged that the extant literature on CSR in sport has offered some remarkable insights regarding the social involvement of professional team sport organisations, the current dissertation opted for an ‘indirect’ examination of CSR by placing its focus on illustrating the complexity of the managerial decision-making in relation to CSR formulation and implementation. The significance of this doctoral thesis for the sport management literature, therefore, is four-fold.

First, it focuses on the individual level of analysis, thereby offering a framework that explains the decision-making of those individuals responsible for the application of CSR in professional team sport organisations. By doing so, it bridges the micro/macro divide by integrating the micro-domain’s focus on individuals (i.e., foundation managers) with those of the meso- and macro-domains (i.e., Leagues and ‘parent’ football clubs and the socio-political environment, respectively – see Figure 6.4 in section 6.4).

Second, it moves away from mono-theoretical approaches that have been mainly used for the examination of CSR in the sporting context. By doing so, it illustrates that different, and often opposing, theoretical approaches may be needed in order to fully capture and theoretically explain the way in which the CSR practice occurs.

Third, it shifts the focus of scholarly activity away from CSR content-based research towards more process-oriented approaches. CSR content research does little to explain how professional teams achieve and maintain such positioning through both deliberate and trial-and-error CSR actions initiated by the individuals therein.

Fourth, and in relation to the previous point, it employs a process-oriented methodology (namely, grounded theory) whose utilisation in sport management research has been either nonexistent (Sotiriadou & Shilbury, 2010) or a ‘pick and mix’ practice (Harman & Lebel, 2012). By doing so, the current thesis responds to calls for internal consistency and methodological coherence (Weed, 2009), thereby adding to the limited number of studies that have utilised this methodology in a rounded manner (e.g., Kihl, Richardson, & Campisi, 2008; Sotiriadou, Shilbury, & Quick, 2008).
As an immediate result of the above-mentioned four reasons, the original contribution to knowledge of this study is the theoretical framework ‘assessable transcendence’, which illustrates the cognitive and emotional processes foundation managers undertake when making decisions about CSR. More specifically, each one of the four concepts that abstractly hold this framework offers insights that have been largely overlooked in the extant literature of CSR in sport team organisations. These specific original contributions are discussed briefly below:

First, this research extends conceptualisations offered in earlier studies (see, Babiak & Wolfe, 2009; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007) that certain emotions (e.g., passion, immediate gratification) render the practice of CSR in the sporting context distinguishable from other business settings. In this study, the concept of passion goes beyond the emotion that the ‘product’ (i.e., the team, the players, the game itself) generates amongst sport fans/consumers. Here, passion (also) refers to the same emotional attribute that Babiak and Wolfe (2009; 2013a) delineate when examining CSR in sport, but concerns an emotion expressed from, and experienced by, organisational actors; that is, by the people who make things ‘happen’.

These individuals often have a ‘rich’ sporting background (many of these foundation managers having played football up to professional level), and have personal experience of the power sport(s) can have in someone’s life. Importantly though, even without direct historical precedent, these managers witness through their day-to-day work the social change the programmes their organisations (in essence, through their decisions) can make in others’ lives. The concept of passion in this study, therefore, is not just affective in nature – i.e., these individuals do not just ‘like’ the job they do; it is also cognitive – i.e., it captures the importance of the job for the individual.

The question, of course, becomes whether the concept of passion within foundations formed within mainstream businesses really differs from that which has empirically emerged in this study. While passion which is cognitive in nature is likely to exist in other contexts, without verification it would be scientifically premature (if not entirely incorrect) to infer that the concept is a key feature in managerial decision-making processes within mainstream corporate foundations, as it is in the foundations established by English football clubs. Nevertheless, this last point opens avenues for further research,¹ and therefore makes this specific contribution (i.e., passion at work) potentially even more significant as it can be extended outside the arguably confined boundaries of the sport (and for that matter, football) context.

¹ See section 6.7 for a more detailed discussion.
Second, to the best of the author’s knowledge, the current study is the first to reveal empirically and conceptually discuss the role of trust as an ‘organisational enabler’ in the process of formulating and implementing CSR in team sport organisations. Trust, as perceived by the participants of this study, takes the form of an external stimulus which can lead to better social and business-related performance. The construct of trust in this research is conceptualized at two levels and thus has a double meaning. First, it represents an individual-based trust and refers to the relationship between foundation managers and executive personnel of the ‘parent’ club (i.e., trust as an intra-organisational phenomenon). Second, the construct refers to the relationship between charitable foundations and commercial/statutory organisations (i.e., trust as an inter-organisational phenomenon).

In addition to such a double meaning that trust offers in the literature of CSR in sport, the current study both acknowledges and highlights the importance of distinguishing trust from trustworthiness. It is mainly the latter to which - with varying degrees of explicitness - the extant literature on CSR refers when arguing that team sport organisations may well be the ideal platform from which to deploy CSR agendas. The current study has empirically demonstrated that trustworthiness should be regarded as a standard and that managers wish to be trusted more by key stakeholders; the realisation of this wish, they believe, will further facilitate their decision-making with regards to the implementation of CSR-related programmes.

As a result of these empirically-supported observations, this study postulates that, in order for much more impactful CSR strategies to be put in place, a greater degree of mutual confidence between the ‘parent’ company, the foundations and the key partners these foundations work with would be highly valuable. This mutual confidence should go beyond merely knowledge-based trust.

Third, this study contributes to the extant literature of CSR in sport by emphasizing the role communication plays in the process of formulating and implementing CSR-related programmes. Literature has, of course, underlined both the significance and the challenges of communicating CSR. Although these managers see the worth in a generic external communication strategy regarding what their foundations achieve, they also call for a more target-oriented external communication, mainly addressed to potential funders who could in turn increase the foundations’ capacity and therefore allow these managers to push the boundaries of what they currently do. This finding also has practical managerial implications. Given the lack of resources available to these foundations, a more
targeted and focused communication strategy may prove not only effective in enlisting new funders/partners but also a much more efficient means by which the foundations may tackle a delicate issue.

Although the abovementioned - admittedly small, yet crucial - aspect of communicating CSR engagement to external audiences is not something that has been explicitly discussed in the extant literature of CSR in sport, the issue of internally communicating CSR strategic decisions and plans has received even less attention from the sport scholarly community. The study’s contribution to this important issue is made by delineating the development of managerial political skills involved in the various tactical moves practiced in order for CSR to not just happen, but to attain higher levels of efficacy. The current study therefore draws on the literature of influence tactics and Social Exchange Theory and reveals the necessary micro-organisational processes that managers must go through in order to achieve the most satisficing result for their organisations.

The concept of communication as discussed in this study (i.e., at both internal and external level) may well be seen as a mediating factor affecting the concept of trust as perceived by the research participants. This specific contribution, therefore, offers opportunities for further research which will be discussed in more detail below.

The fourth contribution concerns the concept of **performance**, which has a double and interconnected meaning in this thesis: it refers to (a) the direct and/or knock-on benefits the ‘parent’ company enjoys as a result of the implementation of community programmes (i.e., the business case of CSR), and (b) the social impact of the programmes these foundations implement. More specifically, the current study offers empirical explanations that the individuals who oversee the application of CSR through the charitable foundations are trying to support the business objectives of the club - not only because they feel obliged to, but mainly because they believe that through the foundation the ‘parent’ company can realize numerous business opportunities. Importantly, however, such managerial attempts to demonstrate the business case of CSR at intra-organisational level are purposeful – i.e., ‘strategic’ – in that the ultimate aim is for the appreciation of business opportunity to be translated into higher commitment from the ‘parent’ club and consequently into the allocation of the additional resources necessary for achieving greater social change (see (b)). Previous literature of CSR in sport has, indeed, highlighted that both society and sport team organisations can benefit from the practice of **strategic-CSR** (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009). The descriptive (rather
than process-oriented) nature of such researches, however, cannot capture the genuine rationale of why organisational actors in teams’ foundations actually do what they do. The current study, therefore, corroborates previous studies’ findings that business performance is of great importance for professional team sport organisations while demonstrating that it is actually social performance that underwrites managers’ decisions.

In addition, this study offers the novel insight that for the foundation managers transcending CSR engagement can be only achieved by monetizing and measuring the social impact of CSR practice, rather than by simply measuring the outputs and outcomes of such an engagement. This point, too, has managerial implications in that more advanced measurement tools and strategically-minded approaches may well be needed if local communities and ‘parent’ companies are to enjoy greater benefits through the practice of CSR.

Beyond the abovementioned contributions, which mainly concern specific and discrete concepts that are largely under-examined in the CSR and sport literature, the emerging framework of assessable transcendence offers novel insights into the business of football, but also of sport in general. More specifically, assessable transcendence may offer the theoretical platform upon which the implementation of CSR-related programmes need to be examined. However, such examination must be carried out in national settings with different sets of conditions than those discussed in the case of England (see section 5.3.4.1). For example, in countries like Italy or Greece that have been hit hard by the economic crisis and also damaged by football corruption and poor governance, the ‘social contract’ could be restored through CSR-related practices. Assessable transcendence and its associative meaning may provide the roadmap for such an examination. In fact, this could be a worthwhile exercise, especially following observations that football “is governed differently across countries […], and that the important differences reflect national or regional cultures and institutions” (Gammelsæter & Senaux, 2011, p. 278). Therefore, the question becomes whether what assessable transcendence represents in the context from which it emerged can also transcend national borders and institutional arrangements.

Further valuable insights could be obtained by placing assessable transcendence in contexts where the logic of commercialized sport presents significant differences. In the United States, for example, it may be that managerial decision-making with regard to the implementation of CSR (particularly through community-based programmes) is perceived differently. Alternatively, it could be that assessable transcendence can be seen as a common denominator in the sporting context, despite the structural
differences (such as franchises, closed leagues, possibility of relocation) and business focus (for example, profit over utility maximisation) between the European and North American model of professional team sport organisations.

Furthermore, team sports other than football are also establishing new structures in order to implement CSR-related practices. For example, basketball, through its governing body (Euroleague) has launched its flagship CSR programme ‘One Team’. As in football, this programme aims to use basketball’s appeal to educate, inspire and motivate particularly the young generation. Applying *assessable transcendence*, its purpose and components, as well as the challenges it entails in these ventures initiated within different sporting settings could prove a sound exercise as it could highlight key issues that can help improve the efficiency and effectiveness of such CSR engagement.

Therefore, there is room to explore the potential relevance and/or significance of *assessable transcendence* in different national settings or different institutional contexts, both in relation to sport and outside the sporting context altogether. After all, few empirical studies have examined corporate foundations in particular (Pedrini & Minciullo, 2011; Petrovits, 2006; Webb, 1994). Therefore, it is necessary to test the applicability of the framework emerging from this empirical study for two reasons. First, it can be used to discern (possible) differences highlighted by the sport context, and thereby address the need for theory development whilst acknowledging the various characteristics associated with sport (Chalip, 2006). Second, it can be used to explore synergies (Wolfe et al., 2005) between mainstream management formal theories and substantive theories derived from the sporting context.

As a final note, because *assessable transcendence* has been the result of a study that examined the concept of decision-making, it could be transposed outside the contexts of sport and CSR. Specifically, *assessable transcendence* might be seen as the social process that explains decision-making in ‘high-end’ institutions such as universities or hospitals. For example, work-related decisions made by a professor at a business school may be driven by that person’s passion (either bounded or ideally all-embracing) for a particular subject area (such as CSR). The professor may believe that he or she can contribute through this subject to society, by educating the next generation of managers through a series of ethical and socially responsible codes of conduct, and to the business (the school itself) by establishing a research profile that attracts funding and generates impactful academic publications. In this scenario, in order for transcendence to occur for both types of ‘performance’, the trust of the head of department or even the deanery itself is essential. Developing a module or even an entire course that focuses on CSR (in our example) requires a
great deal of internal communication and manoeuvring. Equally, attracting funding for research purposes and establishing a trustworthy scholarly profile requires well thought out communication strategies at the external level (that is, beyond the confined boundaries of the university the professor works for).

Of course, the abovementioned example is not intended to be used to affirmatively answer the question of whether assessable transcendence can be transposed universally. Instead, the intention here has been to demonstrate that, subject to contextual amendments, the theoretical framework that emerged from this study could be transposed somewhere else, thereby gaining additional explanatory power.

The significance of and the specific contributions to knowledge a research makes to its corresponding field of study constitute key elements of a doctoral dissertation. However, reflections on the process leading to both these elements often reinforce the trustworthiness of these achievements. This is especially true for qualitative studies. To this end, before discussing the criteria that have been used for the evaluation of this study, some reflective notes on the adopted methodology and the researcher’s position in relation to the research are deemed necessary.

6.4 Grounded theory methodology and the researcher’s position: Some reflections

In this research, I employed a grounded theory methodology in an endeavour to explore the decision-making process of charitable foundation managers. Although ‘theorisation’ was realised at the individual level, ‘assessable transcendence’ was eventually conceptualised on the epistemological grounds that humans shape their institutions (i.e., the charitable foundations/football clubs) as much as institutions shape their people. In other words, it is the manager’s engagement with the social issues facing areas in which their football clubs reside (action-interaction) that gives ‘meaning’ to decisions about community programmes within the established charitable foundations. At the same time, however, each manager’s cultural heritage, biography, education, past experiences and other elements guided his or her life, decisions and overall ‘interpretation’ of the task (i.e., to formulate and implement CSR) with which he or she is engaged.

