Partnerships, Policy and Practice: An examination of organisational capacity within Third Sector Sports Organisations in England

by

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Abstract

Key words: organisational capacity, capacity building, third sector sports organisations, not-for-profit, austerity, Sporting Future, policy implementation

This study presents an examination of organisational capacity amongst Third Sector Sports Organisations (TSSOs) in England, focusing specifically on the economic and policy context and how this context affects organisations' capacity to deliver key outcomes associated with the United Kingdom Government's *Sporting Future* policy. Two existing organisational capacity frameworks by Hall and colleagues (2003, p. 7) and Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371) are employed to gain further understanding of the organisational capacity challenges faced by these organisations and the capacity building that some require in order to respond to external changes, such as austerity measures and policy changes. These frameworks have not been employed within TSSO-focused studies specifically in England to date, thus this research aims to address this gap in the literature.

A critical realist position and a mixed methods approach to data collection was adopted for this study. This study involved two data collection phases: an online survey which was completed by 114 TSSOs, including 63 community sports clubs and 51 other TSSOs in England; and further investigation through semi-structured qualitative interviews with seven organisations that had initially completed the online survey. The choice of this mixed methods approach was considered strategic and appropriate for answering the research questions and contributing to developing an empirically and theoretically grounded argument.

This thesis presents key findings to demonstrate the effect that austerity has had on multiple dimensions of organisational capacity for the TSSOs in this study. Both community sports clubs and the other TSSOs reported financial capacity in particular to be their greatest capacity concern. This is linked with diminished state funding and challenges associated with short-term grants and project funding. The participant organisations confirmed having to diversify their revenue streams as traditional funding opportunities have become more difficult to secure.

This thesis also argues that many TSSOs lack the organisational capacity required to respond to policy change. Increasing pressure to prove impact to funders was highlighted as

a challenge by the TSSOs, with *Sporting Future* adding to this pressure through its outcome-based funding criteria. This funding criteria requires extensive impact reporting and places a burden on human resources and financial resources, as organisations need to recruit impact staff, or need to pay for external impact and grant expertise.

This study has also highlighted the importance of collaboration as a tool for TSSOs to plug gaps in their organisational capacity through sharing vital resources, with many participants in this study confirming that their organisations are reliant on collaboration to ensure survival. As this study has highlighted that incentivising TSSOs to implement policies such as *Sporting Future* through financial rewards (i.e. grants) seems to be having limited effect, encouraging organisations' collaboration and enhancing overall readiness for capacity building may be a better long-term strategy for the government.

While both Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity and Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) process model of capacity building were found to contain appropriate elements, which helped guide the present research, the findings of this study indicated that their potential application would be strengthened through the addition of a time element and the emphasis of organisational survival.

This thesis offers a unique contribution through its empirical findings and also through its theoretical suggestions. The research is timely and offers a wide range of practical and policy implications for TSSOs and the government. The findings will prove valuable as they offer a greater understanding of the challenges TSSOs and sports clubs face in a changing policy and economic context. Future research should focus on further investigating the mechanisms behind TSSO and sports club collaboration and should seek to understand the formalisation of this collaboration and the negative consequences that might occur if collaborative opportunities break down, especially within a changing external context. It should also focus on further extending and the testing the changes to the models presented.

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It is an honour to have completed this thesis through the prestigious Loughborough University, as a recipient of a PhD studentship. Many thanks to the University for supporting me during this process and for driving my hunger for knowledge.

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Chapter One:

1.1 Introduction

The present study seeks to provide novel insight into how Third Sector Sports Organisations (TSSOs) manage their organisational capacity to deliver public policy outcomes in a changing economic context. This introductory chapter will offer provides a synopsis of the study, presents a brief history of sports policy in the United Kingdom and go into detail regarding the overviews the current policy and economic context of the research. This chapter will provide the reader with a clear understanding of the context before the research aim, questions and objectives of this study are presented, and theoretical concepts are discussed in chapters two and three that follow.

