Women on boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): is gender a factor?

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WOMEN ON BOARDS OF DIRECTORS IN AUSTRALIAN NATIONAL SPORTING ORGANISATIONS (NSOs): IS GENDER A FACTOR?

Submitted by
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A thesis submitted in total fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of
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Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):  
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Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
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Statement of Sources

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis by which I have qualified for or been awarded another degree or diploma.

No other person’s work has been used without due acknowledgement in the main text of the thesis.

This thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution.

All research procedures reported in the thesis received the approval of the relevant Ethics/Safety Committees (where required).

Signed:

Dated:

8th August 2014
Abstract

Sport plays a significant role in Australian culture, but gender inequity continues both in player participation and in the management and governance of sporting organisations. This is reflective of the continued male domination evidenced elsewhere in Australian organisations. Women remain under-represented on sports boards in Australia. The under-representation of women in governance positions, in Australia and overseas, persists despite almost thirty years of legislation directed towards anti-discrimination and equal opportunity. While there is a significant body of research around women on boards of corporate and for-profit entities, less research exists around examinations of women in sporting governance in Australia.

This research applies institutional theory (an explanatory approach) and the capabilities approach (a social justice approach) to an examination of how women continue to be under-represented in board positions. Institutional theory can be used to explain and understand organisational change and how structures and actions become normalised institutional rules (Kikulis 2000; Slack & Hinings 1994). The capabilities approach can be used to explain and understand individual perceptions of success (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). Recent examinations of women’s achievements in the board room have largely focussed on women gaining their ‘place at the table’ and have viewed the lack of women in the boardroom as a repression of women. The capabilities approach provides a perspective whereby women’s application of choice is considered (Cornelius & Skinner 2008).

A mixed methods case study approach was used to inform this research study. Three sports were selected for study based on their apparent commitment to gender equity, displayed through organisational policy and constitutional directive. An examination of organisational documents was conducted. A survey was distributed to board members of three national sporting organisations and the associated state level sporting organisations. Follow-up interviews were conducted with board members who offered to participate. A further examination of organisational documents was conducted pursuing themes identified in the survey results and interviews. The data
collection methods used were designed to gather information related to perceptions of how women obtain a position on a sporting board at national sporting organisation (NSO) and state sporting organisation (SSO) level; whether they receive adequate support and training in such a position; whether they feel there are any obstacles to obtaining a board position; and, whether the board is perceived to function differently with a greater female presence.

Study results indicate that there is increasing awareness of the need to move to more business-like governance practices. It was strongly contended by respondents that the “best person for the job” is now the criterion on which board appointments are made. Two of the case organisations have constitutional requirements for women to represent a given percentage of their boards, but there are some moves in certain state organisations within one of the case sports to abolish this clause. There was also an indication that major coercive pressure for change is still underway; participants detailed proposed changes towards developing a ‘peak body’ model for NSOs and SSOs in the future, a plan driven by the Australian Sports Commission (ASC).

The findings indicate that these organisations are continuing to move through various stages of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation. All three institutional isomorphic processes were observed at various stages, particularly coercive isomorphic pressure resulting from ASC merger requirements and funding imperatives. Nevertheless there is little evidence to suggest that having a significant representation of women on sports boards has become fully institutionalised.

The study concludes that, while new institutional ideas have been introduced to change board structure and practice, such as non-member elected board appointees who are recruited for their corporate governance expertise, the gender bias that has shaped historical practice remains. The study also illustrates how gender-oriented institutional theory does a better job of accounting for the problems that still exist for women aspiring to senior management and board positions than the usual business case and social justice approaches to these issues.
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**Acronyms**

ACB  Australian Cricket Board
AFL  Australian Football League
AHRI  Australian Human Resource Institute
AIS  Australian Institute of Sport
AICD  Australian Institute of Company Directors
AOC  Australian Olympic Committee
ARL  Australian Rugby League
ASC  Australian Sports Commission
ASX  Australian Stock Exchange
AWRA  Australian Women's Sport & Recreation Association
CEDAW  Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CEO  Chief Executive Officer
CFO  Chief Financial Officer
CMAC  Corporations and Market Advisory Committee
EOWA  Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency
EPWN  European Professional Women’s Network
FAHCSIA  Australian Government Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs
FIIN  Feminism and Institutionalism International Network
FTSE  Financial Times (and London) Stock Exchange Index
IOC  International Olympic Committee
MWHA  Melbourne Women’s Hockey Association
NATSEM  National Centre for Social and Economic Modelling
NSO  National Sporting Organisation
SSO  State Sporting Organisation
WCA  Women’s Cricket Australia
WGEA  Workplace Gender Equality Agency (formerly EOWA)
WOB  Women on Boards

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1 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Australian sporting organisation boards are dominated by men, as are Australian boards of directors and senior management positions across the entire spectrum of corporate and not-for-profit organisations (Claringbould & Knoppers 2008; Hillman et al. 2007; Pesonen et al. 2009; Singh et al. 2008; Thomson & Graham 2005). This under-representation continues despite almost thirty years of legislation directed against discrimination on the grounds of sex and towards equal opportunity (see Appendix 1.1 for a summary of legislation in Australia). The paucity of women in ‘top jobs’ is considered detrimental, for a variety of reasons, to the optimal functioning of modern organisations (McKinsey, 2007; 2008; 2009; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007). The numbers of women in various management and governance positions is regularly reported upon and analysed by a variety of academic, commercial and not-for-profit organisations. Recent statistical indicators, detailed in the following background information, confirm this assertion. The purpose of this research is to explore, in the setting of Australian sporting organisations, how women continue to be under-represented in board positions and what mechanisms may be influential in the continuation, or change, of this state of affairs. This chapter lays the foundations for this thesis by explaining the background, aims and objectives for this study.

1.1 Background

The following background provides the contextual information that supports the contention that women remain under-represented on boards, both corporate and not-for-profit, and the reasons for the focus in this study on sporting organisations.

1.1.1 Women in the workplace in Australia

The percentage of women on boards of Australian Stock Exchange (top 200 companies), ASX200, companies in 2012 was 13.9 percent (Women on Boards (WOB) 2012), and in 2013 was 15.8 percent. The 2012 figure represents an increase in the number of women with ‘a seat at the table’ from previous years and is attributed largely to the changes in listing rules
that women’s participation rates overall in the paid workforce in Australia have steadily risen while men’s have been declining. Women’s greater participation in the workforce has not led to an equal representation at senior management and board level; nor has it led to equal pay, particularly at senior management level, with the gender pay gap reported as being 17 percent (AMP 2009; Cassells et al. 2009).

Macquarie University conducted research for the Australian Government’s EOWA in 2009, titled *Pay, power and position: Beyond the 2008 EOWA Australian Census of Women in Leadership*. This research analysed the EOWA census data and reported the following observations:

- Once women reach a board position their performance is rated as equal to men. Performance is measured by the number of board committees chaired.

- The number of women reaching board level continues to decline.

- Women on boards improve company performance, although no causal link was established.

- Women still tend to be better represented in ‘softer’ industries.

- Women are better represented in not-for-profit and government positions. (EOWA 2008, pp 5-6)

The *Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012* (the Act) and its predecessor, the *Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act 1999*, require all non-public sector employers with 100 or more employees to report annually. The Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) - (Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace (EOWA) until 2012), collects this data and reports regularly on compliance with the Act. The 2010, 2012 and 2013 data released by Women on Boards, *The Board Diversity Index*, confirms the continuation of the above trends as reported by EOWA.
The Calls for Change

In Australia:

Public pressure is increasing for steps to be taken to redress the persistent inequities in the workplace (WOB 2010; 2012; 2013). A number of targeted initiatives have been suggested and/or implemented. For example:

Claire Braund, Executive Director of Women on Boards, has called for a minimum of 40 percent of directors, of all Australian boards, to be female (Braund 2010);

Sex Discrimination Commissioner in Australia, Elizabeth Broderick, has formed a ten man group, The Male Champions of Change, to mentor women and entrench change for greater gender equity. The members of this group include the CEOs and Chairmen of some of the major employers in Australia: Woolworths, Telstra, Origin Energy, IBM, Deloitte, Citi Group, Goldman Sachs and Westpac (Price 2010);

The Australian Institute of Company Directors (AICD) has launched a program, the ASX 200 Chairmen’s Mentoring Program, to provide practical and concrete measures designed to help achieve a greater representation of women on boards (AICD 2010);

The Business Council of Australia (BCA) has also announced a program designed to boost the numbers of female Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and Chief Financial Officers (CFOs) in the ASX200 companies. The C-Suite Project was launched in March 2010 and is being conducted in conjunction with the Australian Human Resources Institute (AHRI). The project is designed to open up pathways for women to achieve senior executive positions and bring company performance in line with “community reality and expectations” (Business Council of Australia (BCA) 2010).

Overseas:

In countries such as Norway, France and Spain mandatory quotas for female representation on boards of directors have been introduced. The Netherlands has recently introduced a quota system for female participation in senior management positions, as well as on boards.
(Broderick 2010b). Setting quotas for female participation on boards is seen as one way of ensuring women gain equal status to men (Braund 2010). Providing male mentors as change agents and institutionalising gender equity is another (Broderick 2010b). Attaining such goals is supported by research that attempts to identify the cause and effect mechanisms surrounding the under-representation of women in senior management and on boards.

1.1.2 The focus on sporting organisations

The role of sport in Australian culture is significant (Pettigrew 2001). The importance of sport in Australian society is highlighted by the prominence of sport in almost all facets of everyday life: news bulletins, pub and dinner conversations, the standing of politicians and even the timing of weddings are subject to the sway of sporting events (Broderick 2010a). Gender inequity, both in participation and in the management of sporting organisations, reflects the continued male domination evidenced elsewhere in Australian organisations (Pettigrew 2001).

National sporting organisations in Australia are those that are funded by the Federal Government. Increasing pressure has been placed on national sporting organisations since 2000 to increase the number of women on their boards of directors (WOB 2010). The 2006 Senate enquiry, About Time! Women in Sport and Recreation in Australia, determined that problems identified over the last two decades have continued. Women are poorly represented on boards, and in leadership and coaching positions in sport; media coverage of women’s sport is minimal. The Boardroom Diversity Index (2012) (the Index), published by Women on Boards, reports that there are 470 directors of national sporting organisations in Australia. Of those 470 directors, only 110, or 23.4 percent, are women. The 2013 figures, only a one percent increase overall, have barely altered the statistics. The percentage of female directors on national sporting organisation boards in 2006/07 was 14 percent. The 2010 figure (26.5%) represented an increase of 8.7 percent from the previous figures published. Unfortunately, the 2012 and 2013 figures represent a decrease from the 2010 figure of 26.5 percent. This change has been largely attributed to the changing mix of sporting bodies in the index. There has been an increase in the number of bodies classified as NSOs and the mix of sports in the index changes frequently. Even though there has been improvement in the number of women
participating in sports governance, these numbers are still not representative of their participation levels in playing sport.

Women participate in sport in similar numbers to men; the Australian Sports Commission (ASC 2012) reports that 48 percent of Australians over 15 years of age participate in some form of sport. Of those who participate in sport, participation rates are 51 percent for females and 45 percent for males, except in the 15-24 years age bracket where the percentage male participation rate is greater (ASC 2012). Participation is not spread evenly across sports and there are clear distinctions made between male and female sports. These distinctions have until recently been reflected in their governance structures. Several board amalgamations have occurred in the past few years to eliminate the distinction between some men’s and women’s games, for example, cricket and hockey (WOB 2010). Hockey Australia, formed by the joining of the Australian Hockey Association and Women's Hockey Australia, incorporated into their new constitution a requirement for at least three male and three female members on their board (WOB 2010). While acknowledging a few exceptions, the overall representation of women on NSO boards remains reflective of the persistent male and female divide in Australian sports.

Countries such as Australia, Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom and New Zealand now have multi-million dollar state funded agencies that manage the planning and funding of amateur sport (McKay 1997, p 25). In Australia there is a complicated federated structure governing sport, as detailed below (ASC 2010).

1.1.3 The organisational development of sporting bodies in Australia
To provide a framework for the under-representation of women on sporting boards, the historical development of the current organisational structure of sporting organisations in Australia is briefly explained.

Sporting organisations in Australia have evolved from collectives of amateur clubs that were subject to minimal regulation by the state, into multi-million dollar agencies that are largely corporatised. McKay (1997) notes that until the 1970s, sports organisations in Australia “were administered by dilettante “old boys” and relied heavily on grass roots support”
An attempt to establish an Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) failed in 1975, but poor performance by Australia in the 1976 and 1980 Olympic Games led to an outcry to restore national pride and the AIS was established in 1981. In 1984, the Australian Sports Commission (ASC) was established, and merged with the AIS in 1989 (McKay 1997). Government funding for sport is now primarily administered through the ASC. Most amateur sports rely heavily on government funding. The AIS is primarily responsible for player development and provides funding through scholarship programmes. The ASC and AIS were established at Federal Government level.

Each state and territory Government in Australia has its own department or agency to administer sports funding in that State or Territory. These departments, commonly referred to as Departments of Sport and Recreation, are also heavily involved in supporting sports; that is, in the playing and development of the game and promotion of the sport to the public. The relationship between the state and federal levels leads to some duplication of effort. The historical development, from small grass roots organisation into corporatised national bodies, has left artefacts of the older management structures littered throughout the sporting body hierarchies. The bulk of the funding and initiatives for sport development appears to come from the Federal Government level. The complexity of government support for sport in this country is reflected in the organisational structures within the different sports. In the literature review in chapter two, the plethora of recent government enquiries and reports into sport in Australia is discussed; many, if not all, of these enquiries have raised the issue of women in sport and in sports governance.

While there is a significant body of research which examines women on boards of corporate, for-profit entities, there is a smaller body of research which examines women’s representation in governing or managing sporting organisations. Developing a greater understanding of these structures and women’s role within them is a relevant area for further research, given the significance of sport in the Australian psyche (Broderick 2010a; McKay 1997). This study was designed to further develop that understanding.
1.2 Scope of the study

The study will focus on two identifiable stages associated with women in decision making positions in Australian sporting organisations: how women get appointed to the board and their contribution to board performance once they are appointed; and how organisational or institutional mechanisms influence those progressions. An audit of policies and processes associated with women and their position in sporting organisations was conducted to determine whether the undertakings to which Australia has committed, in signing the following international agreements in support of gender equality, have been carried out (or acted upon):

1979, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)
1994, the Brighton Declaration (UK)
1998, Windhoek Call for Action, (Namibia)
1995, Beijing Platform for Action
2002, Manchester Communiqué from the Manchester Commonwealth Games.
(Australian Womensport & Recreation 2007)

Three sport organisations were selected for detailed study. The organisations that were chosen display an apparent commitment to gender diversity through publicly available policy and/or constitutional commitment. Due to the federated structure of most sporting organisations in Australia, the state level of the organisations was also scrutinised, as ‘promotion’ to a national level organisation often requires ‘coming up through the ranks’ from the state level organisations (ASC 2010).

1.3 Aims and Objectives of the study

The aims of this study are listed below:

1. Review the existing research on women on boards in national sporting organisations.
2. Obtain updated information on the numbers of women on sporting boards, including:
   - the numbers of women on various sporting boards;
- the recruitment process for attaining those positions;
- the training, development and mentoring opportunities available;
- career path histories; and,
- the various committee and chair positions held.

3. Collect data that will enable conclusions to be drawn as to women’s progress in board work.

4. Obtain information on the decision-making capacity, implicit and explicit, in particular board positions; that is, indicative variations in decision-making capacity may be dependent on type of NSO.

5. Conduct an audit of the gender equity mechanisms in place in NSOs and SSOs in Australia.

6. Review research in the United Kingdom, Canada and New Zealand that examines similar areas to the proposed research in Australia.

7. Apply institutional theory to explain the data gathered (as detailed above).

8. Determine whether the analyses undertaken in this study allow an expansion of institutional theory.

9. Apply the capabilities approach to explain the data gathered (as detailed above).

1.4 Contribution to knowledge

The study, underpinned by institutional theory and the capabilities approach, is designed to advance current knowledge in the area of gender diversity on boards of Australian national and state sporting organisations in several ways.

Firstly, by documenting the current status of women on boards of national and state sporting organisations.

Secondly, by providing a better understanding of the contributions made by women to decision making processes.
Thirdly, by making a contribution to the development of institutional theory through an examination of gender as an assumptive construct that may be added to the theory’s conceptual base.

Finally, this study aims to influence national and state sporting organisation policy development and recruitment processes.

1.5 Thesis outline

There is a significant body of research that examines women in leadership and management. The second chapter in this thesis provides a review of the literature that guided the development of this study. The first section examines literature about women on boards in the corporate sector and the relevance of feminist research to this study. The second section provides an examination of recent government enquiries and literature relevant to women on sporting organisation boards.

Chapter three provides details of the theoretical bases that underpin the study. Institutional theory is used as the primary theoretical lens through which to conduct an analysis of the mechanisms that may influence gender equality on sporting boards; this is an explanatory approach to examining a phenomenon. The capabilities approach is used as a secondary lens to analyse the issues surrounding the lack of women on sporting boards; this is the application of a social justice approach. The combination of these two perspectives provides balance to the study undertaken.

Chapter four outlines the methodology and the method used in the study. A qualitative approach consisting of three case studies was employed. Mixed methods were used to gather data for analysis. The process was iterative rather than linear. Diagram 1.1 represents a diagrammatic overview of the study design.
A survey was conducted. Interviews were undertaken with participants who elected to take part further in the study. Organisational documents for the three case sports were collected and analysed. The views and strategies of both male and female board members towards gender equity and women’s contribution to board performance were studied. Details of how the study was conducted and the coding used to identify the sports, and the individuals who participated in the study are contained in chapter four.

The findings from the survey, interviews and document analysis are reported in chapters five, six and seven. These chapters present the frequencies of specific responses obtained from the survey, supplemented with confirming or contrasting information obtained from the additional comments received in the survey, the interviews and/or the organisational documents analysed. The chapters develop the major themes or trends that arose.

The final chapter (chapter eight) includes a detailed discussion of the findings, the recommendations proposed, the limitations of the study and avenues for future research in this area. Organisational or institutional mechanisms that influence governance processes
were examined. Cross reference was made to any comparable data from the United Kingdom, New Zealand and Canada. The discussion is supported by reference to existing literature and theoretical stance that reinforces, or contradicts, the results and recommendations reached in this thesis.

1.6 The initial limitations in setting up this research project

There is potential for researcher bias when qualitative research methods are used (Yauch & Steudel 2003). To compensate for possible researcher bias mixed methods of data collection were used and the results received from the different data collection methods triangulated.

The study was designed to study a particular phenomenon, the under-representation of women on boards in Australian sport governing bodies. Organisations that were considered too skewed towards either end of the spectrum, that is, too male or female-dominated (this only occurs in a few sports), were not considered for inclusion as it was felt the findings would be biased.

One of the barriers often cited as a reason why women experience difficulty obtaining positions on boards is that they are not members of the ‘fraternity’ or ‘old boys club’; they do not have special access that gets them in the door (see McKay 1994; 1997; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007). This was also the situation for the researcher in this project. Having inside information, and being able to exert influence to gain access to board members in any situation was considered contrary to the aims of the study. Not having ‘special privileged access’ meant that it proved difficult to gain access to sporting organisations to conduct the study. This in turn meant that a limited set of data was eventually collected. Given the large number of sporting organisations in Australia and the variety in their constituency a larger data pool may have yielded different results.

1.7 Summary of purpose and the research questions raised

This chapter has laid the foundation for this thesis. The purpose of this research is to investigate: how women obtain a position on the board of directors in a national sporting
organisation in Australia; how their success in that position is perceived by themselves and others; and, whether these organisations display a commitment to advancing the position of women within the organisation.

Women remain under-represented on boards of corporations in Australia, both for profit and not-for-profit. Considerable research has been undertaken into developing an understanding of why this phenomenon still exists in the corporate, for profit, organisations in Australia and overseas. Understanding why this situation persists in sporting organisations in Australia, which have only recently evolved into corporatised bodies, is less well understood. In an attempt to expand on knowledge in this area the following research questions are posed.

1.7.1 The research questions

How are women able to attain and retain a ‘seat at the table’ in national sporting organisations in Australia?

How do these women pursue what is of value to them, and achieve success, in the institutionalised environment of national sporting organisations in Australia?

How are institutional mechanisms affecting the development of more equal gender representations on boards of directors in sporting organisations in Australia?

These research questions should be viewed as primers; they were the starting questions which guided how the study was conducted and how the conclusions and recommendations made at the end of the study were outlined. During the data collection phase of the research, additional insight and knowledge were gained. While the focus of these initial questions evolved, the study remained placed within the framework of institutional theory. The next chapter reviews the literature about women in the workplace, on boards and on sporting organisation boards that was considered important for the development of this study.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW - WOMEN IN THE WORKPLACE, ON BOARDS AND ON SPORTING ORGANISATION BOARDS

This chapter provides a review of literature relevant to this study. This is not an exhaustive review of all literature related to this area of research, but it is intended to provide the context for this study and the framework in which this study is situated. The chapter is divided into three sections:

The chapter begins (2.1) by providing an overview of the different types of boards, the roles of boards of directors and the different types of directors. This information provides an understanding of the significance of the board of directors and the role of a board member in an organisation. Section two (2.2) provides a review of literature related to women in the workplace and on boards in the corporate sector. The literature reviewed in this section includes literature related to feminism and power and the feminist research paradigm, women in management, gender related literature, research that has focussed on theory development and research that examines organisational structure, practices and systems. The leadership stream of literature is also included in this section, as it focusses on what constitutes a successful management or leadership style.

Section three (2.9) provides a review of literature related to women in sports management and governance. There are two different streams of literature related to sports that are relevant to this study of women’s representation in sports governance in Australia: government enquiries and academic literature.

This chapter will focus briefly on the government reports produced at Commonwealth level over the last twenty years as those reports have contained a strong emphasis on women in sport both as participants in a game and as representative in sports administration and governance; they have set an agenda to advance the position of women in Australian sport. How the selected sports organisations have responded to those directives is of importance to this study. Each state government, as previously discussed, has a department of sport and recreation and these departments have also been responsible for producing reports.
surrounding sport and sports governance in a particular state. These actions have often been taken to meet the needs of sport development within the state and often to add to or support investigations being undertaken at the federal government level. State level reports are not detailed in this review, but their findings are often replicated in the Commonwealth level reports discussed.

Academic literature exists on a wide ranging list of topics related to sport. Many of the studies related to women in sport focus on: women’s performance in particular sports and women’s representation in Olympic sports (for example, Stronach & Adair 2009; Taylor 2001; Thibault et al. 2010); the benefits of sporting activities on health and social well-being (for example, Coalter 2005; Torjman 2004); and, sports governance and management (for example, Daly 2006; Ferkins et al. 2010; White & Kay 2006). The gender bias that exists in sport as a whole is also examined (for example, Hall et al. 1989; Huggins & Randell 2007; Skirstad 2009) and is incorporated as a theme in many of the before-mentioned studies.

This review of literature focusses on academic studies specifically related to women in sports governance. Most of the literature reviewed originates from studies performed outside Australia. There has been more analysis of this issue in countries such as the United States, Canada, New Zealand, Britain and the Netherlands. Studies directly related to women in sports governance in Australia are rare. As sports organisations in Australia have evolved into more professional, merged organisations, government interest in women’s representation in sports governance has increased. Hence the focus in this chapter on government and academic literature; the two are linked.

2.1 Section One: Corporate Boards of Governance

A brief introduction to the types, structure and functions of a board of directors is presented in the next section of this chapter.

2.1.1 A definition for ‘the board’.

The board of directors of an organisation is defined as the peak governing body whose responsibility it is to ensure the continuing success of that organisation (Bosch 1995). Bosch (1995) emphasises the power residing in the board that ultimately influences the strategic
direction of a company or organisation, the shareholders and employees and even the entire industry. Board initiatives influence the creation or changing of policy, processes and procedures and the development of products and markets (Elgart 1983).

2.1.2 Different types of boards.
Boards of directors are the governing body of an organisation in many different organisational settings and may not always be called the board of directors. In some not-for-profit community based organisations, for example, the peak governing body is usually called the management committee; in private (incorporated) schools the peak governing body is usually called the board of governors; and in the insurance and superannuation industries the peak governing body is usually called the board of trustees. However, the overall responsibility of the governing body is the same no matter the title. For the purposes of this thesis, only the term ‘board of directors’ of an organisation will be used, while bearing in mind that the title for the peak governing body of an organisation can and does vary.

Boards of directors are the governing body of: publicly listed corporations (that is, those listed on stock exchanges), publicly unlisted and privately owned corporations; not-for-profit organisations and Australian Government boards. Australian Government boards include: bodies covered by the Commonwealth Authorities and Companies Act 1977 (CAC Act); Ministerial Advisory Committees; Review Committees where appointments are made by Cabinet; and Statutory Authorities not covered by the Public Service Act 1999 - this includes most tribunals - (Lumby et al. 2010).

Although the responsibility of a board of directors remains the same, that is, to ensure the success of an organisation, the type of directors and the role of the directors on a board can differ considerably.

2.1.3 The role of the board of directors
While the definition of the role of a director may vary from organisation to organisation, three primary roles that are common across board types can be identified: monitoring or control; service and advice; and, resource dependence or resource acquisition (Lorsch & MacIver 1989). In the monitoring and control role, directors act in the interest of stakeholders to ensure that the performance of management within the organisation reflects the best
interests of those stakeholders. In the service and advice role, directors must have the relevant experience and expertise in order to provide managerial, administrative and strategic support and advice to managerial staff within the organisation. In the resource dependence or resource acquisition role, directors facilitate the acquisition and/or continuance of resources critical to the organisation’s success. In order to perform these roles effectively, directors need to maintain independence from management within the organisation (Johnson et al. 1996).

Having identified the role of a board of directors and the different types of board, the characteristics or different ‘types’ of directors requires consideration. Contemporary research into why women are under-represented in board positions has attempted to identify the characteristics of women who do succeed in obtaining a position on a board (see Burgess & Tharenou 2002; Singh et al. 2001; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007). Mapping characteristics such as age, educational qualifications, workforce experience, marital status and number of dependents provides insight into those characteristics considered necessary and/or desirable for a prospective board member and also provides insight into any characteristics that women may be perceived as lacking, thereby providing a ‘reason’ for their inability to be appointed as a board member. One of the characteristics frequently cited as a reason for women not being eligible to be appointed as an executive board member has been their supposed lack of experience in the workforce at senior levels (see Burgess & Tharenou 2002; Singh et al. 2001; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007). Such explanations are better understood when the distinction between the different ‘types’ of directors is agreed; therefore, further explanation is provided.

2.1.4 Types of directors.

As noted in the discussion about the different types of boards, there are different types of directors. Different countries and organisations classify types of directors differently. For the purposes of this study, the commonly accepted classifications used in Australia will be discussed. There are two main types of director in Australia: executive and non-executive (Sheridan 2002). Executive directors are usually drawn from the senior ranks of a company; they are employees of the company, they are paid, they are part of the operational or strategic management team and interact with them on a daily basis. They are not independent of the
organisation (Francis 1997). Executive directors achieve their position on the board because of their position within the company (Francis 1997). These distinctions are important as it appears that women have been able to attain non-executive board roles more easily than they have been able to attain executive board roles (EOWA 2008; 2010; Lundquist Wanneberg 2011; WOB 2010; 2012; 2013; WGEA 2013). Women who try to attain an executive director position within a company often encounter the ‘glass ceiling’; this career barrier is one of the reasons often put forward to explain the low numbers of women occupying board positions (Burgess 2003, p 82).

Non-executive directors are not employees of the company; they are ‘outsiders’. Non-executive directors may be paid or unpaid for their service on the board and they may, or may not, be reimbursed for expenses such as travel associated with their board duties. Non-executive directors are usually appointed because of their strategic knowledge, industry insight or contacts and/or experience (Hill 1995). Burgess contends that women may avoid ‘executive career hurdles’ by seeking non-executive board positions (Burgess 2003, p 82). Most boards will comprise both executive and non-executive members, with the non-executive directors being seen to provide "a more objective evaluation of management performance” (Sheridan 2002, p 204).

As evidenced by the preceding discussion, a director’s role is charged with a range of responsibilities and can be executed in a variety of ways. This variety in board type and director type, remembering that a board’s responsibility remains fairly constant, does not explain why women continue to remain relatively excluded from board positions. An examination of other research in the field provides further explanations.

2.2 Section two: Research into women on boards of directors

A review of literature on women on corporate boards shows that even though women comprise over half the world’s population, graduate from university in developed countries in as great, or even greater, numbers than men and now participate in the paid workforce in equal numbers to men, women’s ability to reach senior leadership positions and achieve pay
equity still lags behind the position of men in the workforce and is in some cases retreating (see Catalyst 2010; 2013; EOWA 2008; 2010; Lundquist Wanneberg 2011; Piterman 2008; WOB 2010; 2012; 2013). Australian Bureau of Statistics figures show that women’s participation rates in the paid workforce in Australia have steadily risen (ABS 2008) while men’s have been declining, but report after report shows that women still face obstacles in achieving equality with men in the workforce (for example, CMAC 2009; EOWA 2008; 2010; Lumby et al. 2010; WOB 2010; 2012; 2013; WGEA 2013).

There is a range of theories about what these obstacles are, but there is no consensus about the reasons for the persistence of these obstacles and the continuing inequity between men and women in the workforce. The answer does not lie in a singular explanation; there are a number of interacting factors that have been identified. A considerable body of research identifies many contributory causes such as: male dominated organisational structures and cultures; women’s career paths being interrupted to have children; child rearing pressures that are still borne mostly by women; women still being primarily responsible for home life organisation; and, women in the paid workforce being clustered in the caring, educating, less influential and less well remunerated industries or organisations. Other interacting factors are said to include women’s lack of ‘relevant’ experience in the workforce; women’s different communication and leadership styles; women’s lack of mentoring and support networks; and women’s supposed lack of motivation and ambition to reach such a position. It has even been suggested that the way women dress, their makeup and hairstyles may be detrimental to their career prospects (see Baird 2004; Cochrane & Hoepper 2007; Piterman 2008).

There are many different ways to categorise the research in this multi-faceted field of study. The following categorisations were considered appropriate for this study.

2.2.1 Feminism and power
Feminism is an aspect of the research framework of this study, but because feminism itself has several different aspects and frameworks it is difficult to define. Feminist theorists differ, for example, in the extent to with they include power in their analyses (see Hughes 1997; Mackay & Meier 2003; Marchbank & Letherby 2001; Stanley & Wise 2000). It has been recognised that social power, that is, the ability to influence or resist, is exercised largely
through institutions (Hill 2003), but women’s ability to use or apply social power equally to men’s has been found to be unequal in studies that examine the development of empowerment (see Hill 2003, Robeyns 2011).

2.2.2  A feminist framework
There is no one commonly accepted definition of what a feminist research framework is. A feminist research framework encapsulates a collective of “diverse, competing and often opposing social theories, political movements and moral philosophies” (Australian Sports Commission 1999, p 1). Even the terminology used within a feminist framework is interchangeable and contestable. There are differences of opinion as to the definitions of, applications for and contexts of usage for commonly recognised terms such as: feminist, feminism, sex, gender, diversity and equity.

2.2.1.1  A word about terminology
The terms sex and gender are often used interchangeably. In this thesis sex and gender are referred to with the conceptualisation often cited in sports literature; that is, gender is related to, but not synonymous with sex. Sex is defined as the “biological, genetic, anatomical or chromosomal characteristics of being either male, female or other” (Lamont-Mills 1998, p 6). Gender in sport is a “socio-cultural stereotype” related to being either male or female (Lamont-Mills 1998, p 6). In this context, social (e.g. sport) and cultural (e.g. Australian) roles influence behaviour, attitudes and feelings (Anselmi & Law 1998; Lamont-Mills 1998). According to this reasoning, the observable behaviours in males and females are not determined by their sex, but by “learned gender appropriate behaviours” (Lamont-Mills 1998, p 6). This definition of gender is appropriate to this thesis, as determining if gender is a factor in women obtaining a seat on a board in a sporting organisation is a primary aim of this study.

2.2.3  Feminist theory and feminism
Feminist theory remains in a state of on-going debate. Stanley and Wise (2000) asked “a set of difficult questions” (p 1) about feminist theory; what it is, what it means and who it is for? As a part of their analysis, Stanley and Wise indicate that feminism and feminist theory have become mainstreamed and/or institutionalised. The discussions around the institutionalisation of feminism and/or gender are discussed more fully in the review of literature on institutional
theory, as the nexus between feminist theory, gender and institutional theory is important to the reasoning applied to the findings in this thesis and the aim to contribute to the development of a feminist or gendered institutionalism.

Feminism

A search of relevant literature indicates there is debate as to what feminism currently is. There have been different emphases given to ‘feminism’. It can be, but is not limited to, an activist movement, a political construct and/or a theoretical framework (Stanley & Wise 2000). The nature of the different aspects of feminism is not agreed. Recent research into women in management and leadership in Australia indicates that there is a strong negative correlation between the ‘free market psyche’ that allows for aggressive cultural change strategies and feminism (Piterman 2008, p 35). Feminism in this instance may be viewed as a political construct and/or an activist movement and may also be perceived as a derogatory term. Piterman’s research exposed a marked hostility in Australian companies towards feminism, which is articulated in a ‘subtle rejection of diversity’ measures (2008, p 35); subtle in the sense that open hostility towards positive discrimination or affirmative action was not usually conveyed, rather a lack of enthusiasm by managers for such measures was revealed. Historically, business has been opposed to affirmative action legislation (Piterman 2008, p 35) and recent public discussions around the issue of introducing quotas to ensure greater female participation on boards (CMAC 2009; EOWA 2008; 2010; WOB 2010; 2012; 2013) would indicate that affirmative action legislation and the spectre of the ‘aggressive feminist’ rising again are still matters of contention.

2.2.4 Feminist Research

Feminist research is an active and relevant area of research. Core issues within feminism such as the relationships between power, individuals and institutions are key elements in this study.

Feminism as a research genre contains many different parts. Hughes (1997) describes feminism as an enormous collection of theories that provides sometimes conflicting explanations as to why women are treated differently to men in contemporary societies.
Hughes (1997) contends that, overall, a feminist belief is one that views women and men as having different levels of power, power being personal, economic and institutional (p 5).

In an attempt to understand why women have less power than men many different explanations have been put forward. The most commonly accepted categorisations or feminist ideologies are: radical feminism, Marxist feminism, liberal feminism, and social(ist) feminism (Hughes 1997). The main differences in the underlying ideologies are:

- Radical feminists believe that Western societies are patriarchies where men fight to maintain control over women;
- Marxist feminists believe women’s oppression is a consequence of capitalism, that women’s subordination is required in order for capitalism to function properly;
- Liberal feminists see the issue as one of equal rights: if equality is achieved the power distortion will be eliminated;
- Social feminism consists of numerous strands blending the ideas of Marxist and radical feminism to form an ‘ism’ that is a combination of class/capitalism, patriarchy, revolution, psychoanalysis, subjectivity and difference (Zalewski 2000).

These commonly accepted categorisations are contested by post-structural feminists who hold the belief that there are many ‘truths’ that change over time. The various truths are dependent on the culture in which they are expressed and lived (Pinkus 1996). Feminist research spans many societal environments and issues. Research specifically relating to women in the workplace and the unequal power relations therein includes Kanter's (1977) investigation of the lives of female managers in an American corporation. This study is claimed to have created a stream of knowledge from which many of the later researchers in the field continue to draw (Simpson 1997, p 121). Many of these studies (see Burton 1991; Cockburn 1991; Connell 1987) are located within structural (social) feminism and examine the asymmetric power processes within organisations (Simpson 1997, p 121). Ten years after her 1977 study, Kanter reaffirmed her original findings and concluded that despite a decade of change in corporate America, career success, motivation and productivity are largely determined by
organisational structure and social circumstance, rather than by an individual’s ability and/or competence (Kanter 1987, p 14).

Burke (1994) and Marshall (1995) also focus research attention onto organisational influences experienced by women in the workplace, but they direct awareness to individual outcomes for women who participate at senior management or board level. Burke (1994) undertook research in Canada to determine if women, once they have gained a senior management or board position, represent feminist concerns and act as forces for change within the workplace (Burke 1994, p 28). He concludes that this is generally the case, even though he encountered some marked resistance by a small percentage of the women in the study when they thought they may be considered “feminist supporters”. Marshall’s (1995) research charts elements of organisational life that women perceive as influencing their ability to effectively undertake and achieve success in a senior management position. From her enquiry into the reasons why women leave senior management positions, Marshall (1995) concludes that the challenges for many women in senior management are significant and that the “right to membership” (p 25) to board positions is not firmly established.

Later studies confirm that the progression of women into senior management ranks continues to be slow (Adams & Flynn 2005, p 1) and that women do not always support other women in attaining ‘the top jobs’. Mavin’s (1967; 1994) studies contest the notion of ”sisterhood and solidarity” (p 349) amongst women in the workplace, but Mavin (1994) notes that this finding does not represent “another blame the women position” (p 361) in the debate as to why women continue to be relatively excluded from senior management and board positions. Rather, in Mavin’s (1994) opinion, the gendered nature of organisational structures and systems requires further research attention.

Feminist social enquiry is claimed to have produced many rich descriptions of how power is produced and reproduced through gender (Kenny & Mackay 2009, p 275). Research in this genre has seen more recent attention focussing on the linkages between feminism, power and organisational theories, such as institutional theory, that influence women’s attainment of positions of seniority in the workplace (see Kenny & Mackay 2009; Mackay 2008; Mackay & Meier 2003). The last two decades have borne witness to rapid institutional change which
has been necessary to adapt to increasing globalisation (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 3). High profile corporate collapses, such as Enron and Worldcom, have led to increased scrutiny of management and governance practices. Throughout this period women have increased their participation rates in the workforce, but remain a relative minority in attainment of senior management and board positions. The issue of gender is considered neglected in mainstream literature (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 3) on institutions and on institutional change. Cross fertilisation between feminist scholars and institutional scholars is perceived as a way of expanding research into women’s under-representation in leadership positions (see Kenny & Mackay 2009; Mackay 2008; Mackay & Meier 2003). The present study examines women in the institutionalised setting of Australian sporting governing bodies; power dynamics, both individual and institutional will be considered.

2.3 Women in Management

Over the last thirty years a considerable amount of scholarly research has been directed at trying to determine the reasons for the under-representation of women in board and senior management positions (see Burke 1994; Burke & Vinnicombe 2005; Connell 1987; Huse et al. 2009; Kanter 1977; Marshall 1995; Schein 2007; Schein & Davidson 1993; Wacjman 1998; Wilson 2002).

A significant amount of the research undertaken into women’s representation in senior management and on boards has concentrated on examining benchmarking or demographic data; “counting the numbers” (see Adams & Flynn 2005; Burgess & Tharenou 2002; Sheridan & Milgate 2003; Singh & Vinnicombe 2003). These studies have largely concentrated on utilising, or in some instances establishing the production of commercial survey results and trying to determine the causes for the lack of women reported in a range of management and board positions (see Singh et al. 2001; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007). Pesonen et al. (2009) refer to this stream of research as the “women in management perspective” (p 328). The challenges that individual women face when pursuing senior management and board positions is analysed and a ‘business case’ argument is made including more women at the top of the corporate ladder (see Burke 1994; Cassell 1997; Fondas & Sasslos 2000; Martin et al. 2008; Pesonen et al. 2009; Thomson & Graham 2005;
2007). However, the causal links between greater female representation in key decision making positions and better company performance are not well established in the resultant findings. Recent research is addressing this deficiency; Catalyst, a research and advisory organisation whose mission is to expand opportunities for women and business, has published reports on American companies that show that an increase in female participation on boards is leading those companies to produce better productivity and performance results (Piterman 2008).

The seminal longitudinal research conducted by Singh and Vinnicombe (2004) in the UK (Pesonen et al. 2009, p 328) consistently shows the difficulty women experience in gaining access to the boardroom. Singh and Vinnicombe’s (2004) findings contradict many of the individual level explanations put forward, such as women’s lack of experience and lack of human capital (Singh et al. 2008), and instead focus attention on the organisational barriers that women face. Supposed feminine management styles such as ‘people orientation’ are devalued in comparison to the masculine management styles of competitiveness and business orientation (see Oakley 2000; Pesonen et al. 2009; Singh & Vinnicombe 2004). Women’s ability to create important networks at crucial career junctions remains elusive; thus women receive less support for career-making (see Pesonen et al. 2009; Singh & Vinnicombe 2004). Women will often avoid use of “impression management” (p 77), that is, individuals seeking to enhance the perception of their own image, which is perceived as necessary in achieving career success in an organisation (Singh et al. 2002).

The women in management research points to the universal domination of men over women across societies (Pesonen et al. 2009, p 329) and often argues that individual women, who are different from and manage differently to men, somehow make their own contribution to board work because of these differences (see Alvesson & Billings 1997; Huse 2007). Power is perceived as a resource that can be individually utilised for personal gain; gender relations and gendered practices which disadvantage women as a group are not specifically examined in depth in this research stream (Pesonen et al. 2009).
2.4 Doing Gender

Other research has focussed on ‘doing gender’ (West & Zimmerman 1987; Pesonen et al. 2009) (Pesonen et al. 2009), which often means conformity with gendered norms (Deutsh 2007). Gender is viewed as an activity and/or a social dynamic rather than a role. Studies which examine gender performance explore gender in social interaction (see Acker 1990; Gherardi 1994; West & Zimmerman 1987) and determine how women are silenced, marginalised and excluded from positions of power and influence (Tienari et al. 2005).

Examples of ‘doing gender’ (West & Zimmerman 1987; Pesonen et al. 2009) include: the discriminatory recruitment processes on corporate boards where the dominant group, men, either knowingly or unwittingly search for others who represent themselves; denial of the significance of gender differences in organisational life and executive work; and, the denial of gender inequality in an equal society, thereby negating the ability to acknowledge gender inequality in organisations (Pesonen et al. 2009, p 330). Power in the ‘doing gender’ framework resides in “relations and established ways of interacting rather than in individuals and it is context specific” (Pesonen et al. 2009, p 330); thus it is defined differently from the women in management perspective which identifies power as a resource that could be utilised for personal gain. This difference in perspective on power means that gender can be “undone in and through” social interactions that challenge the status quo to reduce perceived gender differences (Deutsch 2007, p 122).

2.5 Research to develop theory

Several prominent researchers in the area of women on boards highlight the need for more research that develops theory, rather than research that counts the numbers to highlight the problem. However, they have taken different approaches to achieving their proclaimed aims. Researchers such as Bilimoria (2000), identify the need for theory development; in a review of empirical research that focuses on women on boards, Bilimoria (2000) states that there is a lack of theoretical rigour in previous studies which means that knowledge as to the “antecedents, dynamics and consequences” (p 27) of gender diversity on boards does not move forward. Adams and Flynn (2005) claim that research concerning the advancement of
women on corporate boards is still in its infancy and requires further theoretical description of advancement efforts in the field (p 1). In an attempt to provide such advancement, they undertake a case study approach detailing the work of the Boston Club, a consultant organisation that facilitates the creation of ‘actionable knowledge’ in organisations with the express aim of promoting women onto corporate boards in America (Adams & Flynn 2005, p 7).

Other researchers have adopted a different approach. For example Martin, et al. (2008), while acknowledging the proclaimed theoretical deficiencies in existing research, attempt to provide clarification by conducting a quantitative study of gender diversity on UK company boards. Martin et al. (2008, p 2) contend that gender parity on company boards is an important determinant of social equity and economic performance, but the persistent lack of base line data restricts further research into developing an understanding of evidence-based policy in relation to greater female participation in business. With the aim of satisfying the need to build theory in this area, Martin et al. (2008) constructed a profile of organisational characteristics indicative of greater female participation at board level. The causal links for current levels of board gender diversity and effect on board performance were not identified by this research and remain areas where more research needs to be performed (Martin et al. 2008).

Singh et al. (2008), who drew on human capital theory in their study of newly appointed female directors on UK boards, highlight the need for studies in different environments (that is, not only stock exchange listed company boards), and the need to study the links between diversity and board performance. As much of the existing research into women on boards has been conducted on stock exchange listed companies in various countries (see Burgess & Fallon 2003a; Burgess & Tharenou 2002; Burke 1994; Fairfax 2006; Fondas & Sasslos 2000; Singh & Vinnicombe 2003; 2004; Singh et al. 2001; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007), ”a better understanding of institutions and corporate governance and the link between diversity (or change in diversity)” (Singh et al. 2008, p 56), would be obtained by exploring board functioning in different environments.
2.6 Organisational structures, practices and systems

The research framework related to women’s ability to attain leadership positions has changed over the last thirty years and the resultant research is often contradictory (Pesonen et al. 2009). As discussed, many researchers utilise feminist and ‘women in management’ perspectives (see Kenny & Mackay 2009; Mackay & Meier 2003; Sheridan & Milgate 2003; Singh & Vinnicombe 2003), and ‘doing gender’ remains an issue in much of the research directed at developing an understanding of women in the workplace (see Pesonen et al. 2009; West & Zimmerman 2009). Research has also been directed at counting the numbers (for example, Catalyst 2010; 2013; EOWA 2008; 2010; McKinsey & Company 2007; 2008; 2009; Singh et al. 2008; Singh & Vinnicombe 2003; WOB 2010; 2012; 2013) and attempts to provide explanations for differences in management or leadership styles, traits and/or personalities. Recent research has directed focus towards organisational practices, structures and systems that create barriers to women’s progress in the workplace (Wilson 2004).