During the later stages (i.e., Phase 3) of collecting, analysing and synthesizing data, therefore, I was increasingly aware that developing theory this way - that is, by focusing on the individual managers without neglecting the context within which they make decisions - could only be possible through the Conditional Matrix of the Straussian variant of grounded theory. I had initially disregarded the Conditional
Matrix, believing that the Paradigm Model would suffice to capture the complexity of my inquiry. This grounded theory-related ‘tool’, however, further helped me to think “beyond micro social structures and immediate interactions to larger social conditions and consequences” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 118), and eventually become consistent with the epistemological stance employed in this study. The Conditional Matrix represents a set of levels drawn as concentric circles, with each level “corresponding to different aspects of the world that pertain to the phenomena under study” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 161). The present study found itself starting from the inner circle before moving to the outer circle and back again, with the levels identified as follows (Figure 6.4):

![Figure 6.4: The study’s Conditional Matrix](image)

However, the qualitative research strategy employed in this study was not underpinned by epistemological issues alone. Drawing on the ‘axiomatic’ issues advanced by Guba and Lincoln (1988) as well as Creswell’s (2007) concerns over the language used in qualitative inquiries, I have also given due consideration to the pertinent axiological and rhetorical assumptions. According to Guba and Lincoln (1988), the axiological assumption is associated with the role of values and beliefs.² The researcher thereby recognises that research is value-laden and that biases are present throughout the process. Rinehart (2005) mentions, for example, that

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² In this research, the terms ‘values’ and ‘beliefs’ follow the distinction Rollinson (2005, p. 130) makes between the two constructs: ‘values’ tell us “what a person wants to be true”, whereas ‘beliefs’ are assumptions about the probability that an object or event exists, that it has certain characteristics or that it is related in certain ways to other objects or events. Although beliefs have little direct influence on behaviour, values always have a behavioural impact.
researchers take stances every single day of their lives; Rinehart refers to Norum (2000, p. 319 – cited in Rinehart, 2005, p. 499) who points out that “researchers are biased. We are biased by our experiences, our education, our knowledge, our own personal dogmas. As researchers we inevitably commit acts of intervention”. Creswell (2007) adds that although all researchers bring values to a study, those undertaking qualitative work are more inclined to make their own values explicit. Given that such values may have also influenced the ‘quality’ of a qualitative inquiry, it is appropriate to discuss them frankly here. To this end, there follows a summary of the subjective perceptions I held during this study.

First, I regarded and still do regard football clubs as powerful public entities that can make a real contribution to society through their charitable foundations. This abiding belief has been, however, moderated by the conviction that such a positive contribution can only be made so long as CSR-related programmes are based upon carefully designed and sustainable programmes that go beyond ad-hoc philanthropic initiatives. Consequently charitable foundation managers, as the strategic actors initiating such programmes, are the main - but not the sole - responsible agents in such a process.3

Secondly, I share King’s belief (2003) that the transformation of football is bound up with the constant social, political and economic changes that take place in the wider community. As such, the football sector’s business approach cannot be understood in isolation but only in relation to these changes. That said, although I recognise(d) that poor football governance has caused a number of problems in English football (see, for example, the take-overs of Manchester United FC or Liverpool FC) which hardly accord with the notion of CSR,4 I did not carry out this research under the popular impression that football is becoming less and less the ‘people’s game’. On the contrary, my belief is that contemporary football is becoming ever more influential in people’s lives. Such a view has been integral to the project, as the belief logically follows that the formulation of CSR-related programmes, as expressed by managers in their respective charitable foundations, can have a significant role to play in local communities and beyond.

In addition, I should also acknowledge that I have been personally involved with football in different capacities. I have played at professional level in my home country and I have worked on a part-time basis for almost five years in one of the Premier League’s top-tier football clubs. Moreover, my academic qualifications have not only afforded me a good level of familiarity with the ‘theory’ that underpins the

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3 This point is very much associated with the existential rendering of the subject/object relation, which is touched on in Chapter 3; I am grateful to Dr Mark Dibben (University of Tasmania) for pointing this out.

4 See David Conn’s reports in The Guardian newspaper (13 January 2010 for Manchester United FC, and 8 June 2009 for Liverpool FC).
professional practices adopted by today’s top-tier English football clubs, but have also helped me to direct my research interests towards the investigation of CSR and the role charitable foundation managers play within it. Thus, both my strong ‘sporting’ background and a general familiarity with the football sector itself have formed a personal biography that fosters an element of sensitivity. In grounded theory parlance, sensitivity means having insight, being tuned in, and being able to pick up on relevant issues, events, and happenings in data. My personal experience in this context may be taken as what Gummesson (2000) refers to as the ‘pre-understanding’ of a specific problem or social environment possessed before one starts a research project; “the theories and professional knowledge that we carry with us inform our research in multiple ways, even if only subconsciously” (Sandelowski, 1993, cited in Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 32).

All the above-mentioned therefore required me, as Corbin and Strauss (2008) advise, to be reflective about how I influenced the research process and, in turn, how it influenced me. I did my best to make this clear through the memos written during this study, accepting and fully recognising the ‘risks’ entailed by the axiological considerations mentioned here. One of the reasons for choosing this particular methodology, however, was the desire to challenge my assumptions, beliefs and preconceptions, patterns of thinking and knowledge gained from experience and reading. Strauss and Corbin (1990) stress the importance of delving beneath our experience and “look[ing] beyond the literature if we are to uncover phenomena and arrive at new theoretical formulations” (ibid., p. 76).

It is also worth mentioning that the constructionist view upon which this research is grounded supports the use of the personal pronoun ‘I’ in the narrative. Creswell (2007) states that “qualitative researchers tend to embrace the rhetorical assumption that writing needs to be personal and literal in style” (p. 19). To this end, I attempted to remain philosophically (rather than literally) consistent in my research and thus adopted a first person narrative in those places where I felt it important to convey that I was actively interpreting the voices of my research participants. To have done otherwise – that is to have adopted an ‘objective’ third person style – would have been misleading and inconsistent with my fundamental philosophical assumptions. As Richardson (2000) points out “…qualitative writers … don’t have to try to play God, writing as disembodied omniscient narrators claiming universal, a-temporal, general knowledge; they can eschew the questionable metanarrative of scientific subjectivity and still have plenty to say as situated speakers, subjectivities engaged in knowing/telling about the world as they perceive it” (p. 8). In essence, I share Gummesson’s (2000) belief that a ‘true’ scientific approach is intimately personal; it
is an approach to life, a search for ‘truth’ and meaning. As Gummesson emphasises, “we do not find truth and meaning in social life by watching the world from a distance and detaching ourselves from its turmoil” (ibid. p. xi).

With these reflective notes in place, attention is now turned to discussing the criteria for evaluating one’s study; a necessary exercise for any type of research.

6.5 Evaluation of the research
Irrespective of the methodological strategy employed, be it quantitative or qualitative, all studies should be judged against certain evaluation criteria. Consistent with the nature and purpose of qualitative-based studies, in this dissertation terminology associated with criteria derived from ontological realism and epistemological positivism has not been employed, and consequently terms such as ‘generalisability’, ‘internal and external validity’ and ‘reliability’ do not appear. In this study, I followed Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) evaluation criterion, which pertains to one of the most widely used terms in qualitative research inquiries: trustworthiness. The term generally refers to the question of “[…] how can an inquirer persuade his or her audience (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of?” (ibid., p. 290). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), a study that deserves to be seen as trustworthy must demonstrate (a) credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability and (d) confirmability. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also offer a number of techniques that can be used towards achieving the abovementioned four criteria. Each of these criteria of trustworthiness, together with their associated techniques related to the current study, is discussed below.

First, credibility pertains to confidence in the truth of the findings. In essence, credibility is established by ensuring that “the investigator has correctly understood that social world” (Bryman, 2004, p. 275). Amongst the techniques suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) for establishing credibility is the ‘prolonged engagement’; that is, spending sufficient time in the field to learn or understand the phenomenon of interest. Indeed, given that the process of data collection and analysis for this dissertation spanned approximately 23 months, this allowed me to capture elements at micro level that may have been the result of more meso- and/or macro-level influences and therefore reinforced the credibility of the final result. For example, some foundation managers I spoke with said they were experiencing a ‘sea change’ with regards to community programmes and overall CSR strategic agenda, because the ‘parent’ club(s) had recently been taken-over by a foreign owner (i.e., organisational level). Furthermore, some data collection and analysis was carried out before the 2010 general elections, whereas other phases of the fieldwork took
part after the political agenda has been put in place by the current government. In essence, therefore, the purpose of the prolonged engagement is “to render the inquirer open to the multiple influences - the mutual shapers and contextual factors - that impinge upon the phenomenon being studied” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 304).

Relatedly, the second technique used here for ensuring the credibility of this work is ‘**persistent observation**’. In this study, the word ‘observation’ refers to the data collated during the three phases of fieldwork. Going back and forth to the data through the constant comparative method during almost 4 years formulated the means of what Lincoln & Guba (1985) refer to as “identify[ing] those characteristics and elements in the situation that are most relevant to the problem or issue being pursued and focusing on them in detail. If prolonged engagement provides scope, persistent observation provides depth” (ibid., p. 304). ‘Persistent observation’ in this study operates in a similar way to the **triangulation of sources**. ‘Triangulation of sources’ is another technique for ensuring the credibility of a qualitative-based inquiry, and involves using multiple data sources in an investigation to produce understanding by examining the consistency of different data sources from within the same method (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). For example, in conjunction with the ‘persistent observation’ technique, the analysis of 25 organisational documents from 16 different football organisations and the subsequent analysis of 32 interviews constituted a triangulation process.

The last technique used to ensure the study’s credibility was ‘**member-checking**’. This technique refers to the testing of data, analytic categories, interpretations and conclusions with members of groups from whom data was originally obtained. On Saturday, 1st of June 2013, an executive summary report was sent to 10 managers who had initially taken part in this research and who were still in charge of the same charitable foundations. A few months later, four replied to my request to comment on my work and gave some very positive notes regarding the ‘snapshot’ that I had offered them through the executive report. Some characteristic extracts are given below (see Appendices for more details):

"[...] I did recognise what you describe as the process I do go through when making decisions".  
(CEO of the Charitable Trust - 27.08.2013)

"I think you have really understood the processes, challenges and behaviours of your research and the paper’s comments reflect that” (Head of Community – 03.06.2013)
Second, the criterion of transferability addresses the issue of how the study’s findings can find application in other contexts; that is, to those outside that in which the research was carried out (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to these authors one can, through the ‘thick description’ technique (i.e., by describing a phenomenon in sufficient detail), begin to evaluate the extent to which the conclusions drawn are transferable to other times, settings, situations, and people. In the previous two chapters, through detailed memo-writings and data extracts, I made the best possible effort to offer readers the opportunity of seeing my analytical thinking during the study, and therefore leave them to make their own cross-contextual connections regarding its findings. For example, although ‘assessable transcendence’ and its associative concepts emerged from the context of English football, one can potentially transfer this social process to other European sport leagues, to the US professional team sport organisation, or even – perhaps most interestingly of all – outside the sport sector altogether.

Third, dependability broadly relates to whether or not the findings, interpretations and conclusions are supported by the data and assesses whether a researcher can reach the same conclusions if s/he carries out the research again. This type of ‘external auditing’, however, assumes that there is a fixed truth or reality that can be accounted for by a researcher and confirmed by an outside auditor. The epistemological stance that underpinned the current study plays an important role here. As discussed in the previous section, the ‘situation’ - that is, between me (actor) and the data (environment) - that was created during the research process could be only dealt with by recognising the impossibility of ‘bracketing’ my personal biography, values and beliefs from the topic I was investigating. It would, therefore, be impossible for any external auditor to ‘see’ the data in exactly the same way as I did; particularly the way in which I carried out the coding and the overall conceptualization of the data. However, a number of interim external audits provided the necessary reassurance to me that the codes, concepts and categories that emerged from my analysis and synthesis of the collated data depended on the contextual parameters of the study.
under examination. More specifically, two Progress Review Panel (PRP) assessments took place following Phases 2 and 3 of data collection (July 2010 and October 2011, respectively). During these PRPs, I had to demonstrate the coding process, in detail, to my advisory committee and to another (‘external’) scholar from the Faculty. Prior to these PRP assessments, however, I had disseminated early drafts of the coding process to my advisory committee and subsequently discussed the drafts with them. In one particular case (before the second PRP), the principal and second advisor both commented that the coding had led to categories that seemed to ‘fit’ and abstractly ‘represent’ what research participants had said. Another interim and equally valid external audit was achieved by the three reviewers of a full manuscript submitted for the 2012 European Academy of Management conference. Among the comments the reviewers made were the following (the words in bold text are those that, to varying degrees of explicitness, relate to the coding and conceptualization of the data).

- “The paper provides a trustworthy investigation” (Reviewer #1).
- “There is generally excellent focus, very clear structure, robust methodology and clear discussion of results” (Reviewer #2).
- “I liked the up-to-date overview of CSR in sport and the method is very well explained to highlight how CSR is formulated” (Reviewer #3).

Overall, ‘external auditing’ processes such as disseminating early drafts of this research in various peer-reviewed academic conferences and working closely with the advisory committee of this study have helped me strengthen and articulate my arguments.

The fourth and last criterion for ensuring the trustworthiness of a qualitatively-based inquiry is confirmability, which concerns the degree of neutrality or the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the respondents as opposed to researcher bias, motivation, or interest (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Two techniques for establishing confirmability are ‘audit trails’ and ‘reflexive notes’. Both techniques - with the former expressed through illustrative diagrams and figures and the latter through theoretical memos - offered a transparent explanation of the steps taken from the start of the study to the development of the theoretical framework and its integration with the relevant literature. I would like to clarify here that stating the personal attitudes I have brought to my research, as I do above, does not constitute a confession that I forced those biases or beliefs on the data. Even the most experienced researchers in grounded theory methodology, however, would view claims that their data is uninfluenced by personal bias as contentious. Through these theoretical
memos and by keeping a journal of my thoughts and feelings - as Corbin and Strauss (2008) suggest - I sought to think clearly and analytically about the participants’ statements; to analyse the relationship between my beliefs and the respondents’ views was beyond the scope of this research. As Corbin puts it, “[...] it is not the researcher’s perception of an event that matters. Rather, it is what participants are saying or doing that is important” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 33).

In summary, Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) trustworthiness criteria proved to be a useful ‘roadmap’ for me not only during the evaluation process, but - equally importantly - during the process of carrying out the research itself.

### 6.6 Limitations

This research relates to a specific phenomenon (i.e., formulating CSR strategy) in the context of a clearly identified group of individuals (i.e., managers in English football). This contextual specificity renders the theory it has generated a *substantive theory*, limited in origin and application to a specific kind of human experience or interaction (Kearney, 2007). These limitations differentiate it from *formal theories*, which describe the predictors and dynamics of various forms of social action and interaction general enough for application across a wide range of instances and contexts (cf. Glazer & Strauss, 1967, pp. 32-34; Corbin & Strauss, 2008, pp. 55-56; Birks & Mills, 2011, p. 156).