1.2 Overview of study

The study was informed by theories of resource dependency (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), transactional cost economics (TCE; Williamson, 1987), Hall and colleagues' (2003, p. 7) organisational capacity framework and a process model of organisational capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371). A two-phase mixed methodology approach was adopted for the study. Phase one entailed the development and dissemination of an online survey to a sample of sports clubs and other TSSOs including incorporated and unincorporated sports charities, community interest companies (CICs), National Governing Bodies and Active Partnerships, that serve young people in England. The results of phase one informed phase two of the survey which involved in-depth qualitative interviews with seven of these organisations that had originally completed the online survey.

This study contributes to the growing body of research on organisational capacity in non-profit sports organisations, however, it makes a unique contribution by focusing on the context of austerity in England, and on the outcomes-focused Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) policy developed by the United Kingdom government. The findings offer broad insights into how organisational capacities are impacted upon when organisations face environmental

change and the important role of organisational capacities in adapting to these changes. More specifically, the findings highlight the significant role that collaboration plays for TSSOs who use this as a tool to build organisational capacity, especially when they do not possess the necessary capacity to respond to external stimuli such as the new policy or financial uncertainty. This finding is significant in that it contradicts the neo-liberal agenda that underpins the government's approach to policy. The findings shed light on the drivers behind TSSO collaboration and the relationship processes within these collaborative partnerships. Additions to the model of organisational capacity and capacity building are proposed in order to enhance the utility of these models and highlight dynamic capacity change rather than static organisational capacity. These findings have practical and theoretical implications for policy-makers, TSSO managers and researchers.

1.3 Research Context

This chapter aims to demonstrate that TSSOs play a critical role in community sports provision in England and beyond with their role becoming increasingly important as an increased blurring between the public and private sectors continues to take place. This has led to many voluntary and community organisations delivering public services that were traditionally undertaken by the state.

The government has expressed that charities and social enterprises play a crucial role as "the core of civil society" (HM Government, 2018, p.8) however, these organisations are facing extensive challenges as performance dimensions continue to expand, with increasing influence and pressure from a multitude of stakeholders (Benjamin, 2013; Campbell, 2002; Ebrahim & Rangan, 2010). Furthermore, dwindling financial resources, as a consequence of austerity, and the modern consumption of sport present additional challenges (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014). TSSOs are likely to not only experience the ramifications of the downward trends in sport participation in recent years (Cousens, Barnes & MacLean, 2012; Idefi, 2008) but are also likely to experience the pressures to reverse this decline. Recent policy changes have also added to this pressure with Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) – the most recent United Kingdom government's strategy for sport and physical activity – explicitly stating that funding decisions for sport organisations will be made on the basis of their success in achieving five key outcomes. These outcomes include physical well-being, individual development, mental

well-being, social and community development and economic development (DCMS, 2015). Set against a back-drop of diminished public sector spending it seems likely that delivering the outcomes of Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) will, increasingly, be the responsibility of TSSOs, as the focus on civic engagement and cohesion through sport increases. These organisations possess the relevant expertise and are often well located in the areas in which their sports provision can make a substantial impact on disadvantaged communities. However, while these organisations are well-placed to make a positive contribution to the aims of the Sporting Future strategy (DCMS, 2015) as they have extensive knowledge and experience of using sport as a tool for individual and community change, research has shown that they also experience a host of capacity deficits (Hall et al., 2003; Wicker & Breuer, 2013). These deficits can hinder their ability to achieve the personal and community impact that they strive to achieve. Given the growing prevalence of TSSOs, and the significant role that they play within the voluntary sector in England and abroad, it is crucial to understand their capacity to deliver their community sport programmes (Doherty, Misener & Cuskelly, 2014), especially under increasing performance pressures and amidst austerity and policy change. It is evident that these increasing external pressures impact upon both the management and governance of these organisations (O'Boyle & Hassan, 2014). Hence, further knowledge regarding how these organisations adapt to changes in the external context and manage processes to deliver services at the required level, is necessary (Taylor & Taylor, 2014). The study also has particular relevance to understanding how TSSOs may adapt to a post-Brexit context in future. The sub-sections that follow highlight this external context in further detail by discussing the historical and present policy and economic setting. While austerity policy affects all of the Home Nations, grassroots sport, health and education policy is devolved in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Hence, this study focuses on an England-based sample only.