Research that considers successful career development has focussed on both individual and organisational factors and acknowledges that individual personality may alter the impact of perceived organisational influences (Oakley 2000; Tharenou 1999). A number of theoretical perspectives have been used to identify barriers to career advancement for women. For example, Burgess and Fallon (2003a) and Burgess and Tharenou (2002) applied social identity theory in a longitudinal study of stock exchange listed companies in Australia and reported that even though women encounter barriers to career advancement, once they gain a board position they became part of the ‘in group’ and perceive their success as equal to that of their male counterparts. Singh et al. (2006) applied organisational citizenship theory, in an exploratory study conducted in the UK, in an attempt to identify how women’s lack of access to organisational networks inhibits their career progression. In 2008, Singh et al. used human capital theory in an attempt to define the characteristics of recently appointed women to FTSE100 boards.
2. 7 Leadership research

The leadership stream of research focuses on considerations of what constitutes a successful management or leadership style and the differences between male and female approaches to leadership (see Carbonell & Castro 2008; Vinnicombe & Singh 2003; Wilson 2004). There is an enormous body of research in this literature stream (Jogulu & Wood 2006, p 236) leading to the observation that “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth” (Burns 1978, p 3; Jogulu & Wood 2006). Leadership theories have been developed over a significant period of time and reflect changing societal attitudes. Early leadership theory, from the 18th and 19th centuries, was known as the ‘great man’ theory (Denmark 1993; Jogulu & Wood 2006); the personal attributes of a great man, being unique, exceptional and distinguishable, were found in only a small group of men who were able to influence and guide history (Denmark 1993). Women were not taken into account when considering the attributes of a leader at this time as women were not visible in paid employment or public roles (Jogulu & Wood 2006, p 237). New research endeavours developed from the great man theory as interest grew in distinguishing which traits or characteristics differentiated leaders from non-leaders (Jogulu & Wood 2006). Trait theories were developed in the early twentieth century (1904-1947) as women began entering the paid workforce in greater numbers. During this period women were mainly employed in helping or nurturing roles; for example, as secretaries, assistants or nurses or in low-level manufacturing work. There were very few women in management positions during this period (Parker & Fagenson 1994); therefore the characteristics assigned to women (for example, caring, nurturing, helping) were not recognised as the traits attributable to leaders (Jogulu & Wood 2006; Koziara et al. 1987). Leadership traits were identified as being innate and included self-confidence, a need for achievement, the ability to carry out actions and self-monitoring (Ellis 1998).

The identification of leadership characteristics or traits as male was highlighted by Virginia Schein in her early work in the 1970s (Schein 1976). The ‘think manager think male’ phenomenon identified by Schein confirmed that the characteristics, attitudes and temperament perceived to be aligned to leadership were male rather than female characteristics. Research moved on from a reliance on identifying the traits or characteristics
of leaders and recognised that behavioural and situational factors also contribute to the interactions between a leader and their followers (Jogulu & Wood 2006). Behavioural theories identified different types of leadership style; for example, early work identified democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles in the 1930s (Jogulu & Wood 2006; Lewin & Lippit 1938). In the 1950s and 1960s, behavioural theories were divided into two dimensions: ‘consideration’ and ‘initiating’ structures. Leaders were identified as being considerate to their followers’ ideas and needs, and/or initiating or structuring work relationships to meet particular job goals (Jogulu & Wood 2006). A later study identified ‘employee oriented’ and ‘production oriented’ dimensions (Kahn & Katz 1966) where leaders fostered a high level of group activity and created job satisfaction amongst their employees (Jogulu & Wood 2006). Again, it has been noted that women were not significantly represented in the workforce (in management positions) when the behavioural theories of leadership came to prominence (Powell 1999). As a result these theories were limited in raising the profile of women in management and leadership (Jogulu & Wood 2006).

In the 1970s, the contingency theories of leadership began to be published. The traits, styles, behaviours and situational aspects of leadership were considered concurrently (Jogulu & Wood 2006). Around this time, as previously discussed, research on women in management and gender was also starting to be published. Findings from these streams of research overlapped and influenced ideas developing around leadership. New leadership styles were identified, for example, transactional and transformational styles (Bass 1997), that placed a much greater emphasis on characteristics and/or traits more usually associated with women such as empathy, being inspirational and caring about your employees. The concurrence of the rise in acceptance of these newer theories and the slow rise in the numbers of women in senior management positions may not be coincidental; the literature recognises the link between different leadership styles or methods and business success (see Bass 1997; Piterman 2008; Thomson & Graham 2005). Recent research in this stream concludes that culture has a stronger influence than gender on leadership behaviour (Emmerik et al. 2008).

Other recent research in the leadership stream focusses on analysing why women are often placed in precarious leadership positions; that is, why they are set up to fail. Once a women
breaks through the ‘glass ceiling’ she may be placed on the edge of the ‘glass cliff’ (Ryan & Haslam 2005a; 2005b); this phenomenon identifies the sometimes dubious circumstances surrounding the appointment of women to leadership positions, the greater scrutiny women are usually placed under once they attain a leadership position and the increased performance expectations placed on women in leadership roles. Haslam and others have labelled the phenomenon the “think crisis - think female” contextual variation in the think manager - think male stereotype found in leadership and management research (Haslam et al. 2011).

2.8 Summary of Section Two

The second section of this literature review has examined several theories as to why women remain under-represented in senior management and board positions. The concepts identified guided the formulation of the questions posed (in the survey and interviews) in the data collection phase of the study. In comparison to the amount of research conducted into women on boards of stock exchange listed companies, relatively little research has been undertaken in other environments (Singh et al. 2008). The lack of women in decision making positions in sporting organisations and their inability to breach the “grass ceiling” (Broderick 2010a) are recognised as areas where relatively little research has been undertaken (White & Kay 2006, p 466). The next section of this chapter contains a review of research about women in sport governance.

2.9 Section Three: Evidence of women’s under-representation in sports governance in Australia and elsewhere

Available research, which focuses on the issue of women’s under-representation in sports governance, comes primarily from countries such as New Zealand (see Cameron, 1996; Shaw, 2006), the United Kingdom (see White & Kay 2006), Canada (see Bryman 2008; Hall et al. 1989; Van Maanen 1979), the Netherlands (see Claringbould & Knoppers 2008; Connell et al. 2001), Norway (see Bowen 2009; Skirstad 2009) and Germany (see Hall et al. 1989; Pettigrew 2001). Very few academic studies have been done in Australia in this area; the most comprehensive is a study from the 1990s (see McKay 1994; 1997). There has been limited follow-up research into the under-representation of women on Australian sports boards since this research was done. The relevant academic research on sports organisations
for this study will be discussed in section 2.11. There have been many government enquiries conducted that have examined the issues of women in sport and sports management and these are discussed in the next section of this chapter. These government enquiries have had a significant influence on the development of sports management practice in Australia.

### 2.10 Calls for change from government

There has been a plethora of government reports over the past two decades aimed at addressing the issue of women’s under-representation in sport and sports governance. The following discussion includes the major federal government reports related to improving the position of women in sport, presented in chronological order. There are many associated and derivative reports from state governments, but these are not detailed in this discussion. The reports outlined were used as a base line for the analysis of organisational documents that was conducted as part of this study. Very few of these findings and recommendations in these reports, relating to improving the position of women in sports governance, appear to have been enacted.

In 1992 the ASC released a report titled *Towards Gender Equity in Sport: A Practical Guide for Sporting Organisations in Developing a Gender Equity Action Plan*. The government’s motto at the time was “Sport for all Australians” and the aim of this report was to provide a guide for sporting organisations so they could develop policy and practice to address the overt discrimination against women that existed at the time in Australian sport. This discrimination was detailed in Jim McKay’s work *Managing Gender: Affirmative Action and Organizational Power in Australian, Canadian, and New Zealand Sport* (McKay 1997). McKay’s initial study into Australian sport was commissioned by the ASC at a time when Australian sport was undergoing major changes. The AIS was opened in 1981, following a disastrous period in Australian sport performance during the 1970s (AIS, 2012), and the ASC was formed in 1989 via the *Australian Sports Commission Act 1989*. The ASC set about commissioning studies into the state of sport in Australia and the position of women in sport was put under the spotlight. McKay’s findings were not well received by the sporting fraternity at the time, including by those who commissioned the study. The findings were
suppressed and later released in a book published by McKay in 1997. The findings from McKay’s work are discussed more fully in section 2.11.1 of this chapter.

The ASC’s 1992 action plan was an initial step in setting the scene for a series of affirmative action plans to improve the representation of women in sport and sports governance. It was a guide for sporting organisations so they could formulate their own gender equity action plans. It must be remembered that throughout the period under review in this study, that is the following two decades, sport in Australia underwent a rolling series of changes. The number of government enquiries and reports is indicative of those many changes in Australian sport, which are still taking place today.

Following the 1992 report and the suppressed work of McKay, which eventually became available for public scrutiny via academic publications, the next significant report into sport in Australia was commissioned by the government in 1998 and released in 1999. The Oakley sport report *Shaping Up* was surrounded by controversy. This report was the third report into sport commissioned by then Minister for Sports and Tourism Jackie Kelly and it was shelved with no action or recommendations taken up by the government at the time. This report recommended that a national policy framework be put in place to encourage the active participation of women and girls in sport.

Two documents were released in 1999 that were supposedly the basis of such a policy framework. The *How to include women and girls in sport, recreation and physical activity: Strategies and good practice* report contained an opening paragraph that pointed to the ongoing struggle to improve women’s participation in sport and sports governance.

Australia is responsible for and committed to improving the lives of women in Australia and fostering a gender-inclusive culture. This policy is a clear indication of the federal government’s commitment to addressing the issues affecting the involvement of all women and girls in sport (ASC 1999).

The policy consisted of two companion documents. The companion policies to the above quoted initiative were:
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

Active Women: National Policy on Women and Girls in Sport, Recreation and Physical Activity 1999-2002; and the
Active Australia Provider Recognition Process.

At the time when these documents and policy initiatives were being placed into the public arena, many sports were still organised into separate men’s and women’s player associations. Talks were underway in some sports as directives, not always overt, coming from the ASC and government began linking funding to gender equity initiatives. Different sports remodelled their governance structures at different times; some sports are still undergoing the shift from separate male and female associations. In the early 2000s, several of the major sports merged their separate male and female associations and many sporting bodies adopted a corporate structure. The issues surrounding women’s under-representation in sport, sports media coverage and sports governance had not been resolved, or even addressed in any meaningful way, in most sports at this time.

The 2006 Senate report, About time! Women in Sport and Recreation in Australia, again highlighted that women continue to be under-represented on boards of sporting organisations. This report also stressed the need to change the structure of sport organisations to advance women in governance and leadership positions. Senator Kate Lundy, the then Shadow Minister for Sport & Recreation and a member of the Senate Committee that tabled the report, stated that intervention, potentially including mandatory quotas, might need to be considered if the recommended changes did not occur.

In 2008 two major initiatives were announced; Australian Sport: emerging challenges, new directions and The essence of Australian sport – what we stand for. The latter was described as the sports industry’s action plan to address inappropriate behaviour such as abuse and harassment. Four major principles and values formed the core of this action plan: fairness, respect, responsibility and safety. The Australian Sport: emerging challenges, new direction report highlighted the need for reform in Australian sport. The introduction to this report noted that:
over the last decade there have been many reports into sport – the Oakley report, the Senate’s enquiry into women in sport, a review of the ASC Act, an unreleased plan for disabled sport – and yet very few of the recommendations have been acted upon (Department of Health and Ageing (DoHA) 2008).

This introductory comment highlights the need for reform and the lack of action taken after other reports were tabled, but this report appears to have gone the way of its predecessors. Later reports continue to highlight the same lack of action on previous recommendations and in particular, recommendations made to improve women’s representation in sports governance.

In the Australian sport: emerging challenges (2008) directive it was noted that: “The Rudd Government believes women’s sport has not received the profile that it deserves in a country that idolised its sporting heroes” (2008, p 7). The figures quoted in this report highlight the marginalised state of women in Australian sport:

only fifty-three percent of fourteen year old girls and thirty percent of women over sixty-five participate in organised sport. Only thirteen percent of executive positions in the top forty sporting organisations are filled by women. And only two percent of televised sport is “women’s sport (2008, p 7).

The emerging trend from this report is the linkage between funding, government directive and compliance in sport. The concluding remark in this report, “to stand still is not an option” (2008, p 10), suggested that action would be imminent, but government reports released since indicate that little has been achieved.

In October 2009 The Future of Sport in Australia report was released. The report makes a recommendation that the Australian sports systems should be open to all, with a governance structure that reflects membership. The primary recommendation of the panel was for reform of the ASC. One of the nine identified areas for strategic focus by the ASC is “women – taking leadership roles in sport and recognising presence” (Department of Health and Ageing 2009, p 37).
The *Future of Sport in Australia* report confirmed that the under-representation of women in sports leadership and governance roles is an opportunity lost and suggested acting on the recommendations made in the 2006 *About Time!* report. According to some women in sport advocate groups, for example, the Australian Womensport & Recreation Association, the recommendations of the 2009 initiatives appear to have been mere rhetoric (Crosswhite 2009).

Janice Crosswhite OAM, commenting in her role as President of The Australian Women’s Sport and Recreation Association, notes that women make up fifty one percent of the Australian population but are listed as if they were a minority group in the recommendations of the 2009 *Future of Sport in Australia* report. Crosswhite (2009) also argues that there is too little mention made in the 2009 report of the 2006 Senate inquiry into women’s sport and recreation. Crosswhite (2009) contends that the recommendations made in the 2006 enquiry were not analysed, nor were there any recommendations made as to how to address the issues identified in the future.

May 2010 heralded the release of the Australian Government’s new direction for Australian sport; a new report titled *The Pathway to Success*. This budget initiative was a government commitment to funding directions for sporting organisations. The initiative was intended to boost funding to community and elite sport and deliver a pathway that connects grassroots participation and high performance sport. The key areas of delivery outlined were to:

1. Increase the number of participants in sport;
2. Strengthen sport pathways; and,

Other key elements of the strategy, and of importance for this study, include:
a commitment to inclusive sports strategies and programs, focussed on breaking down barriers for women, people with disability and Indigenous Australians (Department of Health and Ageing 2010, p 5).

The previously detailed reports, in particular those from 2006 onwards, emphasise the under-representation of women in sports governance and the ongoing discrimination and barriers that exist for women participating in sport. The most recent government initiative (DoHA 2010) still highlights the need for program development targeted at women, and women are still categorised as a disadvantaged group in the Australian sporting arena.

In the same year, 2010, the Towards a Level Playing Field: sport and gender in Australian media study results were released. This study was commissioned by the ASC on behalf of the federal government. It is an extensive study of the media representation, or misrepresentation, of women in sport and women’s sport in Australia. The report shows that women’s media representation has improved marginally from previous reports, such as the 2008 Australian Sport: emerging challenges, new directions, and throughout the period of the study. The study analysed media presentations between 2008 and 2009. This comprehensive study was undertaken by the University of New South Wales Journalism and Media Research Centre for the ASC; the findings indicate that despite the strong performance achievements and participation levels of women in sport there is still a starkly disproportionate amount of coverage of male sport in the Australian media compared to the coverage of female sport.

Examination of media representation of elite sport has also been undertaken in other countries; for example, the study conducted in Sweden by Pia Lundquist Wanneberg (2011). Wanneberg has undertaken a critical qualitative textual analysis of articles that show media discourse on gender and sport. Her analysis argues that the sexualisation of public space has been declared one of the focus areas for the Swedish government’s equality framework. This study also focusses on a discussion of the ‘special language’ associated with sport. The language used in sport borrows words from many social spheres, but particularly from the military (for example, ‘shoot’, ‘attack’, ‘defend’) and also lends words and phrases to everyday language (for example, ‘be a team player’, ‘be a winner’, ‘score a goal’) (Lundquist & Wanneberg 2011, p 267). The language of sport is largely a male construction and helps to
reproduce inequality (Fuller 2006; Lundquist Wanneberg 2011; Messner 2002). By examining the language of sport, as employed by the Swedish media, Lundquist and Wanneberg established that during the 2000s there was a rapid growth in the sexualisation of sport particularly in the number of the photos of women that bordered on being pornographic. There was also an increase in the sexualisation of men in the Swedish media, but that increase was not as pronounced as that witnessed for representations of women. It was established that both men and women are objectified and sexualised in sports media, but in different ways, and to a greater extent in the case of sexualisation of women.

2.11 Academic studies with a women in sports governance focus

There is limited scholarly research in Australia focussed on the appointment and progress of women on sporting organisation boards. As discussed in the first part of this chapter, there have been numerous government reports calling for more women in sports management and governance in Australia. Sporting organisations are complex, and the scholarly literature that focusses on sport is scattered amongst different disciplines. This study has a focus on sport management and governance and women’s place within that genre; as such, the literature reviewed is taken primarily from the management discipline. It is noted, however, that there is a lot of literature related to other aspects of sport such as sports performance, sports psychology and sports medicine that also touches upon issues related to gender or gender discrimination in sport. It is also noted that much of the scholarly research into sports boards has been conducted overseas. The academic literature reviewed for this study is generally from the same twenty year period as the government reports previously discussed.

A strong research focus emergent throughout the literature relevant to women on sporting boards is the gendered nature of sports organisations. There is strong agreement that sports organisations are organisations created by men, for men and are still dominated by men, particularly in the management and governance of those organisations (see Cunningham 2008; Hall et al. 1989; McKay 1994; Pettigrew 2001).
2.11.1 Australian research

Australian research specifically directed towards understanding sports boards is limited. Sporting organisations in Australia have undergone a lot of change over the last twenty to thirty years. This change is not unique to Australia; indeed, the changes that have taken place are part of a global professionalisation of sporting organisations and much of the research detailed below has been performed in an attempt to better understand those changes and how they can benefit sport as a whole.

It has been noted by researchers that “Australian sporting structures are notoriously difficult to change” (Hoye & Stewart 2002, p 63) and research directed towards understanding the changes that have taken place in Australian sport has had a narrow focus. Hoye and Stewart (2002), for example, focused their study on one particular sport and a particular level within the sport. Their study examined the changes that took place within the Melbourne Women’s Hockey Association (MWHA) between 1995 and 1998, and the power relations that came into play which reshaped the structure and activities of the MWHA. The conflict around the change process was highlighted and the oppositional nature of the relationship between the volunteer and paid staff of sporting organisations was confirmed. Understanding this relationship is relevant to any study of sports organisations today. Sports organisations are predominantly governed by volunteers; a large percentage of the supervisory positions that oversee the sport itself, for example coaches, are still volunteer positions. Conversely, the management of sports organisations, at national and state levels, is performed by paid professional staff who increasingly have specific qualifications in sports and/or business management; however, the boards of these organisations are also made up of volunteers.

A 2009 study conducted by Stronach and Adair also focussed on one particular sport, in this case Australian cricket. In 2003, the men’s Australian Cricket Board (ACB) and Women’s Cricket Australia (WCA) merged to form one national sporting body, Cricket Australia. Stronach and Adair’s (2009) work indicates that the merger of the two organisations was of benefit to women’s cricket as a game, but women are not represented at all in the governance of the ‘new’ organisation. Until early 2013, women still held no places on the board of Cricket Australia. While there is a body of literature related to amalgamation or mergers of
sports leagues, clubs or associations (Stronach & Adair 2009, p 912), there is little research dedicated to understanding the gender dimension of such amalgamations.

While studies such as those conducted by Hoye and Stewart (2002) and Stronach and Adair (2009) have focussed on a particular sport, other studies have focussed on a particular activity within sport; for example, Greenhill et al. (2009) studied the under-representation of women in coaching in sport in Australia using Kanter’s (1977) organisational theory of homologous reproduction. Kanter’s theory tells us that the dominant coalition (men) works to reproduce itself in a systematic manner and thus the status quo of male domination in managerial structures is maintained (Kanter 1977). Greenhill et al.’s (2009) case study of one state sport organisation in Australia indicated that the “prevailing hegemonic masculinity” and strategies developed by this organisation were producing systemic barriers that were marginalising women and sustaining the status quo of male dominated coaching positions.

The process of male hegemony, or the ‘old boys club’, is the basis of McKay’s (1994) work where he analyses the impact of equal opportunity and gender equity policy on Australian sport. McKay’s research (1994, 1997) does not focus on a particular sport or a particular level within sport, but more generally examines a dysfunction within sport; that is, the barriers that exist for women in sport and sporting organisations in general. Even though McKay’s research is now over two decades old it is one of the few more comprehensive studies of Australian sports organisations that examines gender and inequity and has a focus on sports management.

McKay was commissioned by the ASC in 1990 to research why there are so few women in sports administration and to identify the barriers which were preventing women from entry and/or advancement in sporting organisations. This study, and two others commissioned through the ASC’s Applied Sports Research Program (ASRP) were considered a priority research area within the ASC’s designated affirmative action strategy (McKay 1997, p 130). During 1992 and 1993 McKay attempted to present his findings but was ‘blocked’ by the ASC (McKay 1997, pp 129-141), which disputed his findings. The ASC were not receptive to the individual or organisational weaknesses identified in McKay’s work. In 1994, McKay published an academic paper discussing the affirmative action, equal opportunity and gender
equity programs being introduced into sporting organisations, and concluded that the ASC was framing its gender equity policies on “the mutually reinforcing hegemonic discourses of masculinity and corporate managerialism” (McKay 1994, p 82).

McKay’s (1997) book arose, in part, as a personal response to the criticism directed towards him by some members of the ASC and from the uneasiness he felt towards some of his earlier work, conducted in Canada, the US and New Zealand, where he believed he had not adopted a ‘pro-feminist’ perspective. By adopting a neo-Gramscian perspective, where hegemony is viewed in terms of class relations, that is, a class is hegemonic if its dominance is legitimised through institutions and concessions (McKay 1997), in his earlier work, McKay felt that he had missed the opportunity to illuminate just how pervasively sport is “both constructed by and constructs gendered relations of power” (McKay 1997, p xiii). McKay concluded that affirmative action policies and programmes relating to gender in sporting organisations in the 1980s and 1990s in Australia, directed at improving the position of women in sport and sports administration specifically, were thwarted, subverted, marginalised, ridiculed and/or appropriated by the “malestream” corporate culture which effectively depoliticises gender within sporting organisations and thus renders affirmative action policies and programmes ineffective (McKay 1994, p 91; 1997).

McKay’s work was directed towards establishing a particular function within sporting organisations, that is, affirmative action policies. Later researchers such as Colyer (2000) focussed on a ‘broader picture’ approach to understanding how sports organisations operate. Colyer attempted to develop organisational culture profiles for sporting organisations in Western Australia. While access was gained to five sporting organisations, organisational culture profiles were generated for only three of the selected organisations using a competing values framework, due to the lack of response from some of the organisations involved. The difficulty of gaining access, unless you are an ‘insider’ or have ‘special access’ enabled by stakeholder influence such as government or sponsor initiative, to sporting organisations is a factor that is highlighted in several studies about sporting organisations (see Colyer 2000; McKay 1997; Shaw 2006; Shaw & Penney 2003). Access also became an issue in the present study and the effect of those difficulties on the study design and findings are discussed fully in the chapter four.
The competing values framework used by Colyer (2000) recognises that organisations are not made up of homogenous cultures. Differing values exist within organisations and reflect the external social systems that surrounds them (Colyer 2000, p 327). The characteristics of volunteers and paid staff were examined and the tensions that exist between volunteers and paid staff were emphasised. Gender bias was evident in the responses received in Colyer’s study, but the reasons for such bias were merely noted and not pursued. The aim of the study was to produce an overall organisational characteristic profile. The significance of the relationship between volunteers and paid workers was evident, and the divisions along gender lines (in positions held and functions performed) found in Colyer’s (2000) study again confirmed the male bias in Australian sporting organisations.

2.11.2 Research conducted in Australia that focusses on boards of directors
Research in Australia that focusses specifically on the boards of directors in sporting organisations includes the work of Hoye, Auld and Cuskelly (Hoye & Auld 2001; Hoye & Cuskelly 2003) who conducted studies into the effectiveness of the performance of Australian sports boards. They found that effective boards were better at governance issues such as financial management, strategic planning, mission and vision setting, monitoring of programme performance, selection of board members and marketing the sport. The 2003 study also found that the relationship between the volunteer board and the paid executive staff members of a sport organisation improves if the board functions effectively. Whether a board was considered effective in the studies conducted by Hoye and others was investigated using a social constructionism approach, where the collective judgements of the individuals involved directly within NSOs were examined.

The increasing importance of corporate governance in sports organisations is emphasised in the work of Daly (2006). His work focusses on the need for Australian sports boards to develop a board culture where ethical governance principles are accepted. A key factor in an ethical governance framework is the provision of equal opportunities for under-represented populations. In the case of Australian sporting organisation boards, women are an under-represented population. Daly’s study confirms that there is an emphasis on remedying the situation, but achieving that end is still a work in progress.
Yeh and Taylor (2009) also focus on governance in sports organisations in Australia. Their review of existing literature highlights that existing theories can be drawn upon to understand how boards work and that appropriate board structures can be designed for sports organisations if informed understandings of board functioning are developed.

2.11.3 Research conducted overseas

Research from Australia specifically relating to sports boards is relatively limited. There has been more attention focussed on this area of study overseas. While there has been interest in the role of sport in society in many countries, the studies that are most relevant for comparison to the Australian setting are those which originate in countries such as Canada, the UK, New Zealand and the Netherlands. The move to a more professionalised structure for sporting administration and governance in Australia closely followed and was modelled upon the changes that occurred in sports organisations in Canada in the 1980s and 1990s (Hall et al. 1989; McKay 1997).

Studies from Canada

In 1989 Hall et al. conducted a study in Canadian NSOs and found that organisational elites (men) work to recreate themselves in order to maintain their power and that women collude in this process (Hall et al. 1989). While attempting to find theoretical constructs that would provide an understanding as to how and why organisational processes and dynamics were structuring gender in Canadian NSOs, Hall et al. (1989) identified four broad areas of literature, across studies of sport in general, that informed this understanding.

The four areas identified by Hall et al. are:

1. Voluntary participation and voluntary organisations
2. Organisational culture
3. Critical organisational theory
These main theoretical constructs identified by Hall et al. are evident in the literature already discussed in the Australian context. For example, area one, voluntary participation and voluntary organisations, equates to research conducted by Hoye and Stewart (2002) and Hoye and Cuskelley (2003); area two equates to research conducted by Greenhill and Colyer (Colyer 2000; Greenhill et al. 2009) and the feminist perspective, area four, is addressed in the work of McKay (McKay 1997).

Research adopting a critical organisational perspective (area three) is not easily found in existing Australian literature that examines sports organisations. A recognition of the power differences in organisations, as is examined when using a critical perspective on traditional objects in organisational analysis, is better understood when five specific parameters are met, that is: the elitist character of modern organisations is emphasised; social class conflict is forefront; power is the primary focus; “power, conflict and control are examined in terms of their social political and historical contexts” (Hall et al. 1989); and, an emphasis on context requiring a methodology that moves back and forth between theoretical explanations.

The four areas identified by Hall et al. (1989) have very few interconnections. This observation is supported by the examination of more recent literature performed for this study; there are some common themes in the sporting governance literature, such as gender bias, but there are also many discrete studies that do not intersect with other studies to form a holistic picture of why women are under-represented in sporting organisations in senior positions.

Later research, adopting a poststructuralist feminist approach, identifies that the meanings of gender equity (for athletes in sport) are not unitary or shared, even though the prevailing assumption is that that is the situation (Hoeber 2007). Three understandings of equality emerged from Hoeber’s work; equality for athletes is represented by: equal allocation of resources; equal opportunities for men and women; and, equal treatment. Hoeber’s 2007 research followed on from earlier work designed to develop an understanding of organisational values in sports organisations in Canada. In earlier research, Hoeber recognises that “espoused organisational values may merely serve as corporate propaganda” (Hoeber & Frisby 2001, p 180). Understanding whether organisational values (such as gender
equity and fairness to all) and the meaning/s attached to those organisational values are shared by all and whether those values guide organisational practice is essential to developing understandings as to why women remain under-represented in sports governance and management.

It has already been observed that studies that adopt critical organisational perspectives are rare in studies of sporting organisations in Australia. While much of the research into women in sports management has been centred around applying organisational theories such as homologous reproduction (Greenhill et al. 2009), there is limited research in sports management which has focussed on understanding the institutional constructs that surround sport governance. Early research conducted by Slack and Hinnings (1994) in Canada attempted to understand the dynamics of change in sporting organisations via the application of institutional theory. This study provides an important foundation for the current study, but was limited by its inability to exclude resource dependence as a precipitating change factor. The isomorphic pressures that have directed the change processes in Canadian sports organisations were examined, but it has been noted that the application of institutional theory in this 1994 study left the role of power ‘missing in action’ (Clegg 2010). Adapting critical organisational theories to studies of women in organisations is more effectively achieved when power is recognised as one of the theoretical constructs.

A more contemporary study that utilised institutional theory in Canada is the examination of continuity and change in Canadian NSOs in 2000 by Lisa Kikulis. This examination is a more thorough application of the theory, but it still ignores gender. This study provides a better foundation for understanding the change processes that have been occurring in sporting organisations in Canada. The approach adopted by Kikulis (2000) can be expanded to aid in developing a better understanding of Australian sporting organisations if the role of power, the state and gender are recognised when applying institutional theory as suggested by Clegg (2010) and Suddaby (2010). Institutional theory and its application in this study, are more fully explored in the following chapter/s.
Studies from the United Kingdom and New Zealand

Various researchers, including Sally Shaw, (for example, Shaw 2006; 2007; Shaw & Hoeber 2003; Shaw & Penney 2003) have undertaken studies examining gender equity and the governing bodies of sports in the United Kingdom and New Zealand. They have examined gender equity policies in these organisations and the discourse that surrounds the construction of masculinity and femininity. Shaw and Hoeber (2003) noted that the potential reasons for women’s under-representation and men’s over-representation in senior positions in sports organisations are manifold (2003, p 348). The focus of their studies (Shaw 2007; Shaw & Hoeber 2003; Shaw & Penney 2003) was the effectiveness of gender equity policies in NSOs in the UK. They found that feminine discourses are still resisted. The use of non-gendered language, such as chairperson, is still resisted in some organisations and the gap between research and practice is highlighted. Hoeber and Frisby (2001) reported that organisational values such as equity and diversity were considered by sport administrators to be no more than propaganda in their examination of Canadian sports bodies. Similarly, Shaw and others found that in the United Kingdom and New Zealand, organisational commitment towards implementing equity initiatives is often seen as ‘window dressing’ and that these new organisational values have not become mainstreamed or accepted.

The work of Shaw, Hoeber and others adds to studies that examine the discourses of organisations, as portrayed through their policies, and confirms that women remain disadvantaged through the use of gendered language in organisations. Other organisational practices, where gender is removed from language, policy and practice have not become entrenched. In a study of New Zealand sports bodies, Shaw (2006) demonstrates that the most prevalent feature of gender suppression is the stated practice of employing the ‘best person for the job’. While at first glance such a statement would appear to support a desire to portray an organisation as homogenous and non-gendered, Shaw demonstrates that women are still considered the ‘best person’ for the jobs of caring for younger children and doing lower level clerical work, while men are the ‘best person’ for the jobs of corporate governance and higher order management. The ‘best person’ for the job descriptor reinforces stereotypical characteristics of gender (Shaw 2006, p 560).
Cara Aitchison (2005) demonstrates that both structural and cultural factors need to be considered when examining gender-power relations in the workplace. Her work emphasises the need to adopt critical theory that considers more than the usual narrow band of theoretical constructs. Aitchison (2005) argues that the interconnections between material, social, cultural and symbolic relations within and outside organisations need to be examined, as while equal-opportunities policies are enshrined in legislation the legacy of previous inequities remains “engrained in the management cultures and practices in organisations” (Aitchison 2005, p 425).

While feminist researchers in sport have, for several decades, recognised the material factors that make it difficult for women to attain positions of power in sporting organisations, such as low pay and inadequate child care, the recognition of cultural power relations did not emerge until later in the 1990s (Aitchison 2005, p 424). It has been noted by several researchers (for example, Bialeschki & Henderson 2000; Shinew & Arnold 1998) throughout this period that women’s aspirations for career progress were lower than their male counterparts; this, according to Aitchison (2005), indicates the presence of a more complex combination of constraining influences that require more nuanced research approaches, where cultural and structural influences are considered. Understanding the various interconnectivities will provide a more sophisticated understanding of gender-related issues in sport, sport management and sport governance (Aitchison 2005).

**Research from the Netherlands, Norway and the US**

In Norway a quota system (forty percent female representation) has been introduced for boards of directors of publicly listed companies. A proposal to introduce the same quota into sports organisations in Norway was rejected in 2006-2007. The proposal was not even brought forward for discussion when the Strategic Plan (2006-2011) for the central Norwegian sports governance body was developed. Instead a recommendation for a general policy statement was made to increase the number of female leaders and coaches in Norwegian sporting organisations (Skirstad 2009). Skirstad’s study builds on the work of others and provides a chronology for the development of sporting organisations over the last several decades, highlighting the explicit emphasis on improving equality in sports
organisations. As with the work of Shaw and others, the focus in this Norwegian study is on the development of policy towards ensuring women are more fairly represented in sports organisations.

This chapter has included a discussion of government enquiries into sports in Australia (2.10), and the proposed responses to addressing gender inequities. Many of those responses revolve around policy development. Initiatives and policy directives to improve gender equity in sport are also being addressed at the international level. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) has a target for female representation on sports boards, but it is only ten percent (IOC 2012). The IOC has recognised that targeting changes in gender ratios may not be sufficient on its own to increase the number of women on sport governing boards (Claringbould & Knoppers 2008). Affirmative action policies do not address the attitudes or the circumstances that create the imbalances in the first place. Claringbould and Knoppers (2008), in a study of Dutch national sporting boards, determined that in cases where a board is balanced (equal numbers of men and women) there is more awareness of stereotypical gendered behaviours. In boards with a skewed (unequal numbers of men and women) gender ratio there is limited awareness that behaviours and practices may favour one gender over the other. This works both ways; that is, boards that have a bias to female domination (such as in netball organisations) do not consider gender to be an issue, nor do boards where there is a preponderance of men (Claringbould & Knoppers 2008). Other work by Knoppers (Knoppers & Anthonissen 2008) supports the research of Shaw and others discussed earlier; gendered managerial discourses that favour men are still the dominant discourses found in sporting organisations (in the Netherlands). Gender not only shapes individual identity, but gender is an axis of power in an organisation (Knoppers & Anthonissen 2008; Shaw & Frisby 2006).

The body of research around sporting organisations in the United States of America is extensive and wide ranging. Research by Cunningham (2008) provides an examination of the development of diversity frameworks in sports organisations in the U.S.A. As is evidenced in the other countries discussed in this chapter, there has been a concerted development and professionalisation of sporting organisations over several decades where equity and diversity have become policy initiatives, but the practice observed (evidenced by the numbers of women in senior management and governance positions) in most organisations does not, at
this time, correlate with policy. Cunningham (2008) applies an institutional lens in his study, but he notes that the use of a single theoretical lens limits the degree to which organisational phenomena can be understood.

2.12 Conclusion

There is a large body of literature that relates to sport (the playing of a game), sport development and sport management. There have also been numerous government enquiries and reports into sport, particularly in Australia (a ‘sports mad’ country), where a significant amount of public money is directed towards sports organisations. The literature reviewed indicates that women are still under-represented in sports organisations in positions of importance. Sports organisations are highly gendered institutions. The nexus between gender and power in sporting organisations appears, in more contemporary research, to be of increasing importance in developing sophisticated understandings of how and why women remain under-represented in sports governance. Multiple layers of understanding need to be developed that take into account structural, cultural, individual and institutional considerations.

The following chapter outlines institutional theory and the capabilities approach and why those theoretical lenses have been adopted for this study. A capabilities approach is linked with institutional theory in this study to provide multiple layers of understanding where structural, cultural and individual considerations are made.
3 CHAPTER THREE: INSTITUTIONAL THEORY AND THE CAPABILITIES APPROACH

The previous chapter focussed on research into the under-representation of women in board roles in Australia and overseas, both in for-profit organisations and the not-for-profit environment relevant to this study, sporting organisations in Australia. This chapter introduces the theoretical lenses that were used to examine the data in this study, institutional theory and the capabilities approach.

Recent media attention and initiatives to increase women’s participation at board and senior executive level in ASX200 listed companies indicates that the lack of female representation at board level is a current issue of concern in Australia (Blackrock 2013, Walters & Lindhe 2010). Government enquiries conducted in 2006 and 2009, have focussed attention on the lack of women on NSO boards, but it is not clear whether sporting organisations are ready to try to increase the number of women on their boards.

Scholarly research has often focussed on the importance of having women on boards, but has paid less attention to the mechanisms behind women’s progress towards the boardroom (Knippen & Shen 2009). A number of theories have been used in a variety of studies as bases from which to explore these mechanisms (see Burgess & Tharenou 2002; Cornelius & Skinner 2008; Huse et al. 2009; Kenny & Mackay 2009). Institutional theory and the capabilities approach have been selected, in this study, as the appropriate theoretical lenses through which to examine women in sports governance.

This chapter provides an overview of the development of institutional theory and the capabilities approach and the major components of each theory relevant to the study.

3.1 Institutional theory

This section of the chapter provides a review of: the historical development of institutional theory; the different varieties of institutionalism; the different varieties of institutions; how
institutionalisation occurs; a discussion of isomorphism; the application of institutional theory in sports management; and an introductory discussion on gendered institutionalism.

**The historical development of the theory**

The historical development of institutional theory has been examined by several authors (for example, Clegg 2010; Peters 1999; Scott 1987; 2004; Suddaby 2010). Peters (1999), in his detailed analysis, provides a useful chronological timeline for the development of the theory and the distinction between new and old institutionalism. Other leading ‘institutionalists’ such as Scott (Scott 1987; 2004) confirm that there is a distinction between old and new institutional theory.

New institutional theory came to prominence in 1977 when Meyer and Rowan concluded that institutional behaviour is directed by a need to seek legitimacy, or to meet the perceived needs of influential others. Practices adopted in the search for legitimacy may not provide for functional efficiency (Meyer & Rowan 1977); therefore, we can use institutional theory to explain how things got the way they are in an organisation (Clegg 2010) and to explain the inefficiencies that exist.

**The different ‘varieties’ of institutionalism**

There have been many studies undertaken under the banner of new institutional theory (see Clegg 2010; Peters 1999; Scott 1987; 2004; 2008; Suddaby 2010). However, a wide variety of approaches have been adopted ”inside the big tent that is new institutionalism” (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 6). Peters (1999) contends that there are seven different versions of institutionalism: normative, rational choice, historical, sociological, empirical, international and network based. Hall and Taylor (1996; 1998) propose three versions: historical, rational choice and sociological. The differences within the versions can be divided into logic structures (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 6). The logic of culture relates to value or norm based approaches where the behaviours of individual actors are not strategic (Mackay & Meier 2003). These approaches include: normative institutionalism, where individuals conform to the norms and values of the organisation and the institution is seen to constrain individual
choice; and historical institutionalism, where path dependency is emphasised and the persistence of institutions is justified (Jonsson & Tallberg 2005). The competing logic of calculus, rational choice institutionalism, provides explanations for the emergence of institutions (Mackay & Meier 2003). Institutional form is the result of self-interested strategic calculations made by utility-maximising individuals whose interdependence and collective interactions shape institutional processes (Mackay & Meier 2003). Other versions of institutionalism are plotted along a continuum or clustered around the two logics (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 6).

**The different varieties of institutions**

Just as there are many different ways to define institutionalism, there are also various ideas about what an institution is. Scott (2001) provides us with an “omnibus conception of institutions” that includes the following observations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions:</th>
<th>are social structures that have a high degree of resilience.</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are composed of cultured-cognitive, normative and regulative elements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>operate at multiple levels of jurisdiction ranging from the world system level to the localised interpersonal level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>represent stability, but are subject to change processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>are transmitted by various types of carriers such as symbolic and relational systems, routine and artefact.</td>
</tr>
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(Scott 2001)

Scott (2001) noted that these properties are exhibited by institutions because of the processes “set in motion by regulative, normative and cultural-cognitive elements” (p 49) and that these elements are the building blocks of institutional structures. The development of these definitions for institutions has been evolutionary.
Traditionally institutions were defined as formal political structures and organisations (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 6), but new institutionalism defines institutions as comprising “rules, informal structures, norms, beliefs and values, routines and conventions and ideas about institutions” (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 6). Institutions are understood in a broader sense under new institutionalism (Mackay & Meier 2003). Taking this broader view, we can identify institutional pressures that may play a role in influencing women’s inclusion on a board of directors; however, how that pressure is applied is surrounded by uncertainty (Knippen & Shen 2009).

3.2 How institutionalisation occurs

In 1967, in an explanation of how social order emerges, Berger and Luckman described institutionalisation as an on-going process that originates with the ‘habitualisation’ of ideas so that actions become predictable. This occurs as a result of efforts to deal with uncertainty and provide predictability resulting in a saving in time and effort (Kikulis 2000). These arguments were extended into institutional theory by Zucker in 1977 (Kikulis 2000), and have resulted in a sequential set of processes, ‘habitualisation’, ‘objectification’ and ‘sedimentation’, being used to explain the process of institutionalisation in organisations. Tolbert and Zucker (1996) propose that these processes occur at different rates and result in three stages of institutionalisation.

‘Pre-institutionalisation’ defines the processes that develop new organisational structures in response to specific problems; at this stage the responses to the problems identified become formalised in the organisational policies and procedures. This is known as ‘habitualistic’ behaviour. At this stage there is a low level of institutionalisation and organisations are readily susceptible to change (Kikulis 2000; Tolbert & Zucker 1996). ‘Semi-institutionalisation’, the second stage identified by Tolbert and Zucker, is characterised by diffused organisational structures and/or actions that are objectified and accepted as appropriate for the organisation. There is still scope for change, but it is more difficult and meets with more resistance. The final stage identified by Tolbert and Zucker is ‘full-institutionalisation’ which involves sedimentation. This stage is witness to structures that are perpetuated over lengthy time frames by appropriate adopters’ (Tolbert & Zucker 1996, p
There is a resultant cultural persistence that can be very resistant to change. Other researchers have pursued these ideas and also argue that past organisational values and structures are not necessarily swept away when new ones are put forward; rather they remain sedimented and new ideas or structures are laid over the top (see Cooper et al. 1996; Kikulis 2000; Tolbert & Zucker 1996). The older sedimented structures and values may resurface at any time in a fully-institutionalised organisation.

Nevertheless institutions, even fully-institutionalised sedimented ones, do change over time. The fact that change occurs, and the associated process, is acknowledged in the study of social life by Berger and Luckman (1967), and in the study of organisations by Oliver (Oliver 1991; 1992). The result is an erosion of fully-institutionalised ideas. Oliver (1991) proposes that it is individuals that attack the legitimacy of institutional norms.

The three stages of institutionalisation proposed by Tolbert and Zucker (1996) help explain how organisations become institutionalised. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) provided organisational researchers with insight into the mechanisms that shape institutions.

### 3.3 Isomorphism

In 1983 DiMaggio and Powell introduced the concept of isomorphic pressure. Isomorphism is defined as a “constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions” (DiMaggio & Powell 1983, p 149). This expansion of theory resulted from their question “what makes organisations so similar?” In their seminal work, *The Iron Cage Revisited*, the authors observed that organisations typically move towards homogeneity even though they begin their life cycle in a state of “considerable diversity in approach and form” (DiMaggio & Powell 1983, p 148). DiMaggio and Powell’s (1983) analysis does not mean that all organisations will become identical over time. Organisations are not prisoners of their institutional environment. There are isomorphic pressures that influence how an organisation changes, but there are also ‘agentic’ processes, that is, the role of human agency, that need to be considered.
Di Maggio and Powell (1983) propose two types of isomorphism: competitive and institutional. Competitive isomorphic influences ensure that the optimal form for an organisation is chosen from a given population and that these processes will occur in populations where “free and open competition exists” (Di Maggio & Powell 1983, p 150). This view assumes “a system rationality that emphasizes market competition, niche changes and fitness measures” (Di Maggio & Powell 1983, pp 149-150). For organisations that do not operate in environments of free and open competition, where there is competition for “political power and institutional legitimacy” (Di Maggio & Powell 1983) and “social and economic fitness” (Di Maggio & Powell 1983), the concept of institutional isomorphism is appropriate. As organisations pursue legitimacy they will be subjected to institutional isomorphic influences. This results in ever increasing homogeneity amongst peer organisations (Di Maggio & Powell 1983).

DiMaggio and Powell (1983) define the organisational field as the consumers, suppliers, competitors, and regulators that combine to form a recognisable “area of organisational life”. They identify six field level isomorphic forces: resource dependency and centralisation; goal ambiguity and technical uncertainty; professionalisation and structuration. These six field level isomorphic forces underpin the three institutional isomorphic processes, coercive, mimetic and normative, identified by DiMaggio and Powell (1983).

3.3.1 Coercive isomorphism
Coercive isomorphism results from pressures exerted by external institutions such as a regulatory authority (Di Maggio & Powell 1983). Cultural expectations within the society in which an institution operates also exert coercive pressures. Change can sometimes occur due to direct mandate, for example, when a government passes a new law. Meyer and Rowan (1977) contend that there is increasing bureaucratisation or rationalisation of states and institutions. This causes increased domination over more arenas of social life. The changing regulatory structure of sports organisations is a case in point. McKay (1997, p 25) details the move from minimal direct regulatory involvement in amateur sport in Australia, New Zealand and Canada in the 1960s to an environment in the 1990s where all three countries have multi-million dollar state agencies that are responsible for the national planning and funding of amateur sport. Increasing numbers of amateur sports organisations have CEOs and
boards and, in order to secure government funding, they operate under incorporated structures. The situation in Australia in the twenty first century needs to be analysed further to determine if there has been a continuation of increased bureaucratisation or rationalisation at NSO level. If the trend has continued, support is provided for the existence of mimetic and/or normative isomorphic pressures within sporting organisations in Australia. DiMaggio & Powell (1983, p 150) contend that the result of coercive isomorphic pressure is an increased homogeneity; institutional dominance which is coercively regulated results in sameness.

3.3.2 Mimetic isomorphism
DiMaggio and Powell (1983) recognised that not all isomorphic pressure results from coercion. Organisations often operate under uncertain conditions. The recent global financial crisis is an example of an event that gave rise to uncertainty within organisational operating environments. Imitation results as a reaction to uncertainty (Di Maggio & Powell 1983); conformity of action creates certainty. When we are faced with ambiguity there is a tendency not to innovate; we do what has always been done, we cling to the known, to what has proven in the past to be safe (Di Maggio & Powell 1983). DiMaggio and Powell (1983, p 151) highlight the paradox that exists in an organisation’s search for diversity; this search leads to greater homogeneity as there is relatively little variation in organisational models to choose from. Changes in organisational structure are easily discernible, but changes in policy and strategy are less easily observed. It is this change in policy and strategy, in relation to women’s position in senior management and on NSO boards of directors, of which an understanding is being sought by applying institutional theory.

3.3.3 Normative isomorphism
Normative isomorphism is a result of professionalisation (Di Maggio & Powell 1983, p 152), where members of an occupation or profession define the method of performing their work and the conditions under which that work is performed. This professionalisation provides an interchangeable array of individuals who possess similar orientation and disposition and who occupy similar positions across a variety of organisations. Career path progression results in individuals who are virtually indistinguishable at various levels within an organisation. The result is professionalisation; actors (organisational participants) become homogenised within an institution (Di Maggio & Powell 1983). Accordingly, an institutional lens is useful for
explaining the professionalisation of sport (McKay 1997) and for examining the continued dominance of men in sports governance over last thirty years.