The strength of grounded theory methodology, however, is that it can be enhanced through further theoretical sampling to identify additional concepts, properties and dimensions that extend its conceptual scope and general implications, and broaden its substantive range. That said, although the focus of this study has been on the managers’ interpretation of their task, other stakeholders obviously play a key role in both the formulation and implementation of CSR-related programmes (e.g., ‘parent’ club’s personnel, funders and partners). Obtaining insights from these key ‘players’ would have provided a more concrete picture of how CSR is taking place in the context of English football. However, a study such as this - conducted for the purposes of a doctoral dissertation - carries with it unavoidable limitations of time, scope, resources and experience in the use of methodology. While more data could have been collected, this fact should not be viewed as having unduly limited the theory generated. In keeping with the experiential learning curve of the methodology, it is to be expected that a novice researcher will benefit from continued engagement in grounded theory studies.
The line of research adopted in this study began with empirical findings on how foundation managers make decisions and subsequently tried to explain these findings in theoretical terms. The main advantage of this approach (from evidence to theory) is comparative confidence in the completeness of the empirical description obtained, but for determining causal relationships the adopted approach is rather weak (Bruins, 1999). Starting, therefore, with theoretical ideas associated with the concepts of passion, trust, communication and performance, and then going on to search for empirical evidence for those ideas can complement the chosen methodology and, ultimately, may offer (additional) scientific rigour. This is the purpose of the following section, which puts forward a number of research propositions which can extend, modify or even verify the substantive theory ‘assessable transcendence’.

6.7 Recommendations for further research: propositions

The theoretical framework presented here has emerged from an exploratory study. As such, the four micro-social processes, their associative meanings, and more importantly, the four principal concepts that hold assessable transcendence together should be regarded as tentative and in need of substantiation through further research. As discussed earlier, this is, especially, where the study’s contextual specificity (i.e. European model of team sport organisations) might limit its power of explanation in other institutional settings (e.g., US team sport organisations). More specifically, a number of research propositions can, through summary and illustration (see Figure 6.5), serve as a starting point for the continued exploration of those moderating and mediating factors which may affect the formulation and implementation of CSR in team sport organisations.

First, due largely to their knowledge of the task for which they are responsible, foundation managers seem to enjoy a certain degree of trust from key stakeholder groups regarding the process of CSR formulation and implementation. These key stakeholders mainly consist of decision-makers in the ‘parent’ company as well as (local) statutory and commercial organisations; all of them - with varying degrees of directness - influence the capacity (e.g., in-kind support, funding, sponsorships etc.) these foundations have for the strategic implementation of community programmes. However, these key stakeholders do not currently offer enough of this extrinsic stimulus (i.e., trust) to enable foundation managers to make decisions that would develop impact to its full potential. One way for an organisation to build up (further)
trust is through emphasising its own trustworthiness. To this end, the following proposition connects the concepts of trust and communication and is offered for further examination:

**Proposition 1:** In order to approach ‘identification-based’ trust and enjoy what the concept entails, charitable foundations must increase the frequency, intensity, depth and breadth of their communications.

Second, the study has empirically shown that managerial passion takes the form of an intense longing to put the strategic CSR agenda in place. This passion is, in turn, deeply meaningful to CSR managers’ identities. This passionate approach to making things happen and seeing the impact programmes have on their participants can help convince these managers to communicate information about their activities much more frequently and intensely. The underlying assumption here is that someone with a cognitive passion for his/her job (as opposed to somebody with affective passion) will try to communicate CSR in a way that goes beyond a tick-boxing exercise and seeks to open up avenues for increased and enhanced CSR engagement. To this end, the following proposition connects the concepts of passion and communication and is put forward for further examination:

**Proposition 2:** The frequency, intensity, depth and breadth of communicative actions relate positively to the degree of cognitive passion managers hold for the job they do.

Third, the study has suggested that foundation managers’ decision-making is ultimately spurred by the desire to increase the impact – social and business alike – of their various CSR-related programmes. ‘Increasing the impact’ means better performance, yet better performance assumes additional resources which will, in turn, increase the capacity of these charitable foundations. One way of securing additional resources is to increase the degree to which foundation managers are trusted by the key stakeholders who influence the implementation of CSR (e.g., through funding). The more vigorously these foundations demonstrate their impact on both social and business-related matters, the more trust they are likely to receive. To this end, the following proposition connects the concepts of trust and performance and is put forward for further examination:
Proposition 3: The level of trust between charitable foundations and key stakeholders (i.e., ‘parent’ football club, statutory organisations, and commercial organisations) will be positively related to social and/or business performance.

Fourth, in this study the concept of passion has been dimensionally ranged from all-embracing to bounded. The latter refers to the risk of managerial decisions becoming side-tracked because everything in these organisations ends up being ‘about football’; an observation that suggests better performance may occur only within that specific sport. However, given the expertise these foundations have now acquired, it is suggested that by widening their range of activities managers may not only contribute to social change but also attract commercial organisations with whom their CSR agendas fit well but who do not necessarily have a connection to the sport of football. To this end, the following proposition connects the concepts of passion and performance and is put forward for further examination:

Proposition 4: Bounded managerial passion will be negatively related to social and business performance.

Fifth, managers who oversee the application of CSR are grappling with some practical aspects of decision-making. Some of these stem from the fact that the CSR-related programmes these organisations implement include challenging engagements with sensitive groups of people, such as young children and those with mental illnesses, as well as marginalised sections of the population such as unemployed or elderly people. However, the cognitive passion these managers have for their job leads to an all-embracing (as opposed to bounded) passion, which convinces them that the challenges they face form part of a worthwhile undertaking. Through the successful conveyance of such all-embracing passion, foundation managers may enjoy higher levels of trust from key stakeholders, particularly statutory and commercial organisations. To this end, the following proposition connects the concepts of passion and trust and is put forward for further examination:
Proposition 5: Statutory and commercial organisations able to observe all-embracing managerial passion in the charitable foundations are more likely to place ‘identification-based’ trust in those foundations.

Sixth, the study has shown empirically and discussed theoretically that informative (rather than persuasive) communication which targets specific stakeholder groups with or through whom CSR-related programmes can be realised has the potential to contribute towards transcending social performance; that is, increasing the depth and breadth of community programmes. The study has also shown that foundation managers generally adopt soft and reciprocity-based influence tactics, recruiting influential individuals (e.g., from the ‘parent’ club) through consultation, coalitions, and ‘upward appeals’. This indirect, internal communication of what the foundations can actually offer to the football club may be translated into the additional allocation of resources, which will, in turn, offer more room for these foundations to implement more impactful (if not just more) community programmes. To this end, the following proposition connects the concepts of communication and performance and is put forward for further examination:

Proposition 6: Social and business performance are positively affected by communicative actions.

Seventh, however, comes the fact that in the context of this study foundation managers have made it clear that communication which does not entail ‘substance’ is not merely an empty PR exercise; it is actually a bad PR exercise and largely avoided. Given that the modern, strategically-focused implementation of CSR-related programmes is a recent practice in English football, foundation managers want to have ‘substance’ and ‘demonstrable impact’ before they start communicating their activities. More time is required, therefore, in order for these foundations to be in a position to demonstrate all this in a sophisticated and credible fashion. At the same time, however, external targeted communication may facilitate the process towards transcendence, and hence a ‘Catch-22’ situation is created. To this end, the following proposition reverses the relationship between performance and communication seen in Proposition 6 and is put forward for further examination:
**Proposition 7:** Social performance determines the degree of and need for external communicative actions.

Through careful consideration of the abovementioned seven propositions, one will realise that no clear cut boundaries exist between them. On the one hand, this may call for some additional action with regards to the operationalisation of each concept before examining these propositions through more quantitative-oriented methodological techniques. On the other, however, such ‘blurred’ distinction between these propositions marks the presence of one additional criterion used for judging the quality of research using grounded theory methodology, namely logic. As Corbin (in Corbin & Strauss, 2008) puts it: “Is there a logical flow of ideas? Do the findings make sense? Or are there gaps or missing links in the logic that leave the reader confused and with a sense that something is not quite right?” (p. 306).

*Figure 6.5: Research propositions*
6.8 Chapter Summary

The present chapter offered an overview of the research by highlighting its significance and the contributions it makes for the field of sport management. Going first through some \textit{-ex post-} yet important reflective observations, it went on to discuss specific criteria in an endeavour to evaluate the process and the final outcome of this study, before outlining some of its limitations. Despite the inevitable limits of this study’s contextual parameters and methodological choices, it is hoped that its insights - that is, the theoretical framework and its associative concepts – can open up the discussion of socially responsible engagement in the context of team sport organisations, by indirectly examining CSR through key concepts for its formulation and implementation. To this end, this dissertation advocates that, given the fractured, complex and vague nature of CSR, more micro-theorisation may represent the best way of moving towards a better understanding of the CSR concept itself, not only in the broader field of sport management and the specific context of professional sport teams, but also in settings beyond the sport sector.
List of References


Kolyperas, D., & Sparks, L. (2010). Assessing the impact of CSR on football consumers: Which are the benefits derived by CSR’s awareness? In C. Anagnostopoulos (Ed.) *International sport: A research synthesis*, (pp. 11–30). Athens: ATINER.


Ratten, V., & Babiak, K. (2010). Corporate social responsibility, philanthropy and entrepreneurship in


Appendices
The former Minister for Culture, Media & Sport once said:

“We have a moment in time to set a new level of ambition for sport and change permanently its place in our society. It’s an era of unprecedented opportunity. But we will only seize it if we can unite people at all levels in sport in a new spirit of partnership and common endeavour”.

(Andy Burnham, 2008)

We agree. This is why we currently running a doctoral research project at Coventry Business School investigating the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in professional football.

Since your football club is very active in this area, we would appreciate if we would be given the opportunity to do part of this doctoral research in your football club. We will need to visit your football club and interview (for 45-60min) the individual(s) involved in CSR. The fieldwork date(s) and time shall be arranged at your convenience.

We expect that the research findings will be useful not only for academic purposes but also for the management and business practices in the ‘sensitive’ professional football sector. We intend to provide feedback to your football club in the form of executive summary and/or PowerPoint presentation. Our belief is that receiving feedback on how an outsider views the CSR practices employed, can be a source of organisational learning from which we hope that your football club will benefit.

Throughout the research, we will ensure anonymity of the participants and confidentiality of the information and views collected. That said, no reference on the football club under study will be made, and a substitute name will be used unless you wish otherwise. In the latter case, should any publications occur, we will ensure you are able to comment on drafts.

Due to the adopted methodological approach (grounded theory), the use of a voice-recorder is deemed essential. Yet, for any reason should you wish not our discussion to be recorded, your decision will be fully respected. By agreeing to participate in this research project, you will be entered into a draw, and if you win, you can choose between a magnum of champagne for yourself and a donation of £100 to a charity your football club/Foundation is liaising with.

Many thanks for your co-operation and looking forward to hearing from you

Christos Anagnostopoulos

Note: We are sending this letter to you because we believe that you are the key person primarily responsible for the CSR implementation process in your football club (or through the established foundation). If this is not the case, we would really appreciate your passing this to the relevant person.

Contact Details
Christos Anagnostopoulos

Phone number removed.

Phone

e-mail

aa9711@coventry.ac.uk
Initial Research Questions (Phase 1b of the Fieldwork)

- Talk to me about yourself?
- Talk to me about the role of professional football nowadays  
  (What are the main issues then? How these issues can be addressed?)
- What is CSR here?
- What do you think of CSR?
- Talk to me about your personal beliefs in relation to your job?
- What drives CSR, you think?
- What does CSR mean for your football club?  
  (any important values?)  
  (what about CSR and everyday business practices?)
- Any changes in the way the club operates since the espousal of CSR?  
  (In what way?)
- How does CSR 'happen' here?  
  (who is in charge?)  
  (who else can influence CSR here?)
- Talk to me about the formulation of CSR-related programmes? The how's and whys...
- Is there anything that helps CSR here?  
  (are there any obstacles?)
- How do you decide on CSR matters?  
  (what are your selection criteria?)
- Does it [CSR] work then?  
  (how do you define failure/success?)  
  (what are your criteria?)
- What do you think that CSR means for the wider public?
- Is there any area of development in terms of CSR here?  
  (have you tried to communicate this?)  
  (in which way?)
- Is there anything else in relation to CSR which you consider very important to talk about?
Example Questions for subsequent phases of the fieldwork

1) Talk to me about this position; about your role here?
   - What does an early engagement in football mean when you do this job?
   - How does influence (if so) the way you go about making decisions?

2) Football has the power to engage and motivate people – especially young people. But which are the preconditions in order for such engagement to be valid, solid – i.e. to have a real substance?
   - I am asking you because if football’s involvement is being a complimentary undertaking, what else is needed?
   - Some said to me that the first precondition is the ‘enjoyment’ for the participants; i.e. that these programmes should be designed in such a way that offers enjoyment to people.
   - There seems to be a conditional involvement, however, in the sense that “we can’t do everything”. What would you say about that?
   - Designing and implementing outreach programmes is all about ‘compromising’; we have to deliver programmes that bring income in, in order to subsidy others –equally important- that don’t. Is this how you strategically decide on and then design your portfolio?

3) Talk to me about the relationship with the club...
   - Do you harmonise your programmes to the club’s wishes?
   - Does the club challenge you on what you do here? I mean, do they ask the ‘why and how’ questions?
   - Do they challenge you?

4) Do the results influence the job you do here?
   - If you go down, things will change (especially funding-wise); what are your plans for this scenario? –how do you cope with this scenario?

5) If there are elements that add pressure on your shoulders while doing this job, what would these elements be?
   - At internal level?
   - At external level?

6) Numbers bring funding; but loads of programmes you deliver have a strong qualitative element there. How do you cope with that?

7) Talk to me about the role communication plays in what you do?
   - My understanding is that there are two reasons why communication is important: (a) to raise the morale internally and (b) to raise your profile externally; what would you say about that?
   - Any particular challenges regarding online communication? Website?

8) What could be done differently in order for the development and implementation of CSR in English football becomes better?

9) Is there something in particular that can take what you do here to the next level?