1.4 Policy Context

1.4.1 A brief history of sports policy in the United Kingdom.

It is important to understand the history of sports policy in England before trying to understand the present sports policy and its effect on TSSOs and their organisational capacity to meet their organisational aims. Thus, the inclusion of policy context between 1960 and

2015 is considered important to contextually set the scene and to highlight the key differences between historical sports policies and the current policy. This historical context also demonstrates the changes in policy and how extant policy has led to the development and adoption of Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015).

Prior to the 1980s the sports sector operated within a sport policy context best characterised as traditional pluralism (Bramham & Henry, 1991). In this context, sporting opportunities were provided mostly by the commercial and voluntary sectors, with the state only playing a supplementary role (Bramham & Henry, 1991). This was followed by a neo-liberal phase of political thinking. Neo-liberalism can be understood as a system of economic and political beliefs, including the notion that the purpose of the state is to safeguard individual and commercial liberty, including the right to private property (Hayek, 1979; Von Mises, 1962). Furthermore, neo-liberalism also includes the deregulation of national economies with the belief that freely adopting market mechanisms is optimal for organising exchanges of goods and services (Rothbard, 2004). According to Hayek (1979), free markets and free trade encourages entrepreneurial spirit and leads toindividual liberty and well-being, as well as a more efficient allocation of resources.

During this neo-liberal phase the "rejection of state-led provision" in the United Kingdom took place (Bramham & Henry, 1991, p.141), where a hands-on, direct approach to sport was rebuked (Jefferys, 2012) and privatisation of sports opportunities was encouraged due to state-led social engineering "never prevailing over corporate and private interests" (Hall, 2011, p.10). However, government involvement became more consistent from the late 1980s as sport's contribution to national welfare was recognised and better understood (Houlihan & White, 2002). While government involvement may have become more prominent from this time, the policies surrounding sport were less clear than those of other policy areas such as education (Houlihan & White, 2002). A brief history of these sports policies is presented below:

1960-1995: The Wolfenden Report and the Sports Council. In 1960 the Central Council for Physical Recreation commissioned and published the Wolfenden Report in response to the challenges British sport faced in the post-war setting (Holt & Mason, 2000; Jeffreys, 2012). The report highlighted society's responsibilities in the field of sport and challenged the state

to provide further opportunities for sport as never before (Coghlan & Webb, 1990). In line with Wolfenden's (1960) recommendations, the Advisory Sports Council was established in 1965, cementing sport as an authentic interest of the government (Binfield & Stevenson, 1993; Houlihan & White, 2002).

The reconstitution of the Sports Council followed in 1972, which signalled a change in the relationship between sport and the state. According to Coghlan and Webb (1990), the aim of the Sports Council was to "raise the standards of performance in sport and physical recreation" (p.67) by focusing on improving sports facilities for the wider community and improving Britain's performance on the elite stage (Holt & Mason, 2000). The Sports Council launched its *Sport for All* campaign in 1972 with the aim of increasing mass participation in sport which, according to Coghlan and Webb (1990), was influential in shifting policy attitudes towards promoting sport as an important social concept and recognising the value of sport in society overall. However, other research was critical of *Sport for All* stating that it was a hollow phrase as greater resources were assigned to fulfilling government's wider social policy agendas (Coalter et al., 1988; Henry, 1993, 2001; Green, 2003). The Sports Council also devised several other strategies for sport following *Sport for All* (1972), including *Sport in the Community – The Next Ten Years* (1982), *Sport in the Community – into the 90s: A strategy for sport 1988-1993* (1988).