Di Maggio and Powell (1983) argue that organisations are becoming more homogenous, with bureaucratised organisations being the most common form. Change is not driven by competition or the need for efficiency, but rather by the behaviour of rational actors making organisations more similar without gains in efficiency. Rational actor behaviour in this context implies that individuals act because of conceptions, not because of rules or obligation; routines are followed because individuals conceive of no other alternative behaviour or action (Di Maggio & Powell 1983; Scott 2001). As external pressure is increasingly applied by advocacy groups and other interested parties to increase the number of women on boards of sporting organisations, the legitimacy of these organisations when placed under public scrutiny will be affected.

3.4 Institutional instability and change

Early research based on institutional theory focussed on processes that lead to the persistence of institutional arrangements. Such institutional stability, where expectations and individual behaviours are locked into relatively predictable and self-reinforcing patterns, can be found even when major changes are occurring in background conditions (Mackay et al. 2010). Researchers such as Mizruchi and Stearns (1988), Mezias (1990), Edelman (1990), Simons and Ingram (1997) and Guler, Guillen and Macpherson (2002), all applied DiMaggio and Powell’s (1983) framework in varying organisational situations and demonstrated the homogenising effects of isomorphic processes (Hambrick et al. 2005, p 315). More recent research, including Hambrick and others, continues to raise questions as to how institutionalised organisations innovate, as it is apparent that institutional change does occur (see Fligstein 1991; Kenny 2007; Mackay et al. 2010; Meyerson & Tompkins 2007).

The research by Hambrick et al. (2005) contributes to the development of institutional theory by arguing that DiMaggio and Powell (1983) failed to take into consideration the possibility that isomorphic pressures could work in reverse, resulting in greater heterogeneity within an organisational field. Hambrick et al. (2005) claim that the field level forces, identified by
DiMaggio and Powell (1983), which contribute to isomorphic pressure decreased in the United States during the period of their study, 1980-2000. This diminishment of isomorphic pressure led to greater heterogeneity within organisational fields and an increase in managerial discretion (Hambrick et al. 2005, p 309). The supposed reduction in isomorphic pressure is attributed to ‘macrosocial’ factors, such as changed regulatory environments, technological advances and the opening up of new organisational fields (Hambrick et al. 2005, p 308). The integration of managerial discretion and isomorphic pressure is argued to lead to a greater understanding of managerial influence upon organisational outcome. This addition to knowledge may inform the development of an “integrative model of industry heterogenisation”, with institutional theory forming a central concept (Hambrick et al. 2005, p 343).

According to Mackay et al. (2010), their perspectives on institutional change and instability can be presented in “two broad models that present different views regarding the form and content of institutional innovation” (2010, p 11). The most common perspective contends that new institutions rarely emerge, and if they do it is only in response to a crisis. This model presents a clear distinction between the moments of change, that is, institutional creation, and the mechanisms of reproduction, that is, institutional reproduction. The crisis points are not predictable, and serve as turning points where decision making ‘actors’ establish the directions for change (Capoccia & Kelemen 2007; Mackay et al. 2010; Mahoney 2000). Those directions for change are constrained by ‘path dependence’ which reinforces movement along a given trajectory. While this model is widely accepted, institutionalists from the competing perspectives, for example, historical, rational choice, and sociological perspectives, offer another model.

When interpretations made by the authors adopting different institutional perspectives are synthesised another model emerges: one of ‘bounded innovation’ where we find “periods of institutional reproduction overlapping with moments of institutional creation in partial and often unanticipated ways” (Mackay et al. 2010, p 12). The combination of interpretations that form this model include the theories of some rational choice institutionalists, who view institutional change as organic evolution where existing institutions renegotiate some elements; some elements are directed to new purposes while other elements remain in place
Some historical institutionalists theorise that change is incremental in institutions that have been in place for a long time (Pierson 2004). Other sociological institutionalists argue that accepted ideas about behaviour (institutional) change gradually over time as experience is developed and world views change (March & Olsen 1984). How sporting organisations are evolving, what their new purpose/s may be, why they are changing, what is driving that change and what is staying the same, are all relevant interpretations that will be applied to the findings in this study.

3.5 Institutional theory in sport management

As mentioned briefly in chapter two, institutional theory has been applied to a limited number of studies in sport. Examples relevant to this study include the work of Slack and Hinnings (1994) and Kikulis (2000) who examined change in Canadian national sporting organisations and applied institutional theory to explain how sports organisations in Canada were evolving. Slack and Hinnings’ (1994) study, being the earlier, focussed attention on the bureaucratisation of NSOs in Canada. They determined, through the derivation of organisational taxonomies, that all three isomorphic influences were present, to varying degrees, in the change processes occurring in Canadian sports organisations. Kikulis’ (2000) attention shifted to the changes that occurred later in the evolution of sporting organisation structures where sports organisations changed from being organisations managed by volunteer staff to organisations managed by professional staff with corporatised governance structures. This evolution of organisational form in sporting organisations has been replicated in Britain, New Zealand, Australia and the U.S.A, but there are some differences in the final organisational model in each country.

Kikulis (2000) also demonstrated that there are some coercive influences on NSOs in Canada. The government partially funds the NSOs in Canada and exerts pressure on them to adopt certain standards before they receive their funding. This is an observation consistent with findings in other countries such as Britain (Shaw & Penney 2003). It is also the structure evident in Australian sporting bodies. The initial document and literature searches conducted for this study indicated that the National Sporting Organisations (NSOs) and State Sporting Organisations (SSOs) in Australia are heavily reliant on government funding.
Kikulis (2000) also concluded that the volunteer boards of the NSOs in Canada had become more institutionalised. This finding was found to be consistent with other not-for-profit organisations where the volunteer board is “a deep structure and core practice that demonstrates traditionality” (Kikulis 2000, p 308). The boards were also seen to be the creators of “values, history, and tradition that provides continuity and enables change in organizations” (Kikulis 2000, p 309). This traditional role of boards, being the enablers of change and providers of continuity, was challenged when normative influences clashed with the traditions created by the board. Sporting organisations in Canada now have paid executives whose role is to raise funds and create greater organisational effectiveness and efficiency, which in turn is driven by the “institutional pressure of state involvement in sport policy” (Kikulis 2000, p 313).

A model was developed by Kikulis (2000) to demonstrate that organisations become increasingly institutionalised as they move from one stage to the next, and increasingly more resistant to change. Importantly, Kikulis (2000) determined that the history of an organisation’s emergence (as an institution) over time is a significant factor in understanding the behavioural control exerted by organisations. “Institutions control behaviour through unquestioned compliance to the rules and values they espouse […] humans play an active role in determining the level of ideas and actions that are institutionalized and deinstitutionalized” (Kikulis 2000, p 299). We can, therefore, use institutional theory as a tool to help us understand the creation and change that occurs in particular organisational fields and/or organisational practices such governance and decision making in a given organisational setting; in this instance Australian sporting organisations.

3.6 Gendered institutionalism

Institutional theory provides a way of understanding institutions, how they change and why they entrench power relations that cannot be easily changed. One of the basic sedimented organisational fields highly resistant to change is the gendered nature of organisations (Cunningham 2008; Shaw & Frisby 2006; Shaw & Hoeber 2003). Mackay (2003) and others,
as detailed below, put forward the argument that institutional theory and feminism can be linked.

Members of the Feminism and Institutionalism International Network (FIIN) have begun exploring the intersection between feminism and institutionalism (Mackay 2008). The early contention from this international group of researchers is “that gender is a crucial dimension in the study of institutions” (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 2). Institutional theory, as has been discussed above, is a theory that focusses on ideas of institutional development, performance and change, but “some of the more sophisticated conceptions of power relations as constituting the core of the social went missing in action, along with a concern with the role of the state and thus, in the theory’s terms, coercive isomorphism” (Clegg 2010, p 9). If, as Clegg and Suddaby (2010) demonstrate, power, power relations, and the role of the state have been relegated to minor positions in more recent studies utilising institutional theory, then a central concept (power) in “any understanding of society” (Clegg 2010, p 11) has been overlooked. Clegg claims that power is making its way back into the “third generation of institutional theory” (Clegg 2010, p 11) and this is largely due to the role of state being reintroduced into more recent institutional studies. The significance of the analysis of institutional theory and the recent lack of acknowledgement of the role of power and state, as reported by Clegg and Suddaby (2010), is significant to the infusion or synthesis of gender as an analytic construct in institutional theory. Mackay and Meier acknowledged in 2003 that the lack of emphasis on the role of power in new institutionalism was a major problem. Clegg (2010), as previously noted, asserts that an understanding of power is central to any understanding of society. Mackay et al. (Kenny & Mackay 2009; Mackay 2008; Mackay et al. 2010; Mackay & Meier 2003) also assert that major social divisions such as gender, class and race (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 13) are elements that are uncertain and problematic in adaptations of institutional theory, as they are key to understanding institutional resistance to change.

Chapter two discussed the role of feminist literature in understanding the lack of women in senior management and board positions, and the role of power in the suppression of women over time. The transformation of institutions is seen by feminists as an important strategy in achieving a better balance between male and female power relations (Mackay & Meier 2003, Page 60 of 306)
The work to date by FIIN argues that there is scope for mutual benefit from a synthesis of feminist gender analysis and new institutional theory. FIIN believes that critical insights from feminist approaches will enrich new institutional analysis by establishing gender as a crucial dimension of institutions and that the range of mid-level conceptual tools and ideas provided by institutional theory will prove useful to feminist researchers (Mackay 2008).

Words of caution come from Suddaby (2010, p 15), who claims that there has been a tendency to “hypermuscle” institutional theory. Suddaby argues that institutional theory has been trivialised by bringing in other ideas, such contingency and agency theory, and repackaging them as institutional theory. For Suddaby, the central point of institutional theory is to “understand how and why organisations attend, and attach meaning, to some elements of their institutional environment and not others” (Suddaby 2010, p 15). This point is often overlooked in an attempt to identify examples of isomorphism. The core concept of institutional theory then, as identified by Suddaby (2010), adopting Lincoln’s wording, is “the tendency for social structures and processes to acquire meaning and stability in their own right rather than as instrumental tools for the achievement of specialised ends”. The useful conceptual tool that Mackay (2008) and others identify is the understanding that there are legitimating symbolic normative demands that organisations conform to that conflict with the rational attainment of economic goals. As such, a feminist approach recognises the power disparity in society and organisations that disadvantages women in the workplace (Mackay 2008).

Acknowledging gender inequity in organisations, and coupling that understanding with a theory about organisations, does not create a universal theory that fits all situations; rather, it provides a theory that better explains how and why organisations got the way they are and how and why they continue to change.

3.7 The applicability of institutional theory to this study

Critical evaluation of the assumptions of institutional theory is ongoing (for example, Clegg, 2010; Peters, 2000; Scott 1987 & 2004; & Suddaby, 2010). Newer applications of institutional theory have expanded upon the core principles of the theory (Suddaby 2010).
Some researchers decry this as over-reaching by theorists (Clegg 2010; Suddaby 2010), but others see it as only reasonable that as worldviews and organisations change, so must theoretical constructs (for example, Kenny & Mackay 2009; Mackay et al. 2010; Mackay & Meier 2003). The application of institutional theory in this study is made to determine if gender is a factor in the institutionalised environment that houses sporting governance in Australian sporting organisations today.

3.8 The Capabilities Approach

The next section of this chapter discusses the development and application of the capabilities approach, the secondary theoretical lens utilised in this study.

3.8.1 The development of the capabilities approach

In the classic text *Economic Inequality*, first published in 1973, Amartya Sen explored the social injustice experienced by women in various cultures which prevented them from fulfilling their capabilities. Sen (1973) defined capability as possessing the freedom to attain the ‘multiple offerings’ available to everyone, such as food, shelter and medical attention. The core focus of the capabilities approach therefore is on what people are able to do and be, rather than on what they can consume or on their incomes. Income and consumption are the means of obtaining well-being; it is the things that matter intrinsically, the ability of people to lead a life that is of value to them, that can be evaluated using the capabilities approach (Robeyns 2003). The emphasis on ‘reason to value’, that is, leading a life with has value to the individual, is important in developing an understanding of the capabilities approach.

A key analytical distinction in the capability approach is the difference between the ‘means’ and ‘ends’ of well-being and development. It is the ends that are intrinsically important; the means are how the goals of increased well-being, justice and development are achieved (Robeyns 2005). The distinctions between means and ends is not always clear; some ends can also be means, for example, the capability of good health is an end in itself, but good health can be the means to other capabilities such as the capability to undertake work, to participate in a community activity or to play a sport (Robeyns 2005).
A life is valuable if people’s capability to function or ‘functionings’ are met; that is, their opportunities to undertake activities and actions that they want to engage in and to be who they want to be (Robeyns 2005). Functionings include: being literate; being healthy; being a part of a community; being respected; working; resting; and other participatory ends that are of value to people. The distinction between capabilities and functionings is between achievements and the freedoms from which one can choose (Robeyns 2005). The freedoms or opportunities to choose to lead the kind of life that one wants to lead (capabilities), is ultimately the most important consideration under Sen’s capability approach (Robeyns 2005). Sen has continued over time to develop his arguments using a capabilities approach and has directed attention towards gender inequality. Power dynamics in gender inequality lead to differential command over resources in households that often result in poorer well-being for women and girls (Sen 1990).

In the 1982 article *Equality of What?*, Sen argues that equality of capabilities differs from equality of primary goods. When examining gender-based divisions of labour it was observed that different answers will arise for a given problem if the evaluation is made on a person’s capability to do things, rather than by examining their access to primary goods (Sen 1982). Two people may be given the same amount of goods or resources, but end up with unequal outcomes because of their ability, or inability, to perform valuable human functions (Nussbaum 1992). It is around these issues that the work of Sen links with the work of Martha Nussbaum. Nussbaum also worked on the development of the capabilities approach, at times in conjunction with Sen (Nussbaum & Sen 1993). Their approaches are very similar in a lot of ways, but there are some fundamental differences. In Sen’s conception of capabilities, capability is about real or effective opportunity (Robeyns 2005). Nussbaum’s conception of capabilities directs more attention towards people’s skills and personality traits (Robeyns 2005). Sen’s approach lies closer to economic theory, while Nussbaum’s approach provides more potential for understanding actions, meanings and motivations (Gasper & Van Staveren 2003; Robeyns 2005).

If it is accepted that people may end up with unequal outcomes, given the same resources, then there is a need to identify why their ability to perform valuable human functions may vary. Firstly, however, a determination needs to be made as to which functions we care about.
(Nussbaum 1992). An examination needs to be undertaken to determine the varying needs of individuals in connection with these functions. People should be capable of choosing to function in a variety of desirable ways. For example, a person may live in a just society where all people have access to medical care, but that society will not force them to submit to a medical procedure if they choose not to do so (Nussbaum 1992).

Another significant departure in the approaches of Nussbaum and Sen is that Nussbaum provides a list of universal human capabilities that is constantly being revised. In 2008 that list contained ten capabilities: life; bodily health; bodily integrity; senses, imagination and thought; emotions; practical reason; affiliation; other species; play; and control over one’s environment. The level of detail of these capabilities is expanded each time the list is revised. Nussbaum (2003) has argued that Sen’s capability approach is lacking if he refuses to endorse a list of capabilities. By not endorsing a particular list of capabilities, any capability may be argued to be valuable, even ones detrimental to others such as the capability to consume so much of a particular good that others are deprived (Nussbaum 2003). Others also argue that a list of relevant capabilities is required for the approach to become operational; there is a necessity to understand how to select the relevant capabilities (Robeyns 2005). Sen refuses to endorse a pre-determined list of capabilities (2004), so the debate around this issue is ongoing.

3.8.2 Capabilities to use for assessing gender inequality

While Sen continues to refuse to adopt a universal list of capabilities, others, including Nussbaum, believe such a list is necessary. Robeyns (2003) has developed a list of capabilities that can be used to conceptualise gender inequality in post-industrialised Western societies. That list comprises fourteen elements as listed below.

(1) life and physical health (being able to be physically healthy and enjoy a normal life)
(2) mental well-being (being able to be mentally healthy)
(3) bodily integrity and safety (being able to be protected from violence of any sort)
(4) social relations (being able to be part of a social network [...] give and receive social support)
(5) political empowerment (being able to participate in and have a fair share of influence on political decision-making)

(6) education and knowledge (being able to be educated and to use and produce knowledge)

(7) domestic work and nonmarket care (being able to raise children and to take care of others)

(8) paid work and other projects (being able to work in the labour market or to undertake projects, including artistic ones)

(9) shelter and environment (being able to be sheltered and to live in safe and pleasant environment)

(10) mobility (being able to be mobile)

(11) leisure activities (being able to engage in leisure activities)

(12) time-autonomy (being able to exercise autonomy in allocating one’s time)

(13) respect (being able to be respected and treated with dignity)

(14) religion (being able to choose to live or not to live according to a religion).

(Robeyns 2003, pp 71-72).

The important distinctions between Robeyn’s list of capabilities and those of others such as Nussbaum or Erikson (1992) for example, is the inclusion of capabilities such as care, household work and time autonomy. Robeyn’s list has categorised capabilities in a way that “links them to existing literature on gender inequalities in the social sciences” (Robeyns 2003, p 75). Robeyns does not take the view, as Nussbaum does, that inequity and disadvantage of capability will be addressed adequately by government policy.

While Sen’s (and Nussbaum’s) capability approach recognises the impact of social institutions on human capability, it does not evaluate the role of institutional power in perpetuating, or perhaps causing, individual inequalities in opportunity to achieve (Hill 2003).
3.8.3 Other research adopting a capabilities approach

The capabilities approach has been adopted and extended by other researchers in recent research undertakings and focuses more on individuals’ ability to exercise choice and the reasons why they may not be able to exercise free choice.

A matter of choice.

In order to reduce the inequalities that exist in society there needs to be a foundational belief that everyone has the same capability (Nussbaum 1995). Putting aside conditioned beliefs about each gender’s capabilities has proven to be a difficulty that is hard to overcome (Nussbaum 1995). Lortie-Lussier and Rinfret (2005) also recognised this same difficulty but contend that the ‘coming generation’ who will replace current managers have values predicated on life outside work, therefore work ethic and concepts of success will be further challenged. Discourse related to espoused work values will change with the generational shift, and this shift in values needs to be further examined (Lortie-Lussier & Rinfret 2005).

Cornelius and Skinner (2005) have also extended Sen’s (1973) capability approach by incorporating the need to fulfil one’s potential at work. Cornelius and Skinner (2008, p 141) identify women’s inability to breach the ‘glass ceiling’ and achieve success in significant numbers as an issue of much concern. They argue that measures of success and achievement are not universally shared; that the common measure of success in the corporate world (accessing a board position) may not be shared by all. ‘Failure’ to access a board position may be a matter of choice rather than a matter of discrimination, and both men and women may be exercising this choice (Cornelius & Skinner 2008).

Current research and press interest would indicate that women are not represented in leadership positions in accordance with their capabilities or desires (EOWA 2008; 2010; WOB 2010, 2012, 2013; WGEA 2012). The capabilities approach contends that what matters ethically is whether a person is able to fully function and to be or do what they have reason to value by choice. Developing an understanding of women’s ability to freely choose whether they become a director of a corporate or sporting board, or whether institutional and/or external societal factors impinge upon their actions, can be studied from a different
assumptive structure using a capabilities approach (Cornelius & Skinner 2008, p 141). External factors need to be considered separately from individual internal capabilities. Environment is a key determinant in individuals reaching their full potential. Society’s inequalities underscore the failure of individuals to reach their full potential (Cornelius & Skinner 2008).

The environment encountered in NSOs in Australia is one dominated by male hegemony (McKay 1997). Hegemony can be more generally defined as the control achieved through consensus, not force, by a dominant group, in this case men (McKay 1997). The consensus accepted in Australian sporting organisations is that men dominate therefore women are prevented from achieving the ultimate measure of career success, being a leadership or board position (McKay 1997). Consideration needs to be given to the premise that women may be exercising choice, in that they may have attained a level of achievement that is acceptable to them (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). Externally, media attention and prior research would indicate that women are under-represented in leadership positions, but women’s perception of their achievements within NSOs needs to be examined to verify, or refute, these assertions.

3.8.4 A matter of reduced expectation.
A less positive outcome may be encountered, and will need consideration, when using a capabilities approach. Both Sen (1973) and Nussbaum (1995) argue that deprived groups can develop ‘adaptive preferences’; demands and expectations may be lowered due to a narrow range of experiences. In the context of women attaining senior management positions, the organisational constraints that discriminate against women may result in a corrosive reduction in women’s confidence. Women may perceive that they are not capable of achieving higher status position equally with men (Cornelius & Skinner 2008).

Lortie-Lussier and Rinfret (2005), in an examination of perceptions of success of men and women in the Quebec public service, concluded that women were as satisfied as men with their careers and their work, and perhaps were even more satisfied, even though there were the usual differences in hierarchical level and salary evident. Their work was based on both objective and subjective measures of success. The measures of objective success used were hierarchical position and salary, and the measures of subjective success used were
satisfaction with one’s work and perceived success. Lortie-Lussier and Rinfret indicate that the individual factors selected by them to measure objective and subjective success can only offer partial explanations. Organisational factors (not specified) are a significant factor (Lortie-Lussier & Rinfret 2005), and it is when considering what these organisational factors may be that we need to consider adaptive preferences.

The concept of adaptive preferences refers to the phenomenon whereby women (or others) may adapt their expectations to a lower level of perceived success after years of institutional discrimination; for example, women may agree to lower levels of salary for similar work as they accept that they cannot return to work after maternity leave on a salary equal to that of a male colleague. Success, as measured via a capabilities approach, does not relate only to economic indicators but incorporates equity, sustainability and empowerment (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). Determining how sporting organisations in Australia address equity, sustainability and empowerment by examining survey responses, interview responses and their publicly available documents may enable a determination to be made as to whether the selected sporting organisations in this study are organisations that enable members to reach their true potential and enhance quality of life through a widening of choice. This is a stated aim of most sporting organisations and one of the recommendations made in the 2009 *Future of Sport in Australia* report.

### 3.9 Conclusion

The capabilities approach is a theoretical framework that contains two normative claims (Robeyns 2011); the claim that the freedom to achieve well-being is a moral primacy and that the freedom to achieve well-being is understood in terms of people’s capabilities (Robeyns 2011). People’s capabilities are expressed as their real opportunities to do and be what is of value to them (Robeyns 2011). The capabilities approach may be applied to studies of gender inequality (Cornelius & Skinner 2008; Robeyns 2003). While institutional theory may be used to explain how and why organisations became the way they are and how and why they continue to change and evolve, not all the choices made by individuals in an organisation are necessarily explainable by adopting such a theoretical perspective. Institutional theory may also be used to understand the institutional drivers that may inhibit or enable individuals to
take advantage of employment or career opportunities in an organisation (Bass et al. 2013), and as such, identify the drivers of inequality in these areas. The capabilities approach, as a normative theory rather than an explanatory theory, does not explain inequality, or poverty, or well-being, but it assists in the conceptualisation of such notions and it assists with the development of understandings of individual choice (Robeyns 2011). Layering a capabilities approach with institutional theory provides a more balanced perspective to the analysis of the organisations in this study.

The following chapter details the methodology and the method adopted in this study.
4 CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY AND METHOD

This chapter outlines the methodology and the method adopted in this study. It includes the rationale for using a case study approach, ethical considerations, interview structure and design, sampling techniques, methods of data collection, the response rates for the data collected, and how the data will be analysed.

Restatement of the Purpose of the Research:

The purpose of this research is to investigate: how women, in a select number of sports, obtain a position on the board of directors in an NSO in Australia; how they and others perceive their success in that position; and whether these organisations display a commitment to advancing the position of women within the organisation. Men hold more senior leadership and board positions than women in the national and state sporting organisations in Australia (WOB 2010; 2012; 2013).

The findings of this project may have an impact on the development of policy and the framing of strategic directions within sporting organisations in Australia. Theory development is also an aim of this study. As the literature review in chapters two and three indicates there is a gap in knowledge in this area. An exploratory investigation adopting a case study methodology is justified in this research, given the following considerations.

4.1 Methodology

A case study methodology is used in this study. There is some debate as to exactly what a case study methodology is (see, Greene 2008; Johanseen 2003; Yin 2009). The history of the case study methodology dates back to around 1900 and began in the anthropology discipline (Johanseen 2003). Investigations into various cultures were undertaken using field studies where participants were observed in their natural environment. Other disciplines such as medicine, social work and psychology also adopted variations of this form of investigation around this time (Johanseen 2003). In the 1960s “a second generation of case study...
methodology began to emerge” (Johanseen 2003, p 6). It is claimed that the second generation bridges the gap between the qualitative/quantitative debate (Johanseen 2003), or as Michael Quinn Patton stated in 1990 “rather than believing that one must choose to align with one paradigm or the other, I advocate a paradigm of choices” (Patton 1990, p 39). One of the perceived advantages, amongst the many, of using a case study methodology is that multiple methods of data collection are commonly used (Johanseen 2003). There is emerging academic discussion as to whether mixed methods research is a distinct methodology in and of itself (Greene 2008). For the purposes of this research project methodological arguments are not entered into; the methodology used is the case study methodology.

4.1.1 Epistemology
This study is placed within constructionism. Constructionism claims that “meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting” (Crotty 1998, p 43). Here “truth or meaning comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities of our work” and “meaning is not discovered but constructed” (Crotty 1998, pp 8-9). It is the epistemology qualitative researchers tend to use most frequently (Crotty 1998, p 9). The distinctions between epistemologies such as objectivism, constructionism and subjectivism and their variants, are not always clear cut. When considering these distinctions it is helpful to keep in mind Miles and Huberman’s (1994, pp 4-5) conclusion that:

[…] in the actual practices of empirical research, we believe that all of us – realists, interpretivists, critical theorists – are closer to the centre, with multiple overlaps. Furthermore, the lines between epistemologies have become blurred.

Even though epistemological distinctions may not always be clear, and are often not overtly alluded to in many research undertakings (Neuman 2006), the choice of research paradigm has an effect on methodology, data collection methods and analysis techniques. There are differences of opinion about the classifications relevant to research paradigms; for example, Sarantakos (1998) identified three dominant perspectives in social research: positivism, interpretative social science and critical theory. Crotty (1998) and Neuman (2006) describe five categorisations: positivism (and post positivism), interpretivism, critical inquiry, feminism and post modernism.
The present research undertaking is situated within the interpretive paradigm (theoretical perspective) because the focus is to “develop an understanding of social life and discover how people construct meaning in natural settings” (Neuman 2006, p 88). The ‘world of sport,’ as it is known today in Australia, was created by men (refer to discussion in chapter two). Historically, men have been responsible for establishing sporting organisations in Australia and how those organisations have been run. How an established sporting organisation is interpreted by men and women differs. Women are still trying to fit into the sporting world created by men (McKay 1994; 1997). This study attempts to interpret how institutional mechanisms, and/or issues of social justice, may be influencing women’s ‘place’ within sporting organisation governance.

4.1.2 Theoretical Perspective

An interpretative approach is purposed to give an understanding of social meaning in context; reality is socially constructed (Neuman 2006, p 94). The researcher in this type of study is trying to determine what people believe to be true, what is held to be relevant in the given situation and how the participants in the study define what they are doing (Neuman 2006, p 90). The interpretivist approach “questions whether people experience social or physical reality in the same ways” (Neuman 2006, p 90) and therefore is suited to answering the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions in a research study.

An interpretative approach has been chosen as “interpretivists of all types” (Miles & Huberman 1994, p 8) recognise that researchers undertaking a study using this approach will not be completely detached from their research objects. Researchers are understood to have their own conceptual orientation and are members of a particular culture at a specific point in time, and will thus be influenced by their own interpretation of the ‘facts’ (Miles & Huberman 1994, p 8). The boundaries between the different research paradigms have not been agreed, but each approach implies that different methods will be used to conduct the research (Neuman 2006, p 104). The proposed study is designed to develop an understanding of the mechanisms that exist within national and state sporting organisations in Australia which determine the balance of male and female representation on their boards of directors.
4.1.3 The feminist research paradigm

While this research project primarily adopts an interpretivist approach, it also contains elements of a feminist research paradigm. Feminist literature and theory, as discussed in chapter two, has been influential in forming a basis for understanding the topic under study. The researcher’s personal feelings and experiences were not directly incorporated into the research process (Neuman 2006, p 103), but the interpretivist approach to research, as stated above, recognises that the researcher is not completely detached from his/her research subjects. The feminist research paradigm also acknowledges that a researcher is not detached from the research project that is being undertaken (Neuman 2006, p 103), and it is acknowledged that the researcher’s personal experience was influential in developing an interest in, and providing a basis for, understanding the research topic.

For the purpose of this research, the interpretivist and feminist research paradigms are viewed as compatible. There is a significant body of work (see chapter two) that discusses the intersections and divergences amongst feminist research, feminist theory and feminist methodology (DeVault 1996), but there is little ongoing consensus as to the constitutive elements of each. The theoretical lenses through which this study was viewed (see chapter three) are also considered compatible. To develop an understanding of how and why women remain under-represented on the boards of sporting organisations, issues surrounding organisational/institutional influences were examined in an exploratory approach. In an attempt to present a more balanced analysis, social justice goals were also considered by applying a secondary theoretical lens. Institutional theory on its own was not considered to provide enough insight into the social justice and power considerations that have been identified in other research endeavours (as discussed in chapters two and three) to be, in part, contributory causes for women’s continued exclusion from positions of power and influence in organisations. The consideration of social justice goals fits within the feminist paradigm; application of the capabilities approach, as a secondary theoretical lens, strengthens the scope of the analysis of the data collected. Pyke (2009) notes that researchers undertaking studies which utilise siloed theories do not provide a balanced research outcome. That is why two compatible theoretical approaches were adopted for this study: the capabilities approach allows for the conceptualisation and evaluation of issues around women’s unequal
representation in board positions; it is strengthened by coupling it with an explanatory theory: institutional theory.

While the feminist paradigm is compatible with the interpretivist paradigm adopted in this study, some of the basic elements of the feminist research paradigm, as identified by Neuman (2006), were not adopted. In particular, an “empathic connection(s) between the researcher and those he or she studies” (Neuman 2006, p 103) was not made. In addition, action-oriented research, another defining element of the feminist research paradigm, which “seeks to facilitate personal and societal change” (Neuman 2006, p 103) is not employed in the study. However, some of the dominant elements of the feminist paradigm are present in the study; that is, the ideals of giving voice to women and ‘correcting’ the predominant male-oriented perspective prevalent in Australian society (Neuman 2006).

4.1.4 The Case Study Approach
A case study methodology incorporating the use of mixed methods for data collection and analysis was used in this study. A non-experimental, holistic, multiple case design comprising three parallel case studies was employed to undertake a study of three sporting organisation, their boards and their governance structures. Within each of the three cases there were multiple ‘micro’ units, such as the different levels of each organisation studied, for data collection and analysis. The holistic design enables the results from each case to be pooled across the sports studied. Each sport though, given its unique organisational structure, remains an individual case.

According to Yin (2009) the use of a case study/s provides an:

empirical inquiry method that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, […] when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used (p 18).

The process is linear but iterative, and provides a rigorous methodological path. The various methods utilised in a study are not mutually exclusive (Yin 2009, p 13) and multiple methods may be used in any particular study, although some situations lend themselves to particular
methods. For instance, Yin (2009) notes that the use of case study research is particularly advantageous when the research question/s are ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions. This study asks ‘how’ questions about the appointment of women to boards in sporting organisations; how institutional mechanisms affect those appointments; and how institutional theory may be used to explain such influences.

Traditional prejudices against the use of case study research, according to Yin (2009), include the perception that case study research was confined to the exploratory stages of some other type of research methodology (Yin 2009, p 17). Another was to confuse case studies with ethnographies or participant observation, and thus confine case studies to being applicable to fieldwork-only type studies. Following Yin’s (2009) explanation as to the appropriate ‘how’, ‘when’, ‘where’ and ‘why’ for using case study research, this study utilised just one of the many variants available for combining research methods to provide rigour for the study. The method of data gathering is not separate from the research strategy or methodology; they are intricately connected in several ways (see Connell et al. 2001; Miles & Huberman 1994).

Many related research methodologies try to avoid specifying any theoretical proposition prior to conducting the research enquiry; for example, when using ‘grounded theory’ (Corbin & Strauss 2007) or ethnographies (Van Maanen 1979). Case study research does allow, and possibly even forces a researcher to begin to construct a preliminary theory relating to the topic under study (Yin 2009, p 35). This research identifies the theoretical propositions of institutional theory and the capabilities approach as being relevant to the study. Theory development facilitates the data collection phase of the case study (Yin 2009, p 38). The literature reviews conducted prior to the data collection phase of this study provided theoretical underpinnings that could be applied to the analysis of how and/or why women are under-represented in sports governance.

How the case studies were carried out is detailed in sections 4.3 and 4.4 of this chapter.
4.2 Method

Within the case study framework, multiple methods for data collection were utilised. A survey, interviews and document analysis were the primary research methods. By observing a phenomenon from different angles or viewpoints a better understanding of the true nature of the phenomenon may be developed (Neuman 2006, p 149). The process of combining, or triangulating, data collection methods is used in both qualitative and quantitative research (Neuman 2006, p 149) and is a defining element of case study research (Johanseen 2003). Triangulation of data collection methods allows a researcher to draw upon multiple sources of evidence; at least two different sources should be used (Bowen, 2009). In drawing on multiple sources of evidence the researcher is seeking ‘convergence and corroboration’ of the data collected that will provide credibility for the assumptions formed (Bowen, 2009).

4.2.1 Selection of the case study sports

Three cases, that is, three NSOs and their associated state SSOs, were chosen for the study as detailed below. Important considerations in choosing the sports organisations for the study included the player demographic and other factors characterising the sports, the organisational structure, and the portrayed commitment to gender equity in sports. Sports that were considered skewed towards one end of the gender inequity spectrum, that is, too male dominated or too female dominated, were not considered for inclusion in the study. It was considered that the opinions of members of organisations with an obvious gender bias might distort the findings. This assumption might not hold true of course; an examination of opinions in those organisations would be needed to verify or disprove that concern. Diagram 4.1, below, presents the structure of the three case studies.

(see next page)
4.2.2 The sports chosen for this study

The three sports selected for this study were chosen for several reasons. All three are long-established sports with a history of division between men and women participating in the sport, both as players and administrators, which has been documented and is publicly available through archival records and website histories. Each of the sports studied has a player base, in the twenty-first century, not overtly biased toward either men or women. Sport2 does have more male players, but the number of female players is significant and there is a current emphasis within the sport to encourage more women to participate. Sport1 and
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

Sport3 have roughly equal male and female player bases, but participation within different age categories varies. For example, in Sport1 there is a stronger female player base at school age, but the player base becomes more similar as players get older. Sport3 also has a slightly skewed participation base towards girls in the younger school-age years, but boys outnumber girls in later school-age years. All three sports are now Olympic sports; Sport3 has the longest history as an Olympic sport, while Sport2 is only a recent entry into the Olympic arena. Sport2 has a strong professional arm, but Sport1 and Sport3 are not professional sports. Sport3 is a highly publicised sport in Australia due to the success of its athletes at Olympic and other internationally competitive levels. Sport2, while its athletes achieve a lot of success at Olympic and international level competition, is not as highly publicised as Sport3. Sport1 receives publicity during the Olympics but receives little (national television or newspaper coverage) publicity at other times.

4.2.3 The organisational structure of the sports in this study

In the case of the three sports organisations chosen for this study, the national level and all associated state level organisations are merged; that is, separate male and female organisations no longer exist. The timing of these mergers was different in each of the three sports in the study and was an important consideration in why the particular sports were chosen for the study. Sport1 merged its male and female associations at national and state levels at varying times over the last decade or so, with all mergers completed by 2005. Sport2 has been merging its separate associations over the last three to five years with some state organisations merging as recently as late as 2010. Sport3 has had merged organisations at the national and state levels since the 1960s.

All the organisations studied are ‘corporatised’ bodies although the form of this ‘corporatisation’ varies. Some organisations are companies and as such are subject to the Corporations Law in Australia while others, usually the smaller state organisations, still have not taken on a legal corporate status. Some organisations remain federated associations and are subject to the governance rules associated with not-for-profit associations. All sporting organisations at the national and state levels are considered professional organisations with paid organisational staff working from an organisational headquarters. The gender mix of the
organisational staff varies considerably and was included in the study’s findings for contextual purposes.

The boards of sporting organisations in general, and of the three organisations in this study in particular, consist of volunteers who are reimbursed for expenses only. Funding is received from the ASC, member fees, sponsorships and other donated sources. As previously stated, the national and state sporting organisations represent the amateur arm of the three sports. The professional sports leagues and clubs are administered via a different arm in sport (only one sport in this study has a professional arm), but the professional and amateur associations are closely linked for reasons of player development and recruitment.

4.2.4 The State level organisations
The state level organisations vary considerably in their structure. Some SSOs were similar in structure to the NSOs; that is, they have paid organisational staff, a distinct organisational headquarters and volunteer board, and they receive funding from the ASC, the State Government, their NSO, member fees and other donated sources. There was a variation, however, between the states and territories in the size and professionalisation of the SSOs. In the case of the national sporting organisation for Sport2 (NSO2) and the national sporting organisation for Sport3 (NSO3), one of their territory SSOs did not exist in the typical SSO model. One territory level organisation in Sport2 is represented by an association of clubs, designated as an Association. This association of clubs is represented by governing bodies at individual club level comprised of volunteer individual club presidents and club committee structures with some paid staff for the administration of each individual club. This Association included clubs outside the territorial geographic boundaries that would also fall under another SSO’s governance structure. In Sport3, one territory is not represented by a SSO. These structural differences affected the ability to access some organisations and also whether some organisations were included in the study.

Local structures
The division of the state organisations into regional, district or club substructures varied considerably between the sports and within the sports. Each state organisation is responsible for its own structure down the line. Most of the state organisations are now incorporated, but
not all of the layers below state, that is, regions, districts or clubs, are incorporated. The voting power of clubs, districts or regions also varied from sport to sport and state to state, as did the way elections were held. In some instances, each member within a club has a right to vote for board members at state level. In other instances, there is a representative vote allocated to each club, district or region.

The micro units within each case organisation

Each case consisted of a NSO and the associated state level sporting organisations; therefore, there were up to nine ‘micro’ units in each case (see Table 4.1). The boards were examined in detail, but the interactions with staff and the staffing structures were also considered. The boards and the staff are different micro units.

4.3 Data collection methods

The data collection methods used and the sequence of events around the data collection processes are explained in the following sections of this chapter.

4.3.1 The preliminary gathering of data and the data collection process

The table below details the number of organisations contacted in each sport. At federal level there is only one governing body (national) for each sport. At state level, there is usually a governing body for each sport in each state and territory. In a few instances, as in Sport2 and Sport3 in this study, there is not a territory organisation for some sports, but these instances are limited and they are usually associated with the nature of the sport.

**Table 4.1: Sample Organisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case study sport</th>
<th>Number of organisations contacted and survey distributed to:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 1</strong></td>
<td>NSO1 (National sporting organisation one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SSO1 x 8 (State sporting organisations for sport one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 2</strong></td>
<td>NSO2 (national sporting organisation two)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SSO2 x 7 (State sporting organisations for sport two – note: there is only one Territory sporting organisation for sport two)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Case 3</strong></td>
<td>NSO3 (National sporting organisation three)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SSO3 x 7 (State sporting organisations for sport three – note: there is only one Territory organisation for sport three)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An environmental scan of available documents for all listed NSOs, per the ASC website, was undertaken in early 2010. Environmental scanning refers to the “possession and utilisation of information about occasions, patterns, trends, and relationships within an organisation’s internal and external environment” (The University of Adelaide 2012). “Environmental scanning includes both looking at information (viewing) and looking for information (searching)” (Choo 2001). In this study, information about sports organisations, such as their organisational structure, history, player demographic, governance structures, policy and processes, was gathered by searching organisations’ web pages. The documents gathered were reviewed to obtain data relevant to the study.

Information obtained from the gathering of organisational documents and the literature reviewed informed the survey and interview questions. A survey was conducted and follow-up interviews with the participants who voluntarily elected to do so were carried out. A detailed analysis of documents following the themes identified in the analysis of survey and interview responses was then conducted and a triangulation of results across the three cases was performed.

4.3.2 Document Analysis

Document analysis refers to the process of analysing facts or trends in already existing documents (Pershing 2002). Document analysis can be used as a prelude to planning and carrying out other data collection techniques such as interviews and surveys. It also allows for secondary data analysis of records that may support, disprove or supplement data gathered from other sources such as interviews or surveys (Pershing 2002). In this study, documents were collected and examined before and after the survey and interviews were conducted.

An analysis of archival company annual reports, publicly available policy documents, strategic plans, board minutes and research and development initiatives on gender equity was undertaken to gather data that reflects past events. This analysis provided background information for the research questions. Documents provided supplementary research data that was also used to contextualise the data collected during interviews (Bowen 2009). Documents also provide a means for tracking development and change in organisations (Bowen 2009). The development and change that has occurred in relation to female
participation in sports governance was a primary focus for this study. The way publicly available documents within sporting organisations reflect that change will not, however, provide firm evidence of progress, or lack of it, within any given organisation as documents alone do not reflect how an organisation actually operates on a daily basis (Bowen 2009, p 30).

4.3.3 Survey

Surveys are used to sample many respondents who answer the same questions (Neuman 2006). Surveys can be given directly to respondents, for example, in a class room or at the end of a conference, or more indirectly by mailing a hard copy to respondents (usually with a reply paid envelope for return of the survey), via telephone or via the internet. Internet or web based surveys are increasing in popularity due to the speed and flexibility associated with this media. Compared to other methods of conducting a survey, internet based surveys can also be relatively inexpensive (Neuman 2006).

This survey was constructed and conducted using SurveyMonkey, a web-based survey tool that provides a set of templates that may be utilised to aid the design of a survey instrument, a web link or email link to allow respondents access to the survey, and basic statistical compilation tools for analysing the results received. Many of the initially identified disadvantages of using this type of survey, such as coverage, privacy, security and design issues (Neuman 2006), have now mostly been ameliorated by advancements in the technology.

A survey questionnaire was developed to address the research questions. After conducting a broad environmental scan of organisational documents and reviewing existing literature around the issue of women on boards in general, and women in sporting governance in particular, the survey was constructed to address four initial themes considered to be of relevance to the study. The first section of the survey gathered broad information about the respondents, their board experience and the particulars of the board they were currently serving on. Four broad themes with associated questions divided the survey into the following sections:
1. General opinion questions about gender equity issues within the organisation
2. Recruitment and training issues associated with board and staff appointments
3. Issues relating to participation on the board and contact with organisational staff
4. Regulatory issues that affect the organisation and its governance structure.

The survey concluded with a section for open comment and an invitation for a follow-up interview. There was no obligation for a survey respondent to volunteer for a follow-up interview.

4.3.4 Semi structured interviews
The role of an interviewer is difficult (Neuman 2006, p 305). There is a need to elicit cooperation and build a rapport with the respondent, remain neutral and objective, respect the respondent’s privacy, and reduce embarrassment, fear and suspicion; and yet, there is also a need to be probing and insistent enough to be able to obtain the information required (Neuman 2006, pp 305-306). These factors were important considerations when designing the interview questions and making decisions on how and when to approach respondents to participate in an interview. In this study, this was considered a more than usually important consideration in light of the previous bad experience with a different researcher reported by some of the interview respondents (see section 4.4.2 Access for further discussion).

4.4 Data Analysis

The following section describes how the data collected was analysed and details the response rates to the survey and interviews conducted.

4.4.1 Documents analysed

This study used publicly available documents as a source of data generation. Documents are widely available via national and state sporting organisation websites. The documents collected and accessed are detailed in Appendix 4.1. Over two hundred documents were collected, either in hard copy or retrieved and stored electronically, from the twenty-five organisations in the three case study sports. Documents were collected for all organisations.
within the three case study sports. Not all the organisations in the three case study sports were represented in the survey or interviews.

Documents that reflect the institutional culture of an organisation include annual reports, constitutions, by-laws, strategic plans and policy documents. A thorough examination of the constitutions and strategic plans of the study organisations was warranted as these documents establish a formal written source of information that reflects the organisations’ operations in relation to sport development policy and practice, the governance structure of the organisation and interactions with the Federal Government and other key stakeholders. Annual reports provide an important written record reflective of an organisation’s institutional culture as they constitute the annual contribution of all NSOs, SSOs, their staff and board members collectively in a reliable publicly available form (Shaw 2007).

The documents were analysed to determine whether the institutional view, as represented by organisational documents (Shaw 2007) substantiates or contradicts the individual understandings expressed by the board members in the interviews and the survey.

4.4.1.1 Stages of the document analysis

The document analysis was carried out in two stages. A rolling collection of documents was undertaken in late 2010 and throughout 2011. International agreements that support gender equality were collected in electronic format, so an understanding of commitments undertaken by Australian sporting organisations could be collated. The environmental scan that was conducted in early 2010 of all NSOs (per publicly available ASC website information) allowed a matrix of available policy and procedure for all organisations at the NSO level to be compiled. The information collected in that original discovery exercise directed the collection of documents for the study. Documents for the three sports in the study were collected in 2010 and 2011 either in hard copy or electronic format if the documents were particularly large (see Appendix 4.1).

The rolling collection of documents was particularly relevant for Sport2 as this sport had a recent history of amalgamation of its separate male and female associations in some states. Documents from the separate associations were still available in some cases and documents
from the merged bodies became available throughout the period. The website presentation of the different organisations was also considered and is reported upon in a general manner. Website presentation is rapidly changing and to make a definitive statement about an organisation’s web presence is not possible. Web presence, and the organisational texts available via websites, was, however, a consideration when analysing a sport’s discourse (discourse in this instance being broadly defined as the use of verbal or written language in a social context), as a web presence is an increasingly important method of communicating with participants, members and the general public for sporting associations. Regulatory bodies, such as the ASC, require certain initiatives, such as the ‘Play by the Rules’ initiative, to be publicly available through a sport’s website; the recording of such instances was considered important in determining instances of coercive isomorphic influence.

A further environmental scan was conducted of the organisations that responded to the survey and took part in the interviews to gather any later documents. This was considered an important step in understanding whether, and how, the organisations were moving forward in their policy development initiatives, particularly in Sport2 where changes to the newly merged organisations were occurring frequently. Changes in the web page design and documents (that is, accessibility to and availability thereof), was also re-investigated for the entire environmental scan of NSOs conducted in early 2010.