10) What are those elements that actually influence your decisions then?
Pages 291-293 consist of 3 anonymised emails which have been removed for data protection reasons. The unabridged version of the thesis can be viewed at the Lanchester Library, Coventry University.
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These managers have to get organised; they have to follow ‘recipes’ from the leagues in terms of governance and structure; this is a type of professionalisation, I guess; unless they get this right, their funding opportunities reduce and so does the room for them to decide on what to do and what not; in other words they depend greatly on the leagues. Leagues dictate structure/organisation, that is provide the platform which in turn allows managers to consider bidding/applying for funding; by securing funding for certain projects raises their profile, build partnerships, build their network with the local statutory and commercial partners for other and/or future projects.

They also depend on people who sit on key local decision-making centres – they are trying to have as many such key players on board as possible. Of course, they can do without them; hence the dependence on them is not as high as on the leagues, but planning ahead by knowing where most of the funding will come from and for what social issues is always crucial; after all, the foundations submit a 3-year business plan to the leagues => this must be as sound and realistic as possible in order for each foundation has increased chances to secure funding.

Managers strive for getting involved to impactful projects; however, given they don’t have the expertise for a great deal of projects they do, they depend on their partners’ expertise (actually this can read as ‘conditional responsiveness too, i.e. => unless we got the right partners to work with, we are not doing that project even if there is funding for that etc). What’s more, because these managers opt for the most impactful engagement, they can achieve this by providing the necessary exit roots to the participants, making hence their engagement – indirectly – as much sustainable as possible. This sustainability, however, depends on working with others (partners) => decisions, therefore, these managers take depend on the degree the above can be achieved.

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<th>Property</th>
<th>Illustrative Data Segments (Phase 1 &amp; 2)</th>
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| Dependence | *“most things are through the PL; we don’t get anything through the club really, or the charities commission; it is just through the PL” (PL-fc7)*<br>• “a presence at the local strategic steering groups where the majority of decision making is made” (FLC-fc2)<br>• “[...] we have solicitors sit on, the national FA, local FA, chamber of commerce, the city council; we try to mix quite a lot of experience and some new powerful players on there as well; on the standard committee, you know, the guys at the city council know all the politics” (FLC-fc11)<br>• “we look at the Football League key themes and we try to deliver according to this agenda in order to be able to get core funding and bid for discretionary one; but we decide where and how to deliver” (FLC-fc7)<br>• “We are not the experts, we are not people who are going to solve all these difficulties but by working with the experts we can help create pathways for people” (PL-fc10)<br>• “...so any project we do now works with the partner; we make with the exit routes there before we do it. Because you have got to give them sustainability, you have got to give them exit routes because there is no point bringing them in and then letting them down again because the majority of children in disengaged areas they work in, they have always been let down on their life and we don’t want to keep doing that. You have got to give them something to inspire, to keep inspire them to follow on to” (FLC-fc11) | These managers have to get organised; they have to follow ‘recipes’ from the leagues in terms of governance and structure; this is a type of professionalisation, I guess; unless they get this right, their funding opportunities reduce and so does the room for them to decide on what to do and what not; in other words they depend greatly on the leagues. Leagues dictate structure/organisation, that is provide the platform which in turn allows managers to consider bidding/applying for funding; by securing funding for certain projects raises their profile, build partnerships, build their network with the local statutory and commercial partners for other and/or future projects.

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<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>• “I mean, the biggest thing for me is cooperation with the other organizations and the other people, you know, have a roll on influence in what you are trying to do [...] So for example, if you are looking at working with schools, it helps massively if you have good relationships with the school’s sports partnership framework; you know, if you don’t get on with the partnership development manager, then you’re screwed really because they will go and they will commission the work to someone who they do get on well with [...] So you know, for me there has got to be that cooperation, because if we were going to go and set out and trying to do that kind of thing ourselves but it wouldn’t – you know – we don’t have the expertise or the skills to do it so it wouldn’t work. So for me personally it’s all about the partners and it’s about you know, what they can bring the expertise even if it is not direct money, what – how else I can support you” (FLC-fc12)</td>
<td>This is, again, an interesting example that showcases the dependence these charitable foundations have on external collaborations. These managers need to get on well – need to be in line - with the key players that, to some degree, will influence the direction of the foundation; i.e. will influence what decisions these managers need to take in order to keep the organisation ‘up and running’ - ideally afloat. Reflecting on such extracts, however, makes me start questioning the competitive advantage - that that has been demonstrated throughout this research – these football organisations have (e.g. by looking back at the early open categories such as ‘HOOKING’, or ‘EMOTIONALLY ATTACHED’) when it comes to contributing to ‘social change’. If it is a matter of personal relationships and trust, and not solely a matter of a well established organisational reputation that has proven ‘it can do the job’ then the whole discussion becomes different, doesn’t it? Then, politics come into play, and actually not only this, but it seems that politics have a big role to play. But again, if it is down to individuals, what happens if the manager leaves the job? Or even when somebody else takes over in the partner organisation? Does the foundation manager start all over again to build this relationship/trust? Perhaps, adjustment is needed here. That is, managers need to adjust to new situations (i.e. new personnel whom they deal with) in order to be able to implement their decisions (or to create the avenues for making decisions).</td>
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Managerial decision-making with regards to CSR seems to be a responsive undertaking/process. By ‘responsiveness’ I mean, responding to what comes from above (leagues or even the ‘parent’ football club). Managers decide to go for some projects because there is available funding. I don’t read the “as long as it sits within our charitable objectives” as a stumbling block since these objectives are pretty broad (around education, health, social inclusion etc.). After all, funding comes indirectly from the league(s) too so there is a kind of fit. What else is evident too is the emphasis on local issues; I need to go back and revise/re-examine the open category LOCALISING. The foundations do respond by integrating projects into their strategic agenda, but they do so as long as their area has a need for that. In other words it is not an ‘unconditional’ engagement. Equally, this sort of responsiveness is conditional in terms of ‘we decide not to engage ourselves in that’, or ‘this is good, but we don’t have the capacity to go for it’ even if they get support from potential/expected partners. I think what I am trying to say here is that these foundations do respond to social needs, but they do acknowledge that unless they work with experts on the social issues in question, such ‘responsiveness’ is ‘bad’, ‘wrong’, strategic-free engagement. So there have to be some conditions in order for these foundations to engage themselves with certain programmes. This is now becoming dear to me and I see that not only as a strategic-oriented practice but as a fair and honest stance too.

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<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>Conditional / Unconditional</td>
<td>&quot;I mean some things we deliver because the funding is there and as long as it sits within our charitable objectives then we do it [...] so that’s not really a consideration with those programmes&quot; (PL-fc3)</td>
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<td>&quot;[the] PL is very supportive and really understands community work and although their funding helps a lot, we don’t chase programs that do not fit with what we are doing&quot; (PL-fc6)</td>
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<td>“actually we don’t decide what issues we should focus on; if we can use the term loosely ‘society’ decides that for us” (PL-fc2)</td>
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<td>&quot;...first of all, we receive funding from the PL which is very much tracking national agenda of things like child obesity, participation, social exclusion and so on. So when we apply for bids and funding through the PL, we have to take the elements of the national agenda that they are specifying and then harmonize that with the local agenda and our local issues” (PL-fc7)</td>
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<td>&quot;So what we have looked to do in is fill in the void a little bit. So we then look at where were the holes in the delivery within Bolton, what are the issues within that delivery. How does that link in with Premier League and how can we look to fill the void” (PL-fc7)</td>
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<td>&quot;So when we plotted out the local landscape we are looking for a hole, we are looking for like a gap in the market where we as a trust need to sort of address because then we fit into landscape. We are providing a service where no one else is” (PL-fc7)</td>
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<td>&quot;...we are not experts in that. I don’t think we would have ever really said we are going to start a programme like this. But when the experts came, they said ‘this is the problem, this is why we need your help, we will assist you to do it’. Then we realised how we can implement it and how we can play a part” (PL-fc8)</td>
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<td>&quot;we are not people who are going to solve all these difficulties, but by working with the experts we can help create some pathways” (PL-fc1a)</td>
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<td>• “And the club’s policy has always been to work with local people. So whilst Manchester United worked with UNICEF and other clubs and like Barcelona are obviously working with UNICEF - another national and global charitable organizations - , we are focused primarily because of the owners stance here on supporting local people. So we are not too interested in what goes on in Wales or in Scotland or elsewhere. So our philanthropic beliefs are totally within probably 30 mile radius of [that city]” (PL-fc10)</td>
<td>Again here one of the conditions in order for these foundations to engage themselves with CSR-related projects is whether these issues/needs fall within the territory which the ‘parent’ football club mainly ‘operates’ (I mean where it usually draws its custom/fans from). The manager here, interestingly, does not only exclude internationally-based CSR engagements, but also activities that could concern areas beyond strict local boundaries. I notice, however, that s/he refers to Man U, which is a global brand. Does it mean that the LOCALISING is a condition that applies to ‘smaller’ FCs when it comes to responsiveness and less to well known and with an international brand name ones? One participant during Phase 2, for example, was explicitly clear when telling me that ‘small’ football clubs (through their foundations or not) engage with CSR to build for the future (i.e. fan base) and that ‘bigger’ clubs do what they do for PR reasons only. From the data, this does not seem to be entirely accurate, since even the biggest clubs in the PL (with over 90% capacity in every game) run some exceptional programmes in their local communities. I guess, the manager refers more to the ‘buy in’ that exists in and from the management of the ‘bigger’ clubs when it comes to making decisions on CSR-related matters as opposed to ‘smaller clubs’ which they may need more of what foundations do in the local community? I need some clarifications here; these are not only interesting, but also important issues and I cannot let them pass me lightly. On Monday I will be meeting a manager from a Premiership club and the following day a manager from a Championship club. I need to ask more questions on this – I will make a note.</td>
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<td>• “But if you ask the chairman and the managing director, what the community scheme do, they will say “fantastic, they do such good things in the community, we’ve got disability office there, we’ve got...” – he wouldn’t say we’re building for the future; he would say fantastic, we’re doing this, it’s massively good PR for the football club. I think when the club goes through and it evolves through the leagues, the needs for the Foundation changes. And that’s my experience, because Manchester United Foundation won’t be doing the things that we were doing because they didn’t have to – they didn’t have to. They don’t have to put bums on seats because it was full. So they were more of a corporate responsibility. So someone will come along and sponsor that Foundation half a million pounds to work with disability kids. No problem half a million pounds, we get that. We get coaches and we go and work with disabilities groups. At Division 2 and one club don’t get that kind of money, so we have to make sure money is coming in, soccer schools, after school clubs, birthday parties, event venues to pay the staff and then once you got that going, then you set the objectives where you see fit to do that” (FLC-fc9)</td>
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**Responsiveness**

*Conditional / Unconditional*

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<td>• “I think if you are a community manager and your team is having a really bad time and your manager is getting absolutely crucified and your players are getting crucified, it’s far more difficult to sell to sponsors, to local authority, even to engage kids to a degree; there is no doubt about that. It is a feel good factor if your team’s just got promotion. You can bet your life. If your team just got promotion, your holiday courses that summer will be far more better than they would if you were ‘going down’. So it just has a knock-on effect” (Fb-L4)</td>
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<td>• “It was easier to recruit trustees because we became a charitable trust in the year we were in the Premier League and it was easier to get trustees because we brought them to games, games and food that kind of thing” (FLC-fc4)</td>
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<td>• “It’s providing a moral boosting positive step. And that can only be only down to the results on the field; because we didn’t have that last year! [...] At times like this, reception is much better and also we receive a lot more interest both from a corporate level and sort of a delivery level by sort of like positivity by association [...] So all of a sudden, clubs wanted our people, our firms or companies our schools or even sort of local government departments. All of a sudden they want to be associated with the club. They want to have the positivity of the club sort of filter down to them and they – lot of people cannot go directly to the club; or you could go to the corporate and say well you know, we will sponsor you, we will have a box; but some with regards to schools or charities or other people who deliver in the town, predominantly the third sector can’t do that; but what they can do is team up with us on various projects and have some filtered down positivity by association with you” (PL-fc7)</td>
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<td>• “Yeah, definitely; I mean you can imagine what the difference was when Hull City went to the Premier League. Huge! Same thing for Blackpool; suddenly people who didn’t want to work with the foundation manager in Hull City for 10 years they are calling him whereas before he was trying to chase them. So I think for any club who does that either going to the Championship or bigger step going into the Premier League they need to make the most of that and forge those links then. Because there are some opportunities there - whether it’s right or wrong - that’s just reality. There are some people who would work with you when you are at that level and they won’t when you are down here; which is something that frustrates us a little bit but that’s just the way it is surely” (Fb-L3)</td>
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**Adjustment**

**Gradual / Rapid**

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<td>During Phase 1 of the fieldwork, managers were mentioning that the club being ‘successful’ on the field makes the foundation manager’s job much easier. I am reading again what FLC-fc4 says about recruiting trustees while the team having a PL status. So during the second set of interviews, I asked the question: ‘do results on the field affect the job you do here?’ I had mixed responses; some managers were more explicit admitting that it has a great impact, others saying that it has no impact at all. What matters most, in my view, however is to try to figure out what are those factors that seem to have a bearing on what the managers do and what are the reasons why other managers argue that results have nothing to do with their job. OK, this is important. But I think I got it wrong; I think the way I asked the question was wrong and this is perhaps why I received mixed responses on this matter. What I am examining here i.e. the unit of analysis of this research) is the decision-making, and not generally the work the managers do. Should I had asked whether results play a role on the decision-making process in formulating CSR-related programmes, then, I figure it would have encapsulated better what I was trying to extract from the participants. I need to go back and clarify things; but first, I think I have enough data to look at those factors which lead to ‘yes, results do affect’ and those factors which lead to ‘no, they don’t’.</td>
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### Adjustments