Raising the Game (1995). John Major was elected as leader of the Conservative Party in 1990, signalling a change for sport, with Major recognising it as "part of the fabric of society" (Major, 1999, p.402) and an important part of Britain's National Heritage (Department of National Heritage, 1995). According to Houlihan and Lindsey (2013), Major brought sport to the forefront of the political stage. This was implemented through the introduction of the National Lottery, which would provide funding for five areas of good causes, with sports resources benefiting from 20% - or an estimated £300m - of the total funds generated (Oakley & Green, 2011). This Lottery funding provided the much-needed financial support that sports organisations urgently required to ease some of the financial pressures they had suffered over the last decade (Jefferys, 2012).

In 1995 the Major government published their policy, *Sport: Raising the Game*. Three key priorities were outlined in the strategy including: re-establishing sport as one of the great

pillars of education, as schools were seen as an important element in the sporting system; rebuilding the strength of British sport at every level and; bringing about change in sport prospects from school level to elite level. This policy demonstrated a shift in state focus from mass participation alone to a dual focus of school sport and elite performance (Houlihan, 1997). As a result of this shift and tension within sport policy and sport objectives, the government decided to restructure the Sports Council and divide it into two separate organisations, namely UK Sport and Sport England. UK Sport's remit was the progression of elite athletes and associated policies, while Sport England's responsibility was the further development of sport participation (Houlihan & White, 2002).

Sporting Future for All (2000) and Game Plan (2002). In 1997 a new Labour government came was elected in the United Kingdom, with Tony Blair elected as party leader and Prime Minister. The Department of National Heritage was rebranded as the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) and it published *Sporting Future for All: The Government's Plan for Sport* in 2000. The government branded the strategy as a new way of understanding sport through a radical change in the way sport was being organised and funded (DCMS, 2000). Blair also aimed to raise the political profile of sport across other government departments as he saw the potential *Sporting Future for All* (DCMS, 2000) had to impact the health, education, crime and anti-drugs priorities (Halkyard, 2019).

Game Plan: A strategy for delivering Government sport and physical activity objectives (DCMS, 2002) was also published two years later. While similar to the previous Conservative strategy of *Sport: Raising the Game (*1995), both of these new policy strategies focused more specifically on physical activity to increase grassroots participation and the associated health benefits thereof (DCMS, 2002). The *Game Plan* strategy (DCMS, 2002) was a comprehensive extension of *Sporting Future for All* (DCMS, 2000) with clearer objectives and delivery guidance. It outlined priorities for sports participation rates, the hosting of major sports events and development in the elite sport domain (Green & Houlihan, 2006). It also emphasised that changes were needed due to the overly bureaucratic nature of sports administration (Green & Houlihan, 2006). Part of this change was to modernise Sport England and transform it into a strategically focused agency with the remit of community sport and the organisation of government policy through working alongside other organisations,

instead of simply being a sports development agency (Keech, 2011). This new role meant that Sport England would act as "investors in sport rather than deliverers" (DCMS, 2002, p.18) where funding criteria for community sport was revised within a performance-focused strategy of frequent measuring, monitoring and evaluation of participation rates (Sport England, 2003).

In 2008 the policy document, *Playing to Win: A New Era for Sport*, was released. This policy focused on the utility of the upcoming 2012 Olympic Games in promoting sports participation through legacy projects (Halkyard, 2019). It outlined government Olympic and Paralympic legacy plans to inspire the population to participate in sport and also advance elite sports opportunities (DCMS, 2008). Again, it was iterated that a reduction of inefficiency and bureaucracy was necessary within the government sports system, making it easier for sports to access funding in order to expand their offering and ensure that under-represented groups were allowed equal opportunities to sport (DCMS, 2008).