4.4.1.2 Where the documents came from and what was done

The table below briefly explains how the documents were analysed.

Table 4.2: How the documents were analysed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Documents were collected for -</th>
<th>How many organisations were involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport1</td>
<td>1 national organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 state and territory organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2</td>
<td>1 national organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 state and territory organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport3</td>
<td>1 national organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 state and territory organisations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How the documents were analysed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of document analysis</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content analysis</td>
<td>Read and analyse constitutions, strategic plans, policies, annual reports and any other documents to ascertain the extent to which the themes and patterns identified in the interviews and survey are supported by institutional directives or regulation. Read a constitution and determine the structure of the board, how members are elected, voting rights and whether there is any gender-specific language in the document, for example, ‘chairman’, rather than ‘chair’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study aggregation</td>
<td>Compare and contrast the content from each case study sport. Constitutions in sport1, sport2 and sport3 do/or do not, contain a gender clause.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The documents were analysed by using a system of close reading and colour and numerical coding of replicated instances, that is, how many times a similarity or disparity occurred in a particular feature of interest or relevance in the document. For example: the number and type of gender clauses in a constitution; did the constitution have a gender clause? If so what did it stipulate and was the gender clause consistent throughout all organisations in a particular case organisation? See: Appendix 5.5, pp 291-298, for a full explanation of how the documents were analysed.

**The Constitutions**

The constitution of an organisation is the written set of rules which outlines the organisation’s operations, including members’ rights, how the board or management committee works, and how meetings are run. Constitutions may be framed using a set of model rules provided by state regulatory bodies, or an organisation may write a constitution without a template or guide. Constitutions must be lodged with the Department of Fair Trading (NSW), or its equivalent in each Australian state. A constitution is a legally binding set of rules.
most constitutions have similarities, particularly as it is common amongst smaller organisations to adopt a model constitution, there can be a great deal of variety in the level of detail contained in a constitution.

Twenty-six constitutions were retrieved and read from the twenty-five organisations in this study. Two constitutions were retrieved from the national sporting organisation of Sport3 (NSO3) website: the NSO3 constitution and the constitution for the regional (Pacific) governing body for that sport as a whole. Two other organisations had two constitutions retrieved; constitutions for NSO2 and a state sporting organisation of Sport3 (SSO3-6) were retrieved during the initial scan for documents in 2010 and updated constitutions were retrieved for each of them in 2012. The constitutions for three state level organisations in Sport1 and Sport2 were not available or were unable to be retrieved due to broken web links. This situation was not corrected by the relevant organisations throughout the period of the study.

The Strategic Plans

A strategic plan is considered to be an organisation’s process for defining its direction, whereby it makes decisions on allocating its resources to pursue the defined strategy (AICD 2012). The strategic plans examined in the document analysis varied considerably in their level of detail. It was apparent that different levels of expertise had been applied in their preparation. Strategic plans were not available for all organisations in the study. Some organisations, for example several in Sport2, did not allow public access to the strategic plans on their websites; only members could access this information. In total, 16 strategic plans were retrieved and analysed.

The Annual Reports

Annual reports, as stated by Shaw (2007), reflect the operations of an organisation throughout the year, and the views and opinions of the staff and board. Web pages now allow easy access to these organisational documents; previously researchers needed direct access to the
organisation to gather such documentary evidence. Eighty-five annual reports were accessible and were retrieved in hard copy or saved to disk.

As was observed when examining the strategic plans of the study organisations; the content of the annual reports varied significantly between and amongst the case study sports. Some reports had a President’s report and a list of a few individual or team achievements, but were mainly devoted to delivering the financial statements for the year and the auditor’s report. Others contained a great deal of information including: the President’s report, the CEO’s report, reports from other paid staff in the organisation (for example, reports on player development initiatives and marketing initiatives), reports from coaches and detailed results of sporting events during the year, and individual and team results. All annual reports contained reports delivering the financial statements for the organisation, but again there was a great deal of variety in how detailed the information provided was. Many annual reports provided financial statements and auditors reports that ran to many pages, while others provided abbreviated Balance Sheet and Revenue Statement information.

Other documents analysed

There was significant variation in the types of policies and other documents available amongst the study organisations. A full list of the documents examined is contained in Appendix 4.1 & Appendix 5.5.

Supplementary quantitative data

Data that was collected by other organisations, for example, the Australian Institute of Company Directors (AICD), which provides training and support for company directors; Women on Boards (WOB), a lobby organisation that publishes the need for more women on boards, provides training and collates and distributes information to companies about potential women board members; and the Workplace Gender and Equality Agency (WGEA); an Australian government agency that gathers information for government and administers various equal opportunity legislative provisions, was added to the documentary data that was publicly available via sporting organisation websites.
4.4.2 Survey
An online survey was distributed to NSO1, NSO2, NSO3 and the associated state level SSOs (see Appendix 4.2 for the survey instrument). As discussed in section 4.3, not all sports have the same hierarchical organisational structure. Sport3 does not have an SSO for one of the territories. Sport2 does not have an SSO for one of the territories in a format consistent with other SSO organisational structures in the study; therefore it was not included in the study. The organisations that the survey was distributed to are listed in Appendix 4.3.

Distribution

How the survey was distributed is discussed in the following section/s.

Timing
In order to distribute the survey, the organisational headquarters of NSO1 and NSO2 were contacted early in December 2010 to discuss the survey and its aims and request information as to the best method for making contact with and distributing the survey to board members. These initial contacts also included an enquiry into the best method for contacting state organisations. The responses received indicated it was best to approach state organisations directly, and were revelatory as to organisational hierarchy and cross-organisation communication. These initial contacts also revealed that board elections for most organisations were due to be held in December 2010, and that some board members were due to be replaced. Given this information, it was decided that distribution of the survey would be best achieved in the first quarter of 2011.

Due to access difficulties, discussed below, contact with Sport3 was not initiated, and the survey was not distributed, until June 2011.

Gatekeepers
All contacted organisations advised that the best method of communication with board members was through the administrative or executive assistant or the CEO. The administrative or executive assistant or CEO would be responsible for distribution of the survey to the board members. Two reasons were given for this mode of distribution. The
The main reason given was the requirement not to impose directly on the board; the organisational staff member would determine whether board members were willing to participate in the study. The second reason given was the dispersed geographic locations of the board members; an example of this issue is highlighted by the comment made by the executive assistant of NSO1, “they are all over the states”.

Access
Ease of access varied from organisation to organisation. In some cases contact details were obtained for the ‘best’ person to distribute the request to the board, but following up that contact proved difficult in some instances. On two occasions in state organisations, Sport2, state organisation 5 (SSO2-5) and Sport2, state organisation 6 (SSO2-6), contact was made with organisational staff who furnished details for email contact with the CEOs of their respective organisations, but no responses were received from these organisations. Follow up contact was attempted on several occasion in mid and late March 2011. In these instances, either the CEOs elected not to distribute the survey, or upon distribution to board members, no board members elected to participate in the study. Due to the voluntary and confidential nature of the survey, determining the reason for the non-response was not always possible.

When survey responses were received from Sport1 and Sport2, contact was made with the respondents who elected to participate in follow-up interviews. During discussion with some of the respondents it became apparent that access difficulties and lack of response to the survey had been partly caused by a previous experience with another researcher in the area under study. Respondents advised that the ‘bad experience’ was related to the type of questions contained in the previous research to which board members had consented. Questions were styled around issues of sexuality and some board members had taken offence with this line of questioning. This bad experience was instrumental in board members’ unwillingness to participate in further studies in the area of gender in sports governance. It was noted by the respondents who had raised this issue that the research aims and questions in the present study were not considered intrusive or offensive.
In certain instances, some relevant information pertaining to board structure and organisational interactions was obtained during the initial contact phone calls and has been presented in the findings.

**What was distributed**

All Case 1 and Case 2 NSOs and SSOs were contacted at the beginning of March 2011. Case 3 NSOs and SSOs were contacted in June 2011. An introductory email (Appendix 4.4) was sent to the organisational gatekeeper in each sporting organisation, after the initial phone contact, to be forwarded to the board members as per the method of contact stipulated by the organisational gatekeeper. An attached Word document, the Participant Information Sheet (Appendix 4.5), containing information about the study, was also sent to each organisation’s designated contact. The web link for access to the survey was forwarded to each organisational gatekeeper. Some organisational contacts advised the researcher via email that the survey had been forwarded to their boards. Some organisational contacts also responded that they could not ensure the willingness of board members to participate in the survey.

4.4.2.1 Survey response rates

Survey responses were received from the 7th March 2011 onwards. The survey was open until July 1, 2011. A summary of the raw data collected indicates the following response rates to the survey: Figure 1.
Figure 1: Survey response rates.

The response rates calculated from the survey responses are based on the total number of organisations in each case sport and are presented in Figure 1. In Sport1 there is one national level organisation and eight state and territory level organisations (nine organisations total). In Sport2 there is one national level organisation and seven state and territory level organisations (eight organisations total) and, in Sport3 there is one national level organisation and seven state and territory level organisations (eight organisations total). Not all of the organisations that were invited to distribute the survey to board directors responded. A total of 25 organisations were approached to participate in the survey; responses were received from sixteen organisations (see Table 5.2 below), a 64% response rate.

In total, 31 survey responses were received from individual directors. This was out of a total of 119 individual directors in the sixteen organisations from which survey responses were received, a response rate of 26%.

Sport1 returned the highest response rate. Seventeen responses were received from a possible fifty-four (see Table 5.2), a response rate of 32%. The response rate in Sport2 was lower, 19% (seven responses from a possible thirty seven), possibly because of the recent mergers in the sport. Several directors in Sport2 organisations indicated that they considered their organisation so ‘new’ that answering questions relating to the functioning of the board was not possible; for example, (see page 100 for further explanation of codes) a female director from the State1 organisation in Sport2 commented:

   As this is a new organisation we are still feeling our way and sometimes it is difficult to give you an answer to your questions as it has not come up yet (D1FSSO2-1)

The national body for Sport3 did not participate in the study; this meant the overall response rate for this sport was also lower than was considered optimal, 25% (seven responses from a possible twenty-eight, see Table 5.2).
Survey result distortion.
The results of the survey were distorted to a small degree by the responses received from two organisations. Both of these organisations were from Sport2; one was the national body.

A female director of the NSO for Sport2, the chairman of the board, did not participate in a follow-up interview and returned a survey on behalf of the six member board. A separate email was forwarded to the researcher, explaining that the responses to the survey returned were reflective of the views of the entire board, in the chairman’s opinion. This chairman, a woman, was replaced as chairman of the board shortly after the survey response was received. There was controversy surrounding this event. State board members raised this issue during interviews. They commented on the dysfunctional behaviour of this particular board and the breakdown in communication between the national and state level boards in this sport.

NSO2 doesn’t have an influence; we are almost at war with them. They are not working well as an organisation; they are not representing us well. Other state organisations are the same. The female chair of the national body has just been shafted. It is complicated [...] they are not a cohesive organisation. There is a chequered history (A female director, Sport2, state (1) organisation, D1FSSO2-1).

It is felt that the response rate in this sport was poor due to limited response from the NSO.

A female director in a SSO in Sport2 also responded on behalf of the entire board. This organisation has a very recent history of merging the separate male and female associations. An email was received from a female respondent for this state association stating that the organisation was so recently merged that it was not possible to indicate how well the organisation would function with a board that consisted of male and female members.

4.4.3 Semi-structured interviews
The initial Question Guide (Appendix 4.6) followed on from the design of the survey questions and expanded upon the responses received in the survey. The early interview responses led to a redirection of later questions to include areas of importance highlighted by
the first interview respondents. The original direction of the questions was maintained as much as possible because the initial interview questions were directed towards gathering information considered pertinent to answering the research questions and there was a need to maintain comparability between the interview responses. The order of the questions varied from respondent to respondent based upon participant responses.

The original contact with interview respondents was made via the medium they had elected in the survey; usually by email or telephone. Interview times were set to suit the respondents. Interviews were conducted from April 2011 to July 2011. The interviewees were given a participant information sheet before the interviews were conducted, either electronically or in person if the interview was conducted that way (Appendix 4.7).

The interviews were conducted using a variety of media. The interviews were conducted via telephone, Skype and in person. Skype is a software application that allows users to make voice and video calls over the internet. As interviews were conducted around Australia, Skype was often the medium of choice. This medium had the advantage of being inexpensive to use as well as providing a face-to-face experience for the interview, allowing an interviewee’s responses to be observed as well as heard. There were some technical difficulties encountered with the use of Skype; it dropped out on occasion. This did not impinge significantly upon the ability of the researcher or the interviewees to conduct a clearly understood conversation.

All participants who were interviewed were given a clear introduction to the aims and purpose of the research; they were also informed their identity would remain confidential through the use of coding, and were advised they could refuse to answer any question they felt uncomfortable with. All participants who were interviewed in person signed a Consent Form (see Appendix 4.8) acknowledging their willingness to participate in the study. Participants who elected other forms of media for the interview, that is, telephone or Skype, verbally consented to take part in the study and for the interview to be recorded. All interviews except one were recorded. A hand written transcript was taken of the one phone interview where a recording was not made. A recording was not made of this interview due to
the poor quality of the phone connection, not because the participant objected to the conversation being recorded. All interviews were transcribed into a written record.

4.4.3.1 Interview response rates

Of the thirty-one respondents who returned a survey, eighteen elected to take part in a follow-up interview, that is, a response rate of 58%. Not all surveys distributed contained a request to participate in a follow-up interview. The initial surveys distributed to the western states, that is, Western Australia, South Australia and the Northern Territory, for Sport1 and Sport2 did not contain interview requests due to distance and accessibility considerations. When the survey was distributed to Sport3 the surveys were all sent with a request to participate in a follow-up interview as distance and accessibility considerations had been overcome at that stage by the use of modern media such as Skype. Participation in a follow-up interview was voluntary.

Of the eighteen board members who volunteered to participate in a follow-up interview the gender breakup was as follows: Male = 9; Female = 9.

The interviews were conducted in a semi-structured format. The interview guide is available in: Appendix 4.6.

4.4.4 Personal reflection

When adopting an interpretative approach it is recognised that the researcher is not completely objective and value free in the research process (Neuman 2006). The researcher should reflect upon, “re-examine, and analyse personal points of view and feelings as a part of the process of studying others” (Neuman 2006). Personal reflection and an acknowledgement of personal bias is an important consideration in any qualitative study as it enables personal perceptions and subjective inference in a study design and reporting to be overtly recognised. This enables others, who may be using the same data, to understand these influences and accept or reject them. As this study is designed, in part, to determine individual perceptions, the completion of a totally objective analysis was not an expected outcome.
Personal perception and subjective inference were eliminated as much as possible from this study. This was achieved by acknowledging the possibility of personal bias (for example, if it was raised by an interview participant), and by recognising the influence of personal experience on decisions made (for example, on the design of the survey or the type of questions asked). Detailed reflection, within the study’s findings, on personal bias is documented and analysed.

4.5 Ethical considerations

As this study included direct participation with human subjects, Human Research Ethics Committee Approval was obtained. The previously mentioned appendices contain the Introductory Emails (Appendix 4.4), Consent Forms (Appendix 4.8), Participant Information Sheets (Appendix 4.5), Survey Questionnaire (Appendix 4.2) and Interview Question Guide (Appendix 4.6) that were approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at the researcher’s university. All information provided to participants in the study was designed to ensure that issues that could potentially arise from conducting research where direct contact was made with participants - for example, privacy, confidentiality, emotional issues, sensitive issues, discrimination and criminality - were fully explained to participants prior to their consenting to take part in the study. Ethical considerations require that direct reference to the organisations and the individuals who took part in the study is not made; codes are used to identify them (Appendix 5.1).

4.6 Conclusion

The overall purpose of this chapter has been to describe, explain and justify the use of a case study methodology that uses mixed methods for data collection and analysis to generate the evidence necessary to respond to the research questions raised. Interpretive and feminist paradigms were influential in forming a basis for understanding the topic under study; that is, to develop an understanding of the mechanisms that exist within national and state sporting organisations in Australia which determine the balance of male and female representation on their boards of directors. The findings of the survey, interviews and document analysis are reported and discussed in the next three chapters.
5 CHAPTER FIVE: DE-INSTUTIONALISATION AND RE-INSTITUTIONALISTION PROCESSES – ORGANISATIONAL RESPONSES TO CHANGE AND COMMITMENT TO GENDER EQUITY.

The previous chapter detailed the methods used to gather data for this study. Chapter five is the first of three chapters that present the findings for the study.

The results of this study are reported in a manner that maintains, to the extent possible, the confidentiality of the participants and their organisations. A system of coding is used to identify the organisations and the people who participated in the survey and the interviews. The table below provides a brief explanation of the coding system used; a full explanation of all codes used is contained in Appendix 5-1.

Table 5.1  Explanation of the coding system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO</td>
<td>National sporting organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO</td>
<td>State sporting organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M/F</td>
<td>Male or female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The numbers included in the codes represent:
- which sport is being referred to:
  for example, 1 = Sport1, 2 = Sport2 and 3 = Sport3;
- which director is being referred to:
  for example, 1 = director one in an organisation
  - which state level organisation is being referred to:
    that is, different numbers represent different states or territories, 1 = State1.
- An example of a code/s is:
  D1MNSO1 equals Director one, male, national sporting organisation, Sport1.
  D2FSSO3-2 equals Director two, female, state sporting organisation, Sport3, State2.
5.1 Introduction

Institutional theory explains how practices become embedded (deeply sedimented) resisting change or reverting to old ways over time following more coercive attempts to institutionalise new practices. Institutional theory is the primary theoretical lens applied to the study findings. It is an explanatory theory, that is, it can be used to provide explanations for how things came to be the way they are in an organisation and it can be used explain the inefficiencies that exist in an organisation (Clegg 2010). Institutional theory may provide a view of the mechanisms that are acting upon sporting organisations and the individuals within those organisations. During the process of institutionalisation, “action and structures become taken for granted institutional rules that change and are changed by organisations” (Kikulis 2000, p 295). These changes occur as a set of sequential processes: habitualisation, objectification, and sedimentation (Tolbert & Zucker 1996). This means that organisations cycle through the different stages of institutionalisation. Organisational change forces, or isomorphic pressures (Di Maggio & Powell 1983), will have varying consequences for organisational behaviours depending on where in the cycle they are. The degree to which an organisational characteristic, such as male domination of senior organisational positions, is embedded in an organisation is also dependent on where on the institutionalisation continuum an organisation is.

Institutional theory focuses on the adoption of organisational forms (vocabularies or structures (Meyer & Rowan 1977)), the nexus between organisational form and institutional environment and the mechanisms that shape those interactions, known as isomorphic influences or pressures (Di Maggio & Powell 1983; Slack & Hinings 1994). As institutions are understood to constrain or enable actors by “creating expectations of the behaviour of others” (Hodgson 2006, p 2), a study of women in sporting organisations utilising an institutional theory lens may provide insight into the processes that inhibit women achieving success equally with men in institutional environments (Mackay & Meier 2003). The links between institutions, change and gender have not been sufficiently explored according to Mackay and Meier (2003, p 5), and need further scrutiny. Those links are explored in this thesis by examining the organisational form displayed in various sporting organisations and
women’s under-representation in leadership positions in a particular institutional field, governance (Knippen & Shen 2009; Slack & Hinings 1994).

5.2 De-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation processes

The national and state level organisations in the three case study sports have undergone a continuing process of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation over the preceding decades. Two of the most obvious change drivers that have affected the study organisations are the enforced mergers of the separate male and female associations in two of the case study sports and the link between funding, policy change and organisational structure. Coercive pressure is exerted by funding bodies, for example the ASC, to ensure that sports organisations comply with recommended changes; these changes have often arisen from government enquiry, as discussed in chapter two. Broader societal pressures, as discussed in chapter one (pp 5-6) and the increasing professionalisation of sporting organisations (pp 7-8) are also influential.

5.2.1 Changes in organisational structure

Sports organisations, at national and state levels in Australia have undergone significant structural change over the last several decades, evolving from volunteer based organisations that were segregated into male and female associations, towards more professional merged organisations (Kikulis 2000; McKay 1997). The significance of the changing nature of sports organisations became more apparent as the study progressed. Directors unanimously considered that many of the changes they were adopting to their structure, their policy and operations were forced upon them.

Yes, [the amalgamation of the separate male and female organisations], so it is a forced change. But it makes sense not to have separate bodies, in the one sport, in a country doing the same thing. That is [the ultimate aim of] selecting people to go off to the Olympics (Male director, national body, Sport1, D2MNSO1).

Directors from Sport1 organisations, which have merged their separate male and female associations throughout the last two decades, overwhelmingly felt that they were part of a mature organisation that had, or had previously had, a constitutional obligation to ensure a
minimum representation on their board of male and female members. Some of the state associations, as previously discussed, were in the process of, or had recently completed, removing this constitutional requirement. The idea that legislated change may be needed initially to bring about longer lasting change was a common belief.

Those two cultures have to come together and I guess legislation is how that has to be done at the start. My view is, however, that after the organisation matures then that requirement for gender balance should be removed. It should then be a competency test not a gender test (Male director, national body, Sport1, D2MNSO1).

The comments by this director reflect the commonly held belief that organisations now need to focus on the competency of their board members, not gender, and that gender is not a determinant of competency.

In Sport2 many of the directors felt their organisations were so new they could not comment on organisational commitment to gender equity, but one female director expressed the opinion that individual personality plays a very significant part in determining organisational directions.

There are two different cultures come together and this is very hard to reconcile in some ways [...]. Because we had such difficulty merging, at one stage we weren’t talking, we had to have a mediator to get the two groups talking again, this basically boiled down though to individual personalities. The difference in culture I think could have been worked through, but there were a few hard-nosed individuals that made things difficult (Female director, state (1) organisation, Sport2, D1FSSO2-1).

Her comments also reflect an understanding that organisations have an identity or culture that differs between organisations. She expressed the opinion that those differences could have been worked through, but individuals exerting influence for their own personal agenda is a more difficult task. The difficulties experienced during the merger processes in this sport have already been discussed in chapter four. Access difficulties to Sport2 organisations and survey response distortions were highlighted. The newness of the organisations and the
tensions that existed between the male and female associations (Sport2) are well documented and individual respondents in this study, in Sport1 and Sport3, made comments on the merger difficulties in Sport2. Those tensions, and the remaining individual resistors to changes, point to the existence of deeply sedimented practices within the organisation/s that are persisting through the de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation processes that are occurring.

5.2.2 Organisational structure reflected through documentation
From the websites for each sport in the study the differences in organisational structure can be observed. Organisations in the eastern states, that is, Queensland, NSW, Victoria, are generally larger, probably in part reflecting the larger populations in these states, and more ‘corporatised’; Tasmania is an exception having a small population. In the smaller states and territories the organisations are often quite small with only one or two paid staff and a greater reliance on the more traditional volunteer support networks that characterised sporting organisations in the past (Kikulis 2000; McKay 1997). The size of the organisation was highlighted as an important consideration by some directors, for example, a female director in Sport3 indicated:

My organisation is very small with three staff: two males and one female only. We have a lot of interaction with our staff. Board members are elected and appointed roles are targeted for skill sets, and these skills take precedence over gender. Currently the board of seven has a balance of three males and four females (Female director, Sport3, state (3) organisation, D1FSSO3-3).

In Sport2 the organisational documents provided greater insight into the de-institutionalisation and the re-institutionalisation processes that had been occurring.

5.2.3 The structure of lower level organisations
Examination of Sport2 documents confirmed that the structure in most state level associations below SSO level, that is, at regional, district and/or club level consists of separate male and female associations. For one of the larger state level organisations, where amalgamation of the men’s and women’s associations had recently (SSO2-2 in 2010) taken place, access to information from the separate men’s and women’s state associations was still accessible at the beginning of the data collection cycle.
Some amalgamated organisations in Sport2 did not have publicly available information, such as new constitutions available on their new organisational websites during 2010 and 2011, but this information became available by early 2012. Amalgamation information was available through the women’s association websites (SSO2-1 & SSO2-2). Very little mention was made of the amalgamations on the men’s association websites. Much more documentation, that is, access to annual reports, policies and meeting minutes, was available on the women’s association websites for the ‘old’ organisation. SSO2-2 men’s association restricted access to ‘corporate’ documentation to members only. The difficulties in merging the separate associations in Sport2 were discussed in the interviews conducted; these difficulties are confirmed in the documentation of the organisations in Sport2.

In Sport1 there is also documentary evidence that below state level (SSO) the regional, district and club level organisations still maintain gender segregated structures. Sport3 does not exhibit the same gendered divisions below the state level organisations. The maintenance of the segregated organisational structures below state level means that the entire player base, or grass roots level, of the sporting organisations maintains the male/female divide. There are pressures however for reform at the lower organisational levels, but resistance may be strong, given the experiences of Sport1 and Sport2, when the entire player base is involved. At this time it can only be speculated as to how difficult it may be to de-institutionalise and effect lasting change in the traditional male and female club structures.

5.2.4 The delivery of directives and/or recommendations and the link to funding

pressure from international and national funding and regulatory bodies is increasing even though it is not always overt. Several directors pointed out that directives from the ASC and government are often subtle; a formal written directive does not always exist. Funding is usually linked to different initiatives so they become imperatives even though the proposed initiative is often presented as being a recommendation; a direct mandate is often not issued. A female director in a state sporting organisation in Sport1 discussed this issue:

_We have had a directive we now have to make work at the local competition level[...] while the men’s and women’s [associations] became amalgamated on a state and national basis, we still have competitions that have remained separate[...], but we are_
being directed that we have to do that now [amalgamate local competitions]; again it is a funding issue. So it really comes down to funding (D2FSSO1-1).

All board members interviewed noted the funding linkages between the national and state bodies and ASC funding. It was noted previously that there is some dysfunction between some of the state level organisations and their national governing bodies (Sport2 in particular reported this), but this was also observable in Sport3. A male director from a state (2) organisation in Sport3 commented:

No, we professionalise and function to the best we can. Our funding comes from our State Sport and Rec. From a national body point of view, we hold our national body, I’ll use the word, in a bit of disdain [...]. They are still a more operational board rather than a strategic board (D2MSSO3-2).

The national body of Sport3 did not participate in this study. Sport2 and Sport3, state organisations, both report dysfunction in the relationship between state and national levels, but all directors reported a link between individual sports and the ASC. The influence of government, represented by the ASC, and the international sporting bodies such as the IOC is significant. The sedimentsed methods of funding have been de-institutionalised and the newer links between funding bodies and the sporting organisations in this study are not fully established. They appear to be habitualised, that is, they are accepted as they are at the present time, but it was acknowledged that the way funding is distributed to the study organisations, in all three cases, is expected to change. Therefore the current funding arrangements may not become fully sedimentoed, another model (possibly based on the Peak Body model) will be introduced. The proposed change to this new model will be discussed further (p 130).

5.2.5 Levels of institutionalisation – ‘sedemated’ behaviours and practices
In an attempt to determine the stage of institutionalisation and the level of institutionalisation of organisational practices questions were pursued as to how individuals were responding to other organisational processes and practices that had changed.
Changes in the role of the board
Most interview respondents emphasised the changing nature of sports governance. All noted that the role of the board was now strategic not operational. Operational functions are now carried out by paid staff. The boards of the three sports in this study all place more emphasis on recruiting people with particular skills, not people of a particular gender, for their boards. Recruiting people with skills in areas such as finance, law and corporate governance is considered important and indicates a change in the composition of the board. The comment made by a female director, in a state sporting organisation in Sport1, encapsulates the predominant view expressed:

The board is more strategic, to the extent that we are now trying to bring through to our association level a more strategic approach [...]. But we see our role as the state board as being the overarching strategic body and trying to pull all our associations up to a level where there is good governance in all our associations at all levels and forward thinking (D1FSSO1-2).

The changes to organisations in the level/s, (regional, district, club for example), below the state organisations is another significant development. The organisations are more professional; professionalisation of organisations results from normalising isomorphic pressure (Scott 2008). This is another indication of the on-going de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation taking place in sports organisations, at all levels.

Changes in the composition and structure of boards
The arrangement of and relationships between the parts or elements of the board have changed over time, and are continuing to change. Several issues were identified by the directors interviewed as being changes in the structure or composition of their boards. The changes identified included: quotas or targets, non-member elected board members and the introduction of a constitutional requirement to recruit board members with particular skills.

Quotas
The issue of quotas was addressed in the survey, but many respondents became contradictory in their opinion during the interviews. Most respondents, initially, were opposed to the introduction of mandatory quotas, but many moved on to expressing the opinion that
affirmative action may be required ‘to get things up and going’. Some felt that generational change may bring about the ‘desired result’ in the end but some felt that:

It would be great to think that in the future no sport would have to legislate numbers, that community was so broad minded that a black one-armed woman was the best person for the job [...]. I think that we are a way off from achieving this sort of thinking. I do not think this is a widely accepted attitude. I think there is an entrenched attitude held by a lot of men “well, what would those chicks know about sport” (Male director, national sporting organisation, Sport 1, D2MNSO1).

Some respondents thought a direct link between gender equity initiatives and provision of funding from the ASC may provide a more assured method of achieving outcomes. A male director in the national sporting organisation of Sport1 commented:

I think what I would prefer, for the sports supported by the ASC, is for the government to require an explanation as to why there is not a reasonable representation of women in a particular sport’s governance and to have the funding tied to initiatives to improve the balance; an ‘if not why not’ approach. The ASC knows which sports are under-represented with females and it could make it known that their future funding may be affected; there are various ways to skin the cat (Male director, national organisation, Sport1, D1MNSO1).

The comments made around the introduction of quotas direct attention to the existence of mimetic and coercive isomorphic influences contributing towards the de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation processes occurring in these sports. There is evidence that the traditional male dominated board structure is still resistant to change. The initial coercive pressure from government to adopt member protection and gender equity policies has been met. Mimetic influences are also evident as the organisations adopt practices they see being adopted in other organisations. This influence comes from a variety of sources including from within and outside the sports themselves.
The idea that generational change may overcome conditioned belief about each gender’s capability has been discussed in chapter three (p 71). Existing research (Lortie-Lussier & Rinfret 2005) indicates that the younger generation of managers (who may be perceived to have less power due to a relative lack of experience) have different values to the current, and previous, generation of managers. If this proves true, as will only be ascertained in the future, then there may be a change in embedded institutional practices that have entrenched gender stereotypes in the workplace. Different personal perspectives may sediment different social expectations around perception of success.

Documents were examined to determine if the commitment to gender equity in sports organisations was visible in their publicly available records. Formally acknowledging an organisational practice, such as gender equity commitment, and enshrining it in constitutional and policy mandate is one way of sedimenting an organisational practice.

**Constitutional gender clauses**

In Sport1 four organisations, including the national body, still have gender clauses in their constitutions. Four state and territory organisations have removed the gender clauses from their constitutions. The level of institutionalism for a constitutionally mandated gender requirement appears to have been low. The mergers of the separate male and female associations in this sport are no more than 12 years old in any particular instance at state or national level. The reason provided for removal of the gender clause, is that the directors of these organisations consider that the organisations are ‘mature’ and do not need a coercive mechanism to ensure gender equity in the organisation. Only the passage of time will indicate if that maturity, or the objectification and/or sedimentation of gender equity in board composition, becomes a fully institutionalised practice that is resistant to change.

All organisations in Sport2 at state and national level have gender clauses in their constitutions. Many of these organisations are recently merged and mimetic and coercive influences may be seen as having directed the inclusion of gender requirements in their constitutions.
In Sport 3 there are no constitutional requirements around gender. The percentage female representation overall for the organisations studied in this sport is 35%, but there was no female representation on the national level board in this sport during the time of this study. The ‘gender balance’ evidenced for the boards of the organisations in this sport is very inconsistent. Comments from a female director of a state level organisation in Sport3 confirm that the introduction of a quota for female representation on sports boards may be required as the sedimented value attributed to male domination in this sport’s governance is high.

**Non-member elected board appointments**

The traditional practice of electing all board members directly from the membership has changed in some of the participant organisations. Non-member and/or non-elected board appointments are now being made in ten of the twenty-five organisations in this study. The ramifications of this change will be discussed more fully in the next chapter where changing board member appointment practices are considered.

**5.2.6 The Strategic Plans**

The strategic plans examined confirmed a commitment by organisations in the study to maintaining and building on equity measures, and to preparedness for on-going change. This would indicate that gender equity measures are not sedimented in these organisations, rather there are strategic directives targeted at habitualisation of gender equity measures into the study organisations. Direct statements of support for gender equity were found in some of the strategic plans examined in this study, for example:

- “the sport at national and state level is administered by men and women together” (NSO1)
- “attract female participation in all facets of the sport” (SSO1-2)
- “encourage grass roots participation by both genders” (SSO1-3)
- “supports diversity” (SSO1-5)

In Sport2, where the most recently merged organisations exist, strategic plans were not available for all organisations. NSO2 states on their website that a strategic plan has been completed, but it is not publicly available. SSO2-2 states on their website that a core value of
the organisation is “integrity, inclusivity, respect and consultation”. The SSO2-3 website displays a claim that the organisation “drives innovation while respecting tradition” and “provides and promotes opportunities by targeting […] juniors, women and seniors”.

A strategic plan was not available for the national body of Sport3. SSO3-1 displays a strong commitment to gender equity initiatives through Strategic Plan initiatives:

- strategic initiative 4.7 states the organisational aim of “maintaining our strong gender equity ethos”, and
- strategic initiative 4.8 directs the organisation to “encourage and provide women with the opportunities to aspire to higher level administrative, coaching and other voluntary positions”.

SSO3-2 seeks to “establish sound gender equity policies which reach all levels of the sport” through their strategic plan.

SSO3-3 specifically addresses the organisation’s board roles; “the board is no longer involved in the management of the staff, the board’s role is not operational”.

SSO3-6 states a commitment to the next wave of change that will be shaping sporting organisation governance by “driving facility plan for ‘peak body’ model”.

Organisational commitment to the aims and objectives of their strategic plans could be an avenue for future research to determine if gender equity was enhanced through the implementation of strategic plan goals.

5.2.7 The Annual Reports
The annual reports for the study organisations did not reflect a particular gender bias through their visual imagery. Previous research in Australia and elsewhere, has demonstrated that men’s sport receives much greater media coverage than women’s sport (Lumby et al. 2010; Lundquist Wanneberg 2011). Lumby et al. (2010), in a study that examined the television coverage of sport in Australia, refer to earlier research that establishes the significance of how women are portrayed in a sport via a sport’s own documents. Wanneberg (2011), in a study of Swedish sporting organisations, examines the sexualisation of women in sport as portrayed via media representation.
In Sport1 organisations the annual reports provide individual and team results that are presented separately for men’s and women’s events and competition. The photographs presented did not favour any one gender. In the 2008 annual report for NSO1 the President’s Report was still referring to issues associated with the amalgamation of the separate male and female associations (seven years earlier).

In Sport2 the annual reports were still available from the separate associations prior to the mergers. Reports were for the single sex organisations and they made no reference to the other gender’s sporting results. The women’s association reports did (SSO2-3 and SSO2-2) mention the amalgamations; the men’s association reports did not. Some men’s associations had closed sites (SSO2-3). There was limited access available to annual reports for the merged organisations in Sport2 as several of the single unitary organisations were so new. Where the annual reports were available the pictorial presentations contained in the reports did not favour one gender over the other.

In Sport3 results were reported separately, in most cases (five out of eight), for men’s and women’s events, but some combined reporting of men’s and women’s results was evidenced in some annual reports. The pictorial presentations contained in the annual reports for Sport3 did not favour one gender over the other.

The separate reporting of men’s and women’s results displays the deeply sedimented practice of differentiating between the achievements of men and women in sport. It is also reflective of the ‘separate nature’ of the sports themselves, that is, in Sport1 the men’s and women’s teams do not compete directly against each other at the competitive levels. Likewise in Sport2 and in Sport3, which may be considered sports where more individual competition takes place, there is extremely little direct competition between men and women. In Sport2, which has a professional arm, there is no direct competition at the professional level and there is no direct competition between men and women at elite (for example, Olympics, Commonwealth Games) levels.
5.2.8 The policy and procedure documents

Many of the policies and procedures available on state association websites are policies and procedures adopted from the national bodies of the various sports analysed. Some of the directors interviewed discussed the practise of using the ASC or national body policy and procedure; it was not considered inappropriate. There is a ‘why reinvent the wheel’ attitude amongst the board members who participated in this study. A shared opinion was expressed that as long as any policy adopted from the national body, in the case of state organisations, or from the ASC in the case of the national organisations, is enacted and not just ‘for show’ then consistency can be applied across the sport. Some of the directors interviewed did express the view that not all policy developed by the national level bodies is appropriate for the states to adopt and devolve to club level as club level organisations are more focussed on player participation and national and state level organisation boards have a more strategic focus.

5.2.9 Member protection policy

In 2010 when the initial document discovery was undertaken the ASC provided a range of templates for various policies that national and state level organisations could adopt. A member protection policy template was available for download and it contained an anti-discrimination clause as follows:

*Discrimination means treating or proposing to treat someone less favourably because of a particular characteristic […] the characteristics covered by discrimination law across Australia includes: […] sex or gender* (Australian Sports Commission 2010).

The template at that point in time complied with anti-discrimination legislation for Australia and had been developed to meet the recommendations of the various government enquiries discussed in chapter three.

In 2012 the templates and directions for use provided by the ASC were substantially reworked. The stated aim of the policy templates is to:

*Assist NSOs write their own sport-specific member protection policy and is one of several steps to address issues of harassment, discrimination and child protection within their organisations. Sports are encouraged to modify the template so that it*
reflects the needs and requirements of their organisation (Australian Sports Commission 2012).

The website now contains related downloads to a member protection policy summary; the member protection policy template (2012-13); and a member protection policy template – club version. The provision of a template version for clubs is a new development. Significant detailed specifications are contained in the preamble of the policy template indicating that:

For this and other policies to be binding on member organisations, they will generally need to be formally incorporated [...] under the constitution. The NSO should ensure the state, regional, district and other affiliated associations and clubs formally adopt the national policy (Australian Sports Commission 2012).

These new directives by the ASC are further evidence of coercive regulatory practices being imposed by government on the national and lower level sporting organisations. How much social pressure has directed these changes is an avenue for further research. Recent examples of emerging issues, such as harassment via social media, must be of sufficient concern that specific address is made to these issues in the new member protection policy. National version 6, April 2012 contains the following new clauses:

(inclusions 6-4 to 6-10) sexual relationships; pregnancy; gender identity; alcohol policy; smoking policy; cyber bullying policy/safety and social networking websites policy (Australian Sports Commission 2012).

Chapter three detailed the government reports that have been delivered in recent years and the emphasis in those reports towards improving the participation of women in sport as players and as administrators. The Member Protection Policy of NSO1 states that the organisation “supports and implements The Essence of Australian Sport”, the 2008 government report that highlighted how few of the recommendations made by previous government enquiries had been implemented across sporting bodies.

5.2.10 Other policy

Most organisations in the study have directly adopted the ASC policies. Some have downloaded the ASC template and titled the policy as their own (the ASC encourages this);
many have a link on their websites directly to the ASC policy or to a national body policy. This was a common practice in Sport3 in particular.

There are a large variety of policies available across the organisations in the study (see Appendix 5-4). Many of the policies examined are specifically directed towards player participation, for example, rules for behaviour on the field, rules of competition, rules of the game, how to enter a competition and uniform or equipment requirements. There are also many policies around child welfare and protection of minors in sport. The recent updates to the ASC policy templates reflect this shift in policy direction. There are also many anti-discrimination and harassment policies.

The many incidents of racial vilification, sexual discrimination and violence reported over a number of years in some sports has been a particular concern in the formulation of many of the policy directives now available in sport more widely and in the sports in this study in particular. There is also a greater emphasis on indigenous and disabled sports programmes. Social expectation, government coercion, mimetic and normative institutional influences are all witnessed in the variety, and in the similarities, of the policies available and the issues that the policies are designed to regulate.

A new development, and one that is again reflective of the move towards a more ‘business like’ approach to sports management is the introduction of risk management policies. Two of the organisations in the study now have risk management policies.

5.3 The Reality

The first part of the survey and the initial document analyses were directed at establishing the reality that existed in the study organisations when this study commenced. Questions were posed about directors’ views on whether they actively supported gender equity policy and practice through their organisation’s governance structure.
Organisational form– the male / female ratios

The organisational reality found at the beginning of the study indicates that the case organisations still reflect the status quo, that is, these organisations are still dominated by men in their senior governance ranks. The table below (5.2) indicates that there are more men on the boards of the study organisations than there are women. That is a traditionally sedimented practice in sports organisations. The percentage representation of women on boards in the study organisations reflects only a marginal improvement in female representation over the national average for the sector, as reported in chapter one.

Table 5.2: Board Composition by Gender (respondent organisations at survey distribution date)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport 1</th>
<th>No.on board</th>
<th>Gender split</th>
<th>Sport 2</th>
<th>No.on board</th>
<th>Gender split</th>
<th>Sport 3</th>
<th>No.on board</th>
<th>Gender split</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO1-1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6M:3F</td>
<td>NSO2-1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3M:3F</td>
<td>SSO3-1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5M:3F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4M:4F</td>
<td>SSO2-1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5M:4F</td>
<td>SSO3-2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6M:1F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4M:4F</td>
<td>SSO2-2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4M:4F</td>
<td>SSO3-3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2M:4F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4M:3F</td>
<td>SSO2-3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5M:3F</td>
<td>SSO3-4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5M:2F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5M:1F</td>
<td>SSO2-4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5M:1F</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5M:2F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7M:2F</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7 orgs.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>5 orgs.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>4 orgs.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total board members | 54 | 35M:19F | F=35% | 37 | 22M:15F | F= 40% | 28 | 18M:10F | F=35% |

Key: NSO = National sporting organisation  F = Female  
SSO = State sporting organisation  M = Male
5.3.1 Perceptions of the importance of having women on sports boards.

Figure 2 presents the results of the first survey question which show that the majority of directors who responded to the survey consider that it is important to have more women on sporting boards in Australia; 97% agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. The only neutral responses to this question came from two directors in state sporting organisations in Sport1 and Sport3. The consensus of responses was fairly evenly distributed across the three sports.

![Figure 2: Survey responses for section one; general opinion questions on gender equity issues (question one).](image)

The majority opinion expressed in response to question one is a reflection of the increasing importance placed on this issue. Sports management and governance bodies are increasingly being pressured to improve the representation of women in senior management and governance positions in sporting bodies, as discussed in chapter two. Evidence of this pressure is found in government reports (chapter two, pp 34-40), ASC initiatives and directives, and in sporting organisation policy generally. The broader societal emphasis on increasing the profile of women in senior management and governance positions in all sectors, for-profit and not-for-profit is also reflected in this result.
5.3.2 The existence of a gender gap

The survey results, as presented in Figure 3, are divided on whether there is a gender gap in sports organisations. The results indicate a substantial disagreement (42%), with the contention that there is a gender gap but, there is a large enough ‘agree’ response rate, (33%), to indicate that there is an individual perception held by some directors, in several of the organisations studied, that a gender gap exists.

![Figure 3: Survey responses for section one; general opinion questions on gender equity issues (question two).](image)

In response to questions around commitment to gender equity the answers varied depending on the sport. In Sport1 the results indicated that more directors were of the opinion that there was a gender gap in their organisations, that is, eight out of seventeen (47%) respondents agreed, and six out of seventeen respondents (35%) disagreed that there was a gender gap (three were neutral). The differences reflected a perception by the female respondents that there is a gender gap in the organisations in this sport, 54.5% (six out of eleven female respondents). And a perception by the male respondents that was more biased towards the ‘disagree’ response, 50% (three out of six male respondents). In Sport2 there was a high neutral response (43%), with the other respondents being equally divided as to whether they agreed or disagreed, (28.5% each way), that there was a gender gap in their organisation. Again the female response was towards agreement with the contention, 40% (two out of five), but it is reiterated that the recent mergers (of male and female organisations) in this
sport influenced the responses to some questions. In Sport3 the highest response rate (71%) was received for the disagree response. There were no responses received in this sport that supported the contention that there was a gender gap (two responses were neutral). The distinction between male and female responses was also quite evenly divided in this sport (three males and two females disagreed; two respondents, one male and one female, were neutral).

The three case sports in this study have a fairly equal player representation by gender, that is, fairly equal numbers of men and women participate in the sport. This may influence the perception that there is no major gender gap in these sports. In Sport3 in particular, during the interviews, it was highlighted that this sport has a strong (significant achievement at international competitive levels) representation of females in its player base. In Sport1 directors also commented during interviews that the player demographic was an important consideration as to how this question was answered, for example, a female director from a state sporting organisation in Sport1 stated:

*I think the biggest issue for our sport has been the traditional demographic; that has made a difference. Any sort of discrimination would not be tolerated and we have not really had any such issues in our sport; I know it is different elsewhere* (D1FSSO1-4).

What is understood as being a gender gap may also vary from respondent to respondent; the interview responses reflected these different understandings. A female director from a state body in Sport1 discussed the evolution of the organisation and the gender balance brought about through that evolution.

*This has not been an issue as we have usually had more women involved than men; it has just been the way it is. We have a female president of our national body for a long time, and importantly when the male and female associations merged around fifteen years ago we had a strong female representation at all levels. The female president at that time was very proactive in promoting women in the sport and in the governance of the sport. We have an ‘if you don’t put up shut up’ type of attitude in this organisation which evolved from those times. If you weren’t willing to get in and*
do the job and stand up for yourself then you didn’t become involved. Whether you were male or female was not an issue (Female director, state (4) sporting body, Sport1, D1FSSO1-4)

A female director in a state sporting organisation in Sport1 indicated, in response to questions related to gender balance, that the merging of the separate associations had created a new order in sports governance:

When the separate associations merged, when I came onto my particular board, it has heralded the changing of the guard and a lot more women have seen that it is possible. And so maybe covertly there has been a promotion but not in an overt fashion. Have we taken it upon ourselves to specifically promote a gender balance? It just seems to have come about (Female director in Sport1, state (1) organisation, D1FSSO1-1).

The significance of the changing institutional setting, identified in the original environmental scan of documents, was emerging as an important on-going issue.

5.3.4 Measurable gender objectives or quotas
A large percentage of respondents consider that their organisation has a measurable gender objective. Figure 4 indicates that almost half (48%), of the directors surveyed either agreed or strongly agreed with this contention. Some directors from Sport1 and Sport2 commented in the open comment section of the survey that constitutional mandates may be interpreted as a measurable gender objective. Sport3, which does not have a constitutional mandate for gender representation on its board, was mainly represented in the 29% ‘disagree’ response rate to this question.
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

Figure 4: Survey responses for section one; general opinion questions on gender equity issues (question four).