**Gradual / Rapid**

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<td>• “[...] The fact that when we do get a new American owner, he had a very simple view of sport as well, so that helped because it’s not that complicated, so that actually helped us to go back to a very quite basic level, I guess. [...] I think it comes from an American psyche, in that in America because they haven’t got such structured social backup systems that we have in this country, if you make any success like financially you’re almost expected to do something, to give something back. So for him it’s just a natural process that, okay, we do this and this but what about other people that are less fortunate than ourselves, we need to do something for them. So it’s kind of a natural sequence for him, yes, it’s not something that he really thinks too deeply about, it’s just something he just do...and I think that’s an American psyche a little bit. If you look at the American sports they have very big CSR programs as well, different sports, our owner runs a NFL team as well and they have got systems there. We have to give credit to the previous owners of the club, they did actually put quite a lot of money into this side of the business, however, with the new owner coming it’s almost gone to another level where you have been freer with the strategy to go out and reach out to more people, yeah” (PL-FC1a)</td>
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<td>• “The difference is very much around reaction against pro-activity, so our previous owners will always react. So say someone wrote in a session your football club doesn’t do anything for the community, blah-blah-blah, our previous owners will finally think, “right, I want you to go and do something for them right there and then,” and I would be like, “okay” whereas our new owners, the American ownership is very much, they work with me on what our policy is, on what my development program business plan is, so if they have got a letter like this they would simply go, well, this is our CSR policy, this is our business plan, this is where we are, this is where you as an organisation fits into it, please speak to the foundation manager about it; so it’s very proactive because we are already doing this, this and that” (FLC-fc4)</td>
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<td>• “It’s a very powerful diverse multi-skilled department and I think they have recognized that now. Actually well, the new owners certainly recognize the power of the work that we do. [...] So I would say the last three years have been crucial and it’s certainly now, even the last six months and especially the new owners coming in their main focus is the community” (FLC-fc11)</td>
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The charitable foundations may be independent organisations but the institutional affiliation/connection with the ‘parent’ football club makes them sensitive to changes that take place in the latter. This is what the extracts I reflect upon on this memo are all about. Foundation managers adjust to ownership changes and so does their decision-making about CSR issues. Different organisational procedures/processes within the ‘parent’ organisation facilitate or otherwise the way foundation managers make decisions. New owners, particularly from the US context, seem to embrace differently (not sure if better, but certainly differently) the idea of contributing to society. This is, anyway, what these managers point out here. I am thinking, therefore, that if managers’ decision-making is a process of harmonisation to both the immediate and the wider environment then adjustments are necessary. In some cases, such adjustments can take longer to show an effect in the way decisions are made; in other cases, managers may have to act more rapidly. It seems that the property of adjustment is one that cannot be left aside from the decision-making process. Where else can this property appear? In which other circumstances, if so? The ‘parent’ football club is the immediate context for the foundation managers. Does adjustment apply to wider conditions? If yes, which ones? And how does all this impact the decision-making process?
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<td>Normal / Deviation</td>
<td>• “It is such a big business now that we cannot sustain the business simply by playing and winning football matches, we have to bring in non-football business, the corporate side, and make the community feel it’s their club” <em>(PL-fc5)</em>&lt;br&gt;• “I mean I always have to say, well, I am sorry but it’s an entertainment industry, so the comparable isn’t with the manager of the company down the road, the comparable is with an actor gets a million pounds a film, I mean that’s the level we are talking about at our level of football” <em>(PL-fc6)</em>&lt;br&gt;• “I am relatively relaxed about the football itself, I think the issue about players being paid too much and all that sort of thing, but I have a pretty open mind about that in some respects, because at the end of the day nobody, but nobody actually mourns about Tom Cruise earning 3 million a film and a top footballer like Rooney, well, does he actually bring joy to as many people as Tom Cruise. I suspect he does [...] what people get wrong in the football is they think it’s about football; no, it’s about entertainment. Entertainment is what we are in, we are in the entertainment industry; we run this football stadium not for football, as an entertainment business actually” <em>(FLC-fc5)</em>&lt;br&gt;• “I see a football club as a community hub where people come together and because of the way it’s going and costs spiralling, almost trying to exclude people from being able to come; the fan base has started to change where you almost have to have a level of affluence to be able to participate fully. Be able to come every week, to wear the shirt, to bring the family, you almost now have to have a level of wealth to participate in that” <em>(FLC-fc1)</em></td>
<td>I am looking again at data extracts from Phase 1; what had these foundation managers said to me? Clearly that today’s environment in which football clubs operate is a competitive one, not only on the field, but off the field too. If football clubs are part of the wider entertainment industry, then they have to fight for each customer. Yes, there might be some loyal customers (fans) who do not switch even if the offered product is a poor one. But nowadays people have many more ways to spend their money and leisure time and consuming (not just being affiliated with a team without spending their money to/for it) football might be seen as one of these many alternatives. Appreciating all this leads managers to approach overall CSR thinking in a, perhaps, different fashion. But these data extracts tell me more than just that. These managers also accept the fact that certain practices seen in the football world as is something that eventually comes with the ‘package’. What might such an appreciation mean? Does it mean that decisions these managers take go beyond of just offsetting malpractices made by the ‘parent’ football clubs? Or does such an appreciation actually reinforce the need for legitimising the club’s practices and restoring the social contract with society at large?</td>
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| Support  | - "Our schools’ programmes work runs at a loss every term; we lose money when we are out there. **We do that because that is the biggest signal of the club want us to do.** So all the other big things we deliver in each area - as you said – that's great, but from the club's point of view the biggest thing is that we are out there in the community, with the brand, with the batch promoting [the club's name]" (FLC-fc7)  
- "I was brought in 18 months ago to develop the community side and that was very much at the behest of the club. The club basically said we do want to do more in the community. We want to be more interactive. And the club’s policy has always been to work with local people" (PL-fc10)  
- "So I have an obligation to meet the aspirations and expectations of the board but at the same time the board is not naïve enough to think that we don't have a very significant responsibility to the club. So yeah, when we are looking at our plans in terms of where to expand our areas or the subject matters that we are getting involved in, that’s, probably an operational decision; that's a straightforward operational decision that the club does a feature in that. What we do know is that by engaging with key stakeholders in the area, we are dealing with senior counsellors, local politicians, influences; you know, senior business people who have an interest and there is a really positive benefit, not direct but indirect benefit back to the club that we are engaging with these key decision makers in the local area. That's very positive in that regard. And a lot of what we do in terms of promoting that good work involves the club who are hosted here at the club; we will have involvement from key members of the staff at the club. So there is a harmonization in that regard that our work, although we are operationally an independent charity, there is no gap between our sort of connection to the club as far as the outside world is concerned" (FLC-fc8) | I can't see how much more one organisation could support another after reading what this foundation manager (FLC-fc7) said to me four days ago. Some of the decisions this manager takes on CSR-related programmes entail running projects at loss simply because it is considered as one of the best possible ways to promote the 'parent' football club. That's very interesting and clearly shows a kind of regular support towards the objectives of the football club. What I need to clarify, however, is how these foundations cover this sort of loss-making engagement; it is not clear from what I read here. Do they get financial support from the club? Do they counter-balance their accounts from other projects? How does it work?“[...] at the behest of the club” => I guess that says all? This manager (PL-fc10) was offered that position of leading/running the foundation in order to support the ‘parent’ football club on strengthening its relationships with the local community. In other words, the foundation to serve as a vehicle for achieving this goal (I need to link this point with the memos where I talk about self-preservation - I think it is very relevant).  
While reading this extract I figure that the manager (FLC-fc8) recognises (accepts / appreciates) the ‘obligation’ [this is the word s/he uses] to serve two masters really = the foundation’s Board of Trustees and the 'parent' football club. Clearly, however, such appreciation for support is not an absolute one; I mean since these managers have to serve ‘two masters’, such support can range from being regular but partial (or ad hoc) to absolute. |

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**Regular / Ad hoc**

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## Self-preservation

### Long-term / Short-term

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<td>“I think from a club point of view we have a good relationship with the marketing manager and he has sort of piggy backed on to the stuff that we do. He’s helping us to broaden that but more important for him - from a club point of view - he is got to try and get more people to the stadium; so as well as the school work we have in liaison with the marketing guy we have a couple of projects which is free of charge, you know stadium tours, games with the mascot, things like that [...] you hope the children and the families have good experience and next time they probably come back as paying customers” (FLC-fc7)</td>
<td>What is happening here? I guess what the manager (FLC-fc7) is telling me is that the support these foundations provide to the football club contributes towards a long-term pay-off which will ideally be to create the club’s next generation of fans. So decisions on the CSR content these managers take entail this sort of long-term aspiration. The very same manager is also telling me, however, that actions have to be in place in order for their charitable organisation to run smoothly since these managers have the responsibility to report to the Board of Trustees. It seems to be another element of self-preservation that corresponds to the charitable foundation on this time, and not to the club. Interestingly, this Board consists of some influential members of the ‘parent’ football club, but apparently this does not mean that the manager can (or should) overlook the constitutional requirements that a charitable organisations has. Well, this is what I believe; what happens in practice with all these powerful people sitting in the Board might be a different matter. I need to dig more into that, but what I am expecting really to elucidate from the participants on this? A partial answer to my point above may be seen in what FLC-FC9 says in the third data extract here. For the club’s point of view is all about short-termism, legitimising themselves by winning prestigious CSR awards. This is how self-preservation can be achieved from the clubs’ point of view based on what this foundation manager is telling me.</td>
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<td>“It does matter, I mean from a selfish point of view I have to make sure that the charity runs; I have to make sure that money is coming in to pay wages; we’re not for profit so we have to make sure there is enough money to pay everything. And then I have to answer to the trustees who run the charity. On the trustees board is the Chief Exec of the football club and the Managing Director of the football club along with other people away from the club. Our Chief Exec sees in it for us being in the community and how important that is” (FLC-fc7)</td>
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<td>“So, yes, I sit around the table with all the senior managers when we go for our meetings and 4-4-2 awards are pick in their agenda and it’s all PR. So, they want to try and get the 4-4-2 awards from community. So, again, commercially it’s been very, very good, you know. So they won’t really ask me about the disability projects we do, “yeah good, well done”. And other stuff we do, social inclusion, “yeah, well done” – but I must admit we – we won 2 awards for the Kicks Awards in Birmingham and we were the only football club ever -outside the Premiership - to win the awards and we won that this year. So the club made a big thing of that, which was great. So, we’re very proud of what we’ve achieved. But as regards what they want us to do to help them, a couple of times they’ll say that we’re running this event, can you help us and it would be, yeah. But from a more of a corporate point of view, not really. Tickets...selling tickets out in schools. Now, the club have got their own department. So they liaise with me, but it’s their - it’s not my issue, I just help” (FLC-fc9)</td>
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<td>Self-preservation</td>
<td>• “I think the – going to the first one with bridging the gap and we do a lot of player appearances, so the players will come and meet the kids. But what worth is that, it’s arguable, the kids get a lot out of it and meet the players and some of the players are very good, they’re very, very good. On a match day, we do mascots and they see all the players and the players put their arms on the kids and the pictures taken and that would go a lot to, to help bridge the gap. I would say at our club, the kids and the community will know the players more. Yeah, if you walk pass that car park on a match day, you’ll see the big expensive cars. […] So they do get the players out a lot into the community and it does help, it does help. As regard to your second question, building for the future, yes, we help them more in my previous club (which was at a lower division); here, we are seeing as a PR avenue to get good press outs for the Football Club. If you didn’t have a Community Foundation and we got into the Premiership, it would still be sold out; it wouldn’t be a problem. So if you didn’t have a Community Foundation and you are a Division 1 and the gates were down, with the worth of having a foundation being that you get an extra 5,600 people and you’re building for the future? That’s arguable – that is arguable. My own personal belief is somehow each foundation is slightly different, because it depends on what the objectives are of the football club. Now, our one here is very much identification” (FLC-fc9)</td>
<td>Is it about Safeguarding? I argue that one of the principle properties of this axial category is self-preservation. Here, this manager (FLC-fc9) raises an interesting point. Charitable foundations do help to 'bridge the gap' and they also help to 'build for the future'. One could say that the former entails elements of short-termism whereas the latter of more long-term nature. What is important to mention again is that when it comes down to clientele, smaller clubs may need more the work that the foundation is doing as opposed to more high profile clubs. Well, I am not sure about this. For example, higher profile clubs may have more need towards 'bridging the gap', whereas smaller clubs more the need of 'building for the future'. Technology (mobile telephony, Internet, TV) can easily push the young generation of fans towards more successful clubs, and bonds with local clubs become obscure. But again, does it matter? I mean for one reason or another, managers in these foundations make decisions towards Safeguarding the ‘parent’ football club and self-preservation seems to be an essential element of this process; either for short or long-term objectives - for both the club and the foundation. Variations exist amongst different organisations, and I guess this is normal and expected.</td>
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Constraints