Creating a Sporting Habit for Life: A new youth sport strategy (2012). A change in government took place in 2010, with a Conservative-led Coalition taking over from Labour. With austerity measures being introduced by the new government in order to reduce government budget deficits and avoid a debt crisis (Burton, 2016), and economic uncertainty continuing as a consequence of the global economic crisis, sport was now "under the spotlight as never before" (Sport England, 2011, p.2). Furthermore, DCMS (2012) also highlighted the concerning drop-off in participation amongst school leavers and reported a decrease in participation rates of 16-25-year olds which required attention. Hence, *Creating a Sporting Habit for Life: A new youth sport strategy (2012)* was devised. The policy statement aimed to use the Olympic and Paralympic legacy to impact sports participation in every community (DCMS, 2012), with a particular focus on 14-25-year olds (Sport England, 2012). This was supported by a £1bn investment from the Exchequer and Lottery (Sport England, 2012), even against the backdrop of austerity. The investment signalled the state's commitment to an extensive drive towards encouraging a more active nation (DCMS, 2012).

Unfortunately, the Olympic legacy hopes were not realised and Sport England was criticised heavily for its funding model and lack of collaboration with their network of organisations (House of Lords Select Committee on Olympic and Paralympic Legacy, 2013).

Thus, Sport England (2012) pointed towards a much sharper focus to achieve a lasting sport legacy, with a tougher performance regime of payment by results only and a greater intent to penalise National Governing Bodies (NGB) who were not performing, through diminished funding. In this shift, NGB funding was to be awarded on a competitive basis and those NGBs that failed to meet objectives would have their funding redistributed to other organisations which offered stronger cases for increased participation (DCMS, 2012). This ultimately led to a redistribution of funds to some non-affiliated organisations such as national charity StreetGames who were awarded £9.38m for their success in getting more young people from disadvantaged communities more active (Sport England, 2014).

1.4.2 Current sports policy - Sporting Future (2015).

In 2015 a new Conservative government was elected and subsequent Parliamentary discussions focusing on the key issues that had contributed to the non-delivery of the 2012 Olympic legacy plans followed (Hansard, 2015). Subsequently, the S*porting Future* (DCMS, 2015) strategy was devised, with the inclusion of key headline themes contributed to by ten different government departments in order to encourage internal support and cohesion. This strategy maintains an ongoing policy commitment that the government should focus on enabling participation more than directly providing opportunities to participate through the public ownership and operation of facilities (Kumar et al., 2017). *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) is the latest statement of an ongoing process of neoliberalisation of the United Kingdom's sports delivery system (Stenling 2014).

Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) presents a new approach to investment in sport and physical activity, based around the contribution that sports organisations make to five key outcomes – physical wellbeing, mental wellbeing, individual development, social and community development and economic development. These outcome categories were devised to support the objectives of the new strategy which included further investment in talent and to harness the power of sport for the good of society through three key components (DCMS, 2015):

i) A new mandatory governance code to be enforced for NGBs

ii) A substantial change in sports funding through more meaningful, measurable impact reporting and not simply focusing on people just taking part in sport

iii) The NGBs of non-Olympic/Paralympic sports were also to be prioritised alongside the current Olympic/Paralympic NGBs

The policy includes a rudimentary evaluation framework which states how sports organisations should embed the five key outcomes into their interventions and how these can be measured and reported should they wish to pursue state funding (DCMS, 2015). The framework signposts a shift away from the narrow emphasis on participation (Sport England) and elite attainment (UK Sport) through a wider focus on more meaningful participation not just in sport or physical activity but also in volunteering (DCMS, 2015). Thus, there is an expectation that TSSOs will play a substantial role in delivering the new strategy and that the sector's volunteer workforce, where applicable, will in particular play an important part in doing so. *Volunteering in an Active Nation* (Sport England, 2016), has been published alongside *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). Hence, the *Sporting Future* policy (DCMS, 2015) and its partner strategies are driving TSSOs to allocate even further resources to effectively manage and measure their performance in order to obtain funding across broader criteria presented in *Sporting Future*'s (DCMS, 2015) evaluation framework.