A female director of a state (1) sporting organisation in Sport1 commented:

My organisation has had a gender clause in its constitution to enable fairly equal numbers - this has now been removed as our membership has become very pro-active in electing the best person for a directorship regardless of gender. Some male board members have been stunned when confronted by the power of the female voice and vote, despite advice to not disregard it (D1FSSO1).

This comment supports a contention made by another female director in this sport, that is, acceptance of females on the board is not fully supported by all men in the organisation:

Even though Sport1 is very pro-active in promoting females in its governance and has been a ‘merged’ organisation for some time now there are still pockets of resistance and male board members who hold more traditional viewpoints (D4FNSO1).

These comments support a perception expressed by some, mainly female, directors that a commitment to gender equity was not a fully accepted or entrenched organisational value. It
can be hypothesised that acceptance of equal female representation on sporting organisation boards is not a fully sedimented practice.

Some of the player initiatives in the case study sports were also cited, in interview responses, as being directed towards increasing gender equity objectives. There have been a lot of player development initiatives directed towards increasing female participation in sport and there are several junior programmes in the case study sports that are aimed at increasing the participation of girls in that particular sport. The details of these initiatives are found in organisational documents and on organisational web sites and are supported by state sport and recreation organisations and the ASC. There are reporting requirements tied to funding for specific player development programmes; the sporting organisation must report to the state or federal funding body on its promotional achievements.

The coercive isomorphic pressures that have forced change in organisational structures and funding arrangements are easily identified. There are other coercive influences that can be identified.

5.4 How to introduce more coercive attempts to institutionalise new practices

Various organisational practices are being introduced in an attempt to change the gendered nature of sporting organisations. Some of those measures are discussed below.

5.4.1 Organisational policy reflects a commitment to gender equity

Figure 5 displays a high ‘agree’ response rate to question three of the survey (48%). This indicates that the directors from the sporting organisations in this study consider that they have implemented policy in their organisations to promote gender equity. The comments provided by some directors at the end of the survey did indicate that funding imperatives influence the policy and practice adopted by some organisations and that questions posed in a survey cannot always expose an organisations real intent.

Adopting certain practices is a requirement for on-going funding support so the nature of some questions may not best reflect the intent of organisations or their commitment (Female director, national sporting body, Sport1, D4FNSO1).
Only three organisations, NSO2, SSO1-1 and SSO1-3, had policies designated as gender equity or mixed gender equality policies (see Appendix 5.5) at the time the final document collection was performed. It was stressed by most directors interviewed that equity issues are dealt with in Member Protection policies.

The survey response indicates that 67% either agreed or strongly agreed that gender equity policy/s had been implemented. Two sports (Sports1&2) have constitutional requirements for gender representation on their boards. It was noted in follow up interviews that this question was answered, in some instances, to take into consideration that constitutional requirement. It was apparent, and displayed through organisational documents, that specific gender policy outside the constitution is rare.

In Sport3, where the merger of the sport from separate male and female associations occurred in the 1960s, some board members indicated that gender is still an issue that is addressed on an on-going basis:
We actually have that as an item in our strategic plan to enhance gender equity programs and things (policy) of that nature (a male director, state1 sporting organisation, Sport3); [but he noted that] people do try to identify potentially good administrators or board members and people who can think at the strategic level (D1MSSO3-1).

This comment directed attention to the opinion most commonly expressed in the later part of the survey and interview responses - that is, the changing role of the board and targeting specific skills in board members.

5.4.2 Gender equity audits.

One way to measure whether an organisation is fulfilling an organisational (or legislated) obligation is to perform an audit. The Workplace Gender Equality Agency (formerly the Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency) requires participating organisations (as detailed in chapter one, p 4) to provide details of their gender equity outcomes; participating organisation achieve this, in part, by performing internal gender equity audits. The national and state sporting organisations in Australia are not, currently, participating in the WGEA programmes.

![Figure 6: Survey responses for section four; regulatory issues (question twenty three).](image)
Figure 6 indicates that there was strong support for the contention that organisations would consider participating in a gender equity audit; 77% either agreed or strongly agreed. Again the constitutional obligation for gender representation in Sports 1 and 2 was cited during follow-up interviews as one reason why those organisations in Sport1 and Sport2 would have no issue with such a requirement. Directors noted that these sports already consider that they pay particular attention to the gender balance on their boards.

5.4.3 Government initiatives and organisational commitment.
The high neutral response received to questions twenty-four and twenty-five, which addressed organisational support of government initiatives such as *Play by the Rules*, was unexpected. There may have been researcher bias involved in the framing of this question given the researcher’s experience in corporate governance and compliance and risk management. There was an expectation when this question was formulated that the board, the governing body of the organisation, would be involved in ensuring the organisation met its regulatory obligations and would understand the latest government directives applicable to their sport.

![Q 24. "Play by the Rules" is actively supported](image)

**Figure 7:** Survey responses for section four; regulatory issues (question twenty four).
Figure 7 displays a high agree or strongly agree, (51%), response rate that the Play by the Rules initiative, which promotes inclusiveness, safety and fairness for all in sport, has been adopted by the organisations in this study. A large percentage (30%) of respondents returned a neutral response about whether their organisation actively supports this initiative as directed by the ASC.

This was surprising because the ASC Play by the Rules initiative must be promoted through organisational websites and publications; non-compliance carries a funding penalty. The ASC and the sports it funds are charged with actively promoting this initiative. SSO1-1 states on its website that “Play by the Rules is a unique partnership between the Australian Sports Commission, Australian Human Rights Commission, all state and territory sport and recreation and anti-discrimination agencies and the State Commission for Children, Young People and Child Guardian”.

Appendix 5-3 provides the results of an audit conducted to assess compliance with the Play by the Rules initiative. This was performed by examining the web sites of the organisations in the study. All of the organisations in Sport1, national and state, comply with the requirement to promote and display the Play by the Rules initiative on their web site and other media, as available. None of the organisations, national and state, in Sports 2 and 3, referenced the initiative on their website. The researcher observed the initiative being promoted by the ASC in a television advertising campaign on Australian commercial television channels in early 2013.

The Pathway to Success report is the ‘new direction’ for Australian sport. And again, there are funding implications for organisations that do not comply with the recommendations made. As this is a new initiative there may be a time-lag factor in the take up of the recommendations made. The survey results indicate, as displayed in Figure 8, that 49% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they have adopted, or would adopt the recommendations of The Pathway to Success initiative.
The responses to these compliance issues in the interviews provided some insight into the high neutral response rates returned to these questions. A female director in a state organisation in Sport2 responded that she was concerned that she had not heard of the initiatives.

*You have talked a lot about the initiatives from the government. It concerns me that I am not aware of them. How much the government is getting through to sports may be an issue* (D1FSSO2-1).

Other directors noted that paid organisational staff are responsible for ensuring government initiatives are understood and acted upon if required. It was indicated in some instances that the board are only involved in the implementation of government initiatives if there are governance issues being addressed; operational issues are the responsibility of the CEO. Several directors however noted that it was the board’s responsibility to be aware of such initiatives, and that understanding and being aware of the implications for the sport was important. A female director from the national organisation of Sport1 commented:

*Yes, I think that those directives definitely encourage sporting organisations to have those minimum benchmarks. I think that governance is an area in particular that sports commissions work quite hard on* (D4FNSO1).

**Figure 8:** Survey responses for section four; regulatory issues (question twenty five).
Whether board members took an active role in lobbying for change in sports governance practice was addressed in question twenty-six.

**Sports organisations are active in lobbying for change.**

![Graph showing survey responses for question twenty-six](image)

**Figure 9** Survey responses for section four; regulatory issues (question twenty-six).

**Figure 9** indicates that the final question in the survey returned another high neutral response rate (37%). This was an interesting result and could indicate that board members may not appreciate how dependent sport is on government support. Several of the directors interviewed, especially in Sport1, indicated that government oversight and influence is a critical issue in sport governance today, funding in particular could be threatened if government initiatives are not adopted. Two of the directors interviewed work in state departments of sport and recreation. They both indicated that they felt that lack of board member understanding of the connection between government and sport organisations was one of their major concerns in their work environment. Both of these directors indicated that the move to ‘a more professional attitude’ by boards was starting to address this issue.

5.4.4 The influence of and interactions with other sports

In trying to develop an understanding of how the organisations in this study are influenced by the actions of other sports, and whether they mimic the actions of other sports, respondents were questioned as to whether their sport organisations’ members paid attention to, or were
influenced by, what was happening in other sports. Most respondents indicated that they were. For example, a male directors (of a state sporting organisation in Sport3) comments reflect how particular responses to change in another sports organisation may be targeted and how wider societal issues more generally are considered.

Certainly, I actually reviewed the local golf constitution in that merger as part of the review of our constitution. We do, it was timely to look at [...] what other sports who were around who had recently gone through similar sorts of things. Also we have gone through our strategic planning process and looked at the sporting environment and the influences on that, both socio-economic and political and all of those sorts of things, to make sure we were learning lessons from others I suppose, to make sure we were able to position ourselves in the best way we could to lever off those lessons (Male director, sport3, state organisation (2) D1MSSO3-2).

Directors indicated that their board is mainly kept informed of developments in other sports via the paid staff. The CEOs of many of the sports organisations in this study are tasked with monitoring developments in other sports. If an individual board member has an interest in, or an association with, other sports they will ‘keep an eye’ on developments in those sports and bring that knowledge with them to board meetings.

Some of the board members interviewed felt that understanding what was going on in other sports is important as other sports are competitors for players. Most respondents also indicated that their sport should learn from the mistakes of other sports. Comments from a male director (from a state level sporting organisation in Sport1) reflect a common response to this issue:

The very fact that the reputation of the football codes and their players is on the front page because of the lack of gender awareness, the sexual harassment, you would want to address that. You don’t necessarily address that by having women on the board, but it has to go some way to starting to address the issues there (D1MSSO1-2).
Most interview respondents mentioned a ‘we look at them and we don’t want to be like them’ attitude towards sports that do not appropriately address issues around harassment, diversity and the guidelines promoted by the ASC, that is, ‘fairness to all’ and ‘play by the rules’.

5.4.5 Understanding other isomorphic pressures.
The coercive isomorphic pressures that have been shaping the sporting organisations in this study are easily understood. Other isomorphic influences are also evident.

The emerging changes for sports governing bodies.

Several of the directors interviewed discussed the next development in sports governance; a ‘peak body’ model. The ASC is advocating this development according to a male director from a state level sporting organisation in Sport3 (D1MSSO3-2). The ‘peak body’ model will amalgamate ‘like’ sports that are now governed independently into one controlling body for a group of sports, for example, racket ball sports such as tennis and squash may come under one umbrella controlling organisation. This is only an ‘in concept’ development at this stage, but some organisations are already making preparations by setting up company structures to govern the new ‘peak body’; for example, a state level sporting organisation in Sport3 has already set up a new company structure and entered into negotiations with the other sports that may be grouped with it in the ‘peak body’ model (SSO3-2). The mergers, firstly from separate male and female associations and now those that will be required to form the ‘peak body’ model have had, or are having, a dramatic effect on how sports boards operate. These changes, over a period of time, display the processes of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation and the isomorphic influences that precipitated such change can be identified.

5.5 Conclusion

The findings indicate that the majority of respondents in the case study organisations support gender equality on their boards of directors. They identify that organisational change, often linked to funding and compliance issues, is a factor in their governance structure. The trends identified indicate that the processes of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation are
evident in the selected sports in this study. Sport1 and Sport2 merged their separate male and female associations because of direct intervention by the ASC and the IOC. These bodies will only fund and promote a single unitary body in each sport.

All three isomorphic processes are evidenced, to varying degrees and at various stages, in the findings of the survey, interviews and document analysis. Mimetic isomorphism is observed in the changing nature of the board’s role and composition. The stated imperative of employing the ‘best person’ for the job, or making appointments on merit (discussed more fully in the next chapter) has been observed in the workplace more widely and in the boardroom more specifically for over a decade (Terjesen & Singh 2008; Thomson & Graham 2005; 2007). Changes observed in other boards in corporate and not-for profit organisations are being mimicked.

Instances of coercive isomorphism are also observed; government and other influential sporting regulators, for example the IOC, require more female representation at the upper levels of sports management and governance. Such initiatives and directives are contained in the Australian Government reports discussed in chapter two (pp 34-40), and international ‘calls for action’ such as the Brighton Declaration in 1994, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (Conference on Women 1995) and the Windhoek call for Action (1998). The Manchester Communiqué (2002) affirmed the commitments made to the development of sport and sporting co-operation in the area of women in sport. These conferences and conventions established platforms for eliminating all forms of discrimination against women and women in sport.

The increasing levels of professionalisation witnessed in sporting organisations are the result of normalising isomorphic pressures across the industry (Scott 2008). The boards of the amateur sporting organisations in this study are also becoming more professional and strategic in their focus. The emphasis on improved governance practices evidenced in the wider corporate environment is also evidenced in sporting organisations.
CHAPTER SIX – HOW WOMEN ATTAIN AND RETAIN A SEAT ON A SPORTING BOARD

The background information for the case study sports provided in chapter four indicates that the size and composition of the board membership in the organisations in this study varies. For fuller explanations of the under-representation of women on sports boards there is a need to take into account the place of power and the gendered nature of institutions. To be able to do that there is a need to examine how women (and men) attain and retain a seat on the board in their organisation. This chapter details the responses to questions posed in relation to board recruitment and selection processes in the study organisations, the assignment of board roles to individuals and the training and mentoring opportunities available for board members, before and after appointment to the board. The information contained in organisational documents was also of relevance in developing an understanding of these processes. Any information obtained about these processes which further identified de-institutionalising and re-institutionalising processes is highlighted.

6.1 Recruitment and selection issues associated with board appointments.

The survey posed eight questions about the recruitment and training of sporting organisation staff and board members. Recruitment issues associated with the paid staff of the organisations were not a primary focus of the survey, but the relationship between paid staff and a board is an important one. In many for-profit organisations senior paid executive staff either serve in an executive capacity on a board or obtain a board position after ‘retiring’ from a senior executive position within a company (chapter two, pp 18-20). The pipeline for promotion from a paid staff position in a sporting organisation to the boardroom appears not to have existed in the past. How election of board members takes place was not asked about in the survey or interviews; that information was obtained from organisational documents. The staff-to-board member relationship was pursued further in the follow-up interviews to determine the extent to which that relationship is changing and why it is changing.

6.1.1 Preferential recruitment practices.
Questions were posed to determine if there were any preferential or discriminatory recruitment practices in the study organisations.
Setting mandated targets or quotas for gender equality.

It was anticipated that the responses to question five would be variable. The results are reported in Figure 10 below. Research, as discussed in chapter two (p 50), indicates that affirmative action initiatives, such as the setting of quotas, are a controversial topic. The largest response was a negative response; disagree or strongly disagree - 55%. Only 29% of respondents were in favour of setting quotas for gender representation. There was a 13% neutral response recorded and three percent of respondents returned a ‘not applicable’ response. This response came from directors in Sport3 where there is no constitutional obligation setting a specific gender representation for the board. For example, a male director from Sport3 commented:

\[\text{As our directors are elected for a two year term by the members, some of your questions were marked N/A. There is a push for gender equity in all of our activities, but we also apply the principle of the most suitable being appointed no matter the gender. Having said that, as a board we always ensure that any touring teams have gender equity in management and coaching appointments; this ensures that there is always a mixed gender representation, which aids the team members (D2MSSO3-1)}\]

The neutral response draws attention to the undecided, or changeable, attitude to this issue. There appeared to be a distinction between gender equity targets or measures being implemented for board or management positions and targets or initiatives for equity in player or team management; these sometimes contradictory attitudes were more fully expressed during the interviews.
One female director drew a distinction between mandatory quotas and affirmative action:

*I have never been a quota person. I believe in affirmative action as an intervention to get balance, gender balance, up and going. To mandate quotas, all that happens there is that men get angry and resentful* (Female director, Sport1, state1, D1FSSO1-1).

A comment made by a male director from the national sporting body in Sport1 reflects a common response to this issue:

*Gender equity should never replace employing the best person for the position* (Male director, national body, Sport1, D2MNSO1).

The opposite view was also expressed. A female director in a state sporting organisation of Sport3 raised the issue of how boards interact when there is a representation of male and female members:

*I think definitely they need to consider it (quotas) and I think also they need to consider the dynamics of having women on the board. It is not just an adversarial
thing [...]. NSO3, that is the only other board I have really worked closely with, they just seem like they are not comfortable with women on the board (D1FSSO3-3).

It was noted by several respondents in follow-up interviews that the constitutional obligation for gender participation percentages in some sports may be perceived as a quota.

Many of the directors interviewed stated that their opinions on this matter had varied over time. Most respondents indicated that their reservations around the introduction of mandatory quotas stemmed from not wanting women placed in board positions just to fill a quota; appointments should be made on merit.

*I don’t agree with a government imposed mandatory quota, but I am happy with a mandatory quota that is self-imposed. There is a mandatory quota in our constitution (A male director from the national body of Sport1, D2MNSO1).

The opposition expressed to mandatory quotas highlighted the concern held by some board directors that inappropriate or under-qualified people may be ‘forced’ into a board position. The statement made by a male director of a state(1) sporting organisation in Sport3 reflected this opinion:

*I would hate to see that happen to be honest with you. It would mean we may be filling the board with people who may not be the best person for the job and who, after they get on the board, decide themselves that it is not for them (D1MSSO3-1).

A female director in a state sporting organisation in Sport2 also emphasised this point of view:

*I was not really very happy with the 3x3 thing in our constitution. I think it may lead to having an imbalance still; we get the three women, but six men and that could lead to problems. I do not agree with mandatory quotas personally. There is a shortage of women willing to stand for the board positions in this sport and enforcing a particular number of women may lead to having three or four women who are no
good at the job; they have just been put there because of a piece of legislation (D1FSSO2-1).

This observation, noting the difficulty of recruiting women to board positions, was also made by a male director from a state (1) sporting organisation in Sport1:

*It is very difficult to get experienced women over age, say 55, onto our board* (D1MSSO1-6)

Comments, such as the one above, directed attention to considering whether a person’s personal preferences and decision to serve on a board were influenced by lifestyle choices, by societal expectation or a combination of both. These are the issues addressed in the next chapter.

Another female director from a State (2) sporting body in Sport1 noted the removal of the constitutional gender requirement in that sport.

*The constitution of SSO1-2 up until Nov 2010 required that at least one third of the board comprise one gender. This rule was removed at the last AGM on the basis that the eight member board currently had five women directors including the Chair and that any further vacancy would be filled by a male. Given that affirmative action was no longer necessary the members thought the organisation mature enough to be able to ensure there would remain a gender balance on the board* (D1FSSO1-2).

Her comments were reflective of the perception held by directors in Sport1 that gender equity was entrenched in a mature organisational setting.

Another female director from a state sporting organisation in Sport3 (D1FSSO3-4), who did not participate in a follow-up interview, commented:

*Women, just as men, should gain positions on merit, not just by virtue of their gender. Artificially constructing a gender balance leads to resentment and the belief that some*
board members are there just to make up the numbers, not because of what they have to offer. I would never want a position that I achieved merely because I am a female.

Research indicates, as discussed in chapter three (p 74), that affirmative action may need to be taken in instances where an under-represented or disadvantaged group does not start from a position of equal advantage (Robeyns 2003). The constitutional requirement for gender representation on the board in Sport1 and Sport2 was noted by many of the respondents as being one way of ‘levelling the playing field’ for women in sporting organisations.

**Preferential promotional opportunities for staff**

Figure 11 indicates that the directors who responded to the survey did not strongly support the contention that their organisation actively promoted women into senior management roles; this question (eight) specifically excluded board roles which were asked about in question nine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q8. Women are actively promoted into senior management roles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
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**Figure 11**: Survey responses for section two; recruitment and training issues associated with board appointments (question eight).

In the follow-up interviews several board members stressed that the recruitment of paid staff was a function performed by the CEO of the organisation and that board members, generally,
did not have a role to play in this. Directors indicated that they either strongly agreed or agreed (39%) with the assertion that women were actively promoted to senior management roles, but 24% of respondents returned a neutral response. Such a high neutral response is probably reflective of the minimal role most directors play in organisational staff appointments and progression which was reported in interview responses. A large number of directors (33%) strongly disagreed that their organisation actively promoted women into senior management positions. No clear consensus of opinion on this matter was achieved; the differences in each organisation at the different levels, that is, state and national, have a role to play in the ambiguity in this result. Comments from directors indicated that most directors believe that employing ‘the best person for the job’ is the standard applied in recruitment in their organisation. For example, a female director from the national body of Sport1 commented:

*The quota system for the board is pretty clear; [...] that is enacted. In terms of recruitment for positions for paid staff it is merit based selection. There isn’t a quota for employment of our coaches, or staff, or management based on gender. It is the best person for the job based on merit* (Female director, national body, Sport1, D4FNSO1).

As previously reported, several directors noted that unfortunately women still perform the more menial and lower status roles in their organisations (refer to Appendix 5.3).

**Preferential board recruitment practices**

The response to the question (nine) about actively recruiting women to board roles was quite different, as indicated in the graph below (Figure 9).
Figure 12 indicates that a large percentage (69%) of respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that there was active recruitment of women onto the board. Several board members, during the follow-up interviews, asserted that organisations with a constitutional gender obligation were actively promoting women onto the board. Only 10% of respondents disagreed with the contention that their organisation actively sought to recruit women onto the board and 20% of respondents were neutral. The interview responses and organisational documents (constitutions, board minutes and organisational press releases) indicate that the merger of the separate male and female associations in Sports 1 & 2 has also influenced the need to ‘recruit’ women onto the boards of these organisations.

There was strong disagreement that preferential treatment was given to either men or women when recruiting for board positions. These responses rates are presented in Figures 10 and 11. In follow up interviews a question was asked as to whether directors had witnessed instances of overt discrimination towards either men or women in gaining a board position or other senior position in their organisation. Most directors responded that they had not, but a few directors did report instances of bias in sporting organisations that they had observed.
I believe I have [witnessed discriminatory practices]. Yes, very discreetly, I do believe so and it was in favour of a man. I have experienced it myself, and again discreetly. I have also been denied a position on a board that I was qualified for [...], there was a man throwing his weight around and he was appointed over me [...], but it didn’t bother me at the time because what goes around comes around (A female director in a state organisation in Sport1, DISSO1-1).

One female director in a state sporting organisation recalled attending a sporting function for senior officials in the sector and commented that she was one of only three women at the function. Other directors detailed instances of discrimination they had observed ‘in the past’, but made the point that such behaviours were no longer tolerated in their organisation and that measures (policy and workplace laws) were in place to prevent such practices. For example, a female director in a state (2) sporting organisation in Sport3 commented:

Certainly in our sport, when looking at some of the traditional roles, at some of the technical roles, there were roles that males would undertake more than females, but certainly in the last few years we have seen a move towards knowledge and experience leading the way in selecting of those roles [...]. In the past the Meet Director was always going to be male [...], so again the opportunity to take a less experienced female and develop her skills is something we have been very conscious of (DISSFSSO3-2).

Questions ten and eleven pursued further whether discriminatory recruitment practices are evident in the study organisations; as discussed in chapter two (pp 31-32) this sort of discrimination has been well documented in relation to women attaining prestige positions in organisations. Figures 13 and 14 display the results for questions ten and eleven below.
Again the issue of the constitutional obligation in Sport1 and Sport2 was noted in the follow-up interviews as being a determinant in how this question was answered by some respondents. A slightly higher percentage of responses were received that disagreed with the contention that men received preferential treatment when being selected to serve on a board;
64% either disagreed or strongly disagreed that preferential treatment was given to women and 67% either disagreed or strongly disagreed that preferential treatment was given to men. Only 13% agreed that preferential treatment was given to women and 10% agreed that preferential treatment was given to men. A large percentage, 19% of women and 23% of men, were neutral on this issue.

The analysis of the organisational documents gave further insights into perceived discriminatory recruitment practices.

**The relevance of the composition of the player base**

The sports chosen for this study represented a mixture of sports played by both males and females where the player bases were reasonably equal. Sport2 had the most unequal player base. Comments from board members in Sport1 and Sport3 indicated that the prominence of females in the sport from a performance point of view, both now and historically (“Sport1 was considered a female sport” D2MNSO1), was influential in how women are represented in the governance of the sport.

_I certainly think they (the ASC) are keen to link funding to participation and whether you have an adequate representation of both men and women […]. In fact you could argue that in previous years the women’s team were the outstanding performers, so in fact had more kudos than the men for ten years straight or longer […] with the women earning more of the lion’s share of the funding due to their performance (A female director, national sporting organisation, Sport1, D4FNSO1)._  

The representation of women in governance in these sports is also influenced significantly by the mergers and the resulting constitutional gender clauses. In Sport2, where the player base is more male dominated, a ratio of 1-5, the issue of historical male domination was noted as a factor in the under-representation of women in the now merged sports governance structure (even with the constitutional gender clause now implemented). A male director in a state sporting organisation in Sport2 commented:
I think Sport2 is a very male dominated sport, unfortunately. It is changing very slowly compared to other sports [...]. Look at lawn bowls, it has gone through a real metamorphosis [...] it is quite a change, it is really quite staggering, but it just goes to show you how a sport can change to meet the demands and Sport2 has to be the same and if we don’t we will end up in all sorts of strife (D1MSSO2-2).

This need to change, to keep up with societal pressure, was seen by respondents as being a contemporary issue of great significance in sporting governance.

The prevalence of overt discrimination

Responses received from board members in Sport1 and Sport2 indicated that many felt that their constitutional gender clauses could be viewed as overt discrimination. However, most respondents did not feel, other than in relation to mandated gender clauses, that there was overt discrimination, currently, in their sport. Several respondents though did note that they had witnessed overt discrimination against women in other environments; some commented on discrimination in their work places. An instance of ‘favourable’ discrimination in Sport1 was discussed by a male director of the national sporting organisation:

I think we have discriminated in favour of a woman. We are promoting one of our female members to take on a role in the international sporting body. We are actively promoting her to take on an international leadership role. Not enough women are represented at international level and we are actively trying to do something about this (D1MNSO1).

When instances of discrimination within the sport were mentioned they were discussed as matters arising from positive discrimination initiatives, for example, a male director of a state level sporting organisation in Sport3 (D2MSSO3-1) highlighted a programme in that sport directed at achieving better sport outcomes and greater representation at Olympic level for women in the sport. When discussing this issue D2MSSO3-1 noted that there had been some resentment from males in the sport during the time that programme was operational. It was
felt, by men, that women were gaining an unfair advantage and greater representation at Olympic level in the sport.

6.1.2 Recruitment for specific skills

When determining the suitability of potential board members, a person’s qualifications and proven experience in corporate governance are important considerations. Figure 15 displays the percentage results received to question twelve of the survey.

![Figure 15: Survey responses for section two; recruitment and training issues associated with board appointments (question twelve).](image)

A large percentage (74%) of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with the assertion that particular skills are sought when determining the suitability of a board candidate. During follow-up interviews most respondents noted that appointments were now merit based and that the skills required to be a board member had become much more business focussed. A male director from a state(2) sporting organisation in sport1 commented:

*Board member selection should be based on the capability of the person in the role required. Board membership should be based upon capability and commitment to that role. If this simple rule is followed gender equity will be achieved* (D1MSSO2-1).
The linking of capability to gender equity was an important trend that was emerging from the results. The reasons why such changes in practice are occurring appeared to be multifaceted. Several interview respondents noted that their organisation now deliberately targeted potential board candidates with certain skills such as legal and accounting qualifications. For example, a male director in a state organisation in Sport3 noted:

> As part of the current constitutional review we are moving to that situation where we are going to outline the preferred competencies or the preferred attributes of a board member […]. We will have a fairly well defined set of parameters about the type of skill set or the type of individual that we would be seeking to have appointed […] to be complementary to the boards direction (D1MSSO3-2).

The analysis of documents verified this assertion and it was noted that a small number (2) of the organisations now have a constitutional requirement to appoint board members with particular skills. Only 16% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that qualifications and experience in corporate governance were essential.

What the important skills are for board appointments is not agreed upon. A male director from a state sporting organisation in Sport3 (D2MSSO3-2), who participated in a follow-up interview, commented in the survey:

> Why did you include finance? This is a stereotypical perception that financiers make good board directors, which is often not the case. The latter two points of strategy and governance are the key to good boards.

While this director indicated he thought targeting board members with finance skills was a stereotypical, outdated practice, that view was not widely held. Most directors interviewed considered a skills mix was required for effective board functioning. For example, the comments made by a female director in Sport1:

> It is a lot more about corporate governance than it was years ago […]. We developed a skill mix earlier this year. […] that showed where our strengths and weaknesses lie […]. That was why last year they appointed an independent lawyer and an
independent financial person [...] That skill mix hasn’t been released to the membership [...] but at the AGM we say [...] that we need someone with more legal expertise [...] the membership has been happy with that (Female director, state body, Sport1, D2FSSO1-1).

The reasons why these changes are occurring appear to be a combination of coercive pressure from government, the adoption of more business-like practices that are sometimes accepted because a board member with experience in those areas has been appointed, an acceptance that organisational change is inevitable and a desire to be a part of those changes processes, and an understanding that the sports’ survival is dependent on meeting social expectations.

Non-member appointments

Several of the directors interviewed highlighted the move by some organisations, NSO1 for example, towards appointment of board members who are not elected by the organisation’s membership. In sporting organisations, NSOs and SSOs, the volunteer board “is a deep structure and core practice that demonstrates traditionality” (Kikulis 2000, p 308). Any change to such a deeply traditional structure is indicative of the de-institutionalisation of a core practice. At this point in time the move towards non-member elected board members is not widely established.

In Sport1 four out of nine organisations specify appointed board member positions in their constitutions. In Sport2 only has one organisation, at this stage, which has a clause to allow non-elected board members. One organisation in Sport2 still has a requirement for all board members to be elected from the membership. This is a traditional sedimented practice in most of the organisations in this study observable in the constitutions of the study organisations (see Appendix 5.5). In Sport3 six out of eight organisations allow appointed directors; two of these organisations require board members to be association members. SSO3-6 allows the appointment of directors (2), but the non-elected board member must then become a non-voting association member. In one organisation, SSO3-4, the General Manager of the organisation is appointed as a non-voting member of the board. This was the only ‘executive director’ appointment in the organisations studied.
The change to non-member board appointments is being adopted to allow more ‘professional’ board members to be recruited. There is a strong emphasis on recruiting board members with targeted skills to meet the changing role of the board. A comment by a male director from a state (2) organisation in Sport1 reflects the changing nature of board composition and the move towards non-member appointments:

*That’s a very interesting point. By now bringing in non-players, it is not quite the same issue as gender imbalance, but it is still shifting the balance on the board and how it operates and I think the decision making processes are changing, by bringing in people with more commercial experience; more board experience from outside the sport. I think those sorts of changes will eventually raise the standard of sporting boards and they will become more professional* (Male director, state (2) organisation, Sport1, D2SSO1-2).

A male director from Sport2 also highlighted the move to non-member elected board appointments. This organisation has only recently merged; this practice was incorporated into the new constitution on amalgamation.

*I would suggest that the ones that are elected come from a Sport2 background, the opportunity to appoint a person from a non-sport2 background comes from the appointed ones. You might be looking for a specific skill, let’s say a marketing person, you might say we can use that appointed position to get this skill [...] we don’t have anyone from the elected members who has that skill. That is the only time you are going to go outside your normal player base* (Male director, state (2) organisation, Sport2, D1MSSO2-2).

The organisational practices and individual opinions found amongst players in Sport2 were considered by the directors interviewed to be more traditional.

**Increased need for people with targeted skills to become board members**

It has been noted previously that board members are now appointed because they possess certain skills. A limited number of organisations have made constitutional changes to reflect this practice. Two organisations in Sport 1, SSO1-2 and SSO1-5, specify a skills requirement for board members in their constitutions. One organisation in Sport3 also specifies a skill set for board members and one other organisation is planning such a change. A male director in a
state sporting organisation in Sport3 outlined the changes that are being introduced to the composition of the board in his organisation:

As part of the current constitutional review we are moving to that situation where we are going to outline the preferred competencies or the preferred attributes of a board member (D1MSSO3-2).

Such skills are now considered critical for a board appointment as the focus of a board’s ‘duty’ had shifted from being operational to strategic. The legal ramifications of operating under an incorporated structure are another coercive influence on board structure. A female director in a state sporting organisation in Sport1 commented:

You need people with professional qualifications [...] particularly if your organisation is a company limited by guarantee, you then come under the Corporations Law so you have the same duties as a director of BHP Billiton (D2FSSO1-1).

As the traditional sedimanted method of recruiting only from the member (player dominated) base decreases and recruitment of board members from professional backgrounds increases another traditional element of board composition, player or ex-player domination, is changing. This development provided some interesting responses. A female director of a state sporting organisation in Sport3 commented:

Ex-athletes have been the least successful when they come onto the board of the sport, for whatever reasons. Of the females that have been on the board most of them have been ex-athletes so that may be, you know, it’s not because they are female but because they are an ex-athlete. I don’t know, I don’t know why but, it just hasn’t worked well (D1FSSO3-3).

A male director from the national sporting organisation in Sport1 was also of the opinion that a director did not need a background in the sport to be an effective director. He commented:
Many say you need a majority of people on the board who have a background in the sport; this is still a contentious issue. I do not think it is important to have a background in the sport. You can get people just chasing money through to the elite levels of the sport (D1MNSO1).

Not all the directors interviewed agreed with the contention that you did not need a background in the sport. In Sport2 a male director of a state sporting organisation (D1MSSO2-2) noted that most board members in this sport would still consider a background in the sport essential; he asserted that this was not his view though. Such opinions provide further evidence that the newer changes to board structure are not sedimented; there would appear to be a low level of institutionalisation for the changed board structures.

The best person for the job

All participants interviewed in the study indicated that the composition of their boards now reflects an attitude of recruiting the ‘best person for the job’. This attitude also explains the current recruitment practices adopted for other positions in the organisations.

It has been noted previously that directors from all three sports have commented on how women still perform gender stereotypical ‘menial’ roles such as administrative work. The ‘glamour player focussed’ roles such as player development and marketing are more typically held by men; see Appendix 5.3. CEO positions in these organisations are also predominantly held by men. They also said the volunteer coaching and team management roles are often ordered on gender lines. A male director from the national sporting organisation in Sport1 commented:

*we have an issue in officiating in sport1; [...] we are very reluctant having men officiating in the women’s sport [...] If you are going to have cross gender officiating we start having women officiating the men’s sport [...] That viewpoint generally closes the debate down, no one can conceive of that happening* (D3MNSO1).

The recruitment of women to coach male teams and vice versa is a topic that could be further explored in future research, the apparent prejudices that occur in officiating roles appears to
be quite pronounced. Issues around child protection legislation and harassment are prominent considerations in these matters. The changes made to the ASC’s Member Protection regulations in 2012 signal the increasing importance placed on these matters (ASC 2012).

The stated commitment of recruiting the ‘best person’ for the job may be construed as indicating that the actions taken in these organisations’ board recruitment strategies are designed to avoid prejudicing one gender over another (Shaw 2006), but the practices actually observed at other levels (paid staff and volunteer roles) within the organisations suggest otherwise. Gender equity is not an element that is sedimented throughout the organisational structure.

Non-member elected board appointments

All of the study participants commented on the continuing changes to the structure and function of the board discussed in the previous chapter. Recruitment practices for appointing board members are also changing. The traditional practice of electing all board members directly from the membership has changed in some of the participant organisations. Non-member and/or non-elected board appointments are now being made in ten of the twenty five organisations in this study.

The ability to recruit non-member board appointees changes the traditional recruitment practices observed in sporting organisations. Several directors explained how traditionally a person was approached to join the board: their credentials as a candidate were circulated to the membership, they were required to be a member of the organisation and usually they had a player or ex-player background. Allowing non-member appointments, and in some cases non-elected appointments, means the board has greater power to appoint people with targeted skills and to make appointments outside the normal voting cycle; director appointments are usually made once a year at an Annual General Meeting.

The traditional bias towards male, member/player backgrounds may be diminished by these changed recruitment practices. By allowing non-elected appointments, the organisational membership does not have a vote in a minimal number of the board appointments. One female director in a state organisation in Sport1 noted that her organisation now allocates two
non-elected board positions. She stated that there had been no complaints from the membership about the selections made. Several directors expressed the view that they did not feel that a player or member background was essential to being an effective board member for the organisation, but this was not a unanimous view. One male director in Sport2, from a state organisation, stated that it was still widely expected in his organisation that board members “understood the sport”. He claimed that an understanding of the sport (developed by playing the sport) was essential to effective governance of the sport.

As discussed in chapter two (pp 20-21), there are different types of directors; the appointment of executive and board appointed directors is a practice more usually observed in for-profit organisations. As sports organisations continue to move away from the traditional volunteer dominated ‘kitchen table’ approach to governance (Kikulis 2000) we may observe more mimetic isomorphic influences directing the governance structures and practices within sporting organisations towards the governance structures and practices observed in the corporate world. As sports organisations ‘keep an eye’ on each other and witness the adoption of different practices and governance structures normative isomorphic influences will homogenise practice and structure as organisations seek legitimacy. Sports organisations seek legitimacy to stabilise their player base and secure their funding sources.

**Constitutional commitment to gender equity**

A limited (three out of twenty-five) number of the study organisations make a commitment to equal opportunity in their constitutions. For example, SSO1-2 has a constitutional commitment to “adopt policies to promote equal opportunity”; SSO1-3’s constitution states that it will “foster and promote equity and social justice”; and SSO2-1 states that “equal opportunity policy is a goal”.

NSO3 provides access to the constitution for the regional body for this sport on their website. That constitution contains an anti-discrimination clause that is applicable to all sporting organisations within this sport in the region: “does not allow any discrimination […] on the grounds of race, sex, religion or political affiliation” (Clause 5).
Several directors, when interviewed, explained that in their own personal view, and from their understanding of their organisations’ policy development, any anti-discrimination and equal opportunity commitments were not confined to matters of gender. Most directors noted that issues of equality and fairness for all are addressed in member protection policies rather than specifically targeted polices around equality or discrimination. A female director from a state organisation in Sport1 commented:

*Policy development takes place at board level, [...] there is nowhere where we push for gender equity as such. I would have thought that there are some basic issues associated with member protection that would span all sports. We have a broad ranging player base in terms of age, so we need a broad ranging member protection policy, with specific emphasis on younger players [...]. There are some principles that range across all sports* (D1SSO1-1).

This viewpoint was expressed by other directors; that is, that the emphasis in policy in sports organisations had moved away from a focus on gender equality to a more broad ranging emphasis on fairness for all. Child protection issues and targeted campaigns against the use of drugs in sport were also noted as being areas where more emphasis was being placed. At the time of this study it would appear that concepts of equity are quite broadly defined in sporting bodies and a greater emphasis is being placed on player behaviours at the grass roots level and board competencies at the governance level.

**Constitutional skills requirements for board appointments**

As previously discussed, the directors interviewed indicated that the boards in all the study organisations are now recruiting members with proven strategic planning, corporate governance and other professional skills such as accounting and law. The constitutions of some of the study organisations reflect this change. The adoption of regulation that defines how members of an organisation perform their work and/or the conditions under which that work is performed is an example of normative isomorphic influence. Normative isomorphic pressures are creating more professionalised sporting organisations; a process that has been occurring for over three decades (McKay 1997). The introduction of constitutional directives detailing skill sets for board members is quite a new development, one that is likely to be
mimicked by other organisations in the near future as constitutions are re-drafted to accommodate the ‘peak body’ model proposed by the ASC.

There were notable variations in the responses received from the directors interviewed in relation to the skills required by board members. All directors stated that their board members needed a more strategic focus and that recruitment was now being undertaken to ensure a broad range of skills were held by their members. Two directors stated that their boards had developed a skills matrix for board members; two other directors stated that they did not have a formal skills matrix but they did have an informal process for ensuring that people with the required skills were targeted. Constitutional changes are supporting this development in a limited number of organisations. Directors from the organisations which allow non-member and non-elected board appointments noted that this helped them ensure that people with the required skills were appointed. A male director in a state organisation in Sport3 commented:

> We go to people and we say to them, when the election comes up please nominate [...] because we required those things [particular skill]. If we see a shortcoming in the board we will up-skill via some further education or if it is a specialist area we will try to find someone who fits that profile [...]. If we can’t we will try to get them to come on, on a short term basis on a sub-committee to help with the matter at hand (D2MSSO3-1).

The increasing flexibility in board recruitment practices is on-going and organisational policy and practice is quite different across the study organisations. All directors highlighted how new these changes are in sports organisations and how some organisations are more easily adopting these changes, while others are still firmly entrenched in more traditional practices. These changes, and the emphasis on recruitment of highly skilled board members with a strategic focus, were not evidenced at the lower levels in the sporting organisations in the study. It was pointed out by several directors in the study that these changes were not evident below national and state levels, that is, at regional or club level.
6.2 Training and mentoring.

Training and mentoring for staff and board members, is of increasing importance in the workplace and for corporate governance bodies (AICD 2013). New board members need support and education in how to be an effective board member. There are professional organisations, such as the Australian Institute of Company Directors (AICD), that provide training and on-going support mechanisms for board directors across the range of for-profit and not-for-profit organisations. Some of the programmes being implemented by organisations such as the AICD were discussed in chapter one (pp 5-6).

6.2.1 Training and development opportunities for paid organisational staff

![Figure 16](Q13. There is ongoing training and development for staff members)

**Figure 16**: Survey responses for section two; recruitment and training issues associated with board appointments (question thirteen).

Figure 16 displays a large percentage (63%) response rate from survey respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that their organisation provided training and support for their staff to advance to more senior roles. The opportunities provided for and interactions amongst the paid organisational staff was not a primary focus of the study, but some board members did stress the importance of the relationship, and the on-going changing roles performed by paid staff and board members; that is, the shift to a more strategic focus for board members and
the requirement for paid staff to accept full operational responsibility. In Sport3 there was a greater emphasis on staff development opportunities than in the other two sports.

6.2.3 Training and development opportunities for board members
A very high percentage of the directors surveyed (90%) agreed or strongly agreed that training and development were essential for board members (question fourteen). Interviewees all commented on the importance of mentoring and training for staff and board members. Mentoring was considered a particular advantage for new board members. Several of the respondents commented on the opportunities provided to attend AICD governance training programmes and the benefits that training had delivered. A male director in the Sport1 national body commented that more of the female directors had undertaken this training than men. The explanation given for this was that the women were more aware of corporate governance issues in this organisation than the men.

*The issue now is not so much gender related it is more to do with the competence of the board members and their understanding of their role as board members. This requires continual development and ongoing training. The competence and the confidence of the women is often greater than the men; the women are more aware of corporate governance issues* (A male director of the national sporting organisation, Sport 1, D1MNSO1).

Even though new board members are now targeted for particular skills, often in corporate governance; inducting new board members into the organisation, mentoring and providing training in targeted areas, was seen as another step in fostering a more professional outcome for board operations. In follow-up interviews many of the respondents noted that in theory there were training and development opportunities for board members, but in practice this could be improved. For example, a male director in the national organisation for Sport1 noted:

*The correct answer to that is yes, but they [training and mentoring support] are very poor* (D3MNSO1).
This observation was in direct contrast to an observation by another male board member in NSO1 (D1MNSO1). This male director was specifically recruited onto the NSO1 board for his expertise in corporate governance; he acts as a mentor for other board members and he encourages on-going training for staff and board members. A female director from NSO1 commented:

*Yes we receive training, at induction, and we have a board member who is experienced in corporate governance in the corporate sector. He acted as a mentor for me when I came onto the board and I have consulted with him on several occasions. He steers us in the right direction* (D4FNSO1).

The male director (D3MNSO1) who commented that training and mentoring support was poor was a recent appointee to the board and was recruited for his skills in finance. The exact reason for the divergence in their opinions is not understood; it was not a focus of the study and only became apparent after the interviews were conducted and the results compared, but location differences (these two directors reside in different states) and work commitments may be factors. The divergence of opinions on the accessibility and importance placed on training and mentoring of board members was more prevalent in the smaller state organisations. One explanation for a perceived lack of training opportunities for board members was put forward by a female director from a state organisation in Sport1. She commented:

*There is certainly supposed to be [training]. We are supposed to provide education and mentoring for our new board members but it is not easy. Our directors come from all over the state so it is hard to put into place, but a director, if they were struggling, would only have to ask and any support would be supplied* (D1FSSO1-1).

The geographic distribution of the directors and the fact that board members are volunteers was mentioned by several directors as a factor in board cohesion; that is, in their ability to be involved in or aware of the operational aspects of the organisation (the focus now is very much a strategic focus for board members in most instances), and to be involved in training and development opportunities. The different understandings as to what and how training and mentoring opportunities are provided for board members is an avenue for further research.
6.2.4 Mentoring

Mentoring as an aid to advancement to more senior roles and board positions was also strongly supported as beneficial by survey respondents as indicated in Figure 17: (71%) either agreed or strongly agreed that mentoring was important for both staff and board members.

![Figure 17: Survey responses for section two; recruitment and training issues associated with board appointments (question fifteen).](image)

A female director in a state organisation in Sport1 commented on the importance of succession planning and mentoring:

*It is extremely important for organisations to have a succession plan including the replacement of board members. Processes to identify and mentor potential board members like the Women on Board programme run by Womensport State2 has been a good pathway to sporting board positions for women who would not necessarily have had any previous involvement with sport administration. I acted as a mentor for the 2009 program and was pleased to see my mentee appointed to Stadiums State2 (D1FSSO1-2).*

In the follow-up interviews many of the respondents again highlighted that this was something their organisation could do a lot better. It was noted by several respondents that
the voluntary nature of boards in sporting organisations meant that mentoring was sometimes difficult to achieve as people would be required to sacrifice more of their time, and that some boards did not have members with the necessary experience to be an effective mentor.

The professionalisation of sports boards does not appear to be fully objectified in the case sporting organisations. There is a noticeable variation between the different levels, that is national and state and territory, within each sport. The size of an organisation and the length of time the organisation has operated in its present form, that is, as a merged organisation, or a corporatised organisation, also appear to be determining factors.