External / Internal

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• “So if I told you that in the first three years of Creating Chances this FC had three of the former types of project; that is you were getting £40,000 and doing your own thing. So this FC was very much trying to “this is us, we don’t want to work with outsiders, we don’t want to work with partners because that’s difficult and that’s hard finding them, we don’t want to do the hard work” and now we find ourselves in a position where the landscape has changed, with this current kind of funding you don’t have that safety net of having the opportunity to apply for funding that doesn’t have to be matched. It all has to be matched this time” (PL-fc9)
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From looking at the data collated during Phase 1 of the fieldwork, I can clearly see that managers were talking about all these INTERNAL MECHANICS and STRUGGLES that render decision making a rather challenging exercise within the foundations. When I asked additional questions on these issues, managers gave me examples to illustrate their points – such as PL-fc9 in this excerpt. The manager in this case is opposed to specific constraints that limit what s/he can do; the constraints have been created because of the way the football club used to approach CSR-related work in 2007 when Creating Chances (PL’s flagship CSR programme) was first introduced. This resulted in this manager now having to go ‘out there’ and match the PL funding. But does this manager have the experience and expertise to do that? Will targeted partners see the manager's foundation as an organisation that is capable of delivering and meeting targets when it has never done so before? To this end, the lack of buying-in and/or understanding that a more strategic approach is required when implementing CSR-related programmes causes some more practical issues for these managers; in other words, such externally-related constraints seem to be the result of internal constraints in the first place. What can this manager do to overcome such constraints? What sort of options does s/he have?
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<td>External / Internal</td>
<td>• &quot;The reason behind that was...they had a meeting where most of the clubs’ chairmen said: “we want the money not to go into the community schemes, but to come into the club and the club then will decide where that extra money goes”. Of course, the Football League Trust fought very hard saying “oh no, no, no you can’t do that”. So the Premiership will still be giving their clubs the same amount of money, but the clubs then will decide how they would use that money, and it would get sorted up in the club. That would answer quite a few of your questions in how important the charitable foundation is to the football club” (FLC-fc8)</td>
<td>What FLC-fc8 says here – that charitable foundations receive limited (if any) financial support from the ‘parent’ football clubs – is nothing new. Naturally, this sort of internal constraint has implications on the overall operation of these charitable foundations; however, managers who know this can plan and make decisions accordingly. The key to what FLC-fc8 is saying is that the lower divisions FCs (including those with Championship status) do not have a lot of core funding (at least since 2010) for charitable foundations. It is down to each individual FC to decide whether monies that come from the PL and are supposed to serve CSR-related purposes are indeed being used for such purposes. Is it surprising to hear this? Not particularly, because this is what all foundation managers have been telling me, either explicitly or implicitly, since I started this research: CSR is not a priority for FCs. What this excerpt offers, however, is more compelling evidence that this is indeed the case. What perhaps surprised me the most was the fact that the Premier League did not object to such a request and did not use its veto power to insist that this money can only be used for CSR purposes. Such a decision could have potentially made the transition of foundations from lower leagues to PL (and vice versa) a much easier process. Anyway, the way that FCs (or even English football as a whole) approach CSR limits what their charitable foundations can really do. I will refer to this as an ‘internal constraint’. Such ‘internal constraints’ cause further issues, however; since they prohibit the operations of these managers, thereby creating some ‘external constraints’ too (I referred to this in an earlier memo; see #3a-1). This is somehow manifested to what FLC-fc10 says: managers are therefore required to find ways to overcome all these constraints and, as this particular manager says, to “satisfy the expectations of groups in the community” (FLC-fc10).</td>
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<td>• “So, we are in a difficult situation from the point of view that everybody knows that the image of football club can impress a young person enough for them to want to get involved in activities. Nobody wants to fund it; so the funding bodies won’t fund it because they see football clubs are paying footballers so much money; the football clubs won’t fund it because football clubs are losing money because they are paying players so much; so the funding is nowhere near a level whereby everyone in this department...could satisfy the expectations of groups in the community, nowhere near that level” (FLC-fc10)</td>
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<td>External / Internal</td>
<td>&quot;But again when things are going really well, the communications team is busier and therefore we have maybe less support. So it’s a constant battle to get stories out there, to get a name out there. For people to understand who we are, what we are about and the distinction between us and the club. And I mean, it’s a difficult one; the most challenging part of my job, is raising the awareness of who we are and what we do because there is quite a lot of, not barriers, but it’s just hard work, getting stories out there and getting especially locally&quot; (PL-fc7)</td>
<td>In earlier memos (see #3a-1 and #3a2), I referred to how internal constraints can lead to external constraints. Here, I discuss the key matter of communication. Although the issue of communication can be part of the solution for these two-dimensional constraints, it is also an internally practical constraint in itself. The open category 'COMMUNICATING' suggested the importance of getting the message across (i.e. about the work these foundations do) as it can “boost morale internally” while at the same time it can “raise the profile externally”. However, managers seem to have difficulty succeeding in either of these areas, for various reasons: (a) foundation managers rely on the FC, so the latter makes little effort to satisfy managers’ wishes on the matter, either because they don’t see the value of doing it and/or because they have other priorities; (b) managers have constraints in dealing with the issue themselves, either because they don’t have the resources (or expertise) or because the FC sees them as an integral part of the business (albeit without practically recognising it to the extent that foundation managers would like). At the time of writing this memo (Spring 2011), many of the charitable foundations from both leagues have established their own independent websites; however, as FLC-fc11 indicates, there has been a growing recognition from the FCs that a more integrated approach should be the case (which is again interesting yet paradoxical). I need to explore this issue further. How do foundation managers overcome this internal constraint, particularly when they acknowledge that sharing what they do with the ‘external world’ is part of the Safeguarding process (for their own organisation)?</td>
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<td>Internal</td>
<td>&quot;Access to the website from people outside, obviously they will come on the club’s website to look for what we do because they consider us to be part of the club. Well, possibly, maybe they don’t understand the differences, the structures and management [...] We rely on the football club in all sorts of ways and we service this football club in all sorts of ways [...] they’re always asking us for more information; the reason we don’t give more information is because the same situation we discussed earlier about communication, we spend our time actually doing...We don’t spend our time promoting what we do, and we do need to work harder in promoting what we do through that new technology. From my point of view, the fault in that - if there is a fault - is (my fault actually and not any barrier that has been put up to stop us accessing the website or databases that the football club or information of the football club puts out) that we are so busy actually running activities&quot; (FLC-fc10)</td>
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<td>Internal</td>
<td>&quot;Yes some they have. We did it for a period of time, until the club then said, oh we don’t, why have they got their website? And then they said, actually no, we need their traffic to our website and no, let’s change this and to be fair when the Chief Exec came on our board of trustees, straight away you go to the problems. Well, I am not happy with this, this and this. We seemed to be pushed back because we are not getting enough stories on that. So a part of my KPIs used to give them three stories a week to put on the website from the community&quot; (FLC-fc11)</td>
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### Challenges

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### Illustrative Data Segments (Phase 2)

- “I put a business plan in last year and my overall vision was just to be a true community partner. Beyond that, I haven’t been challenged from the trustees to provide a vision. And to be honest, the vision shouldn’t come from me anyway. You are the trustees and I’m merely the sort of the manager that oversees and implements. I should be implementing their vision. So now I’m going through a process of going around all the trustees individually, with interviews – a bit similar to this - and saying, what’s your vision, how do you see it and then I will bring it all together. So I have gone through the full gamut of trustees that just want sorting out, whatever I needed, I always have loads of support but now I’m in a situation where people are challenging not the need of the trust but the direction of the trust. Where is it going, why is it going that way? Why did we refund the health bid, why are we going for health? Because I recommended it and the people at the time were just happy that it was; the ship was steady. Now we have got a situation where, we have got a good balance of trustees, people are sort of questioning the direction, people want an opinion on the direction, so that would be in” (PL-fc7)

- “The one thing that we are missing the trick is maybe commercially because I think that some organization probably might want to support us - maybe not support the football club – and think of the community projects as part of their CSR. Well I am saying we are missing the trick – I think a couple of us are missing the trick - because the work that we do in the communities is phenomenal. We have an issue with our commercial department because they’ve got no interest in us really. Well, again to talk about the bottom end of the funding so they don’t really show us any sort of give us any help with looking at the commercial stuff because they probably think we’re going to have a lot of what they are doing but it wouldn’t be like that” (FLC-fc7)

### Memo: #3b-1

The PL has required business plans for these charitable foundations since 2009-10; however, something else is more important here; that is the foundation manager feels that s/he has taken on tasks/responsibilities that may be beyond his or her job description. The trustees of this foundation (most of whom come from the ‘parent’ football club) do not have a vision about the actual existential role of the foundation. This seems paradoxical: you are part of an organisation and have the power to set up the strategic direction of this organisation, and yet you have not thought of how this can (or should) be done. I wonder; ‘are you really interested?’; ‘why are you sitting here?’ – the paradox is that people who are involved with the foundation have now recognised the need for having it but they are unsure about its direction and what its role should be. What does the manager mean by saying all this here? The trustees, who come from the club, are the ones who are unsure how this can be done or achieved. This may be why the manager realised that and had to extract their views on this matter. My thoughts here are perhaps best summarised by this Championship-level foundation manager (FLC-fc7), who says that people from the club are ’missing a trick’; they fail to recognise what the foundation can really bring to the club’s business if and when it is truly integrated into the former’s strategy. Is there a bigger hidden risk here? With the commercial/corporate world increasingly embracing the idea of CSR, foundations may soon end up in a stronger position than the ‘parent’ club if the latter does not fully and voluntarily integrate the former into its business in a more strategic way. This might be because the commercial/corporate world needs to liaise with the foundations in order for the former to fulfil their CSR obligations/agenda (potential ‘tunnel vision’ from the football clubs’ perspective). If foundation managers are faced with such challenges, it is presumably normal to be faced with some more practical obstacles (constraints), which in turn make their decisions on CSR-related matters much harder.
## Challenges

### Momentary / Perpetual

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<td>- “I cannot name the football club but I tell you this: he was praising the community work of his club etc etc, but he said if it costs me one penny, I don’t have it there. So that’s the sort of mentality; “they can look after themselves, they can bid for this money; they can bring that money in etc.; if they cost me any money I am not interested” (FLC-fc7)</td>
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<td>- “We struggle here with engaging the very top people within the football club to acknowledge what we do, acknowledge the benefit of what we do and almost... ‘invest’ is the wrong word because they would never invest in it. For some within the club we may exist because there is a statutory obligation to have a community organization. If they could get away with it they – there is one or two. We have a trustee for instance who doesn’t regard us as a real charity; things go like a pseudo charity and we’d feel uncomfortable if we were to generate funds from [...] So it is a strange picture; and I am not sure whether they can understand when it comes to what we do or what we’re trying to achieve. Some can be, one in particular is very dismissive of whatever we do and this is the one that doesn’t actually believe that we’re a charity; he thinks we’re just a political gimmick” (PL-fc9)</td>
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<td>- “So it’s so much of a real nightmare and football does not help itself because some people in football don’t get it. They don’t get it. I have a Chairman say, why all these kids, walking on my football pitch? I say, Mr Chairman, in five years time they could be season ticket holders. He goes, ‘Yeah, they don’t pay anything now, do they?’ You know, it’s very difficult -- and it’s still frustrating at times, so frustrating. Twenty years on, I still have those conversations with chairman of football clubs; not very often, but still...” (Fb-L3)</td>
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<td>- “We have – we have the board of trustees; all of them from the club. Well, the Managing Director chairs it and then the other three, who are sitting there... Between you and I, the amount of work they do for this foundation is about similar to that chair... [...] it’s just purely a meeting where we can say ‘work done, well done’. Two trustees – since I’ve been here, never have failed to turn up and I’ve done my reports and it’s just like no one has questioned it – no one has questioned anything about what I do, no one has ever said on their government agenda” [...] (FLC-fc8)</td>
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<td>I put together a number of data segments to illustrate the point I was trying to make in an earlier memo (#3b-1). Specifically, the point is the lack of vision from the ‘parent’ football clubs’ point of view regarding the utilisation of the corporate foundation for maximising business opportunities and ultimately increasing their chances for becoming sustainable businesses themselves.</td>
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<td>- The club clearly separates itself from the foundation =&gt; if one refuses to support something, this suggests that s/he questions its value.</td>
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<td>- The club also questions the foundation’s value by considering it as a PR and political instrument.</td>
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<td>- Based on what Fb-L3 says, short-term benefits are still what drive football club management.</td>
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<td>- Value acknowledgement does not happen unless active participation and proven interest is ‘in place’.</td>
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<td>If my interpretations of what participants say hold any truth, I wonder how likely it is that the foundation managers will face no practical constraints when making decisions to implement CSR-related problems? To me, it follows naturally that, for example, community stories do not go onto a website in a timely manner, or that FCs do not support foundations when it comes down to commercial deals. Will this change? Is this changing? FB-L3 says “20 years on and still have [...] not very often, but still”. Is this ‘lack of buy-in’ not a perpetual situation? How does this change? What do foundation managers need to do in order to change such lack of vision?</td>
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**Appendix: Memos**
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<td>Challenges</td>
<td>• &quot;Somebody actually accused me recently of saying: “well, you are just building an empire”. We are not! The truth is we are operating in a world where- as you rightly say - virtually every local authority is being cut back, cut back, cut back. Essential services are being cut back [...] we are not trying to build an empire for us. What we are trying to do is get the best outcomes for people in (this city) [...] I think since we’ve got the partnership with the local authority and the NHS, I think we have led quite well. The reason I say that is that one of my real concerns - and I am not just talking about (this city) here - one of my real concerns is that you have people in local authorities with a quite insular mentality; so they are actually not comfortable working with third sector organizations on delivery. Because they don’t see football clubs as experts in community work or in health issues or in whatever it’s going to be. So there is reluctance there amongst some people&quot; (PL-fc10)</td>
<td>It is not only the 'parent' football clubs that often question the value of what these charitable foundations do. From reading additional data from Phase 2, it becomes evident that managers must overcome “insular mentality”, as the PL-fc10 calls it, from key organisations (mainly statutory) that these foundations liaise with. Certain people in various organisations do not really see how football can help them tackle social issues, despite the presence of hard data that proves this is the case. I guess that such challenges cannot be overcome when dealing with these people, which means that these challenges take on a perpetual status. What if these people who hold back CSR-related programmes are replaced by others, which would mean that a new status quo is the case for the organisation(s) in question? Does something like that make this sort of challenges less perpetual? What should the strategy be for foundation managers in order to leave the door open in such cases (I need to look at the property adjustment from the axial category Harmonising – I think I may get some answers there).</td>
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<td>• “To me, challenges, recruiting people to understand, to get people to understand what we actually do is probably the biggest challenge. You just kick the footballs around, aren’t you? Yeah, we do kick footballs around but we actually do this as well and it’s people persona and perception of football could – football sometimes gets in the way because if they see football, they’ll just think of why people are running around and playing football sometimes in this area, you know...It’s massive over...When we do a hair and beauty course, it’s all girls, you know, doing a catwalk, they get certificates for achievements delivered, it’s not boys there, it’s all girls” (FLC-fc8)</td>
<td>Apparently it takes time for such perceptions to change. As FLC-fc8 says, there are still people who think that all these charitable foundations do is to kick some balls around. These are the main challenges that foundation managers must overcome before more practical issues that concern the actual implementation of CSR-related programmes can be tackled. Unless the people who managers rely upon to make things happen not only stop questioning the value but actually start seeing and actively supporting what managers do, the various constraints will remain; they may change in form, but they will be always there. What action points could turn this around? What should managers do?</td>
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Challenges
Momentary / Perpetual

←------→

page 309
**Memo: #3c-1**

What is happening here? What are these managers telling me? The foundation board consists of some key ‘players’ from the ‘parent’ football club. What comes to mind while writing this memo is that the Premier League and the Football League have recently drafted a template service level agreement (SLA) between the club and the foundation that recommends a minimum of two members of the club senior management sit on the board of trustees. However, this is just a recommendation, not something that the foundation managers must do. So why do they do it? Apparently, they see a benefit in doing it; that is quite obvious from what these two managers say here, isn’t it? PL-fc7 sees a board consisting of the key personnel of the ‘parent’ football club as the best way of putting a joint strategy together. By having them there, s/he may be able to overcome specific constraints and make them see/understand what the work that the foundation does can bring to the club. Such a tactical move seems like the manager trying to form an (internal) alliance between the foundation and the club – I need to look at it further. ----- My point here brings me back to my notes based on Phase 1 data. There, I wrote: “[…] These managers are instead faced with ‘tunnel vision’ . As a result, they embark on ‘political manoeuvring’ by exploiting positional rearrangements (“it helps because the current chief executive officer of the football club used to be the community director here, so there is a natural fit there” (FLC-fc6)) and/or lobbying for support in order to get things done (“I have a history with him […] he is not my immediate boss but if I need to lobby for a decision, I go and see him” (Fb-A1)). So they use personal contacts/relationships too? I need to explore this further. There are other cases (e.g., FLC-fc11) in which this sort of ‘alliance’ has been the status quo for some time, as members of the ‘parent’ club have been part of the board. However, this occurs without serving any purpose until the manager decided to bring the CEO in. So is this a different type of tactical move? While writing all this, the social process of **Harmonising** comes to mind. The foundations’ boards consist of people who usually have expertise with the main social issues that require further intervention. I was saying that these managers depend on such highly influential people for the invaluable information they can provide, and therefore help foundation managers tailor their applications for funds. I think it works the other way around too. By bringing these people on board, foundations can demonstrate that these organisations should now be considered as reliable delivery mechanisms of CSR-related programmes. Besides, foundation managers were talking about ‘insular mentalities’ (see memo #3b-3) within some key statutory organisations, and one way to overcome such challenges is apparently to form these types of (external) ‘alliances’?