1.4.3 Policy Implementation.

A policy goal is only aspirational if it cannot be implemented by delivery organisations. While state policies such as Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) present goals and share a basic description of means of achieving these goals, Fullan (2007) rightly expresses that many policy change attempts fail as "no distinction is made between theories of change (what causes change) and theories of changing (how to influence these causes)" (p.14). Thus, it is important to consider policy implementation as this goes hand-in-hand with proposed policy change. As Pressman and Wildavsky (1984, p.11) state, "we can work neither with a definition of policy that excludes any implementation nor one that includes all implementation. There must be a starting point. If no action is begun, implementation cannot take place. There must be also an end point. Implementation cannot succeed or fail without a goal against which to judge it". According to Dunleavy (1995) and King and Crewe (2013), successive United Kingdom governments have struggled with translating policy notions into change in practice. This ineffective implementation can have negative effects on citizens or result in policies failing to reach intended audiences completely, with disadvantaged communities often suffering the

most (Tarr & Finn, 2012). Thus, the implementation of the Sporting Future policy (DCMS, 2015) requires further investigation in order to provide an understanding as to whether the policy has reached intended audiences and affected desired change amongst sports organisations.

Policy implementation can be understood as the carrying out of a specific policy decision which is normally incorporated in a statute or is presented in the form of court decisions or executive orders (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). While a policy decision should "identify the problems to be addressed, stipulate the objectives to be pursued and structure the implementation process" (Sabatier & Mazmanian, 1980, p.62), a policy decision alone will not always guarantee success in practice if the policy is not implemented correctly. Pressman and Wildavsky (1984) demonstrated that the implementation of policy ultimately controls outcomes.

A widely discussed concept within policy implementation and change literature is the distinguishing of top-down versus bottom-up implementation approaches. Top-down processes mean that policy decisions are taken by the policy designers who are the central actors and concentrate their attention on factors that can be manipulated at the central level (Matland 1995). These national level policies are then passed on to lower levels. In contrast, bottom-up processes refer to the involvement of the local level in policy-making and subsequent impact on higher levels (Cerna, 2013). Through this approach, networks of actors who are involved in service delivery in one or more local areas are identified. It then uses the contacts in order to develop a networking technique to identify the local, regional and national actors involved in the planning, financing and execution of relevant governmental and non-governmental programmes (Hanf, Hjern & Porter, 1978). Each of these approaches have different strengths and weaknesses and, consequently, the literature has increasingly focused on combining micro-level variables of bottom-up and macro-level variables of top-down approaches, in order to benefit from the strengths of both approaches and enable different levels to interact regularly (Elmore 1985, Fullan 2007, Matland 1995, O'Toole 2000, Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith 1993).

It is also important to consider the factors required for successful policy implementation. For example, Payne (2008) argues that the particular context needs to be acknowledged in order for policy implementation to be successful. Local factors such as size

and the complexity of organisations affect policy responses (McLaughlin, 1987). Furthermore, implementation differs depending upon the context in which a policy was formulated and must also consider the different agents involved in implementing it (through top-down or bottom-up approaches), which hold varying attitudes, beliefs and culture (O'Gorman, 2010). Hence, no 'one-size-fits-all' approach to policy implementation exists (Cerna, 2013). However, some extant research has presented examples of successful state policy implementation in the context of education with Payne (2008) confirming that successful implementation occurred in schools where there is coherence, stability, training, peer support and engagement. Furthermore, McLaughlin (1987) states that the capacity of organisations is crucial for policy success; adequate resources and clear organisational goals are significant. Fullan (2000; 2007) further highlights this point, reiterating that the quality of surrounding infrastructure is key for lasting policy success. Gornitzka, Kyvik and Stensaker (2005) refined a list of critical variables required for effective policy implementation. These variables were broken down into the following six clusters: policy resources; inter-organisational communication and enforcement activities; economic, social and political conditions; disposition of implementers (TSSOs in the present study); characteristics of implementing agencies and; policy standards and objectives.