6. 3 The assignment of board roles

![Figure 18](image.png)

**Figure 18**: Survey responses for section three; board participation issues (question nineteen).

**Figure 18** indicates that the majority (93%) of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that women participate fully on board sub-committees. **Figure 19** (below) indicates that 91% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that women participate in the financial control or oversight functions that the board undertakes. As discussed in chapter two (refer to work of Thomson & Graham 2005), certain board positions are considered to be more prestigious
than others. For example, a seat on the audit committee is considered to be an important board committee role and is a position from which more power or influence can be exerted.

Questions were asked at the beginning of the survey (see Appendix 4.2) to gather limited personal information related to the directors; one of those questions requested information about board sub-committee membership. Responses received indicate: three women on the boards of state organisations in Sport1 are on the Finance Committee; two women on boards of state organisations in Sport2 are on the Audit Committee and, one male and one female on the boards of state organisations in Sport3 are on the Audit Committee and the Finance Committee respectively.

The results in this study indicate that women are not excluded from holding any particular board committee role. In follow-up interviews several board members noted that the practice of recruiting board members with professional skills has ensured that women are now recruited for their skills. The possession of a particular skill determines which committees and/or board function is assigned. Women can therefore fully participate in board functions that are important for the effective governance of the organisation.

![Figure 19](image)

**Figure 19:** Survey responses for section three; board participation issues (question twenty).
A female director from a state level organisation in Sport1 stated:

*I would say there has been no favouring of either men or women in what roles they can hold on the board [...]. The women certainly do have their say on the committees and on the board* (D2FSSO1-1).

As previously discussed some board members, particularly in Sport1 and Sport3, do not have the ex-player background that has been traditional in most sports organisations. The change to non-member board appointments means that the ‘player’ affiliation that was traditional between board members and organisational staff may not exist. There is usually a need for a board member who has oversight responsibility for financial matters to have a lot of contact with organisational staff who undertake the day-to-day financial tasks. Whether there is a breakdown in the relationship between staff and board members because of non-member or non-elected appointments is yet to be tested, but there appears to be no discrimination as to whether these types of appointments are either male or female.

### 6.4 Conclusion

Women (and men) in the sporting organisations in this study attain a position on the board, usually, by being elected by the membership. Most commonly they are approached by an organisational member to put forward a nomination, and that nomination is considered by the membership at the Annual General Meeting. The examination of organisational documents and the interview responses indicates that the ‘traditional’ method of member (organisational) election of board members is changing. Voting was sometimes done by individual members and sometimes by member elected representatives. Interview responses indicated that in organisations where this traditional member election practice was used, women experienced many of the problems or barriers reported in previous research (Thomson & Graham 2005). It is difficult for a woman to be elected to the board on merit. ‘You need to know someone’ to put you forward for election; women still face the problem of more poorly established networks and fewer mentors and change agents to support them. In two of the sports in this study, where a constitutional gender clause exists, all interview participants indicated that the women were elected because there was a requirement to fulfil the constitutional mandate. One female interview participant indicated that she would not have stood for election if she had had to compete in the open competitive process. Several of the interviewees indicated
that they thought that women would be elected to their boards even without the gender clause in their constitution, but this is an untested assertion as the situation has not yet arisen. The interview respondents who made such claims stated that they “hoped that this would be the case in the future” and that their organisations were supportive of practices such as elected female board members via constitution and policy reform. There was a ‘time will tell’ attitude towards this issue.

The stage of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation for this process is still in flux. Each organisation appeared to be at a different stage in the process with the national organisations being more advanced towards a re-institutionalisation of board selection processes and the state organisations being more destabilised. Some Sport3 organisations were continuing to make changes to their constitutions and allowing executive director appointments and the majority of organisations in the study had recently (within the last five years) made changes to allow direct appointments and non-member elected appointments to the board. It was not considered that these practices had become objectified within any of the study organisations. Some directors noted that there was still dissent around these practices and changes, and that men were still the larger cohort that were opposed to these sorts of changes. Sedimented prejudices against female appointments to board positions appear to still be observable. Women can attain and retain a seat on the boards in two study organisations largely due to the mandated constitutional gender clauses that exist in Sport1 and Sport2. These are fairly recent changes, and it was not possible to test whether the changes will become fully sedimented. Early indications are that the constitutional gender clauses will be phased out in Sport1. The effect on female representation on the boards will only be observable in the future. Based on the statistics for Sport3, discussed in the previous chapter, the number of women on these boards may fall below the mandated targets without regulation.

There is recognition that the presence of women on the boards in the study organisations has been beneficial. The structure of the board is moving away from the traditional. Board function is now strategic not operational. Board members are sought for targeted skills and experience such as: strategic planning skills, knowledge of governance issues, and an understanding of finance and legal responsibility. Board members are recruited because they
are the ‘best person for the job’. There are still barriers to women participating equally to men in sports governance; the complete removal of such barriers may be generational. Overt discrimination against women in obtaining a board position in the three sports was not considered an issue. Mentoring and training are important considerations for board members, but such initiatives are not always supported or implemented well in some of the sports organisations in this study. Sports boards are now more professional; their role is more strategic.

This chapter has provided a fuller explanation of the under-representation of women on sports boards as it has examined how women attain and retain a seat at the table in the case study sports. The gendered nature of the organisations is apparent when consideration is given to the fact that many of the changes described above only took place because of coercive pressures. Women, at this point, do not appear to be afforded the same level of power within these organisations; their power resides at a lower level of institutionalisation in what can be considered to be gendered organisations. This contention is supported by the fact that the organisational structures below national and state levels (numbering in the hundreds of organisations) are still operating as gender segregated organisations.
CHAPTER SEVEN – HOW WOMEN EXERCISE CHOICE AND PERCEIVE THEIR LEVEL OF SUCCESS IN A SPORTING ORGANISATION.

Individual decision making is better explained through the use of an approach that considers individuals’ perceptions of success and their ability to choose to do what is of value to them. The capabilities approach is the secondary lens applied to the examination of the findings in this study. The capabilities approach is “a broad normative framework for the evaluation and assessment of individual well-being and social arrangements, the design of policies, and proposals about social change” (Robeyns 2005, p 94). It is a framework within which to conceptualise and evaluate organisational and societal phenomena such as inequality (Robeyns 2005). The capabilities approach, originally developed by the economist Amartya Sen, provides a different way of considering inequality of opportunity for women and how success is perceived. How success is measured is not a shared or agreed upon concept (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). Success, from a capabilities perspective, is achieved when a person is able to pursue what is of value to them (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). Using the capabilities approach to conceptualise and evaluate issues around women’s unequal representation in board positions requires the approach to be coupled with an explanatory theory (Robeyns 2005); in this study institutional theory.

7.1 Physical characteristics determine role assignment

A question was posed to determine if the traditional (sedimented) male player domination of some sports, for example football, due to strength and endurance capabilities, determines the role assignment within a sports organisation or on a sports board. It is acknowledged that the traditional barriers to women playing some sports, such as football, have been reduced, but they have not been completely removed. There are some sports, for example, the various football codes, that are considered to be male sports and there are some sports, for example netball, that are considered to be female sports. As previously explained, sports that were considered too skewed one way or the other were excluded from consideration for this study. By posing the question around physical characteristics it was hoped that a determination could be made as to whether the traditional biases around supposed male superiority on the sporting field could be detected, or eliminated, in the study sports. Even in sports where the player base is relatively equal along gender lines it is often the case that women are not
considered ‘serious players’; this was confirmed in interview responses received from several directors, particularly in Sport2. The question was also posed to try to determine if these sedimented prejudices in the player base were evident in the governance structures of the organisations.

There was a consensus of opinion that men and women have a different approach to playing sport and to managing sport organisations, and that these differences are entrenched and difficult to change. A female director in Sport2 commented:

*Both genders come to this sport with a different outlook. The men’s approach to the sport is different to the women’s; they want different things out of it and that influences the way the sport is played and the way the sport is organised for the men and the women* (A female director, state sporting organisation2, Sport2, D1FSSO2-2).

The respondents from Sport2, the most recently merged of the sports in the study, all made comments on the differences in approach and attitude between the men and women in this sport. The men were considered to take the playing of the sport more seriously, a more competitive approach, and the women were considered to take a more social approach to the game. The women were not considered to take a more relaxed approach to the management of the sport as is reflected in a comment from a female director for another state organisation in Sport2, (p 166) below.

The entrenched prejudices, about the different capabilities of men and women in sport, were evident in some interview responses. A male director on the national body of Sport1 commented:

*If you had asked me this 15 years ago, in a sport where both men and women play, which I would prefer to watch, I would have said the men’s game, but now I enjoy watching both. I think it is to do with the more professional approach to women’s sport they are now taking. I think that has a lot to do with being one organisation. There have been some rule changes too, that has probably had an influence. Thirty years ago I played in a practice match against the women’s (national) team and it was no contest, the women were completely outplayed and it was because of lack of*
strength, but that wouldn’t happen today. The Australian women’s team would clean up most men’s club teams (Male director, national body, Sport1, D2MNSO1).

This male director was of the opinion that the professionalisation of sport, the merging of the separate male and female associations and the removal of some of the discrimination against women in sport was having a positive impact on women’s sport. His comments reflected a view that women playing a sport were now performing better on the playing field because of a more positive and encouraging attitude towards their participation in the sport. Question 7 in the survey was designed to determine whether the different perceptions of women’s and men’s playing abilities were reflected in a different opinion of their abilities in corporate governance.

There was a strong perception that different physical capacities between men and women in playing a sport are not associated with the different representations of men and women in the sports governance: Figure 20 below. Response rates indicate: 71% disagreed or strongly disagreed with this contention. Overall 87% of respondents did not think that different roles were allocated to men and women because of their different playing abilities and that this was not reflected in the governance roles assigned to them within the sport.

**Figure 20**: Survey responses for section one; general opinion questions on gender equity issues (question seven).
The link between the different physical capacities of men and women on the sporting field and the different roles they may then be assigned in a senior management or governance position is a difficult one to make. Some directors in Sport2, at interview, indicated that women in this sport were still often considered, stereotypically, as interlopers in the sport. A male director in a state organisation in Sport2 indicated that there is still resistance to women participating in this sport with men:

I think if you look at your baby boomer generation, and these are the guys I see playing Sport2, they would be more than happy to have men’s only Sport2 clubs. Things have come a long way in the last twenty years, but there is still a long way to go, a long way to go (Male director, state sporting body, Sport2, D1MSSO2-2).

A female director from a state organisation in Sport2 commented that it was often the women who were reluctant to be considered a part of a merged sport, one where men and women are considered equal on the playing field and in the management and governance of the sport. This resistance stems from the understanding developed by women in sport over the years that they are inferior on the field and in any management capacity for the sport.

Particularly in Sport2 the resistance has come from the women’s side of the sport because they will be seen as less important. They have been housekeepers, but that is probably the wrong term, they have kept costs low (in their own local clubs), they have run their business astutely [...] There is certainly a perception from some of the older women, they see the men as fiscally irresponsible and hardly able to run a bath let alone a Sport2 club. They have been a bit reluctant to throw their lot in with the men; they also see it that the men get listened to more than the women. You see this confirmed in studies; that boys get listened to in a class room more than girls [...] They have run their clubs well for fifty to one hundred years and [...] they would see themselves as the poorer relation (Female director, state body1, Sport2, D1FSSO1-4).

While responding that different governance roles were not assigned to men or women based on an entrenched view of their playing capacity, as indicated in Figure 7, somewhat
contradictorily respondents in the follow-up interviews did indicate that women still perform the more menial and/or administrative tasks in sporting organisations.

We do not actively recruit women for the senior paid roles in the organisation; our CEO is responsible for doing this recruitment. There is no direction from the board for females to be appointed and regrettably females continue to be appointed to more junior, more menial positions and males tend to get the, more important I suppose, the better paid jobs; it is the history of our society that it just continues (Male director, national body, Sport1, D3MNSO1).

The governance requirements of a particular sport may not discriminate against women, but the roles women perform as paid staff members of these organisations remain lower in status than the roles held by men. These observations are also applicable to the responses received to the next question, question eight. Men are disproportionately represented in the ‘more senior’ roles. In particular the roles that are considered ‘glamour player associated’ roles, such as promotional or marketing roles and the event management roles, are most commonly held by men. The analysis of organisational documents and web sites confirmed this. An audit of the roles held by the men and women employed in the case sporting organisations provided the following results. For example, in Sport1 the national sporting body has 27 employees, 19 male and 8 female. Two females have the title manager and nine men have the title manager. The CEO is male. The administration and executive assistant roles are held by women. One of the manager positions held by a female is the High Performance Manager role; this is considered one of the ‘glamour’ roles in sport management. All the other high profile roles are held by men. Some of the smaller state organisations had more female staff than males, but in these instances the variety of positions was much more limited and again the more administrative roles were held by women. The full results of the audit conducted on the staffing profile of the organisations in this study are presented in Appendix 5.3. A summary is presented in the table below.
Table 7.1 The number of male and female staff who hold the position of manager.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of male staff</th>
<th>Number of male staff who hold manager positions</th>
<th>Number of female staff</th>
<th>Number of female staff who hold manager positions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport1 (NSO)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport1 (SSOs)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2 (NSO)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2 (SSOs)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport3 (NSO)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport3 (SSOs)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: NSO = National sporting organisation SSO = State sporting organisation

The survey results would appear to reflect the socially acceptable response to the survey question whereas the interview results and the audit of the organisations’ staffing profiles (Appendix 5.3, p 279) indicate that women are still holding the more stereotypical ‘female roles’ discussed in chapter two (pp 30-32). Table 7.1 above indicates that there are two possible exceptions to this comment: in Sport1 (SSOs) and Sport3 (SSOs) the numbers of male and female staff are more equal overall, as is the number of men and women who hold positions titled manager. A more detailed analysis would be required to determine if this is reflective of any initiatives to improve the representation of women in these organisations. A broader analysis on a state by state basis might also show inconsistency amongst the individual state organisations, but the broad results in this study indicate that male and female representations in the majority, four out of six, organisational groupings reflect the assertions made by study respondents, that is, that men still occupy the ‘important’ positions in the study organisations.

7.2 Issues related to participation on the board in a sport organisation

Questions were asked in the survey about leadership styles and whether men and women approach leadership and management differently, as was indicated in the review of literature
in chapter two (pp 30-32). The boards in most of the study organisations contain both men and women, but many organisations in the study had ‘evolved’ from single sex organisations. The questions in this part of the survey were designed to try to determine whether there was any difference in the way the board functioned now that both men and women sat on the board. It has been reported in other research that boards, and organisations, perform differently and have better outcomes (the business case argument), when there is a more equal gender representation (see Anderson 2009; Jogulu & Wood 2006; Thomson & Graham 2005).

7.2.1 Boards function differently when women are members.

Figure 15 indicates that the majority (77%) of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that having women on the board had made a difference to the functioning of the board. There was a 16% neutral response rate on this issue. Only 7% of respondents disagreed that having women on the board made a difference.

![Q16. Women make a difference to the way the board functions](image)

**Figure 21**: Survey responses for section three; board participation issues (question sixteen).

The interviews provided greater insight into these responses with most interviewees commenting on the different ways men and women approach problem solving and decision making issues. Most directors indicated that their boards operate effectively. A male director in national sporting organisation of Sport1 commented:

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The board of NSO1 functions very well with all board members contributing effectively (D1MNSO1).

Figure 22 (below) indicates a high percentage (42%) of respondents were neutral to the assertion that having women on the board led to a more diversified decision making environment, but 44% of respondents did agree with this assertion. The high neutral response rate to this question was returned mainly from respondents in Sport2. Remembering that many of the organisations in this sport are only newly merged and that operation of the new board/s has not been observed enough in some instances, several respondents felt they could not give an informed opinion.

All interview respondents noted that a more diverse board structure was beneficial for the sport. Diversity, as well as equality, was not always considered to be associated with gender. The comments made by a female director in a state sporting organisation in Sport1 demonstrate this point:

*I have to say that there has been a significant difference in the functioning of the board since we have had a better balance, but it is not to do with gender it is to do*
with the quality of the directors (Female director, Sport1, state organisation1, D1FSSO1-1).

Her comments, in relation to the types of skills or traits women and men possess, were similar to those made by several other respondents:

I think women bring skills that men just do not have and for that reason alone I think that in sports where women are not represented as players it is still in that sport’s best interest to have women on their boards. There are skills that men have that women don’t, and there are skills that women have that men don’t so you need a representation from both genders to get the right skills for a board. Women have skills such as multi-skilling and multi-tasking that men do not have to such a degree. Women bring a different approach to decision making. I think it is a wise board that recognises that (Female director, Sport1, state organisation1, D1FSSO1-1).

The opinion that men and women have different skills or leadership styles was common amongst the replies received, with the female respondents often expressing very stereotypical responses about women’s behaviours. Many of the male respondents also commented that the stereotypical perceptions of how men and women approached problem solving and decision making still exist, for example, a male director in a state (2) organisation in Sport2 commented:

We have the same brains; we may think differently and operate differently, but the thought processes are equal. I think it has progressed over the last few years but it is just going to take a bit longer for it to happen [accepted equality of ability], but eventually it will not be like it is now (Male director, Sport2, state (2) organisation, D1MSSO2-2).

Another female director from a state level organisation in Sport1 noted that:

I think having both sexes represented on a board is good. I think both can feed off of each other and support and benefit each other [...] I do think that each group brings something different to the board (Female director, state level, Sport1, D2FSSO1-1).
It was again observed that some of the women in some organisations were more traditional than the men. A female director in sport2 commented:

*I think there is a difference because of that diversity more so. I guess I am seen as a failure because I do not stand up for the weekday women’s rights* [the dominant group of female players in this sport] […]. *The traditional women’s Sport2 hierarchy is fairly hidebound and conservative, so some of these things really need to be examined. To some extent the men are more progressive and have more contemporary views than some of the women involved.* […] *I struggle to have a lot in common with them (the weekday women), their views tend to be more conservative, more hampering to the views of women than some of the men’s committees* (Female director, Sport2, state organisation4, D1FSSO2-4).

The term ‘weekday women’ refers to the women who play this sport, at competition level, on a weekday (Monday to Friday); in this sport, as in many others, women’s competitions have traditionally only been held on weekdays (women didn’t work so they were available) and the men’s main competition rounds are held on weekends (usually Saturday; men work on a weekday). There was an opinion expressed by several women, usually to a lesser extent than the opinion above, that it is often women themselves who are holding onto traditional views about women’s roles; about women’s capability and different leadership styles and how this may hamper more diversity and equality on a board and in management positions.

There were two instances where male respondents expressed the view that having a female dominated board had been dysfunctional. In Sport3 one state level male director, the only male at the time in a chairman role, took deliberate steps to reduce the number of women on the board; ‘female behaviours’ were creating biased decision making. This male respondent was very much in favour of having a truly ‘balanced’ representation of males and females on the board. Another female director in Sport3, from a different state association, also noted issues when the board became too dominated by women.

The response rates to questions eighteen are displayed in Figure 23 below.
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

Figure 23: Survey responses for section three; board participation issues (question eighteen).

There was also a high neutral response rate to this question, 56%. Again the ‘newness’ of a lot of the Sport2 organisations was cited as a reason for not being able to express an opinion on this matter. Other directors from Sport1 and Sport2 indicated that this line of questioning was very hard to answer in a survey where limited response options are available. When interviewed, female respondents in particular felt that men and women had different ways of approaching their board roles with the contention being put forward by several of the female respondents that women ‘just get on with it’.

A female director from a state level sporting organisation in Sport3 felt that:

Women put in a lot more than men [...] women just do what they say they are going to do [...]. Men might bring some great ideas and think things out well, but their follow through is pretty poor (D1FSSO3-3).

Differences in perception around this issue will be addressed more fully in the following section of this chapter as there were a variety of opinions and some respondents became contradictory in their views on this matter in the course of their interviews.
7.2.3 How gender diverse boards operate

The professional skills board members have are considered the more important factor. Individual differences were recognised but gender differences were not considered the important point of difference in how board members interacted and contributed to the decision making processes of the board. A female director (D4F) in NSO1 made the point that the male president, of that organisation, had made it clear that women were able to express their opinions and contribute equally on the board:

*He said “have you met them?” It was a very nice affirmation that there is certainly no barrier to contributing based on gender; it really comes down to skill set* (Female director, national body, Sport1, D4FNSO1).

This opinion was more prevalent in Sport1 and Sport3 where the organisations have been merged for longer periods of time. In Sport2, where the mergers are very recent, directors reported a noticeable difference in the interactions of the board now that there are both male and female directors. A female director from a state organisation in Sport3 commented that women were exercising choice when deciding to serve on the board; they did not feel that board work was something they didn’t feel capable of:

*No definitely not, the ladies that we have on the board are really capable women. There is no doubt that without those women our board wouldn’t be as effective. They bring a lot of sensitivity to the board [...] their input is invaluable to us* (Female director, state (1) Sport 3, D2FSSO3-1).

That opinion was not held by directors from Sport2. A female director in Sport2 commented:

*We struggle to get the numbers, of anyone, to be on the board. I think the struggle in sport2 is the female membership is very traditional, the numbers are declining, they have no way of attracting women like myself (who work), we are not seen as real women, we are a breed apart* (Female director, state (4) organisation, Sport2, D1FSSO2-4).
Another female director from Sport2 (D1FSSO2-1) also noted the difficulty of getting women to take on board roles in this sport. This difficulty may be overcome as the newly created organisations in this sport move through the different stages towards fully institutionalised behaviours, and if women in the sport become confident their capabilities are recognised.

The issues discussed in the previous chapter, about discriminatory recruitment practices and quotas, were also evident in the answers given to how gender diverse boards operate. A male director in a state sporting organisation in Sport3 was of the opinion that it was individuals and not the organisation that determined who should be on a board and that positive discrimination towards women was not required. The key to effective operation of the board is the commitment and capability of the board members. The traditional base for the sport, that is either male or female, was considered important. Affirmation was again given that traditionally male dominated sports may function differently.

Look I don’t think so because I am not a believer in positive bias to achieve a gender balance. I think particularly at the state representation level the individuals have to come with that commitment; now whether they are male or female I don’t really have a perception either way. The key to me is that the person who comes to the board table has the required commitment and the required understanding of the sport I suppose. In our particular sport that is much easier for a female or a male director to come to the table because we do have a mixed gender type sport. It might be more difficult for example if you had a football club or similar (Male director, state sporting organisation, Sport3, D1MSSO3-2).

A male director in the national sporting organisation of Sport1 referred to organisational responsibility and the need to make board appointments based on capability, not on discriminatory practices, when he commented:

Yes, there is a responsibility that rests with an organisation to say, it shouldn’t be negative discrimination. In other words, that it shouldn’t be said that I am not having
you on the board because you are female, I am having you on the board because you are talented (Male director, national body, Sport1, D2MNSO1).

The strong consensus on this issue can be summed up in a comment made by a male director in the national sporting organisation in Sport1:

This is an on-going issue, not so much for sport1 but other sports still do have issues. I think you will find, talking to others [...], that most of our boards are committed to ensuring fairness to all. This is not just about gender but about recognising that we need to provide a positive environment while ensuring the organisation is well run (Male director, national body, Sport1, D1MNSO1).

The need for board members with appropriate skills and an understanding of governance issues appeared to be the main focus of all directors interviewed. A requirement to recruit people with particular skills outweighed issues surrounding gender. It was acknowledged that men and women bring different perspectives and different capabilities to the table, and that boards do operate differently when the traditional male dominated model is altered. The changes in organisational and governance structures, primarily brought about by legislated changes and the continual shift to a more professional management model are on-going.

7.3 Work/life balance

Much of the literature that analyses women on boards accepts that the measure of success is achieving a position on a board (Cornelius & Skinner 2008), but other perspectives exist, as discussed in chapter three (pp 66-72). People will make a choice to undertake what is of value to them, whether that be a job, or raising a family, or caring for the disabled, or any other life choice; the choice is considered to be a personal one (Robeyns 2005). Whether family or work obligations affected a person’s ability or willingness to serve on a board was discussed during several of the interviews. A male director from the national sporting organisation in Sport1 commented:
I assume [family or personal commitments] are blocking people because I see my fellow board and committee members struggling to find the time to spend on board matters because of family obligations. I think that it is probably a greater problem for men (Male director, national body, Sport1, D3MNSO1).

Several of the female directors interviewed expressed the opinion that the processes around gaining a board position may affect a person’s decision to take up a board position and some people’s level of confidence in their own ability was an issue. A female director from the national sporting organisation in Sport1 expressed the opinion:

I think a lot of women are put off by competitive processes; they are embarrassed if they go through a competitive process and they are rejected (D4FNSO1).

Another female director from a state level sporting organisation in Sport2 claimed:

I think it is because they do not have the confidence, they believe ‘oh I couldn’t do that’. I am not blowing my own horn, but if you look at the women on my board they are all strong women […] I know I am different to most other women (D1FSSO2-1).

A female director from a state level sporting organisation in Sport3 indicated that she was unsure as to the reasons why women may not be putting themselves forward for board positions. She commented that she was unsure whether work/life balance considerations or lack of personal confidence were the issues at hand:

I don’t know whether it has come to the point where your stereotypical housewife feels she doesn’t have the skills to come to a board position or whether a woman is pursuing her career and doesn’t have time to come into such a position; I am not sure what the separation is (D1FSSO3-2).

A male director from the national sporting organisation in Sport1 commented that the work/life balance deliberation places more burden on women:
I think that if women are working, corporate, and taking on the not-for-profit thing and running the household then that affects their ability and willingness to be able to be on a board. However, I have seen it first-hand, a lady who was the CEO of a company and ran her household and had nine children and she seemed to manage, so I think she did all right […], but I think it is harder for women because there is always that underlying thing that they have the family to run (D2MNSO1).

The timing of board and committee meetings was also a consideration as it was a factor in balancing work and voluntary board commitments. A female director in a state organisation in Sport 1 commented:

I was thinking about the arrangements for our board, we meet during the day […]. If you are on a committee they meet during the day, so you have to have very flexible work arrangements, or you are very senior where your day job allows you to take time out for board commitments. If you have to take leave without pay, or meet on weekends, it would knock out quite a few potential members (D1FSSO1-2).

While many of the issues raised and responses received in the interviews around changes in organisational structures, sedimented organisational practices and developing change processes could be examined through an institutional lens, issues surrounding work/life balance were better viewed by adopting a capabilities approach. Women and men both make choices as to whether they will serve on a board of directors. Men have historically beenfavoured in making that choice as institutionalised practices have promoted men over women (Cunningham 2008; Shaw 2006; Shaw & Hoeber 2003). Institutional practices do affect women’s ability to apply for and achieve membership of a board, but women also have the ability to exercise choice. Results from the interviews conducted would suggest that in some cases they do so, and their choice is often not to pursue a position that they feel uncomfortable in. The interview responses indicate that men are also exercising this choice in some cases.
7.4 Women’s perceived capability to perform a board role

Women may have developed ‘adaptive preferences’ when it comes to putting themselves forward for a board position; they may not accept that they have all the skills and competencies necessary for the role. This can be partly attributed to entrenched institutional practices that create barriers for women, but it can also be seen to be women’s lack of confidence in their own capability, enforced over time by societal norms (Robeyns 2005). A female director had a very strong view on this subject. Director1 from a state sporting organisation in Sport1 commented:

A general view, not just sporting boards but boards in general, it seems like something you approach with a bit of trepidation. I went to a lunch a few years back where Germaine Greer was the speaker […]. She spoke of experiences with students at Oxford, where female students often had a lot more ability but didn’t have the confidence. She gave an example of a female who sees a job ad and there are ten things, ten attributes or qualifications that you need […]. Unless the woman ticks off all ten she will not apply for the job. A man would apply for the job because he likes the job, he wants the job. He may only be able to tick off two or three attributes but he will apply. I think it is something in the nature of women. I know women of my generation, we are well qualified, but if we apply for a new job we will go and get extra qualifications, an extra piece of paper to prove we can do. We often say to each other (my group of friends and co-workers), this is silly we know we can do it, but it is instilled in us (A female director, Sport1, state sporting organisation2, D1FSSO1-2).

These comments by a female director demonstrate the concept of adaptive preferences. Women have traditionally not held positions of power in the corporate or sporting worlds and have encountered institutionalised barriers when trying to progress to higher levels or prestige positions in organisations. Those barriers are slowly being removed, but the instilled or entrenched behaviours that have been adopted by women may still be a barrier to their progression. The fact that many women are now recognising their own entrenched behaviours may be another step forward in enabling women to gain better representation in senior positions in organisations.
Individually the women in this study did not perceive themselves to be any less capable than their male counterparts, but they did recognise that many women (that they have encountered in their sport) do not feel that they have the ability, or the desire, to take on a board role. The men in the study also acknowledged this phenomenon and that they considered that men still had more confidence to take on senior management and board roles.

7.4.1 Voting power
Organisations in the study now give equal voting rights to women and men, for the election of board members. The detailed voting rights and how voting power is distributed varied considerably across the organisations examined. Some constitutions contained a large amount of detailed information, others much less. In some organisations each individual member, right down to club level, has the right to vote in an election to elect the board of the state, and sometimes the national, level organisations. More commonly a number of votes are assigned to each club or region. In some cases the state organisations vote for representation on the national bodies. There is no consistency in how the voting structures are organised across the sports as a whole, each organisation determines their own voting structure. They may mimic other organisations, but how that evolution has taken place is difficult to determine.

The equality in voting rights is only a recent phenomenon. Sport2 historically gave superior voting rights to the men’s clubs. In the earlier version of the constitution obtained for NSO2 (the first for the merged organisation), there was a greater voting power given to men. The men’s club representation on the regional council had a voting power of two to one. The amended (2010-2011) constitution changed the composition of the council and men’s clubs no longer have a greater voting power than women’s clubs. The levelling of the playing field for women in Sport2 was a hard fought and contentious process; women’s equality in the sport was not recognised until the revision of some constitutions in 2010-2011. One female director Sport2 summarised the process like this:

*You will only ever get true equality when it is not questioned that we have dumb ugly women on a board. Because for heaven’s sake we have had decades of having dumb ugly men on our boards and that was never questioned. It is really hard to have these discussions though and we have already talked about [...] the barriers for men being*
invisible. They made a big mistake in the implementation of the merger. When they appointed the new board they kept the same directors from the separate boards, and the same voting rights. This was a mistake as it kept in power a male chair who didn’t move the agenda for reform forward (A female director, Sport2, state sporting body 4, D1FSSO2-4).

This female director’s comments confirmed that the merger of the separate male and female associations in the older sports, which all three case study sports are, has been difficult and that women were not always afforded equal representation or power when the mergers first occurred. Women have had to fight to gain power and recognition, and in Sport2 and in Sport1 that has been achieved, eventually, by constitutional mandate. It was also confirmed, anecdotally, by a male director from the national body in Sport1, that ‘stacking of the board’ had occurred in the initial merged board (10 years ago). This had been brought about by the efforts of one very determined woman and had caught the men a bit off guard, but it had ensured that women had a representative vote.

There was no observed preferential voting power given to men’s or women’s clubs, or to men or women, in Sport1 or Sport3 in their present constitutions. Voting power is not always evenly distributed amongst clubs or regions, but it was not observed to be distributed based on gender.

7.4.2 Gendered language
The use of gendered language in the constitutions was examined. The use of gendered language, for example, the word chairman, has a long history that has largely gone unchallenged (Shaw & Penney 2003). More recently individuals, businesses and government have been directed towards using more gender neutral terms, particularly in ‘official’ documents. For example, chair is used rather than chairman; person is used instead of he or she, or perhaps he/she or a non-gender specific descriptor is assigned such as they (Shaw & Hoeber 2003). Shaw and Hoeber (2003), in their analysis of governing bodies in sport in Great Britain, note that the continued use of the term chairman disassociates women from that role. Masculine discourses influence the identity of the role; the incumbent is assumed to be male (Shaw & Hoeber 2003; Shaw & Penney 2003). By encouraging the use of non-
gender specific terms, such as chair or chairperson, masculine discourses may cease to be attributed to leadership roles (Shaw & Hoeber 2003, p 354).

The organisations in this study largely appear to be aware of the use of gendered language. A clause is now being inserted into a number of the constitutions to provide gender neutrality of language. Two Sport1 organisations have inserted the clause “words importing any gender include other genders” into their constitutions.

In Sport1, NSO1 uses gendered language in the constitution, that is, ‘chairman’ and ‘he’ or ‘she’, are used throughout the document. SSO1-1 uses non-gendered language; chairperson and ‘he/she’ are used throughout the document.

Six of the eight Sport3 organisations have inserted the same clause into their constitutions. There was no evidence of gendered language in the constitutions of Sport3 organisations. In one instance, SSO3-2; in the Completion By-Laws, the term chairman is used, but the rest of document uses the term chair. This may well be attributable to the practice of modifying an existing document; the changes may have been made manually and one instance of the use of the term chairman was missed.

Three organisations in Sport2 use the term chairman in their constitutions, but the rest of the language in the documents is non-gendered.

7.4.3 The board member-to-staff member relationship.
As stated earlier, the relationship between a board and the paid staff of an organisation is an important one. As boards usually meet outside normal business hours and often not at an organisational headquarters (this was confirmed by several directors who participated in the interviews), the face to face contact between the paid staff and the board influenced how effective communication between the paid staff and the board could be.
Figure 24: Survey responses for section three; board participation issues (question twenty one).

Figure 24 and Figure 25 display the results of the two questions related to this issue. There was strong agreement that both male and female board members have a lot of direct contact with organisational staff: 67% for female board members and 74% for male board members. It was stressed by several directors during interviews that board members do not ‘interfere’ in the day to day running of the organisation. Some board members do serve in officiating roles in the sport, that is, they serve as coaches or officials at sporting events; this does lead to a greater interaction between the board members and the paid staff. That interaction is not always linked to the director’s role as a board member.

Directors from some of the smaller state organisations indicated that the separation of board functions, which are now more strategic, from the operational role that board members often performed in the past, is less pronounced in the smaller organisations. For example, one male director in a state organisation in Sport1 indicated that board members may still be asked to help with operational matters, such as the hiring of staff, occasionally. There was no indication that there was a preference for either male or female directors to help with operational matters if this was required.
The conclusion drawn from the responses to these two questions is that the board does have a reasonable amount of direct contact with paid staff. There was no indication that men or women were ‘better’ at their interactions with the staff in any of organisations surveyed.

7.4.4 The number of women in positions of importance in the study organisation (paid staff)

It has already been briefly discussed that women have a greater representation in the lower status positions in the study organisations. Appendix 5.3 contains the full results of the audit conducted. The results of this audit confirm that traditional management structures and perceptions of women’s leadership capabilities are still prevalent in these organisations. Women, possibly by choice, are assigned to lesser status roles, even though it was confirmed by some directors that they do employ well qualified people for their organisations. One male director from the national body of Sport1 commented that it is men who are more commonly found in sports administration roles:

Like a lot of sport organisations, men are attracted to sports administration roles. There are a number of university courses for sports administration/management; it would be interesting to know the enrolment in these courses. Is it reflective of the dominance of men in sports administration roles? Are women graduating from these
courses? We look for the skills we need both in our staff roles and for our board members (A male director, Sport1, national sporting organisation, D1MNSO1).

All directors interviewed commented on the male domination of their sports administration and management roles, and on the difficulties associated with women in senior coaching positions. The player management issues identified were not pursued in this study but it would be an avenue for further research.

A summary discussion of the positions held by staff in each sport follows.

Sport 1
It is notable that a higher number (nine) of the positions titled CEO or manager are held by men, compared to only two positions held by women. The coaching positions do not fall under this classification. But it is also interesting to note that none of the men’s coaching squad are female, whereas most of the women’s coaching squad are male. Some directors noted this in interviews when they commented on the difficulty of obtaining and retaining female coaches. Women hold 29.6 percent of the paid staff positions in NSO1-1.

In the state organisations the numbers and distributions are more even. There are 42 male employees and 38 female employees across the states: 13 males are designated as managers and 11 females are designated as managers. The differences appear in the lower level designation, for example, the administration assistant designations are primarily held by females, head coach positions are primarily held by males. In sports, coaching and player focussed roles are considered more prestigious and they are stereotypically held by men. This set-up was evident in the state organisations.

Sport2
In Sport2 eleven positions are held by men with the title CEO, manager or director as opposed to only three by women. Women hold 36.8% of the positions on the paid staff of NSO2-1.
In the state organisations in Sport2 there are more males who hold the title of manager or director or CEO, than females: 15 males and only five females. The females again hold the majority of the lower status positions. It is noted that the way titles are applied varies. In Sport2 there is a tendency to use the title Financial Controller rather than Finance Manager or Finance Director, as was the case in Sport1. Where the title Financial Controller was used it was counted as an instance of the use of the title manager as it is usually a title associated with a senior position. Again the women hold more of the clerical positions, or the more stereotypically female positions in Sport2 organisations.

Sport 3

In the national body of Sport3 there are eight positions titled manager or CEO held by men and only three such positions held by women. There is also a greater representation of men in the senior coaching positions. Women again hold the more clerical or administrative positions. In the state organisations in Sport3 equal numbers of men and women hold the title manager: eight. Again it is noted that the more senior positions, or more prestige positions, appear to be held by men. There is only one instance (SSO3-7) of the CEO or General Manager positions being held by a woman. The more clerical positions are held by women.

It was comments from directors that drew attention to the maintenance of the status quo in the staff profile of the study organisations. The focus of this study was not on the paid organisational staff, but questions arise, now that it has been established that sporting organisations are moving towards the appointment of executive directors, as to the existence of a pipeline for women onto sporting organisations’ boards. The answer to this question is outside the scope of this study but the lack of women in senior positions in the study organisations reflects the lack of women in senior positions in the corporate world, as discussed in chapters one and two. If executive director appointments are to be allowed in more sports organisations in the future, there is a very limited pipeline of women in the senior ranks of sports organisation staff to take on those roles. Women working in sports administration roles may face the same organisational barriers identified in the corporate world or they may face more significant barriers given the male domination of sports bodies more broadly identified in other research (for example, Fuller 2006; Kikulis 2000; McKay 1997). Establishing whether women are developing the capability to take on more senior
sports administration roles, that is, are they for example undertaking sports administration courses, or whether they have the desire to take on these roles, are avenues for further research. Some females in this study indicated that women are choosing not to take on these types of roles. A female director from a state organisation in Sport2 commented:

There are any number of excuses that people will still use to justify why women are under-represented and I mean this absolute malarkey that there aren’t enough qualified women, or there aren’t the women out there is absolute BS. They might not choose to be there, and why would they choose to be there in that sort of blokey environment where they are made to feel unwelcome (D1FSSO2-4).

The above comment indicates that women, in some instances, still perceive that sport management is a hostile environment (for women to obtain senior positions) in which their expertise and experience are not appreciated or required.

7.4.6 Women choosing to elect for a position of power such as a board appointment

The interview results in this study indicate that there are individual decisions as to whether a person will even consider serving on a board that may not be fully explained by applying only an institutional lens. Both men and women still find it difficult to make the commitment to volunteer board positions. Men and women with family and work commitments exercise choice when making the decision to commit to volunteer board work. One male director in Sport1 indicated that he considered it more difficult for married men with children to devote the time to undertaking volunteer board work, but overwhelmingly the responses received at interview indicated that the ‘burden’ of raising family still rests with women, therefore committing the time for other activities, such as board and committee work, is more difficult for women. The opinion was expressed by several interviewees that a conscious choice is made by women to sacrifice their time for such activities (board or committee work), and that the decision to undertake such activities is now a choice women are free to make. As previously discussed, in Sport1 and Sport2 there is a constitutional gender clause that ensures women can and do stand for board positions. In Sport3 there is no constitutional gender clause: in this sport there was only one state organisation where the number of women exceeded the number of men serving on the board. The national board and some state boards
in this sport have no women on their boards. This indicates that without the coercive mechanism in place to ensure gender balance, the newer organisational field (gender balance) is not objectified, it is only a habituated practice with a low level of institutionalisation. Individuals are free to make the choice to stand for election to the board, but entrenched institutional practices may deter them from making this choice.

The response received from one female director in Sport1: “if election to the board had been a competitive process I would not have stood”, may be indicative of this phenomenon. This female director indicated that she had exercised choice when deciding to go onto the board. Female Director1 NSO1 had the qualifications to stand for a board position and she also had the freedom of opportunity to exercise a choice to stand for election. Her freedom of choice was enhanced by the constitutional gender clause that specifies a number of women on the board. The organisational barrier of entrenched male domination of boards had been removed. Without that positive discrimination the female director indicated that she would not have stood for the position. Such a choice, to stand for election in a non-competitive process, indicated an underlying knowledge that the competitive process usually encountered in board elections is biased towards men (the female director acknowledged this). The female director also acknowledged that some people choose to avoid competitive processes completely.

7.5 Conclusion

The organisations in this study display a commitment to gender equity through policy and constitutional commitment, in most instances. Changes in the composition and the broad functional role of the boards, to encompass a more strategic focus, is a significant factor contributing to the changes occurring in sports governance. Even though there is evidence of support for gender equity there is little evidence to suggest that having a significant representation of women on sports boards has become fully institutionalised. Women and men make a choice to serve on a board, but that choice appears to be easier for men. Women perceive that there are still barriers, in some instances, to them becoming board members and that their own entrenched behaviours remain a barrier. The individuals in the organisations that have more recently combined their separate male and female associations display this
behaviour more. The gendered nature of sports organisations is apparent with most directors interviewed commenting that gender distinctions are inherent in sports organisations. Sports are played along gender lines, mixed competitions are only recently being introduced into some sports, sports organisations below national and state levels are still segregated into male and female associations, and women still hold stereotypically female roles in sports organisations.

The perceptions of success, or how well an individual functions in a role is not just dependent on that perception of success, it is also dependent on whether a preference was exercised in the achievement of that success (Pettit 2000). For example, in the findings discussed above, it is not enough that women have achieved a position on a board, and that organisational policy and/or constitutions support the appointment of women to senior positions in an organisation. It is equally important for women to be able to exercise their preference for how they attain and retain a seat on a board, the roles they perform once they are on the board and whether they commit personal or family time to their board undertakings. These are decisive preferences, not adaptive preferences (as discussed in chapter three), nor decisive choice (Pettit 2000). Understanding whether women are able to exercise decisive preferences may be determinable from an examination of the findings of this study.

How the findings introduced in this chapter, and the previous two chapters, answer the research questions posed in this study is discussed in the next, and final, chapter in this thesis.
8 CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The topic for this thesis arose from the researcher’s personal curiosity about women in senior management and board positions in for-profit and not-for-profit organisations in Australia. How and why women remain under-represented in such positions has been a topic of broad societal interest, as well as for government and academic researchers for several decades. Research has been undertaken using a variety of approaches and has suggested an array of explanations as detailed in the review of literature related to women on boards and women in sporting organisations in chapter two. Even though anti-discrimination and equal opportunity legislation has been introduced in Australia and elsewhere, women still struggle to achieve anywhere near equal representation in the ‘power positions’ in organisations. The lack of women in such positions has been identified as being problematic for business and for society more widely.

8.1 Introduction and summary of the significant findings

The study focusses on women, or the lack of women, in positions of power in selected Australian sporting organisations. It was designed to focus on two identifiable stages associated with women in decision-making positions in Australian sporting organisations: first, how women get appointed to the board and their contribution to board performance once they are appointed. Second, how organisational or institutional mechanisms influence the progression of women in positions of organisational power.

The three case studies in this study demonstrate that sports organisations in Australia have been, and will continue to move through the various stages of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation discussed in chapter three. The move to a ‘peak body’ model will require further mergers and amalgamations to take place and the deeply sedimented values of the different organisations that exist, such as male domination of governance and decision making roles, may resurface in organisations that have claimed a commitment to gender equity. A move by sporting bodies away from a more gender balanced model, both in player participation and in organisational management and governance, would be counter to societal expectations expressed in government enquiries and recommendations outlined in chapter
two. The ‘levelling of the playing field’ where women are more equitably represented in sports governance and decision making is, according to many of the directors who participated in this study, still a work in progress. Understanding the institutional mechanisms that may be affecting such developments is one more step in understanding the situation more fully.

A brief restatement of the previous chapters’ findings about gender issues in sporting organisations follows. The results from the first part of the survey provided general information on gender equity issues within the selected organisations. The majority of respondents indicated that it is important to have more women on sporting boards in Australia. All respondents indicated that their organisations have implemented policy to promote gender equity. The analysis of organisational documents indicated that very few of the organisations in the study had a formal gender equity policy; most addressed gender equity issues at player level through their member protection policies. A large number of the organisations use the ASC’s member protection policy template. Several directors, when interviewed, commented on this practice as the following quote demonstrates:

    We see no point in reinventing the wheel, but we have made small adjustments to suit our particular needs (A female director, national body, Sport1, D1FNSO1).

A large percentage of directors who completed the survey indicated that their organisation has a measurable gender objective, but most indicated that setting quotas for gender representation was unwarranted and/or undesirable. Many of the women interviewed, and some of the men, identified that quotas may become a ‘necessary evil’ in ensuring more female participation on sports boards. Two of the case study sports have a constitutional gender requirement, that is, a requirement to have a designated number of women and a designated number of men on their boards, and most respondents in these organisations identified that this requirement could be viewed as a quota.

The majority of respondents, who completed the survey, did not consider that physical capacity in playing a sport (for example, the fact that men and women have different physical strengths that may affect the distance they can throw a ball and thus the winning factor
(distance thrown) in a sporting contest), was associated with the different representations of men and women in sports governance. A large number of respondents did consider that the management practices of their particular sport resulted in very different roles being allocated to men and women. It was commented upon by several respondents that women still perform the more ‘menial’ or administrative roles in their sporting organisation. An analysis of sporting documents (Appendix 5.3) and the organisational profile also confirmed that, numerically, women still occupy the more administrative roles in the case study organisations and are still less well represented on the boards of the case study organisations. These results confirm previous research, as discussed in chapter two, that women, even though they make up over fifty percent (50.3%) (FAHCSIA 2008) of the Australian population are still not represented equally in senior management or governance positions. Statistically, women are still predominantly represented in lower paid, less prestigious positions within organisations and within industry sectors (2008).

The role and structure of sporting boards has changed in the last decade and continues to do so. Boards of governance in sporting organisations now perform a more strategic role and their recruitment and training practices resemble, in some instances, practices used by corporate boards (discussed in chapter two). Non-member, non-elected positions are now constitutionally supported in most of the study organisations. The volunteer nature of board work is an influencing factor in people’s choice in whether they will serve on a board. The stereotypically entrenched view of who is the best person to undertake a board role is still evident in some instances. Why and how the changes in sporting organisations support or deconstruct the under-representation of women in senior management and governance positions may be determined by applying institutional theory, an explanatory theory, and the capabilities approach, a normative approach, to the findings summarised above and presented more fully in the previous chapters. The research questions posed in chapter one are answered as follows.
8.2 How are women able to attain and retain a ‘seat at the table’ in national sporting organisations in Australia?