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<td>“Something like last October, the Chairman expressed an interest in coming on the Board as trustee. Fine, so the Chief Exec said there is no point of having both myself and the Chairman; so the Chief Exec steps out and the Chairman steps in. So we completely changed the trustees; we have now got the Chairman, the finance Director and the HR Director on. So I have now got, the ear of the Chairman for the bigger picture; I have got the financial support internally, through the finance Director, HR support internally through HR Director. So within the three people I have got all the tools to make it work, elements of strategy for going forward” (PL-fc7)</td>
<td>Soft / Firm</td>
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<td>“…because before it used to be the community trust, members of the club used to sit on it. But it never got fed back or it’s two for two. I just thought, you know, let’s invite the Chief Executive on, then he can stay and listen to what we do and have a say in what we do as a trust; and that was my biggest thing that I did because you know, he loved it from then and, oh actually, you need support” (FLC-fc11)</td>
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**Appendix: Memos**
### Memos

**Tactics**

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<td>“I don’t think they are doing it because they are particularly interested in the community - they are just clever enough to say that, you know, this will get us better deals. <strong>I don’t think our guys bother about that - that’s fine. They can deliver that, as long as they get a bit of a cup of the money</strong> and it’s fair because they only exist really to help the football club. I think where they get frustrated is that the football club doesn’t place a value on what they do and that’s where we need to get cleverer and probably have a way to device a financial value, what does this community program bring to [that FC]. They are probably not interested in things that you or I might be interested in here. They probably are interested in how many more fans come to the game and how many more people buy burgers and how many more people buy shirts, media shows...I think our smartest schemes now are beginning to look for ways they can do that. So they can go back to them and just say look: - it might be on the back of some sponsorship deal - we brought you the sponsor because they wouldn’t sponsor you as a club but they will sponsor the community initiative that then will get a bigger partnership for the club or by doing these schools work we have brought, extra 10000 tickets over this season which brought you whatever the income is blah-blah-blah from these. I think that’s what they need to do a little bit smarter” (Fb-L4)</td>
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<td>In this first extract, the League manager (Fb-L4) confirms all these challenges that foundation managers must face with regard to making decisions about the formulation and implementation of CSR-related matters. S/he suggests that in order for these managers to overcome these constraints and challenges, they must become cleverer. How? What does ‘becoming cleverer’ entail? Perhaps it means quickly bringing back something whereby the club can see the immediate benefit that the foundation can offer to it. The manager also admits that the foundation managers do not have a problem if the ‘parent’ club benefits from any deal the foundation secures; the way I see the “our guys do not bother about that” comment is linked to the axial category Safeguarding. At the same time, however, I think they do bother, since tunnel vision that brings practical constraints does not let them go far beyond what they achieve at that exact moment; therefore, some actions are necessary to get there. FLC-fc8, for example, is telling me what sort of actions s/he undertook to get there ⇔ s/he does something by taking the initiative, and this is something that can also help the foundation. I think the lack of vision from the clubs’ perspective that foundation managers are faced with can be overcome by results; that is, tactical actions that offer the short-term results that club management is seeking, something that will hopefully help eliminate these challenges. In memo #3c-1, I talked about forming a type of (internal and external) ‘alliance’. Here, I think it is also a matter of rationalising their raison d’être? I need to look at the data to see if that is the case.</td>
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In an earlier memo (see #3c-2), I pondered whether foundation managers undertake some tactical actions through which they try to convince various key stakeholder groups, in a rather logical manner, that what they do has actual value. Going back to the data collated in Phase 2, I see elements of this type of tactical action. However, what FLC-fc8 is telling me here is that because these charitable foundations depend (=> linkages to the axial category Harmonising again) on a number of people who usually have a very high local standing, the managers deliberately highlight the significance of the local football club in the area and the power it actually has for social change (that is, they promote the club and the foundation as one unit). In this way, foundation managers demonstrate how their network can benefit the club. Going back to #3c-2, this is why they invite key personnel from the ‘parent’ football club to sit on the board: in order to see and liaise with these influential people at the local level. I think PL-fc12 makes it even more explicit: interestingly s/he uses the word ‘manipulation’, meaning that each party involved in the process of what we can call ‘implementing CSR through football’, has its own objectives; that is, a different rationale for doing it. Foundation managers are aware of the fact that most, if not all, football clubs care less than they do about social change through CSR. By knowing that, they employ tactics to get as much as they can in order to deliver more in an environment/context that offers the scope for them to do so.

What PL-fc12 offers here is extremely interesting – I need to look closer at the data, but are we talking about reciprocity here?


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<tr>
<td><strong>Tactics</strong></td>
<td>“So we always try not to rely on what they do. It’s what we do that counts and we just got a deal with the local newspaper, the editor there and met with him the other day. He is backing us and he is looking to give his column once a week in the newspaper to say what we do in the community. Anything we want to – giving something back to say you know, we are the club’s community trust. Out there people won’t know when this engagement would work. They won’t know the community trust, they just see football in the community as part of the club. So we want to tell people this is what we are doing” (FLC-fc11)</td>
<td>In earlier memos, I was trying to make sense of what set of actions foundation managers employ in order to get what they want; in fact, the ‘what they want’ part is all about overcoming constraints and ensuring more ‘buy-in’ from the ‘parent’ football club. The managers try to form some kind of ‘internal and external alliances’ by bringing into their organisations (that is, the foundations) influential people from the club and from local key organisations. They also take initiatives with the goal of offering to the clubs some immediate benefits by, for example, sealing a commercial deal (e.g., on the back of a sponsorship) from the CSR-related work they do though the foundation. However, a closer look at the data reveals that foundation managers employ some more drastic actions. In the excerpts here, for example, foundation managers go beyond forming internal alliances or rationalising the importance of the required support, simply because they realise there are some major walls to break (e.g., on COMMUNICATING) and they actually have to take some drastic actions to achieve what they want (I guess these sort of actions can also be seen as the necessary route for Safeguarding (axial category) their own foundation). I think the example of the weekly column in a local newspaper highlights this. At the same time, going as far as to launch an independent website through which constraints associated with mainly COMMUNICATING, but also indirectly with UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE and INTERNAL MECHANICS can be overcome. By taking such drastic actions, it seems that the ‘parent’ football club realises the ‘value of losing’ that (i.e. its image building through community work). More succinctly, these ‘hard’ actions will sooner or later force the football club to see the value that these charitable foundations can offer to them (something that eventually helps managers overcome the constant questioning of what they do (see challenges)). Of course, this is just an example that refers explicitly to the issue of communication, which leads to the linkage of UNACCUSTOMED PARLANCE, which is associated with cynicism and misapprehensions. All of these factors make up the constraints and challenges that these managers are faced with.</td>
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<td><strong>Soft / Firm</strong></td>
<td>“Yes some they have. We did it [having a separate website] for a period of time, until the club then said, oh we don’t, why have they got their website? And then they said, actually no, we need their traffic to our website and no, let’s change this and to be fair when the Chief Exec came on our board of trustees, straight away you go to the problems. And I say, well, I am not happy with this, this and this. We seemed to be pushed back because we are not getting enough stories on that” (FLC-fc11)</td>
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<td><strong>Soft / Firm</strong></td>
<td>“We are part of the FLI group of websites. And so it’s a pretty much a one size fits all solution. It’s an attractive solution for league clubs because it costs in terms of real hard cash nothing to run; and they generate an income, as you know. But you have to make allowances for that; you have to make allowances so that your restrictions are in place as to what you can do. And in terms of a community section within a website, you are pretty limited as to what you can do which is why we elected to have our own website, which is actually at the moment being redeveloped because it’s not at a standard that I am happy with” (FLC-fc8)</td>
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<td>Passion</td>
<td>• &quot;When I was younger, I always wanted to be a footballer. I think second to that to have a job in football is sort of a secondary level aspiration. So although I don’t play football and of course I don’t get paid to go out on the pitch, to still have a job in football, still ticks a lot of those early boxes. So the early contact with football and the sort of passion for the game still exists, just I was never quite good enough to play, still the good thing is I’m in a job that will keep me in football for another 20 years or so. Now not many players will probably stay in the game till 20 years, so I have now got a commercial job, running the Trust that I can look to develop for 20 years or so&quot; (PL-fc7)</td>
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<td>• &quot;From my point of view I just saw it as a part of your life; so from being a youngster and playing local football, it just became part of your life; so the sort of passion for football irrelevant of what level you play at didn’t really matter if you had the passion to do something then you could use that passion to develop other things&quot; (FLC-fc7)</td>
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<td>• &quot;I used to be a beneficiary of this work. I used to come to Arsenal soccer schools in the 80s and the early 90s as a youngster. I lived here, I was once a beneficiary of these projects and I helped to deliver them. So, and the fact is I know this area very well. I know the people well. I know the young people. For me, I’m extra passionate...&quot; (PL-fc8)</td>
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<td>• &quot;16 years and I have been here during that whole process; I think the reason I am stuck is because of what I believe in, passionately about; So what I am passionate about is this football club, but I am also passionate about the community that I am from. I believe that football gave me something to aspire to, I ended working in a professional game through where we are now. So I sort of understand that football can give you some beliefs and directions of where you want to go, I am not – not everyone is going to end up working in football, but I can see that football and sport can help you to aspire&quot; (FLC-fc1)</td>
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I look at the first three excerpts, which are three different foundation managers who are ‘attached’ to three different football clubs with three different playing statuses. One club battles every year to avoid relegation from the PL, the second faces similar challenges in the Championship, and the third at the Champions League level. Despite the different situational circumstances in which they make decisions on CSR-related matters, what do these three managers have in common? I suppose the answer is that football has been the first ‘love’ for all of them; the driver that made them believe in life and to try achieve things; that is, not necessarily to become super star footballers (although they would love to have). It was within that context (as well) that their values were shaped and guided until today (as one participant (FLC-fc1) from Phase 1 also openly admits). It is the passion that resulted from and for the game that guides these managers to develop situations from which others can now benefit (as they have themselves in the past). If a less structured context offered them such a positive platform in their lives, one can imagine what today’s organised (CSR) landscape can offer. But is it only this? Is it only because they have ‘seen’ and ‘experienced’ that power themselves? Is it only by bringing back memories that they express in such a firm manner their passion for what they do?
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<td>Passion</td>
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• “So when we go out to, and obviously it’s easy to talk about your own job but there are elements of it that are very positive and you do get - as opposed to working in a factory or working in an office - some of the stuff, some parts of the job are really rewarding” (PL-fc7)

• “I think it’s an extra driver because I love the job that I do, so that’s an extra driver. And for me it’s an extra driver because I’m willing to go, work harder for the club and I enjoy my work, so work harder” (PL-fc8)

• “This job? I am not saying they are not passionate the rest of the football club, but the community guys seem to have a real passion about what they do and we’re probably the farthest down the pecking order of when it comes to funding and everything else. There is such a passion about what we do, and that’s probably why we’re actually doing the job […] I think the passion of my staff is for that to happen; we are always looking at new initiatives” (FLC-fc7)

• “It’s incredibly satisfying on a personal level […] when you see that the club that you have identified with since you have been a child and has played a sort of a pivotal role in your life, throughout your life. Yes, sometimes you just drift away from and then you come back but - it’s always there. And to see that organization, that club, that being actually making a real positive and substantial difference to people’s lives in many different areas is incredibly rewarding […] I have to bite my lips sometimes because you start to well up a bit because, you know what, this is why we do this because not only is it positive for them but their parents who are sitting in the room and their grandparents and their extended families - I mean frankly, the day to day dealing with highly paid footballers in this slightly ridiculous world of football can sometimes leave you cold in terms of how rewarding it is to come to work. Seeing young people, some with disabilities, both mental health issues or physical challenges to overcome or just generally people who haven’t had an opportunity in life and starting to turn their lives around for them is incredibly powerful” (FLC-fc8)

• “I mean I’ve got a couple of guys who work for me now, fantastic at the job - health and wellbeing manager - but he has never kicked a football in his life. But he is on the ball with health and wellbeing. He is passionate about football but he just never played football. So, I do think that the important bit is that you do have that sort of passion for the game whether you’re watching, whether you are playing, whether you’re coaching” (FLC-fc7)

• “[…] little stories like that, to me give me the biggest satisfaction than getting a check for £50k I used to. It’s how you’ve impacted people’s lives is why I do the job” (FLC-fc11)