The background information for the case study sports provided in chapter four indicates that the size and composition of the board membership in the organisations in this study varies. How women (and men) are appointed to the board in the study organisations also varies. The stage of institutionalisation of the organisations is considered alongside the findings about how women attain and retain a seat at the table in the sporting organisations in this study. It is important to consider the interactions between the change mechanisms, that is, what stage in the change process (level of institutionalisation) an organisation has reached and what the change processes are, alongside the discussion about how women attain and retain a position on a sporting organisation board. The cause and effect cannot be established when they are considered in isolation.

**The level of institutionalisation**

One of the case study sports, Sport2, may be considered to be at the pre-institutionalisation phase on the institutionalisation continuum, that is, the phase where strategies to fix identified problems become formalised in the organisation’s policies and procedures (see pp 55-56, chpt 3). Sport2 only very recently merged its separate male and female associations. Findings indicate that they have retained some of their old board recruitment policies and procedures as well as introducing new policy and procedures. Sport1 also merged its separate male and female associations around 10 years ago, and could be expected to be in the semi-institutionalised phase where diffuse organisational structures and/or actions become objectified and accepted, but it was found that several of the Sport1 organisations appear to have entered a de-institutionalising phase. There are changes being made to recruitment and appointment practices for board members, and the objectified practice (over time) of having a constitutional mandate for a certain female representation on the board is being removed in some instances. In Sport3, long established recruitment practices for board appointments are also changing; these organisations all display a de-institutionalisation in the organisational field of board appointments. Each case study sport was at a different stage on the institutionalisation continuum for this organisational practice.
Method of board appointment

The traditional (sedimented) method of member (organisational) election of board members is being changed by constitutional mandate. Most of the women (and men) in the study organisations were elected to the board by the members, but there were instances, for example a male director in Sport1, where a board appointment was made to fill a particular skill requirement, or, as was the case for a female board member in Sport1 (state level) to fill a casual vacancy and to replace a particular skill held by a member who was retiring. This female member’s appointment was also made to ensure the gender requirement in that organisations constitution was met.

Interview responses directed attention to the perception of barriers, as identified in previous research (Thomson & Graham 2005), still being in place for women in organisations where the more traditional member election practices were still in place. It was considered more difficult for a woman to be elected to the board on merit. It was perceived that the constitutional gender requirement in two of the case sports could lead to women being appointed to fill a quota, not because of their ability. There was also the perception, particularly amongst the female respondents that ‘you need to know someone’ to put you forward for election; one female respondent stated that she only stood for the position because she did not have to compete against the men for the position. Women, because they have traditionally not been the dominant group in sporting organisations, still face the problem of more poorly established networks and fewer mentors and change agents to support them. This lack of support networks also adversely affects the ability of women to attain a board seat. The removal of the constitutional gender clause at some levels in Sport1 may result in changed board recruitment practices; whether women can maintain a representative balance on the boards in the study organisations once the constitutional gender requirements have been removed is yet to be determined.

Training and mentoring

It was reported that women appear to take up training and mentoring opportunities more than men in the study organisations. This may be construed as an attempt by women to establish their position as board members more fully. Training and mentoring are supported, sometimes in policy, by the boards in these organisations, but there did not appear to be
support for the contention that well established networks existed. The diverse geographic
distribution of board members was cited as one reason why training and mentoring were
often poorly established. The timing of board meetings, usually held during work hours on a
weekday, was also cited as a reason why women (and men) often found it difficult to serve on
a board, and why training and mentoring opportunities were not well established.

Different decision making styles
There were comments made about the different way men and women approach their board
roles, their different decision making styles and the different way they approach the sport
itself. In most instances these differences were perceived to be beneficial rather than
detrimental. There were only two instances where interview respondents reported that having
a female dominated board caused a problem. The majority considered that women perform
board tasks as well as, if not better than men. Other than the two instances cited (p 175), in
state level organisations, where a deliberate move was made to reduce the number of women
on a board, there would appear to be no problems associated with women retaining their seat
on the board. The sedimented cyclical board renewal processes were evident in all the study
organisations. Overwhelmingly the responses received indicated that a diversified board
membership, not just in relation to gender but a diversity of people from different
backgrounds and experiences, is the desired model for optimal efficient performance.

The way women (and men) are being appointed to, and functioning in, board positions is
changing in the sporting organisations in this study, but development itself (in this instance
the development or changing of board recruitment practices and board functioning) should be
a process that enables the expansion of real opportunities for people (Bass et al. 2003).
Therefore we need the development of institutional practices that enable real opportunities for
women to achieve, through the exercise of decisive preferences, equality of opportunity when
they seek a senior management position in a sporting organisation, appointment to a sporting
board and when they access tools, for example training, that assist in the development of such
opportunities. The reasons why many of the changes discussed above have been occurring in
sports organisations are addressed more fully by answering the following research question.
8.3 How are institutional mechanisms affecting the development of more equal gender representations on boards of directors in sporting organisations in Australia?

The different types of institutionalism discussed in chapter three, for example, rational choice, normative, and historical, provide logic structures for understanding the role of individuals in organisations and the formation of institutions. Institutions do not emerge as a whole, they evolve in stages; the various stages of institutional development have been explained by authors such as Tolbert and Zucker (1996). The level of institutionalisation observed in the study organisations varied from organisation to organisation. There have been changes in the structure and environment of NSOs and SSOs in Australia over time, directed largely by government and reflecting changes that have occurred in countries such as Canada and the United Kingdom, that have enabled new ideas about governance and decision making to be introduced. De-institutionalisation occurs when alternative ideas are adopted in response to a questioning of taken-for-granted practices (Kikulis 2000).

De-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation have occurred in Sport1 and Sport2 as completely new organisational structures were formed when the separate male and female associations at national and state levels were merged into single organisations. The mergers did not occur at one time. Sport1 organisations began merging roughly a decade ago and merged at national and state levels at varying times over a period of several years. Sport2 organisations have merged at national and state levels at varying times during the last two to six years.

The mergers in both sports resulted from protracted and at times difficult negotiations. Interestingly the ‘blame’ for the difficulties experienced was not always attributed to institutional or cultural norms, but to individual behaviours. Institutional ideas and structures are created by human agents (Berger & Luckman 1967; Zucker & Darby 1997). As institutions change human agents may be shaped by institutional ideas they did not create (Berger & Luckman 1967; Zucker & Darby 1997). Acts that are low on institutionalisation (as an act may be if there is a de-institutionalisation or a re-institutionalisation occurring), will require “an intervening mechanism such as coercion or social control to ensure they are transmitted and maintained” (Kikulis 2000, p 302). If the control mechanism is removed a previously sedimented deep structure may resurface (Kikulis 2000).
New constitutions were introduced in the merged organisations in Sport1 and Sport2, both of which contained a gender clause mandating a fixed number of men and women to be elected on the board, in a bid to ensure greater gender equity. However not all board members fully embrace this change. Comments made by directors confirming pockets of male resentment and resistance to inclusive gender practices support a contention that the level of institutionalisation for male dominance and power is high and long standing; a deeply sedimented institutionalised feature. The move by some organisations in Sport1, as discussed in the previous section, to remove their constitutional gender clauses indicates that this organisational field, constitutional reform, is in a re-institutionalisation phase. The other changes discussed (for example, non-member elections) confirm that constitutional directive is an habituating organisational field in these organisations; the continual changes prevent board appointment practices from becoming objectified or sedimented.

Institutional ideas are defined by the organisational members; they establish a stable and enduring character that is unquestioningly followed in a fully institutionalised organisation (Kikulis 2000). Change at this level is difficult. Sport2 is comprised of recently merged organisations at state and national levels. These organisations may not be considered as fully institutionalised as they have only recently formed, but the merger process involved two fully institutionalised organisations, with long established characteristics defined by organisational members who, as evidenced from comments made by the directors of the boards in this study, were resistant to many of the changes made and only undertook the change process to meet a funding and support imperative imposed by the governing body for amateur sport, the ASC. Organisational reaction to change to comply with a mandated funding or support imperative initiated by a controlling body is a clear example of coercive isomorphic influence. The isomorphic influences in this study will be discussed more fully in section 8.3.4.

8.3.1 The dominance of the volunteer board as a ‘deep structure’

In sporting organisations, NSOs and SSOs, the volunteer board “is a deep structure and core practice that demonstrates traditionality” (Kikulis 2000, p 308). The board of directors is established as a key aspect of governance and decision making in these organisations and its composition, passed down over time, is taken for granted as appropriate and legitimate (Kikulis 2000). This creates stability but also resistance to change as the legitimated
established processes and procedures are deeply objectified and sedimented within the institutional environment (Kikulis 2000). The behaviour of the organisational members reinforces the traditional core practices observed.

In the organisations studied all participants noted that the structure and function of the board are evolving. The traditional structure and practice of electing all board members directly from the membership, as previously discussed, has changed in some of the participant organisations and is scheduled to change in others. Non-member, non-elected board appointments are now being made in a small percentage of cases. The function of the board is also changing: boards in the sporting organisations in this study now govern with a strategic focus rather than an operational focus. These are quite recent developments that are indicative of on-going de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation of board structure and function. As these changes are quite recent the level of institutionalism for such practices is low. Several board members discussed their support for these changes. Most were very supportive of non-member elected appointments, but several interviewees noted that this was not a widely accepted practice across the organisation as a whole. Some organisational members expressed reservations about allowing non-member appointments to the board. Traditional practices were often still held in high regard, and remain at levels below the national and state organisations, that is, at club, region and district levels. Separate male and female associations also remain at those organisational levels. This is another indication that the level of institutionalisation for the changed board structures and functions at national and state levels is not high. These practices may only be considered to be habituated at national and state levels; the changes to organisational practices do not flow through to lower organisational levels. For these changes to become objectified the practices would need to be accepted, over time, and codified in policy and procedure, at all levels in the organisations. The changes would only be considered sedimented within the organisations when there were no change processes evident to these organisational fields; or when these practices resurfaced after being changed. The need for these changes does not appear to be driven by the organisational membership, although some board members did note that the membership in their particular organisation would not tolerate a return to the old practices of excluding women from senior management or board positions. A younger, more well-educated membership was cited as the reason.
8.3.2 The level of institutionalisation for ‘gender equity’

Previous research affirms that sports organisations are highly gendered (McKay 1994; 1997; Shaw & Frisby 2006; Shaw & Penney 2003). Even though two of the case study sports have introduced gender balance to their boards through a coercive mechanism, their constitution, the practice does not appear to have become fully sedimented. Some of the state organisations in Sport1 have now dropped the gender clause in their constitutions.

The justification for removing the constitutional gender clause in some Sport1 state organisations is that the organisations are now ‘mature’ in relation to gender equity and do not need a coercive mechanism to ensure gender balance. It is not yet known whether this assumption is true. A longitudinal analysis would need to be undertaken to understand whether gender ‘balance’ will be maintained on the boards in these organisations. If gender commitment is highly institutionalised women will maintain a significant presence on these boards of directors; gender commitment will become objectified and/or sedimented and less subject to change. If the level of institutionalisation is low, once the coercive mechanism (constitutional requirement) is removed the older deeply sedimented practice of male dominated board memberships is likely to re-emerge.

Sport3, as previously stated, has had ‘merged’ national and state bodies since the 1960s. There is no constitutional obligation for gender representation in any of the Sport3 organisations. Overall women occupy 35% of the board positions in Sport3, but there is no female representation on the national level board in this sport. Interviews confirmed that some female directors, at the state level in Sport3, think that mandated quotas may be needed. Female directors stated that their national organisation still has men on the board who are “just [...] not comfortable with women on the board”. The ‘gender balance’ evidenced for boards of the organisations in this sport is very inconsistent.

The change to remove the gender clause in some Sport1 organisations may be an indication that gender equity is not a highly sedimented element in the institutionalisation processes of the organisations. It may also be indicative of power relations between the institutional levels within the sport as a whole. A female director of the national body for Sport1, when discussing the constitutional changes occurring at state level, commented that the national
body “would be keeping an eye on this”. This comment directed attention to a traditional hierarchical power relationship between state and national levels. However that relationship is perceived differently by the state level organisations. A female director in a state level organisation stated:

*Sport1 operates by an affiliations system, so NSO1 has no real control over the states [...] NSO1 is to us, as we are to our different clubs and district associations [...] SSO1-2 has no ability to direct an individual association [...] so what happens is you lead by example (D1FSSO1-2).*

The level of institutionalisation for the single entity to represent the male and female sports teams in this sport is now fairly high, but the level of institutionalisation for mandated female representation on the governing boards is low; a de-institutionalisation process is occurring at some levels in this sport.

Comments made by a female director of a state organisation in Sport2 indicate that the re-institutionalisation process in some organisations in that sport has not resulted in the traditional hierarchical structure becoming habitualised:

*the national board is not good at communicating with the states, they sometimes drop initiatives to the public and do not inform the state [...] This sort of approach has made us very unhappy with them [...] We are almost at war with them [...] They are not working well as an organisation [...] NSO2 doesn’t have an influence on us (A female director, state level, Sport2, D1FSSO2-1).*

Re-institutionalisation in Sport2 is fragmented. Even though the organisations at the different levels within this sport are at various stages along a re-institutionalisation continuum they are not re-institutionalised as a complete group of bodies where hierarchical power or management control flows through the different levels within the institution, nor are they cohesively representing the sport as a whole.
All of the directors interviewed indicated that a more diverse board structure was beneficial for the sport. As previously stated, diversity was not always considered to be associated with gender. The skill that individual board members bring to a board role is considered the more important factor.

8.3.3 The ‘best person for the job’

All participants interviewed in the study indicated that the composition of their boards now reflects an attitude of recruiting the ‘best person for the job’. The skills base for a board member in these organisations is changing. The boards in all the organisations in the study are now recruiting members with proven strategic planning, corporate governance and other professional skills such as accounting or legal expertise. Such skills are now considered critical for a board appointment as the focus of a board’s duty has shifted from being operational to strategic. Shaw (2006) in her study of gender suppression in New Zealand’s national sporting organisations claims a stated commitment to employing the ‘best person’ for the job is an act of gender suppression. Organisations, and individuals, who subscribe to this practice are expressing a desire to portray their organisation as homogeneous and non-gendered (Shaw 2006).

The stated commitment of recruiting the ‘best person’ for the job may be construed as indicating that the actions taken in these organisations’ board recruitment strategies are designed to avoid prejudicing one gender over another (Shaw 2006), but the practices actually observed at other levels (paid staff and volunteer roles) within the organisations suggest otherwise. Gender equity is not an element that is sedimented throughout the entire organisational structure.

Directors from all three sports in this study said women on the paid staff in their organisations perform gender stereotypical menial roles such as administrative work. The ‘glamour player focussed’ roles such as player development and marketing are more typically held by men. CEO positions in these organisations are also predominantly held by men. They also said the volunteer coaching and team management roles are often ordered on gender lines. The maintenance of women in lower paid less prestigious roles and of men in higher paid more prestigious roles is a deeply sedimented practice, one that has been long
established in fully institutionalised organisations. Any changes, through de-institutionalisation, have not embedded female equality in these areas to date.

8.3.4 The Isomorphic influences

The causes of organisational change may be explained by identification of the isomorphic processes that shape institutions. All three institutional isomorphic processes, coercive, mimetic and normative, were observed at various stages in the organisations in this study.

**Coercive isomorphic pressure** is evidenced in all three of the case sports organisations in this study. Coercive isomorphism results from pressures exerted by other institutions such as regulatory authorities (Di Maggio & Powell 1983). All sporting organisations funded by the ASC are required to comply with and display commitment to government initiatives such as *Play by the Rules*; funding may be withdrawn for non-compliance. *Play by the Rules* promotes fairness to all in sport. Analysis of organisational documents (Appendix 5.4) and websites confirmed that not all organisations fulfilled the ‘display’ requirements stipulated by the ASC; enforcement by the ASC was not tested in this study.

As outlined in the review of government directives in chapter two, the Australian Government (represented by the ASC) has been instrumental in directing change in sporting organisations towards greater accountability and improved governance practices. The then Minister for Sport in Australia, Kate Lundy, addressed the UN Women Australia Rugby Lunch in August 2012 on her return from the 2012 Olympics and stressed that improved governance practice and greater representation of women in sports management and governance was a priority for the government and Australia. Improvement in the athletic success rate at future Olympic games is an expected outcome of better-quality sports management and governance (Lundy 2012). It was noted by Minster Lundy that several Olympic level sports do not have any female representation on their boards. Sport3 was noted by the Minister in her speech as one of the Olympic sports that does not have a woman on its national sporting organisation board.

The reported new direction for Australian sport, *Australian Sport: The Pathway to Success*, was released by the government in 2010. A key element of that strategy is:
a commitment to inclusive sports strategies and programs, focused on breaking down barriers for women, people with disability and Indigenous Australians (Department of Health & Ageing 2010).

Most directors interviewed in this study indicated that their organisation supports government initiatives and that government oversight and influence is a critical issue in sport governance today. The board’s responsibility towards implementing government initiatives, however, has now been devolved to the paid staff. It was noted by some directors that the board is only involved in enacting a government initiative if a matter of corporate governance is involved.

It was previously noted in the findings chapters that two of the directors interviewed work in state departments of sport and recreation and that they both indicated they felt that lack of board member understanding of the connection between government and sport organisations was one of their major concerns in their work environment. The compliance, or lack thereof, with government initiatives can be seen as an indicator of how coercive isomorphic pressures are applied to sports organisations and how the organisations respond.

Other coercive influences were evident in two of the case study sports. The merger of the separate male and female associations that has taken place in two of the sports in this study resulted from support and funding imperatives imposed by the ASC and to a lesser extent the IOC. The ASC and the IOC have indicated that they will only support a sport that is governed by a single unitary body. A male director in NSO1 indicated that the IOC will bring sanctions against any sport that is represented by single sex organisations. A female director in NSO1 said that it is well understood that the ASC will only support unitary sporting bodies, but that she had not seen this directive committed to writing. Minister Lundy, in her August 2012 speech, indicated that funding may need to be directly tied to gender representation on sports boards (2012). This strengthens the present requirement, where the government will only fund a single unified sporting body, to one where a gender representation target, or a quota, must be met before funding becomes available. Several directors noted that linking funding directly to gender targets, as has been done in the United Kingdom, could be a way to ensure
compliance with the gender equity initiatives that have been proposed by government enquiries over the last decade.

A response to proposed coercive influences was also apparent. The ASC has alluded to the introduction of a ‘peak body’ model for sport in Australia. Several directors discussed this development. A male director in Sport3 noted that some state bodies in Sport3 have already established the corporate entity that will govern the ‘group’ of allied sports that will come under the ‘peak body’ umbrella. There was no written directive from the ASC for this restructure proposal at the time of this study. Preparatory steps are being taken by some sporting organisations as it has been implied during peak body meetings with ASC representatives that funding will be linked to the new model. The single unitary body model for sporting organisations that is now in place in all Australian sporting organisations funded by the ASC was not perceived to be a model to promote gender equity; it was seen as an efficiency enhancement model. The proposed ‘peak body’ model is also mooted as a model to promote organisational efficiency.

**Mimetic isomorphic** pressures come from groups within the NSOs and SSOs who are interested in mimicking the sports that are rewarded. Organisations seek legitimacy as they operate under uncertain conditions; imitation results as a reaction to uncertainty (Di Maggio & Powell 1983). A sports organisation is rewarded when they achieve increased player participation and greater financial support; increased player participation leads to greater financial reward from players and sponsors, but mainly from government.

*We all compete for players from the same limited supply of people; playing sport is expensive so people will not take on too many different sports* (A female director, Sport1, state organisation, D1FSSO1-1).

The uncertain conditions under which sporting organisations operate result in actions being taken that will protect their player base, guarantee their funding to the extent possible and advance their reputation and their social standing.

Most directors interviewed noted the need to ‘watch’ other sports so that behaviours witnessed that are considered damaging to the reputation of sports could be avoided. All directors interviewed commented on the professional football codes and how improper
behaviours observed through high visibility press coverage were to be avoided. Gender was an issue in discussions around this subject; the discriminatory treatment and violence by sportsmen against women is still a high profile issue in the sporting world more generally.

It was observed when conducting the initial environmental scan for the study that Sport2 was the last of the government funded sporting bodies to merge its separate male and female associations. No newer national sporting organisations, that is, those appearing for the first time on the register of national sporting organisations in 2011, have been established as separate male and female associations (for example, the Australian Karate Federation and the Bocce Federation of Australia). The accepted ‘norm’ for a national or state level sporting organisation structure is now one single unitary governing body for each sport. It is of interest to note that the two new national sporting organisations given as examples, above, have no women on their boards. The practice adopted by Sport1 and Sport2 of having a constitutional gender clause has not been mimicked by ‘newer’ organisations.

**Normative isomorphic** pressures are witnessed as sports organisations adopt the same organisational form, that is, corporatised structures with professional staff. Normative isomorphism is a result of professionalisation (Di Maggio & Powell 1983). Information obtained from organisational documents and interviews indicate that the network of professional staff is highly mobile between the sports.

*We only have a small staff, they change frequently; there is only a limited pool to choose from* (A Female director, Sport3, state organisation, D1FSSO3-4).

As staff move from one organisation to another they take habitualised, objectified and even sedimented behaviours with them. Board members are also mobile between different sporting organisations. Several of the board members in this study had served on boards in other sports and on boards or committees at different levels (for example, local club, regional or district level) of this current sport. Several studies have examined the increasing professionalisation of sporting organisations, as discussed in chapter two. As organisations become more professionalised the members of those organisations define the method and conditions under which their work is performed. As discussed in chapter three the individuals
in these organisations become almost indistinguishable. Several of the interview respondents discussed the issue of the increasing incidence of paid staff who have sports management qualifications, another indicator of the increasing level of professionalisation within sports organisations. Board members interviewed across all three case study sports indicated that the board is usually not involved in recruitment of organisational staff; that task is now performed by the paid CEO of each organisation.

The corporatising of the organisational form is also a normalising organisational practice. Corporatised organisations must comply with the Corporations Law. This compliance may also be seen as a coercive influence that is driving the change to ensure board members have relevant skills. Some board members interviewed in this study had been recruited specifically for their skills in law. Several of the constitutions examined now explicitly state qualification requirements for board members.

The adoption of ASC standard policy templates is another example of how mimetic and normative isomorphic influences are shaping the continually changing sport management landscape. As was evident when the initial document scan was conducted, sporting organisations generally, as well as the organisations in this study, are becoming more homogenised as a result of adopting a standardised template. They have the same (or very similar) policy set, they are conforming to standards set by others (the ASC), and they are becoming more bureaucratised in order to make gains in efficiency and comply with social expectations and government regulations.

The instances of isomorphic pressure observed were affirmed by the survey, interview results and examination of organisational documents and policies. Most organisations in this study demonstrate a commitment to gender equity through policy and constitutional commitment. The members of the boards in this study demonstrate a rhetorical commitment to gender equity, but most board members think there is still much work to be done in this area. Changes in the composition and the broad functional role of the boards to encompass a more strategic focus significantly contribute to the changes occurring in sports governance. Even though there is evidence of support for gender equity there is little proof that having a significant representation of women on sports boards has become fully institutionalised.
8.3.5 The argument for a gendered or feminist institutionalism.

Institutional theory, as demonstrated in the discussion above and in the reported findings in the previous chapters, provides an explanatory approach for understanding institutions. For instance, it can help to explain why the sporting organisations in this study have changed their governance structures to employ the ‘best person’ for the job, why some of the organisations merged their separate male and female associations, why they have adopted constitutional mandates for gender representation and why they have adopted particular policy and processes around diversity initiatives, recruitment and professionalisation of staff. But feminists are aware that the viewpoint of the dominant group, in this case males (McKay 1997), “permeates the common knowledge of how society should function and has obscured the true interests of other groups” (Hill 2003, p 130). Because women are an ‘other group’ they need to establish ways for more effectively entering the social choice process, that is, they need to be able to shape social institutions so they can advance their own welfare. This involves a redistribution of power (Hill 2003). However meaningful change in the distribution of power has usually been met with strong resistance (Hill 2003). The advancement of disadvantaged groups, for instance women in senior management or governance positions, is not only dependent on broad historical trends; it is also dependent on whether the institutional framework that may resolve conflict on their behalf truly advances the groups’ interests (Hill 2003). In this instance, whether a gendered sporting organisation can advance the interest of women who seek to undertake a governance role.

Institutional theory however does not explicitly recognise the gendered nature of organisations (Kenny & Mackay 2009; Krook & Mackay 2010; Mackay & Meier 2003). To say that an institution is gendered is to say that the constructions of masculinity and femininity are entangled in the daily culture of the institution (Mackay et al. 2010). Constructions of masculinity and femininity are present in institutions but the masculine model underpins institutional structures, practices and norms (Mackay et al. 2010). A theory that recognises that organisations are gendered because of deeply sedimented institutionalised elements that structure “patterns of distributional advantage” (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 16) can better explain why men are still advantaged over women in senior management and
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governance positions in organisations. A gendered or feminist institutionalism, as discussed in chapter three, will do a better job of accounting for these disadvantages than the usual business case and social justice approaches to these issues.

As noted by the Feminist International Institutionalist Network (FIIN) the last two to three decades have born witness to rapid institutional change (Mackay & Meier 2003), including moves towards marketisation in many European nations, the increasing wealth creation in countries such as China and some South America nations, and the attendant challenges to state sovereignty. The increasing institutional complexity “has led to a reconceptualization of government to governance and experimentation with new forms of ‘rowing’ and steering’ to deliver public policy objectives” (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 1).

The Australian context has witnessed the increasing professionalisation and politicisation of many previously amateur and volunteer based institutions; the sporting organisations in this study are a case in point. Previous research has shown that political and social institutions are gendered and that demands for gender equality have “become part of broader political discourses of democracy and modernisation” (Mackay & Meier 2003, p 2). The FIIN reports that gender concerns are being successfully incorporated into on-going processes of institutional change and reform across many countries. The question can be raised though as to whether such an entanglement of institutional change and reform with ‘gender issues’ will produce any greater changes in ‘gender balance’ in the workplace than did previous introductions of equal opportunity or affirmative action legislation. The core concern is the sedimented deeply entrenched nature of male dominance in senior management and governance positions, and how to create a lasting, sedimented, fully institutionalised acceptance of women’s equality in these top echelons in the workplace.

Women have been active agents for change in bringing about increased female representation on sports boards and in sports management more broadly, even though women still remain under-represented overall. Women have campaigned strongly to achieve better representation in sports management and governance and this is evident in the submissions made to government in the recent enquiries into sport reported in chapter two. Constitutional recognition of gender in sports organisations is limited, but constitutional reform is
understood to be one method by which greater recognition of gender equality can be institutionalised (Mackay & Meier 2003).

Having other institutional practices that do not discriminate against women is also crucial and workplace laws in Australia mandate that non-discriminatory practices are adopted. Diversity policy and practice, as previously discussed, can often be conceived of as mere window dressing with little real institutional commitment towards achieving the desired outcome. Deeply sedimented practice resurfaces and over-rides the more newly introduced one. Institutional design is seen as an important variable in accounting for inconsistency of success of gender equality initiatives (Mackay & Meier 2003). Gender and the lack of women in sport as participants and more recently in sports management and governance, is an area of increasing concern and scrutiny as demonstrated by the plethora of government enquiries around these issues, the on-going emphasis placed on the increased need for greater corporate accountability, and the increased demand for more effective governance processes and practice.

Incorporating feminist or gender concerns into mainstream institutional theory allows for the recognition of the role of power and state in institutions. The tools that have been used in feminist analyses in the past can be applied to future analysis of institutions. The role of power and women’s historical lack of organisational power can be embedded as an understood organisational field that is recognised in studies that examine institutional change processes. If it is to be understood how and why organisations became the way they are and how and why they continue to change it must be recognised that male dominance of institutions has led to deeply entrenched practices that are difficult to change. Even when new practices are introduced by way of mandated constitutionally enforceable policies and practice, the symbolic normative demands that the organisation has conformed to over a lengthy period of time may impede the acceptance and entrenchment of newer structures.
8.4 How do women pursue what is of value to them, and achieve success, in the institutionalised environment of national sporting organisations in Australia?

While a gendered or feminist institutional theory explains many of the mechanisms that shape women’s success, or lack of success, in obtaining and retaining positions of power in sporting organisations, not all of the choices made by individuals in an organisation can be explained by a theory that describes how institutions operate.

8.4.1 The capabilities approach

Many institutional mechanisms that have been enacted, such as anti-discrimination policies, aim to facilitate women’s equal access to senior posts in organisations (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). Underpinning much of the existing discussion around equity and achievement is the assumption, discussed in chapter three, that success is an agreed upon measure. The ultimate career success, as discussed in chapter two, is widely accepted to be the achievement of a board position (Sheridan & Milgate 2003). Cornelius and Skinner (2008, p 141), suggest that at least for some, “failure to achieve positions at the highest levels represents choice rather than repression”. The opportunity to exercise this choice will only occur though if the surrounding environmental factors, such as community or broader societal issues, operate to allow the free exercise of individual choice (Cornelius & Skinner 2008) and decisive preferences (Pettit 2000).

Studies that adopt a purely normative institutional approach define individual behaviours as being directed by the norms and values of the organisation. Individual actors do not undertake strategic behaviours, therefore their actions do not dictate the organisation’s strategic direction; the organisation influences individual behaviours (Peters 1999). Studies that adopt a purely rational choice institutional perspective define institutional actors as self-interested strategic calculators whose strategic interactions and collective actions influence emerging institutions; under this approach individual actions can and do affect institutional outcomes (Jonsson & Tallberg 2005; Peters 1999). A determination as to which is the dominant influence, institutional norms and values or individual strategic calculation, is not definitively decided upon in existing research. The conclusions or recommendations made depend on which theoretical lens has been applied. If there is a reality where women (and
men) are able to exercise choice, and are not being directed by institutional norms and values when deciding whether to serve on a board of directors, then adopting a different approach or perspective, rather than a purely institutional gaze, may provide a better understanding of what is really happening (Cornelius & Skinner 2008). The capabilities approach or perspective, as discussed in chapter three, offers a way of assessing inequality from a different assumptive structure: what matters ethically is whether a person is freely able to fully function, and to be or do what is truly of value to them (Cornelius & Skinner 2008; Lortie-Lussier & Rinfret 2005; Nussbaum 2000; Robeyns 2003; Sen 1982). The adoption of the capabilities perspective does not occur in isolation. The perspective is not a stand-alone approach, it needs to be layered with an explanatory theory such as institutional theory (Robeyns 2003; 2005). The discussion in this section weaves institutional considerations with the capabilities approach.

Given the assumptions of the capabilities approach, it is possible to recognise that people in the modern workplace, supported by the raft of equal opportunity legislation and policy and practice development designed to eliminate discrimination against women, may be exercising free choice when they choose not to take on a particular workplace position or perform a particular workplace task. The capabilities approach is concerned, ethically speaking, with both ‘ends’ and ‘means’ (Cornelius & Skinner 2008; Robeyns 2003). Freedom of equality is concerned with access to opportunity and also with whether individuals have been enabled to convert ‘goods’ thereby becoming enabled to achieve what is of value to them (Cornelius & Skinner 2008; Sen 1997). For example, if a physically disabled person has the qualifications to work as a systems analyst but is unable to perform this role because they cannot access the office space where this work is performed (lack of an elevator or other appropriate physical access considerations), then this person has equality of opportunity (at the level where they are qualified to do the work), but not freedom of opportunity (there are physical barriers that prevent this person from accessing the workplace). In this case the person in question has the ends to perform the job but not the means. This same analysis may be applied to women in the workplace and a significant body of research (as discussed in chapters two) has highlighted that women now have the ends to participate equally in the workplace (for example, education and experience) but the means often remain elusive (there are barriers that prevent them attaining positions of power in the workplace).
The findings in this study indicate that individuals make decisions as to whether they will serve on a board that are not explained by the application of an institutional lens. Both men and women make lifestyle choices. They individually, or with family members, make choices as to whether they will work, what social activities they will undertake and what volunteer or charity type roles they will take on. Both the men and women in this study indicated that their decision to serve on the board was a matter of personal choice. There were institutional and societal conventions that were still apparent (in regard to male domination of work and sports organisations), but they did not consider that these outweighed the importance of, or their ability to exercise, personal choice in making the decision. As previously discussed in chapter seven, some male directors considered it more difficult for men to commit to undertaking volunteer board positions, but the overall consensus was that it is more difficult for women to undertake such activities as the responsibility for family care still rests with women. The opinion was expressed by several interviewees that a conscious choice is made by women to sacrifice their time for such activities (board or committee work), and that the decision to undertake such activities is now a choice women are free to make; there is an ability to do what is of value to them, both the ends and the means exist. While women may be making a decisive choice to serve on a board they may not be able to exercise a decisive preference. Indirect liberty is relevant in the exercise of decisive preference. Pettit (2000, p 17) provides this example: a police action prevents a crime occurring and serves an individual’s liberty well (the individual is prevented from being mugged), but the control is not exercised by the individual, it is exercised by the police (from Sen 1983, p 19). Being free to make this choice, to serve on a board, is helped by the action of others, as was pointed out by Sen and Pettit in the previous example of individual liberty. Sen (1983) contends that it is a mistake to think of achievements only in terms of the active choice an individual makes. Public action and policy greatly enhances and expands capability and the ability to apply decisive preference.

As previously discussed, in Sport1 and Sport2 there is a constitutional gender clause that ensures women can and do stand for board positions. In Sport3 there is no constitutional gender clause. The national board and some state boards in this sport have no women on their boards. Without a coercive mechanism the newer organisational field (gender balance) is not objectified, it is a habituated practice with a low level of institutionalisation. Individuals are free to make the choice to stand for election to the board, but sedimented institutional
practices may deter them from making this choice. The response received from one female
director in Sport1: “if election to the board had been a competitive process I would not have
stood”, may be indicative of this phenomenon. In chapter seven it was noted that this female
director indicated that she had exercised individual choice when deciding to go onto the
board. Female Director1 NSO1 had the qualifications to stand for a board position and she
had the freedom of opportunity to exercise a choice to stand for election. Her freedom of
choice was enhanced by the constitutional gender clause that specifies a number of women on
the board. The organisational barrier of entrenched male domination of boards had been
removed. Without that positive discrimination the female director indicated that she would
not have stood for the position. Such a choice, to stand for election in a non-competitive
process, indicated an underlying knowledge that the traditional competitive board election
process is biased towards men (the female director acknowledged this). The female director
also acknowledged that some people, in her opinion particularly women, make a choice to
avoid competitive processes completely. Their ability to apply decisive preference is curtailed
by the institutional framework; they may make a decisive choice but institutional forces still
impede preference.

Recent research from the Kellogg School of Management at Northwestern University
proposes that the common American assumption that behaviour is a product of personal
choice fosters the belief that there are equal opportunities for men and women and that
gender is no longer a barrier in the workplace of today (Stephens & Levine 2011). Stephens
and Levine’s research indicates that women are ‘opting out’ of the workforce with the belief
that they are making this choice to satisfy their own needs, to raise children, care for the
elderly and attend to other family commitments. When statistics about gender inequality in
the workplace (Stephens & Levine’s study examined business, politics, law and
science/engineering workplaces) were evaluated the bias against women and/or the societal
and workplace factors that inhibit women from reaching senior management positions were
not recognised by the women in the study. The women in the study were convinced they had
made a choice not influenced by anything other than the fulfilment of their own desires
(Stephens & Levine 2011). This study was not conducted using the capabilities approach, but
the concept that people are free to choose what and how they undertake work is an
increasingly reported phenomenon (Stephens & Levine 2011). Under the capabilities
approach the ‘opportunity to improve knowledge and work where accomplishment was valued’ (Cornelius & Skinner 2008, p S144) was important to the majority of senior women in that study.

The findings of the present study indicate that the women who had attained a board position were fulfilling a role which they valued. Many of the women in Sport1 and Sport2 recognised that they had obtained the role because of the changes to the constitution. Both men and women interviewed acknowledged that there was still resistance to the merged organisational form (in Sport1 and Sport2) and that there were still men who would be happy not to be required to have women in the organisation. Men and women on all the boards in this study supported gender equity initiatives and the changes to policy and practice that have taken place in their organisations. They also acknowledged that more work needs to be done to embed gender equity into their organisations.

At the individual level the capabilities approach may be used to explain how and why people make a choice to serve on a board. It is a role or function that is of importance to them and they can undertake this role or function in a manner that enforces their personal values and beliefs; they can exercise their preference towards undertaking the role or function. Studies that have applied institutional theory have explained that organisations can evolve over time with embedded deeply sedimented practices that do not reflect the beliefs or practices of the current individual actors. If individuals choose to undertake, or not to undertake, a particular role (for example, become a board member) in an organisation that has deeply sedimented practices (for example, male domination of particular roles or functions), then individual behaviours may be the result of adaptive preferences.

When women claim that they choose not to serve on a board (for various reasons) they may have developed what Sen (1990) and Nussbaum (1995) label adaptive preferences. Deprived groups, including women deprived of senior management and board positions in organisations, lower their demands; their range of demands is narrowed by their experiences that have been shaped by the mechanisms of disadvantage. This phenomenon is observable in the sports organisations in this study. Several female directors expressed the opinion that women still see themselves as lacking in the skills required to undertake board work even
though broader statistical data would indicate that this is not the case. One female director in Sport2 indicated that she had tried to encourage other women in her organisation (at club level) to stand for election to the state level board. She had offered mentoring and training for several women, but she reported that they felt they simply did not have the confidence to stand for such a position. The female director stated that she thought several women in her club had the ability to stand for board positions. This lack of confidence or ambition is a result of women adapting their preferences to a lower standard. This standard is one that complies with a broader societal understanding of a woman’s ‘place’ that has not yet been fully displaced by the view that men and women are equal in capability.

8.5 Recommendations
This study was designed to examine the influences that affect women’s representation on boards of governance in selected Australian sporting organisations. Institutional theory was applied to the findings of a survey, interviews and document analysis. The findings indicate that sporting organisations in Australia have gone through, and continue to go through, a process of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation. Deeply sedimented organisational practices such as male domination of board positions remain despite policy and practice changes designed to increase the representation of women in senior management and governance positions. Many changes have resulted from coercive influences. Government initiatives have been a significant factor in directing change, but the directives that point to the need for increased female participation in sports management and governance are only slowly gaining traction in the organisations studied and have not become fully sedimented in a fully institutionalised environment. Policies and proposals designed to achieve social change are difficult to implement if institutional power favours one group over another.

The adoption of a feminist or gendered institutional theory, as proposed by the FIIN, provides a better explanation as to why women remain under-represented or disadvantaged in institutionalised settings such as Australian sporting organisations. There is a growing political advocacy around the under-representation of women in senior management and board positions and there is a developing promotion and institutionalisation of gender equality as a social and political goal by the increasing number of women in the workforce.
Women are slowly gaining traction in senior management and board positions and, as they do, they in most instances continue to promote the de-institutionalisation of entrenched male domination (Mackay et al. 2010). The early work on gender and institutions identified causal effects at the macro level, that is, in the structure of the patriarchy (Mackay et al. 2010). The institutional or organisational level causes were not identified. Feminist research moved on to identify that power operates through institutions (shifting from a focus on universal power structures) and that institutions and organisations are gendered (Mackay et al. 2010). Analysing institutional advantage and disadvantage can provide descriptions of the continual disadvantage women face in achieving senior management or board positions in organisations. But it is only when power and the state are brought back into mainstream institutional theory, as can be done when a feminist or gendered perspective is added, that the possible reasons for the persistence of inequality and exclusionary practices experienced in institutionalised settings can be more fully explained.

Overlaying a feminist or gendered institutional theory with the capabilities approach provides a more comprehensive explanation of the issues. Social power is exercised largely through institutions (Hill 2003, p 117) and applying an approach that views institutional power, individual freedom and capability and the gendered nature of organisations is achieved by utilising compatible theoretical lenses: institutional theory and the capabilities approach. The compatible elements of these two theoretical constructs support the development of a feminist or gendered institutionalism. The capability approach addresses the effect of social institutions on human capability and the institutional lens allows for the democratisation of the capabilities approach (Hill 2003). Institutional theory provides us with organisational explanations; the individual is often perceived to act only in accord with institutionalised practice. Adopting a capabilities approach allows for examination of an individual’s decisions. A person may act to fulfil ideas or perceptions of what is of value to them under the capabilities approach. This understanding enables an acknowledgment that some decisions may be made outside the institutionalised influence of sedimented organisational practice. Whether such a decision is made in full knowledge, with decisive preferences, and without adaptive preferences is difficult to establish.
Sporting organisations in Australia display policy and practice that commits them to gender equity and fairness for all. Gender equity needs to achieve a high level of institutionalism if it is to become fully sedimented in Australian sporting organisations. This can be achieved if the boards of these organisations know whether their policy and practice is being effectively implemented. Regular review of policy effectiveness needs to be undertaken. All education, training and recruitment programs should be systematically monitored and evaluated for possible gender bias. Divergence in expectation, confidence, learning preferences and leadership styles between male and female participants as well as gender differences in outcomes need to be understood. Programme modifications and policy changes can then be made to effect lasting change. Establishing a mechanism to do this requires board commitment and staff compliance. At this point in time there is no evidence that gender equity is becoming objectified or sedimented in sporting organisations. Opinion was expressed by the studies respondents that the focus in sporting organisations is moving away from gender issues, towards broader issues of player conduct and diversity.

Women may be exercising choice and undertaking roles, such as becoming a board member, that are of value to them, but it is evident that some women still display adaptive preferences and ‘make the choice’ that board work is not for them. The deeply sedimented institutionalised practice of male domination of senior management and board roles is still an issue in sports governance. This leads to the conclusion that gender is a factor in sports organisations in Australia. Many respondents to this study claimed that generational change would deal with gender as an issue in sports governance. Several directors in the study and the Australian Federal Minister for Sport recommended in August 2012 that funding may need to be directly tied to gender representation on sports boards (2012). Results from research performed in the United Kingdom (Shaw & Penney 2003) indicates that this is an effective mechanism for affecting change. A mechanism that fully sediments gender equity into Australian sporting organisations is required.

The delivery method/s for these changes need to suit the management and governance environment in sporting organisations, but changes can be made to reflect modern practices. Modern media may be utilised more effectively; for example, the use of teleconferencing for board meetings and training sessions removes the physical barriers that were sometimes cited
as reasons why women (and men) find it difficult to participate in board meetings and training sessions. Ensuring women perform mentor and trainer roles will increase the visibility of women in senior management and board roles. It is critical that a pipeline of women is established, as changed board recruitment practices will enable women to move from paid staff positions into the board room and allow women (and men) to be appointed to positions for their expertise and skill set, not because they are an athlete or a member of the sporting organisation.

8.6 Limitations of the study

There are several limitations to any research effort of this type. Limitations were recognised at the start of the endeavour and were reported at the beginning of this thesis. The limitations identified at the completion of the study are detailed as follows.

This study was based on three organisations that were selected because they demonstrated a commitment to gender equity on their boards through constitutional directive and policy. The player base and participation rates were also fairly equal. Organisations which have a player base that is either male or female dominated, a less equal player base, or either a male or female dominated board structure, may produce different opinions and results.

A broader set of organisations across a greater number of sports would provide a greater depth for any future study. Access difficulties meant that the data set, while comprehensive in depth because of the variety of data collection methods used, was smaller than may be considered optimal. Sporting organisations are notorious for being difficult to access (Shaw 2006) and this proved to be the situation in this study.

Finally, in any qualitative research there is a potential for researcher bias. The researcher has an avid interest in understanding why women remain under-represented in senior management and governance positions. The researcher’s own perception as to how disadvantaged or discriminated against women have been in the workplace may have influenced the level of understanding of the problem. These negative biases were overcome.
by the researcher’s own editing and review and the regular critique and feedback from other parties that helped eliminate researcher bias. Any bias highlighted to the researcher in posing questions or interpretation of answers given was reported in the findings chapters.

8.7 Avenues for future research

Results from this study could foster further research into sports boards, in the organisations examined in this study, and in other sporting organisations. For example, further research is needed to test whether newly habitualised board structures, that is, those with more equitable female participation rates and those with non-elected, non-member board appointments, become objectified and/or sedimented in a fully institutionalised organisational structure. Research is also needed to determine if a more gender equitable distribution of coaching and player development roles is achieved and if the stated aims/goals in many of the strategic plans analysed, that is, to enhance gender equity, are pursued.

Further research is also needed to establish the effectiveness of organisational policy. The organisations in this study have adopted ASC policy around the issues of child protection and the broadening of emphasis on issues of diversity in sporting organisations. Whether these policy changes are mere window dressing or whether they lead to real organisational change needs to be tested as previous experience, demonstrated in the literature review in chapter two, shows that recommendations for change are often documented but not enacted, that is, they do not become fully institutionalised. The audit on compliance with the Play by the Rules initiative carried out in this study could be extended to a more comprehensive audit of compliance with ASC policy initiatives and promotional directives. It would appear from the results in this study that sports organisations either do not know about, or do not pay particular attention to, some of the directives put forward by the ASC to promote fairness and equity for all in sport. A more detailed study may provide valuable information for the ASC, NSOs and SSOs to ensure resources expended to promote sport are more effectively utilised. Likewise the analysis of the gender distribution of roles for paid sport organisation staff that was performed in this study could be carried out in greater depth and across other sports organisations. The results could inform sports organisations, the ASC and governments on equity and diversity outcomes and deliver source data for the development of new policy in
the areas of equity and diversity in sports administration and governance. Research into the next wave of de-institutionalisation and re-institutionalisation of sporting organisations into a ‘peak body’ model will also need to be undertaken to develop further understandings of how institutionalisation processes shape sporting institutions and which isomorphic pressures direct those processes.

Developing an understanding of how and why a person makes the choice to serve as a volunteer board member may be better understood by adopting a different research approach. In this study there was limited direct contact with board members; a different methodological approach, using more participatory data collection methods, for example in-depth interviews over time, would allow individual perceptions to be better understood.
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Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?


Department of Family, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs 2008, *Chapter 1 Demographics*, FAHCSIA, Australian Government, Canberra, Date Accessed 15 December 2010, <http://www.google.com.au/#hl=en&rlz=1WITSHN_enAU316&sclient=psy-ab&q=women+50.3+percent+of+australian+population&rlz=1WITSHN_enAU316&oq=wo men+50.3+percent+of+australian+population&gs_l=hp.3.33i21.3595.13510.0.13675.43.37.0>


Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?


Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?


Gherardi, S 1994, ‘The gender we think, the gender we do in our everyday organisational lives’, *Human Relations*, vol. 47, no. 11, pp 591-610.


Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?


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Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?


Hughes, KE 1997, Contemporary Australian Feminism, Addison Wesley Longman Australia Pty Limited.


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Mackay, F 2008, ‘Roundtable: ‘Feminism and Institutionalism: promising synthesis or another case of “master’s tools”’, 1st European Conference on Politics and Gender, Queens’ University, Belfast, 21-23 January 2009.


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Messner, M 2002, Taking the Field: Women, Men, and Sports, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, MN.


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Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?


Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?


Shaw, S & Hoeber, L 2003, ‘“A strong man is direct and a direct woman is a bitch”: Gendered discourses and their influence on employment roles in sport organizations’, Journal of Sport Management, vol. 17, no. 4, pp 347-375.


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Taylor, T 2001, Netball in Australia: A social history. School of Leisure, University of Technology, Sydney, Australia.


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## 10 APPENDICES

### 10.1 Appendix 1.1: Summary of Anti–discrimination, Equity and Affirmative Action Legislation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legislation</th>
<th>Purpose of the legislation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Racial Discrimination Act 1975</em></td>
<td>The Act made it unlawful for anyone to behave in any way that would involve a distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, descent or national or ethnic origin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sex Discrimination Act 1984</em></td>
<td>The Act was designed to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women; to eliminate discrimination against persons on the grounds of sex, marital status, pregnancy or potential pregnancy; to eliminate discrimination involving dismissal of employees on the ground of family responsibilities; to eliminate discrimination involving sexual harassment in the workplace; and to promote recognition and acceptance within the community of the principle of the equality of men and women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Affirmative Action Act 1986</em></td>
<td>The Act was designed to ensure that appropriate action is taken to eliminate discrimination by the employer against women in relation to employment matters. Measures are to be taken by the employer to promote equal opportunity for women in relation to employment matters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission Act 1986</em></td>
<td>The Act requires commissions that are committed to working across levels of government and the community to assist in removing systemic and covert discrimination, where it exists, from being established in each state and territory.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Equal Employment Opportunity (Commonwealth Authorities) Act 1987**

The Act requires certain incorporated and unincorporated Commonwealth Government bodies to develop and implement an equal employment opportunity (EEO) program that is designed to ensure that appropriate action is taken to eliminate discrimination and to promote equal opportunity for women and persons in designated groups in relation to employment matters.

**Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Act 1991**

The Act was extended from the 1986 Act to specifically include religion.

**Disability Discrimination Act 1992**

The Act was developed to eliminate, as far as possible, discrimination against persons on the ground of disability in a number of areas including work. People with disabilities are to have the same fundamental rights to equality before the law as the rest of the community.

**Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act 1999**

This Act requires certain employers to promote equal opportunity for women in employment. The Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency (EOWA) was established and the office of the Director of EOWA.

**Age Discrimination Act 2004**

The Act was introduced to eliminate discrimination against people on the ground of age in various areas, including work. Everyone, regardless of age, has the same fundamental right to equality before the law as the rest of the community. The Act enables appropriate benefits and other assistance to be given to people of a certain age, particularly younger and older persons, in recognition of their particular circumstances. The ability to respond to demographic change is enabled by removing barriers to older people participating in society, particularly in the workforce, and to change negative stereotypes about older people.
Age Discrimination Act 2004 (2011)

The Act has been strengthened since it was passed in 2004. In 2008 the “dominant reason test” was removed from the Act. This means that a person simply needs to establish that age was “a reason” for less favourable treatment being received. In 2010 legislation was passed to create the statutory office of an Age Discrimination Commissioner. The first Australian Age Discrimination Commissioner, the Hon. Susan Ryan, was appointed in July 2011.
10. 2 Appendix 4.1: Document Collection

The following table contains a list of the documents collected for each organisation in the study. Most documents were collected in hard copy, but some due to their size, were stored electronically or read directly from the organisation/s web site.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.1</th>
<th>Documents retrieved (2010)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2004-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport Census Summary – 2007-2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-1 (NSW)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competition Regulation and Dispute Guide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender Equity Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pregnancy Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alcohol Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lightning Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2005-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-2 (Vic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Conduct for Community Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2007-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-3 (Qld)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Constitution</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2005-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Protection Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Governance Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appointment Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Human Resources Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Codes of Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mixed Gender Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-4 (Tas)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Report 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Website links broken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-5 (SA)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>News from the board</th>
<th>Annual Reports 2007-2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO1-6 (WA)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Board Minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Committee Conflict of Interest Protocol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anti-discrimination &amp; Harassment Policy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2005-2009</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Territory Association Documents</th>
<th>Constitutions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plans</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NSO2</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Policy</td>
</tr>
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<td>Gender Policy</td>
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<td>Annual Report 2008</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>SSO2-1 (NSW)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Report 2009</td>
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<td>Code of Conduct</td>
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<thead>
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<th>SSO2-2 (Vic)</th>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>VGA - Constitution</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VGA Annual Reports (Access restricted to members)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>WGA Code of Conduct</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Joint Statement Equal Opportunity &amp; Anti-Discrimination</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO2-3 (Qld)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Board Committee Policy</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2008-2009</td>
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| SSO2-4 (Tas)                     | General Association information |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO2-5 (SA)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Player Code of Conduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection – Junior Players</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affiliated Social Club Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Report 2009-2010</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Annual Report 2008-2009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<th>Constitution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>WXA Policy Manual</td>
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<td></td>
<td>WXA Annual Report 2009</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
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<td>Amalgamation News</td>
<td>WXA Strategic Plan</td>
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<td>NSO3</td>
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<td>Oceania Sw Association Constitution (2)</td>
<td>By-Laws</td>
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<td>Member Welfare Policy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Member Welfare Procedures (not printed)</td>
<td>Behavioural Guidelines</td>
</tr>
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<td>Annual Reports 2001-2010</td>
<td>2007-2010 (to Memory)</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSO3-1 (NSW)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-Laws (not printed)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member Protection Policy (Sw.A Policy)</td>
<td>Member Protection Procedures (Sw.A Policy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2000-2010</td>
<td>2010 retrieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-2 (Vic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-Laws</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition by-Laws</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2005-2010</td>
<td>2010 retrieved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-3 (Qld)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-Laws</td>
<td>Policies (adopted Sw.A Pols)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2007-2010</td>
<td>(to memory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-4 (Tas)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td>Strategic Plan 2008-2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of the Board</td>
<td>Sw Tas Policies (volunteer)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2007-2010</td>
<td>(to memory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-5 (SA)</td>
<td>Strategic Plan (not accessible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policies (adopted from Sw.A)</td>
<td>Annual Report 2010 (readable online)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-6 (WA)</td>
<td>Constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan 2010-2015</td>
<td>Board of Management Policies (to memory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board of Management Charter</td>
<td>Annual Reports 2004-2010 (2010 printed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-7 (NT)</td>
<td>Constitution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. 3 Appendix 4.2: Survey Instrument

| Women on boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations:  
Is gender a factor?                      | Survey Questionnaire                     |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your sporting organisation has agreed to participate in the above named study.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The survey questionnaire is intended to obtain updated information related to women on sporting boards including:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- organisational commitment to gender equity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the numbers of women on various sporting boards</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the recruitment process for attaining those positions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the training, development and mentoring opportunities available</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- career path histories</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- the various committee and chair positions held</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please complete the following survey. If you have any queries related to the survey completion please contact me on the following email address: <a href="mailto:aemms@uow.edu.au">aemms@uow.edu.au</a></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The survey is designed to be completed on-line. If you foresee any difficulties in completing this survey online please contact me via email or phone and I will send a hard copy of the survey and a return envelope to you.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs Anne Emms</td>
<td>Ph:02 4221 4991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please complete and submit the survey by May 31, 2011.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the end of the survey is a request to participate in a follow-up interview. Your contact details will be requested if you elect to take part in the interview. Just as with this survey, further participation in the study via an interview is voluntary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results of the survey will be used to complete a doctoral thesis being undertaken at the University of Wollongong. Information may be published at academic conferences and in academic, management and sporting journals. All information provided will remain confidential. The study is being conducted under the supervision of Professor Mary Barrett and Dr Anne Vo in the School of Management and Marketing, at the University of Wollongong.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you encounter any difficulties in completing the required information please contact Anne Emms on (02) 4221 4991.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructions for answering different question types precede each section of the survey.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section of the survey asks you for information about yourself and the board of your sporting organisation. Please complete the following details by printing an answer or ticking the appropriate response:

Name of your organisation:...........................................................................
Position in the organisation: ________________________________  Sex  M  F

Please list any previous positions you have held within this organisation:
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

Please list any other positions you have held in other sporting organisations:
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

Please list any board or executive positions you hold, or have previously held, in non-sporting organisations:
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

Please describe how you obtained your position on the board e.g. appointment after responding to an advertised vacant position, by secondment from another organisation board, by transfer from a related sporting association, or some other way.
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

What qualities do you think were the most important in obtaining a position on the board e.g. educational qualifications, appropriate training, a background in the sport, a mentor who directed you towards the role, knowing someone in the organisation, or something else.
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

Please list any board sub-committees you are a member of in this organisation and your position on that sub-committee:
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

Is your position in the organisation paid or compensated in any way e.g. unpaid but expenses reimbursed.
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

If more space is required for any of the preceding questions please use the space provided at the end of the survey.

The following section of the survey questionnaire is seeking your opinion on various matters. Please indicate (tick) the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I think it is important to have more</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Women on boards in Australian sporting organisations.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>There is a strong perception of a gender gap within my organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My organisation has implemented policy to promote gender equity in its governance structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My organisation has a measurable gender equity objective, e.g. a target percentage for participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Legislating for compulsory gender representation on boards within our organisation is a good idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Different physical capacities in playing my sport seem to be associated with different representations of men and women in the governance of the sport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The governance requirements of my sport allocate very different roles to men and women.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section of the survey addresses recruitment and training issues associated with board appointments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>My sporting organisation actively promotes women into senior management roles, excluding executive and non-executive board roles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>My organisation actively seeks to recruit women into board roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Preferential treatment is given to women when recruiting for a board position in my organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Preferential treatment is given to men when recruiting for a board position in my organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Proven strengths in finance, strategy and corporate governance are critical factors when determining suitability for a board appointment in this organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>My organisation provides training and development for staff to promote their advancement to more senior roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Ongoing training and development activities are essential for board members in this organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The support of a mentor is important for advancement to more senior roles within our organisation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section of the survey addresses issues related to participation on the board in your organisation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Having women on the board has made a difference to the functioning of the board.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Increasing the numbers of women in board positions in my organisation has led to a more diversified decision making environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Increasing the numbers of women in board positions in my organisation has led to a more productive decision making environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Female board members in this organisation participate fully on board sub-committees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Female board members in this organisation participate in financial control and/or oversight functions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Female board members in this organisation have a lot of direct contact with organisational staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Male board members in this organisation have a lot of direct contact with organisational staff.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section of the survey addresses issues relating to regulatory issues that may affect your organisation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>My organisation would consider participating in a gender equity audit. This would include detailing: pay equity, retention rates and return to work rates for women.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>My organisation actively supports initiatives such as “Play by the Rules” as directed by the Australian Sports Commission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>The guiding principles of the Australian government’s new direction for Australian sport: “The Pathway to Success” have been, or will be, adopted by my organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>My organisation lobbies government in relation to changes in the governance of sporting organisations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional Information:
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): 
Is gender a factor?

Please provide, in the space provided below, any additional information for the questions above (insert question number) that you feel is relevant but was not provided for in the space allocated.

Q.....

Q.....

Q.....

Q.....

Q.....
Would you be willing to participate in an interview to follow up the results of this survey and expand upon the issues addressed? (Please circle your response)  

Yes  No

If you indicated YES please complete the following information:

Your Name:  

__________________________________________________________________________________

Your contact details: e.g. phone number, email address.

__________________________________________________________________________________

Your preferred method for communicating with the researcher: e.g. by phone, by email.

__________________________________________________________________________________

You will be contacted by the researcher to arrange a time and place suitable to you for conducting the interview.

You will be fully informed of the aims of the interview and your written consent will be obtained before the interview commences. You may elect to have the interview audiotaped. You may elect not to answer particular interview questions.
questions. Your details, and your organisation’s details, will not be disclosed in any published material resulting from the study. You may choose to withdraw from the study at any time during, or up to one month after, the interview. All information related to you will be withdrawn from the study.

Thank you for your participation
10. 4 Appendix 4.3: Initial email enquiry

The following as an example of the initial email enquiry sent to request support for participation in the research project, this email was sent after an introductory phone call:

To: The Executive Assistant (Sport X)
Subject Header: Invitation to participate in a PhD Study related to women in sports governance.
For example:
Dear (Insert name), (E.A.Sport X), as discussed, would you please forward this request to your board members for their consideration. Thank you again for your assistance.

To: The Chair of the Board
I am writing to invite you, and your board members, to participate in a study being conducted as part of my PhD candidature at the University of Wollongong. The purpose of the research is to investigate what factors influence whether and how women are assisted to take part in the governance of sporting organisations. The research is being supervised by Professor Mary Barrett and Dr Anne Vo and has been reviewed by the Universities Human Research Ethics Committee.

If you are willing to participate in the study you will be asked to fill in an on-line survey questionnaire and elect, if you are willing, to participate in a follow-up interview conducted by me. I am also seeking your assistance to either provide a list of contact details for board members so I may approach them to determine if they are willing to participate in the survey questionnaire or to assist in publicising the study and inviting your board members to participate in the initial survey. Board members willing to participate in a follow-up interview will elect to do so via the survey questionnaire.

All information gathered will remain confidential and will be presented in a doctoral thesis. Publications in academic conferences and journals may also result. All organisational and personal details will remain confidential; codes will be used so that no person or organisation can be individually identified. The data collection phase of the study i.e. the survey questionnaire and interviews would be carried out in April to June 2011. I will make all arrangements to conduct and distribute the survey and conduct the interviews at a time convenient to you and your members.

If you indicate a willingness for SportX Australia to participate in the study all relevant information will be forwarded to you in the first half of 2011.

Thank you for your consideration in this project.

Kind regards
(insert signature)
Anne Emms
PhD student, School of Management & Marketing
University of Wollongong, Ph: XXXXXXX
10.5 Appendix 4.4: Interview Participation Sheet (Survey).

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET
Survey Questionnaire

TITLE: Women on boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH
The purpose of the research is to investigate what factors influence whether and how women take part in the governance of sporting organisations.

INVESTIGATORS
Mrs Anne Emms (Student Researcher)  Professor Mary Barrett (Team Leader)  Dr Anne Vo
Faculty of Commerce  Faculty of Commerce  Faculty of Commerce
02 4221 4991  02 4221 4991  02 4221 3973
aemms@uow.edu.au  mbarrett@uow.edu.au  avo@uow.edu.au

METHOD AND DEMANDS ON PARTICIPANTS
If you choose to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a brief on-line survey questionnaire. Completed survey questionnaires will be stored in locked file storage at the University of Wollongong. Typical statements and/or questions in the survey questionnaire include: I think it is important to have more women on boards in Australian sporting organisations; Does your organisation actively recruit women for board roles? Do you think that mandatory quotas for women on sports boards are required? The survey questionnaire includes an invitation to participate in a follow-up interview of approximately 45-60 minutes duration which will be conducted by a member of the research team.

POSSIBLE RISKS, INCONVENIENCES AND DISCOMFORTS
Possible risks and inconveniences that may arise from this study include the time taken to complete the survey questionnaire. Your involvement in the study is voluntary and the surveys will be coded but it will be possible to identify the information provided by different participants, therefore you will be identifiable to the researchers. As it is likely that people within an organisation will be able to identify individuals from information such as their position within an organisation it is not always completely possible to protect identities. Coding will be used in the reporting of the study findings to identify the organisation and the individual participants but a slight risk remains of personal identification. Accordingly you may withdraw your participation from the study at any time up to one month after the survey has been completed and all data related to you will be withdrawn from the study. Refusal to participate in the study will not affect your relationship with the University of Wollongong.
BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH
This research may provide a basis for future decisions on recruitment practices and gender equity issues associated with board of director appointments and related policy development in sporting organisations in Australia. Findings from the study will be reported in a doctoral thesis and may be published at academic conferences and in academic, management and sporting journals. Confidentiality is assured, and the organisation, you and your staff, will not be identified in any part of the research.

ETHICS REVIEW AND COMPLAINTS
This study has been reviewed by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Social Science, Humanities and Behavioural Science) of the University of Wollongong. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the way this research has been conducted, you can contact the UOW Ethics Officer on (02) 4221 4457 or rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Thank you for your interest in this study.
10. 6 Appendix 4.5: Interview Guide

The following is a guide only as to the questions asked in the follow up interviews. It was considered important for purposes of consistency, and ability to accurately report on the results of the interviews, to follow the order of the questions below wherever possible. This was not possible in all cases; some respondents gave a lengthy introduction to themselves that incorporated responses to several of the questions posed, or in answering one particular question deviated onto answering another question. This is the nature of a semi-structured interview. The respondent’s train of thought will often guide the direction of the questioning.

Consultation: Follow-up Interview Guide.

Introduction:

Today’s consultation is to ascertain if gender is an issue for appointment to, or effective participation on, a board of directors of a national sporting organisation in Australia.

1) Do you believe that your organisation has a role to play in promoting gender equity in the governance of your organisation?
   a. Describe what steps you are taking (if any)?
   b. Do you see government intervention or directives as a factor in any equity initiatives being pursued by your organisation?
   c. Are you aware of other sporting organisations that appear to have more women in senior roles?

2) Does your organisation actively develop policy towards achieving greater equity?
   a. If yes, how effective do you think your organisations affirmative action policies are?

3) What factors do you think have led to differences in male and female representation on your board?

4) Have you undertaken a gender participation audit in your organisation?
   a. This would include:
      a. retention rates of women in your organisation
      b. Return rates
      c. Pay equity

5) Does your organisation actively recruit women for senior roles?

6) Does your organisation actively recruit women for board roles?
7) How do employment practices within your organisation ensure gender equity on the Board of Directors?
   a. Do you externally recruit for all vacant positions
   b. Is there a set of criteria i.e. educational, work experience, field experience etc. that is adhered to when making appointments?

8) Have you ever been aware of direct or indirect preferential treatment for men in recruitment, selection or promotion to positions in sporting organisations?

9) Have you ever been aware of direct or indirect preferential treatment for women in recruitment, selection or promotion to positions in sporting organisations?

10) Have you ever experienced direct or indirect preferential treatment in recruitment, selection or promotion in a sporting organisation?

11) Have you ever been denied advancement in this organisation for any reason?
    a. If yes, what was that reason

12) Have you ever been denied advancement opportunities in another sporting organisation?
    a. If yes, what was the reason?

13) Does your organisation have development initiatives to increase the number of women in the organisation's governance?
    a. If yes, are there associated targets?

14) Do you think mandatory quotas for female representation in sports governance are required?
    a. If yes, why?
    b. If no, why not?

15) Do women hold key ‘decision maker’ roles on your board?

16) Do you feel there is a discernible difference to the functioning of the board since more women have had a place at the table?

17) Are there support mechanisms in place to encourage ongoing training and mentoring for board members in your organisation?

18) Do you feel that a ‘visible’ commitment to gender equity is important for the sporting sector?
10. 7 Appendix 4.6: Interview Participation Sheet (Interviews)

University of Wollongong

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Interviews

TITLE: Women on boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of the research is to investigate what factors influence whether and how women take part in the governance of sporting organisations.

INVESTIGATORS

Mrs Anne Emms (Student Researcher)  Professor Mary Barrett (Team Leader)  Dr Anne Vo
Faculty of Commerce  Faculty of Commerce  Faculty of Commerce
02 4221 4991  02 4221 4991  02 4221 3973
aemms@uow.edu.au  mbarrett@uow.edu.au  avo@uow.edu.au

METHOD AND DEMANDS ON PARTICIPANTS

If you choose to participate in this part of the study, you will be asked to take part in a 45-60 minute interview conducted by a member of the research team. The interview may be audiotaped to create a record of the answers to posed questions and any discussion arising around the issues raised. You may elect not to have the interview audiotaped. If you so choose, a written record of the interview will be completed by the researcher on the basis of notes taken during the interview. You may request to view the completed transcript of your interview. Completed interview transcripts will be stored in locked file storage at the University of Wollongong. Typical questions in the interview include: Do you believe your organisation has a role to play in promoting gender equity in the governance of your organisation? Do you feel there is a discernible difference to the functioning of the board since more women have had a place at the table? Have you ever experienced direct or indirect preferential treatment in recruitment, selection or promotion in a sporting organisation?

POSSIBLE RISKS, INCONVENIENCES AND DISCOMFORTS

Possible risks and inconveniences that may arise from this study include the time taken to conduct the interview, 45-60 minutes. As it is likely that people within an organisation will be able to identify individuals from information such as their position within an organisation it is not always completely possible to protect identities. A code will be used to link interviews to the Consent Form; names will not be recorded on the interview. Coding will be used in the reporting of the study findings to identify the organisation and the individual participants but a slight risk remains of personal identification. Some questions in the interview, relating to discrimination in the workplace, may be considered of a sensitive nature. You may choose not to answer any question posed to you during the interview. Your involvement in the study is voluntary and you may withdraw your participation from the study at any time, and for up to one
month after the interview is conducted. You may also withdraw any data that you have provided to that point. Refusal to participate in the study will not affect your relationship with the University of Wollongong.

BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH
This research may provide a basis for future decisions on recruitment practices and gender equity issues associated with board of director appointments and related policy development in sporting organisations in Australia. Findings from the study will be reported in a doctoral thesis and may be published at academic conferences and in academic, management and sporting journals. Confidentiality is assured, and the organisation, you and your staff will not be identified in any part of the research.

ETHICS REVIEW AND COMPLAINTS
This study has been reviewed by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Social Science, Humanities and Behavioural Science) of the University of Wollongong. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the way this research has been conducted, you can contact the UOW Ethics Officer on (02) 4221 4457 or rso-ethics@uow.edu.au.

Thank you for your interest in this study.
10. 8 Appendix 4.7: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Women on boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

I have been given information about the research project: Women on boards of directors in
Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor? and I have discussed
the research project with Anne Emms who is conducting it as part of a Doctor of Philosophy
supervised by Professor Mary Barrett and Dr Anne Vo in the School of Management at the
University of Wollongong.

I have been advised of the potential risks and burdens associated with this research, which
include the time I will be sacrificing to participate in the study, and I have had an opportunity
to ask Anne Emms any questions I may have about the research and my participation.
I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary, I am free to refuse to
participate and I am free to withdraw from the research at any time. My refusal to participate
or withdrawal of consent will not affect my relationship with the University of Wollongong.

If I have any enquiries about the research, I can contact Professor Mary Barrett (02 4227
4991) or Dr Anne Vo (02 4221 3973), or if I have any concerns or complaints regarding the
way the research is or has been conducted, I can contact the Ethics Officer, Human Research
Ethics Committee, Office of Research, University of Wollongong on 4221 4457 or rso-
ethics@uow.edu.au.

By signing below I am indicating my consent to participate in an interview of about 45-60
minutes duration that will enable the interviewer to collect data about the membership and
activities of the board of my organisation.

I understand that the data collected from my participation will be reported in a doctoral thesis
and may be published at academic conferences and in academic, management and sporting
journals and I consent for it to be used in that manner.
10.9 Appendix 5.1: Codes

The following codes were used to identify the type of sporting organisation, that is, either a national or state level sporting organisation; the sport and the different state or territory that the state sporting organisation represented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO1</td>
<td>Sport1</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation Sport 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-1</td>
<td>Sport1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-2</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-3</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-4</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-5</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-6</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-7</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-8</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 1 State 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSO2</td>
<td>Sport 2</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation Sport 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-1</td>
<td>Sport 2</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 2 State 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-2</td>
<td>Sport 2</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 2 State 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-3</td>
<td>Sport 2</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 2 State 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-4</td>
<td>Sport 2</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 2 State 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO3</td>
<td>Sport 3</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation Sport 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-1</td>
<td>Sport 3</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 3 State 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-2</td>
<td>Sport 3</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 3 State 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-3</td>
<td>Sport 3</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 3 State 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-4</td>
<td>Sport 3</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation Sport 3 State 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following codes were used to identify the interviewees and those directors who provided extra comments in the survey:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Sporting Organisation</th>
<th>Sport and State (if applicable)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D1MNSO1</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>M = Male</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2MNSO1</td>
<td>D2 = Director 2</td>
<td>M = Male</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3MNSO1</td>
<td>D3 = Director 3</td>
<td>M = Male</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4FNSO1</td>
<td>D4 = Director 4</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO1-1</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2FSSO1-1</td>
<td>D2 = Director 2</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO1-2</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2MSSO1-2</td>
<td>D2 = Director 2</td>
<td>M = Male</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO1-4</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO1-5</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1MSSO1-6</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>M = Male</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 1</td>
<td>Sport 1 State 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FNSO2</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>National Sporting Organisation 2</td>
<td>Sport 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO2-1</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>F = Female</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 2</td>
<td>Sport 2 State 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1MSSO2-2</td>
<td>D1 = Director 1</td>
<td>M = Male</td>
<td>State Sporting Organisation 2</td>
<td>Sport 2 State 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D1 = Director 1</th>
<th>F = Female</th>
<th>State Sporting Organisation</th>
<th>Sport</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO2-3</td>
<td>D1FSSO2-4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1MSSO3-1</td>
<td>D2MSSO3-1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1MSSO3-2</td>
<td>D2MSSO3-2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1FSSO3-3</td>
<td>D1FSSO3-4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. 10 Appendix 5.2: Survey Results

The following table contains the percentage response rates to the survey questions received. The analysis was performed using the SurveyMonkey statistical analysis facility provided within the survey software.

Survey questions and response rates:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This section of the survey addresses general opinion on gender equity issues within your organisation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 I think it is important to have more women on boards in Australian sporting organisations.</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 There is a strong perception of a gender gap within my organisation.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 My organisation has implemented policy to promote gender equity in its governance structure.</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 My organisation has a measurable gender equity objective, e.g. a target percentage for participation.</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Legislatung for compulsory gender representation on boards within our organisation is a good idea.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Different physical capacities in playing my sport seem to be associated with different representations of men and women in the governance of the sport.</td>
<td></td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 The governance requirements of my sport allocate very different roles to men and women.</td>
<td></td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This section of the survey addresses recruitment and training issues associated with board appointments.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 My sporting organisation actively promotes women into senior management roles, excluding executive and non-executive board roles.</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>My organisation actively seeks to recruit women into board roles.</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Preferential treatment is given to women when recruiting for a board position in my organisation.</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Preferential treatment is given to men when recruiting for a board position in my organisation.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Proven strengths in finance, strategy and corporate governance are critical factors when determining suitability for a board appointment in this organisation.</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>My organisation provides training and development for staff to promote their advancement to more senior roles.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>On-going training and development activities are essential for board members in this organisation.</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The support of a mentor is important for advancement to more senior roles within our organisation.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section of the survey addresses issues related to participation on the board in your organisation.

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Having women on the board has made a difference to the functioning of the board.</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Increasing the numbers of women in board positions in my organisation has led to a more diversified decision making environment.</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Increasing the numbers of women in board positions in my organisation has led to a more productive decision making environment.</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Female board members in this organisation participate fully on board sub-committees.</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page 277 of 306
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Female board members in this organisation participate in financial control and/or oversight functions.</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Female board members in this organisation have a lot of direct contact with organisational staff.</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Male board members in this organisation have a lot of direct contact with organisational staff.</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This section of the survey addresses issues relating to regulatory issues that may affect your organisation.*

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>My organisation would consider participating in a gender equity audit. This would include detailing: pay equity, retention rates and return to work rates for women.</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>My organisation actively supports initiatives such as <em>“Play by the Rules”</em> as directed by the Australian Sports Commission.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>The guiding principles of the Australian government’s new direction for Australian sport: <em>“The Pathway to Success”</em> have been, or will be, adopted by my organisation.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>My organisation lobbies government in relation to changes in the governance of sporting organisations.</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 5.3: Audit results – Staffing profiles

The following table contains the results of an audit performed on the staffing profile of the organisations, both national and state level, in this study. The information was obtained from the organisations’ websites. The title of each staff position held and whether the position was held by a male or a female was recorded.

Sport Organisation staff numbers/profile: **Sport 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chief Executive</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSO1-1</td>
<td>Commercial Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communications Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing and Sponsorship Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competition Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event &amp; Operations Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Development Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y (PT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance &amp; Administration Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executive Assistant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men’s National Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men’s Assistant Coaches x 3</td>
<td>Y (x3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men’s Operations Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s National Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Assistant Coaches x 3</td>
<td>Y (x2)</td>
<td>Y (x1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s Operations Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Performance Network Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Program Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AIS Programme Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administration Assistant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scholarship Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total staff no.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Male / Female</td>
<td>CEO/Manager = 9</td>
<td>CEO/Manager = 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is notable that a higher number (nine) of the positions titled CEO or manager are held by men, compared to only two positions held by women. The coaching positions do not fall under this classification but, it is also interesting to note that none of the men’s coaching squad are female, whereas most of the women’s coaching squad are male. Some directors noted this in interviews when they commented on the difficulty of obtaining and retaining female coaches. Women hold 29.6 percent of the paid staff positions in NSO1-1.

State Level Organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-1</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Development Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accounts Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>(PT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Services Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communications Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-2</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach and Player Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Services &amp; Administration Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilities Management - Supervisor</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bookings Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duty Supervisors x3</td>
<td>Y (x3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing x 2</td>
<td>Y (x2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-3</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operations Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance &amp; Administration Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Admin. Assistant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competition &amp; Events Co-ordinator x 2</td>
<td>Y (x2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Media &amp; Communication Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-4</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operations Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development Officers x 3</td>
<td>Y (x2) Y (x1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Performance Convenor</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Veteran Women’s Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Veteran Men’s Co-ordinator (vacant)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indoor Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Officiating Convenor</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Games Development Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Property Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Webmaster</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-5</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Programs Manager</td>
<td>Y Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilities Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events &amp; Operations Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competitions Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administration Assistant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-6</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Performance &amp; Competitions Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events &amp; Junior Development Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operations Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administration Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Facilities Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-7</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the state Sport1 organisations it is again noted that there is a larger number of men in positions titled manager (or CEO), (there are more staff in the larger state organisations), 13 males, 11 females, but the way titles are applied between organisations varies. In most organisations women hold the more clerical roles, and men hold the more player focussed roles. Women are represented in some organisations as coaches, but there are no instances of women holding Head Coach positions. There are two instances of women holding High Performance Manager or Convenor roles (SSO1-4 and SSO1-7).
**Sport 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Position Description</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO2-1</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executive Assistant</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Championship Director</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Championship Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Championship Assistant Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rules Manager x 2</td>
<td>Y (x2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Performance Director</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High Performance Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Development National Director</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industry Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commercial Director</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Media &amp; Communications Manager &amp; Coordinator</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chief Financial Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant Accountant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receptionist/Admin Assistant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total staff no.</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total male/female Manager/ Director CEO title = 11 Manager/ Director title = 3

In Sport 2, eleven positions are held by men with the title CEO, manager or director as opposed to only three by women. Women hold 36.8% of the positions on the paid staff of NSO2-1.

**State Level Organisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Position Description</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-1</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Manager Governance &amp; Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page 283 of 306
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Commercial</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager Sport2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Financial Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager - Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2 Administrator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptionist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2 Program Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events Administrator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator – Sport2 Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SSO2-2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager – Participation Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation Development Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication &amp; Marketing Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager – Sport2 Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2 Operations Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport2 Operations Administrator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Services Administrator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SSO2-3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call for applications in May 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SSO2-4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager Sport2 Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration Assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SSO2-5 (SA)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitions Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance &amp; Administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the state organisations in Sport2 the same pattern is repeated as in Sport1, that is, there are more males who hold the title of manager or director, or CEO, than females. It is also again noted that the way titles are applied varies, in Sport2 there is a tendency to use the title Financial Controller rather than Finance Manager or Finance Director, as was the case in Sport1. Where the title Financial Controller was used it was counted as an instance of the use of the title manager as it is usually a title associated with a senior position. Again the women hold more of the clerical positions, or the more stereotypically female positions in Sport2 organisations.
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

### Sport 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Position Description</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO3-1</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executive Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chief Operating Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Manager Aq Strategy</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Manager Community Sport</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A/G IT Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport Inclusion Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community Sport Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community Sport Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events &amp; Marketing Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Records &amp; Events Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events Operations Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Media &amp; PR Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing &amp; Media Executive</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graphic Designer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commercial &amp; Marketing Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing &amp; Comms Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accounts Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receptionist/Accounts clerk</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant Accountant</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Head Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NHC Coordinators x 7</td>
<td>Y (x6)</td>
<td>Y (x1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A/g GM High Performance</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HP Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Athletic Wellbeing Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total staff no.</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total male/female</td>
<td>CEO /Manager = 8</td>
<td>CEO/Manager = 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the national body of Sport3 there are eight positions titled manager or CEO held by men and only three such positions held by women. There is also a greater representation of men in the senior coaching positions. Women again hold the more clerical or administrative positions.

**State Level Organisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Position Description</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-1</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance &amp; Administration Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Membership Administrator</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development &amp; Events Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events Coordinator</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development Officer x 6</td>
<td>Y (x3)</td>
<td>Y (x3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shop Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-2 (WA)</td>
<td>Executive Director</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competitions Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Media &amp; Communications Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commercial Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Events Logistics &amp; School Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Club Development Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance &amp; Development Coach</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accounts Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-3 (NT)</td>
<td>Executive Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Program Coordinator</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport Development Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-4 (QLD)</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mentor Coach</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Membership &amp; Database Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication &amp;</td>
<td></td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>SSO3-5 (Vic)</th>
<th>SSO3-6 (SA)</th>
<th>SSO3-7 (TAS)</th>
<th>Total male/female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager – Business Services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Assistant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events Coordinator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events Officer</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events Administrator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club Membership &amp; Sports Coordinator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Development Coordinator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media &amp; Communication Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership &amp; Sport Administrator</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-5 (Vic) - 5 (Vic)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation Development Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Assistant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainee Development/Events Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-6 (SA) - 6 (SA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development Manager</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation Development Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Assistant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainee Development/Events Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the state organisations in Sport3 equal numbers of men and women hold the title manager, eight.
Again it is noted that the more senior positions, or more prestige positions, appear to be held by men, there is only one instance (SSO3-7) of the CEO or General Manager positions being held by a women. The more clerical positions are held by women.

Y = Yes, an instance of the position  
CEO = Chief Executive Officer
10.12 Appendix 5.4: Audit results – ‘Play by the Rules’ compliance

National sporting organisations, and via association the State sporting organisations, in Australia are required to comply with the ASC’s ‘Play by the Rules’ initiative which promotes inclusion, fairness and safety in sport in Australia. The initiative was publicised in a television campaign in 2012. Sporting organisations funded by the government are required to acknowledge the initiative in their promotional documents and websites.

The following table records compliance with this requirement. An audit was performed of the websites for organisations that took part in the study. The information obtained, that is, whether the ‘Play by the Rules’ initiative was mentioned on the website, was correct at the time of the search: September 2011.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>‘Play by the Rules’ compliance on website</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NSO1-1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-5</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-6</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO1-8</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSO2-1</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-1</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-4</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-5</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-6</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-7</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSO3-1</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-1</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-4</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-5</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-6</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO3-7</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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10. 13 Appendix 5.5: Document Analysis

The documents were analysed by using a system of close reading and colour and numerical coding of replicated instances, that is, how many times a similarity or disparity occurred in a particular feature of interest or relevance in the document. For example: the number and type of gender clauses in a constitution; did the constitution have a gender clause? If so what did it stipulate and was the gender clause consistent throughout all organisations in a particular case organisation?

Instances of particular events were colour coded as follows: and the number of instances recorded.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constitution gender clause</th>
<th>Occurrence of gendered language</th>
<th>Appointment of non-member elected directors</th>
<th>Strategic plan gender related initiative</th>
<th>Annual reports – visual imagery</th>
<th>Risk management plans or strategies – reference to gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results of the document analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Documents retrieved</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sport1 NSO1</td>
<td>Constitution</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender clause: 3M:3F</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gendered language: his/ he/ chairman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Up to 2 appointed directors allowed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Game Initiative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Play the Whistle – to adopt the principles of ‘Play by the Rules’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strategy 2008-2012</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“the sport at national and state level is administered by men and women together”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Code of Behaviour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“respect the rights, dignity and worth of every person regardless of their gender, ability, cultural background or religion”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Policy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supports and implements ‘The essence of Australian Sport’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2004-2009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Note: reference to amalgamation efforts in 2008 report (2000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation Statistics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport Census Summary 2007-2008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO1-1 (NSW)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>Gender clause 2M:2F</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non-gendered language: he/she, chairperson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td>Core value - inclusive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition Regulation and Dispute Guide</td>
<td>Non - gendered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Equity Policy</td>
<td>“ensuring that all staff are given equal opportunities”: “ensuring all recruitment and promotions are on the basis of merit”: “encouraging women to consider positions traditionally dominated by men”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pregnancy Policy</td>
<td>Gendered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol Policy</td>
<td>Non - gendered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lightning Policy</td>
<td>Non - gendered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulations</td>
<td>Non - gendered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2005-2009</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results. (note same female president for period of 5 years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO1-2 (Vic)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>Gender clause: 2M:2F</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clause 4.2,d: words importing any gender include to other genders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Object q of association = adoption of policies to promote equal opportunity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Non gendered language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td>Attract female participation in all facets of the sport.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code of Conduct for Community Sport</td>
<td>Inclusion of every person regardless of age, gender or sexual orientation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2007-2009</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: Results reported in men’s and women’s leagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO1-3 (Qld)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>Gender clause: no gender less than 33% of elected membership</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clause 2.4: words importing a gender include all genders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clause 3.j: to foster and promote equity and social justice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td>Encourage grass roots participation by both genders</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2005-2009</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: Results reported in men’s and women’s leagues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| Member Protection Policy | Adoption of NSO policy |   |
| Personal Protection | Fair and equitable treatment – adult |   |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Governance Policy</td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appointment Policy</td>
<td>Separate requirements men’s and women’s veterans appointments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources Policy</td>
<td>Recruitment policy = Adherence to equal opportunity legislative guidelines Equal opportunity policy= identify and remove barriers: procedures for lodgement of complaints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Codes of Behaviour</td>
<td>Agree to respect basic human rights, that is equal rights; no discrimination on the grounds of sex, race […]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Gender Policy</td>
<td>Not unlawful to discriminate on grounds of sex if: restricted to either males or females having reasonable regard to strength, stamina or physique requirements of the activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SSO1-4 (Tas) Annual Report 2008 Merger report- move to unified administrative structure: best practice model

Website has links to annual reports, policies and constitution, but the links do not work (2012)

SSO1-5 (SA) Constitution No gender clause 5
6 elected member: 3 appointed members; Skills specified
Strategic Plan Supports diversity 5
News from the board Non-gendered
Annual Reports 2007-2009 Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.

SSO1-6 (WA) Constitution No gender clause 6
7 elected directors: 1 appointed
Strategic Plan Non-gendered 6
Board Minutes Chairman
Committee Conflict of Interest Protocol Bias or conflict of interest protocol
Anti-discrimination & harassment Adoption of NSO policy
Annual Reports 2005-2009 Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.

Territory Association Documents T1=Constitution No gender clause: 6 elected directors; up to 2 appointed directors 7
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):</strong></th>
<th><strong>Is gender a factor?</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strategic Plan</strong></th>
<th>Increase in number of accredited coaches across genders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Member Protection Policy</strong></td>
<td>Adopted NSO policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T2= Constitution</strong></td>
<td>No gender clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Member Protection Policy</strong></td>
<td>Adopted NSO policy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### **Sport2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>NSO2</strong></th>
<th><strong>Constitution (2009)</strong></th>
<th><strong>Gender Clause: 2M;2F</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Non gendered language</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Chairman</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Composition of council (sec14) voting rights favoured to men.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Constitution (amended 2010-2011)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Composition of council changed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Strategic Plan 2010-2014</strong></td>
<td><strong>Finalised but not publicly available</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Member Protection Policy</strong></td>
<td>ASC Template</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender Policy</strong></td>
<td>Transgender and gender re-assignment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disability Policy</strong></td>
<td>Non gendered</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Report 2008</strong></td>
<td>“Key action to build women’s involvement by following ASC recommendations”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Visual imagery: male</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Report 2009</strong></td>
<td>Key action to build women’s involvement by following ASC recommendations”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Report 2010</strong></td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Report 2011</strong></td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Handbook – Origins and beginnings in Australia</strong></td>
<td>Details the history of the sport</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### **SSO2-1 (NSW)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Constitution</strong></th>
<th><strong>Gender clause:3M;3F</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Equal opportunity policy a goal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>language: Chairman non-gendered; person</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Merger issues highlighted</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Report 2009</strong></td>
<td>Pre-amalgamation - gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Reports 2010</strong></td>
<td>Separate for men’s and women’s associations reported on new amalgamated website</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Annual Report 2010-11</strong></td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results, but women listed first. Some mixed ‘teams ’reported.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Code of Conduct</strong></td>
<td>Non gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Risk Management</strong></td>
<td>2012 (May) : note the appearance of this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>new policy direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-2 (Vic) Constitution</td>
<td>Gender clause: 3M;3F. Draft constitution in 2010 adopted after merger. 2011 new constitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan 2011-2015</td>
<td>Core values: integrity, inclusivity, respect, consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Report 2011</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code of Conduct (including Equal Opportunity Policy)</td>
<td>Adoption of NSO member protection policy principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VGA - Constitution</td>
<td>Gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WGVA - Constitution</td>
<td>Gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VGA Annual Reports (Access restricted to members)</td>
<td>Gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WGVA Code of Conduct</td>
<td>Gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint Statement Equal Opportunity &amp; Anti-Discrimination</td>
<td>1999 – men and women must have equal rights in the sport. Clubs able to create various categories of membership, unlawful to treat anyone unfairly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-3 (Qld) Constitution</td>
<td>Gender: 2M;2F. Chairman. Allow up to 2 appointed directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan (2012-2015)</td>
<td>“driving innovation while respecting tradition” : “provide and promote opportunities by targeting[...] juniors, women and seniors”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member Protection Policy</td>
<td>Adopted NSO Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board Committee Policy</td>
<td>Non gendered = Chair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2008-2011</td>
<td>2008-align fee structure to be gender neutral. Amalgamation passed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Equal visual representations: men’s and women’s result reported separately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-4 (Tas) General Association information</td>
<td>Policy, constitution, annual reports etc not available on website</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSO2-5 (SA) Constitution</td>
<td>Gender: 2M;2F. Chairman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board charter &amp; Code of Conduct</td>
<td>Purpose= compliance; performance; strategy &amp; policy; accountability; risk management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Player Code of Conduct</td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member Protection</td>
<td>Adopted NSO policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member Protection – Junior Players</td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliated Social Club Rules</td>
<td>Non-gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Report 2010-2011</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Report 2009-2010</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SSO2-6 (WA)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Constitution</strong> Gender : 3M;3F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WGA Policy Manual</strong></td>
<td>Gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WGA Annual Report 2009</strong></td>
<td>Gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amalgamation News</td>
<td>From female association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WGA Strategic Plan</strong></td>
<td>“Every person regardless of gender, age, ethnic background or social status should have the opportunity to play[…].”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Territory Associations</strong></td>
<td><strong>Constitution (incorporated)</strong> Gender clause: 3M;3F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(only one territory association)</td>
<td>Must be elected from the authorised delegates. A delegate assigned to each club.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NSO3</strong></td>
<td><strong>Constitution</strong> No gender clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clauses 1.3.c: words importing any gender include the other gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7 elected directors: 2 appointed directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Oceania Sport3 Association Constitution (2)</strong> Clause 5= “does not allow any discrimination[…] on the grounds of race, sex, religion or political affiliation”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>By- Laws</strong> Non -gendered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Member Welfare Policy</strong> Discrimination = sex or gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adopted from ASC policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Member Welfare Procedures</strong> Adopted from ASC policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Behavioural Guidelines</strong> Respect rights dignity and worth of every person regardless of their gender, ability, cultural background or religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Annual Reports 2001-2010</strong> 2007-2010 (to Memory) Employment of executive chairman to Board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO3-1 (NSW)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>No gender clause</th>
<th>19</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By-Laws</td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td>Strategic initiative 4.7 = maintain our strong gender equity ethos. Strategic initiative 4.8 = encourage and provide women with the opportunities to aspire to higher level administrative, coaching and other voluntary positions.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Policy</td>
<td>Discrimination = sex or gender Adopted from NSO policy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member Protection Procedures</td>
<td>Adopted NSO policies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO3-2 (Vic)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>No gender clause</th>
<th>20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By-Laws</td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td>Establish sound gender equity policies which reach all levels of the sport</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO3-3 (Qld)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>No gender clause</th>
<th>21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By-Laws</td>
<td>Strategic Plan</td>
<td>Directors must be members of affiliated club</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual Reports 2007-2010 (to memory)</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separate reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO3-4 (Tas)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>No gender clause</th>
<th>22</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan 2008-2011</td>
<td>Boards role – specifically not operational; not to be involved in management of staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of the Board</td>
<td>Non – gendered = strategic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming Tasmania Policies (volunteer)</td>
<td>Member protection =”every person is treated with respect, dignity and is safe and protected from[…]discrimination”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs): Is gender a factor?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NSO3-5 (SA)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>Non-gendered: chairperson</th>
<th>23</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No gender clause</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Up to 2 appointed directors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan (not accessible)</td>
<td>Website still 'under construction'</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policies</td>
<td>Adopted from NSO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2001-2012</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: separation of reporting of men’s and women’s results, but combined in tabular form in some reports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non gendered language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constitution (2012)</td>
<td>Clause 4.2,d “words importing gender include the other genders: 4 elected directors &amp; 2 appointed directors: Stated qualifications including commerce, finance, marketing, law &amp; strategic</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Directors must be or become an association member</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Plan 2010-2015</td>
<td>Drive facility plan for ‘peak body’ sports</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board of Management Policies</td>
<td>Adopted NSO policies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board of Management Charter</td>
<td>Note: introduction of risk management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Reports 2004-2010</td>
<td>Equal visual representations: combined reporting of men’s and women’s results.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SSO3-7 (NT)</th>
<th>Constitution</th>
<th>No gender clause</th>
<th>26</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clause 2.4 = reference to one gender includes the other gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules and policies</td>
<td>Player focussed, drugs, smoking, volunteers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Women on Boards of directors in Australian national sporting organisations (NSOs):
Is gender a factor?

This is the last page.