I was wondering whether it is only the early engagement with football (and with sport in general) that makes the attribute of passion so significant in the way these managers carry out their job. Re-examining the data, it becomes evident that the answer is an emphatic ‘no’! If the early engagement (as participants/actors) with sports can be seen as a prerequisite for the attribute of passion to be ‘present’ in the decision-making process these foundation managers go through, then the current engagement (that is, as agents in this process) makes them even more passionate about what they do. This is because they can now see the positive results from engaging with others (not just with themselves), which is an extremely rewarding practice, as the extracts here testify. I suppose the early engagement helps when one sits back and reflects on where s/he is and what s/he is doing in this life; taking away the challenges that exist in the process of performing a task; it helps, but is it essential?
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| Passion           | • “They don’t have to be footballers, they don’t have to be interested in football. What we do want to help them though is to understand that they have got 35, 40 years ahead of them of working. Well, try and get into a job that you might want to have an interest in. You might be passionate about, like I am about football. I am so privileged and grateful that I have had 35 years of working in this sport that I love and still love. If they can get that, they might love gardening. Well, let’s get you into gardening and go and give you a start, a head start, a leg-up if you like towards getting into that” (PL-fc10)  
• “I feel a passion to helping people rather than just football. So my passion comes from whether it’s football or whether we run a hair and beauty module or whether we run a DJ module, or whether we run a break-dance module, the same outcome should be: we’re effecting young people in that area. So whether it’d be football or whether it would be a different sport or a different activity, I’m more conscious that I can use the brand of the club to engage young children more so than just doing football” (FLC-fc9)  
• “I think also if you come in and conduct similar interviews with all my staff that work in the Foundation their main motivation would be feeling good about the work they do, they would be passionate about what they are doing. You know, we all need to earn a living, but I would say the driver for most of the people within our organization, it’s passionate working with kids directly or youth and seeing the benefits and believe in what they are doing now” (FLC-fc1)  
• “I think that’s noticeable to anybody who comes in here or who works alongside us is the sort of passion and the belief in it. People here as they say, they are not all this club’s fans some of them are, some of them aren’t but they all understand the responsibility and the power that we have got and the difference that we can make” (PL-fc3) | In this memo, I build on memo #4a-2: the fact that these managers’ passion derives from an early engagement with football/sport does not mean that this should or will be the case in the lives of either participants or members of staff (potentially the future foundation managers; that is, the ones who will be making decisions in these organisations). This is how I make sense of what, for example, PL-fc10 says: the key issue for the beneficiaries of CSR-related programmes is to become passionate about something; if foundation managers achieve that through the programmes on offer; then the managers’ passion has essentially offered content to those participants who can, in turn, become passionate about something; this can ultimately give meaning to their lives. But what is the ‘content’ I refer to here? What is clearer, I think, is that decisions made about CSR-related programmes are not exclusively related to football. What matters to managers is the outcome. Do their decisions have an effect on peoples’ lives? This is the question. I assume that the marketing manager of a football club would prefer this effect to be associated with the sport of football, and for that matter his/her football club. However, the attribute of passion that is present in the foundation managers’ decision-making transcends that; s/he is fortified by a passion for changing lives for the better. This goal can be both the minimum and the maximum; the rest may just be a bonus. |

PASSION

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| Trust Absolute/Partial | • “They are very proud of our work; whenever there has been a parliamentary sort of enquiry on governance in football our Chief Exec loves talking about our work. He seems genuinely very proud of it, so I think they know, I think we get that trust because we know what we are doing and I guess they are happy to support us” (PL-fc8)  
• “I think there is some trust, I am sure there is trust particularly here because of our track-record at what we have delivered and the positive PR that the club has got from it” (FLC-fc8)  
• “At this club, I think the Board of Directors, the Chairman of Football Club is quite comfortable with allowing myself, my Board, my Chairman and my Board of Trustees and my senior management team to set the agenda. They are aware of what we want to do and where we want to go, they have agreed that and they are comfortable with that. In my time here they never sort of said we are not happy with that direction or we want you to go and do this, that’s never been – I have never had that so far. I would welcome it- I think what is happening at the moment is it’s a little bit like just a nodding dog scenario” (FLC-fc2)  
• “I think, there is a bit of trust; I think our chairman here understands that there is a bit of knowledge about community interaction and I think – I am really genuinely thinking that he respects the fact that we have got sort of knowledge and that direction. And I think he does let us get on with that from that point of view” (PL-fc10)  
• “I came on board and I got loads of support [...] a lot of the issues were financial or structural or commercial and there was a lot of trust placed in me to get the job done [...] with regards to strategy and direction in the Foundation and which way we will go in, wide open” (PL-fc7)  
• “The only pressure I feel in this department is to try and do as much as we can do. He doesn’t try or he’s never tried to push me into doing certain things. He has allowed me to set up an activity program that is completely integrated and doesn’t have any, I think in the 17 years I’ve been here we have received about 5 complaints in total. So, he’s quite happy that we are seeing between four and five thousand children a week and they are all getting a sample or a taste of the football club and not entirely picking up their football allegiance from the television” (FLC-fc10)  
• “I mean there are some clubs who will have quite small board of trustees because they want to retain control, but that wasn’t the reason we went to charitable status; we might have well remained where we were if we were going to do that; and that’s been quite a challenge with the football club to get them to almost relieve their power over it but because they trust me and they trust what we do and because they believe in what we do” (FLC-fc4) | I had to look closer at the data set; I even went back to Phase 1 interviews. What these extracts illustrate here is that there is an element of trust from the ‘parent’ football club towards the managers who run these charitable foundations. The extent of the trust varies between cases; for example, I read that there is “a lot’, ‘a bit’, uncertainty (i.e. “I think...”), but again what matters to me is not to find out how much trust there is amongst the examined cases, but that the decision-making process is based on some element of trust that these managers enjoy from the ‘parent’ company. Why do they ‘enjoy’ their trust? Is it really trust? I believe that there is some kind of trust because, in a simplistic sense, it is the foundation managers who admit that. I suppose I could be suspicious if managers from the ‘parent’ company told me that ‘we trust the managers who oversee the foundation’. There is no total buy-in, for sure, and I talk about that in Manoeuvring. But there is also trust. The reasons why there is trust can somehow be seen in the data [knowledge, background, expertise, results]. Could the results be the catalyst that determines the degree of trust? Equally important: do managers trust the others (e.g. partners, the football club, etc.)? |
### Trust

**Absolute/Partial**

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<td><strong>Trust</strong></td>
<td>&quot;The private sector is happy to give you the money and let you go on with it because they don’t have an expertise in that, you are doing it for them&quot; (FLC-fc6)</td>
<td>The element of trust is evident when these foundation managers associate with organisations beyond the ‘parent’ company. But how does Transcending occur in these cases? I think this is a question I need to ask when I go to the field to refine my concepts by conducting more interviews. Corporate partners and statutory organisations: trust is there (or needs to be there) in both cases, but how does Transcending occur?</td>
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<td>&quot;I think public, private, organizations that have traditionally existed outside of football and perhaps sometimes even outside of sport, they have seen we can help deliver, you know they can use football to benefit what they are trying to achieve&quot; (FLC-fc1)</td>
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<td>&quot;One of the big issues that emerged from recent consultation we’ve done with 20 young people here in our local area is that they don’t trust, not just us, they don’t trust the outside world. Not one they trust. So they see us as a bit of a joke really, you know, coming in, all nice and dressed and parachuting in and parachuting out and making promises and naturally the problem is the ongoing social issues that faces everybody in deprived areas. So until you can build their trust all of the amount of money you can put into these schemes and I contradict myself because whilst I believe in what we do 100%, I know there is a huge area of what we do that isn’t sustainable&quot; (PL-fc12)</td>
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<td>&quot;So as an alternative to the classroom teacher day in, day out, when the club’s coach come in, it’s fantastic. So what we need to do is to go in then and once we have opened the door, once we have opened their minds, then our staff is trained to get good rapport and good trust and only when those things are done can they then start doing the proper work with them&quot; (PL-fc4)</td>
<td>I think I was missing the most important issue. Nothing happens, even if you have absolute trust from the ‘parent’ company, absolute trust from the corporate world or from the statutory organisations, unless the foundation and its members are capable of earning the programmes participants’ trust. How do you do that? By initially using HOOKING (that is, earning the trust - e.g., “Ah, it is the football club!”; “it is player X!”), but then through having real substance under the overall implementation of CSR-related programmes, trust remains and increases. This is how Transcending can occur. But it is essential to have trust between the corporate foundation and the target groups that the CSR-related programmes are aiming for. What do I mean by substance? How do we know that we have it? What is required? How do we prove that we have it?</td>
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<td>&quot;We take a player, let’s say Dennis who is an ex-player, and we have taken him around to schools; but the kids will be really excited for about three minutes, then Dennis just becomes Dennis. Now if you haven’t got any substance to Dennis or to the club then they walk away, that’s why you need substance&quot; (PL-fc4)</td>
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<td>Enhancement</td>
<td>“[...] but also to <strong>have underneath the information some substance</strong>, so it’s not me just say: “we do this, we are wonderful”!, anybody could come to me and say, well, “Where is the proof?” You might say you work with half a million young people, show me, and I can! You might question my carbon footprint but we will likely show it - it’s independent and verified, it’s not just me saying it, it’s actually <strong>got something underneath it</strong>, there is not many organisations will do that, they will say we do this, we do that. But I hope that we can demonstrate it’s really happening and then we can take anybody, anytime to see it, it’s touchable, it’s real, it’s there and I think that helps so it’s not pretend, it’s there, it’s there to touch” (PL-fc2)</td>
<td>I had to go back and look at the data from Phase 1. The message here is pretty clear: CSR-related programmes must be measured; the fact that the funders require the foundations to do so may be the prime reason, but it eventually becomes a meaningful exercise for the latter as both their existence and role depend greatly on the outcomes (Harmonising? Safeguarding?). Managers recognise the fact that this is not an easy exercise, partly because of the lack of resources, partly because of the lack of skills within the existing pool of resources of the foundations, and partly because not all programmes’ impact can be captured numerically (which is, I suppose, a more straightforward task sometimes). In other words, it is through measuring and evaluating how well or less well they do in their specific engagements that the <strong>enhancement</strong> of these (or future) programmes can be achieved. I cannot see how differently the <strong>enhancement</strong>, and ultimately <strong>Transcending</strong> can occur: Are we now talking about performance here? Does the (current) performance of charitable foundations determine the way forward for (future) performance, at least in the way these managers are making decisions?</td>
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<td>Concrete/Imprecise</td>
<td>“We <strong>evaluate absolutely everything</strong>, partly <strong>because the funding bodies require it</strong> and then it just becomes an integral part of what you do” (PL-fc3)</td>
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### Illustrative Data Segments (Phase 2)

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<td>&quot;I'm a massive believer in realistic outcomes. [...] So to me, football is a massive engagement tool, but I also think people misuse it; there is a lot of commercial people that go into it to make a lot money out with no positive outcomes, they might say: &quot;oh, yeah but I found a player&quot;. For every player you find there are at least 500 players that won't be players, where they're going to go? What they're going to do? But coming from a moral and an ethical stand, a decent football club, which uses football as an engagement to the young people will also have partnership groups, which will be able to have positive outcomes to all people: whether that's education, whether that's employment; whether that's a social, you know, that's massively important because some of the children we deal with have got very, very substantial social issues. So you got to very careful in how you use football with those kids, because you could be misleading&quot; (FLC-fc9)</td>
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<td>&quot;You provide exit roots for your achieved outcome. So if your target is, say, for the £1k the NHS give you to achieve 80 outcomes, that is 80 obese people; 80 obese people isn't going to affect the national obesity strategy. So that is your achieved outcome, you've done that. Your exit root will be to provide an exit root for those 80 people to go on to potentially a gym or a sports club or a further education course because they might have enjoyed the pathway and they can -- the sustainable element of the program is how more outcomes can be achieved by using your achieved outcomes&quot; (PL-fc12)</td>
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<td>&quot;CSR is not just about or shouldn't be just about putting money into the community; it should be getting to understand the community, reacting and supporting and helping the needs in that community and trying to capacity build within the community. If you are always servicing a need without solving the issue you just...it just continues - if all the community work you have to do is just providing the service and not moving that organization or that community to the next level to empower themselves to become self-sufficient and growing, then we just continue as we are&quot; (FLC-fc2)</td>
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<td>&quot;An example: 'Show Racism a Red Card', they come here, once a year and they do an event with 100 kids. We send two players there, the Mayor comes, the press come and we talk about racism and football, all these kind of things, really nice program, gets a lot of exposure in the press because the Mayor is there, the players are there, et cetera, et cetera. Is it a credible program, yeah it is, but does it actually make a difference, not really. So it's credible, but is it impactful? I don't think so [...] So I think credibility for me is about doing things for the right reasons, so again going back to this because there is a need, because you got to share outcomes with your partners, we don't do anything anymore for the sake of doing, everything has a reason for us doing it&quot; (FLC-fc4)</td>
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### Memo: #4c-2

Foundation managers emphasise how important **outcomes** are in terms of what they do. **Outcomes** is the key word, here, not simply measuring and evaluating; I think **enhancement** is all about outcomes, with outcomes being the starting point for **enhancement** to be achieved. To do that, the targets should be realistic. But what does realistic mean in this context? I suppose it means not making false promises (e.g. FLC-fc9) or having as much impact as possible. Impact is not only reflected in how many people participate in just any programme, but also what is the impact to the community of the programme itself (e.g. PL-fc2). As I wrote in an earlier memo, the key for either is to have evidence. However, **enhancement**, and therefore **Transcending**, occurs when you build on the achieved outcomes as PL-fc12 insightfully explains, and when you don't keep servicing a need, as one early participant told me (FLC-fc2). This is what I believe foundation managers strive for when making decisions. If they build on achieved outcomes (a result of measuring and evaluating), then they can go beyond merely servicing a need since they, somehow, offer **empowerment**. For these organisations, their engagement is all about offering the power and status to the targeted groups (whether it is pupils, socially excluded teenagers, obese adults, etc.) to deal with the issue, either themselves or by them further liaising with a social agency through the provided exit routes.