Research within the sports context has focused on the perceptions of sports club representatives relating to a nationally-developed sports trainer policy (Donaldson, Leggett & French, 2011) and the examination of top-down youth disability sport policies (Jeanes et al., 2018). These studies highlighted that those affected by, or required to implement, the policy involved need to see it as a meaningful symbolic object. Thus, there will be a match between the delivery context and the policy intent (Donaldson, Leggett & French, 2011). Should policy conceptualisation not fit the local context, it may result in compromised sport delivery that falls short of the policy and the club's objectives (Jeanes et al., 2018). According to Stenling and Fahlen (2014), clubs are more likely to implement top-down sports programmes if they are aligned with the clubs' organisational identity and what direction the stakeholders have envisioned their clubs will take.

Millar, Clutterbuck and Doherty (2020) investigated the adoption of Long-Term Athlete Development frameworks in Canada through a single club case study involving interviews with club administrators and coaches. It was revealed that the club had limited

awareness of the policy, yet was undertaking initiatives on its own in response to the needs and conditions of the club and the community. External communication, organisational capacity and translation in line with the local club context were found to be critical factors which either facilitated or inhibited adoption of the Long-Term Athlete Development framework. For example, limited awareness of the framework was attributed to the reportedly fragmented communication between the levels of the Canadian sport system – particularly from the national and provincial bodies to the club. This is consistent with research by Cousens, Barnes and MacLean (2012) and May, Harris & Collins (2013) which highlights that many sports clubs are unaware of policy objectives due to poor communication between the different levels of sports bodies (national, provincial and local). Furthermore, organisational capacity was also presented as a critical factor as it has been shown that community sports clubs often lack capacity to respond to the demands of sport policies (Donaldson et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2009; Lusted & O'Gorman, 2010; May et al., 2013; Skille, 2015) – as was the case within Millar, Clutterbuck & Doherty's (2020) research where the sports club experienced constraints due to lack or revenue streams and an unsustainable funding model to support its long-term athlete development initiatives.

It is evident that policy implementation is a multidimensional yet critical process which cannot be ignored. In the context of the Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) policy, it is important to understand how TSSOs are experiencing the implementation of this policy and what, if any, changes they have made in order to execute it. As noted above, implementation occurs within a specific context and the following sub-section examines a very pertinent contextual issue – the economic context.

1.5 Economic Context

1.5.1 Austerity in the United Kingdom.

The global economic crisis of 2008 led to a drastic response of austerity policy implementation from the United Kingdom government. While consequent austerity measures have been in place for almost a decade, research into the effects of austerity on TSSOs in England has received limited scholarly attention to date. Hence, this study aims to further understand the challenges that these organisations face amidst ongoing financial constraints and evolving policy context.

Austerity can be understood as "a form of voluntary deflation in which the economy adjusts through the reduction of wages, prices and public spending to restore competitiveness which is best achieved by cutting the state's budget, debts and deficits" (Blyth, 2013, p.2). Austerity policy was implemented by the United Kingdom's Conservative Party-led coalition government in May 2010, in response to historical debt linked to the global economic downfall. The new government initiated £81 billion of cuts, outlined in the 2010 *Comprehensive Spending Review* (HM Treasury, 2010). Public spending was reduced on a national scale and affected almost all government departments (Parnell, Spracklen & Millward, 2016). By late 2013 it was estimated that £64 billion had been cut from public expenditure (Duffy, 2013) and a further 20% expenditure cut was scheduled for 2014 to 2018 (Croucher, 2013). This has ultimately led to the reduction, reorganisation or elimination of many public services including library facilities, leisure centre services and support for disabled children, amongst others (Blyth, 2013; Parnell, Millward, et al., 2015). The cuts were predominantly focused on local government budgets and social benefits (Duffy, 2013). As a consequence of significant local government finance cuts, local authorities have undergone a 'hollowing out', with staff numbers being reduced to limit expenditure (Walker & Hayton, 2016). This has led to local authorities moving away from the direct provision of public services and instead having to adapt to new frameworks of delivery (King, 2014), which included providing grant funding to external organisations who could deliver these public services (Walker & Hayton, 2016). While local authorities had the opportunity to pay commercial service providers for this service delivery, the third sector is considered to offer value for money and often provides local services that are already closely connected to their communities. Thus, a greater reliance on the third sector has emerged as many of these organisations were contracted in to assist local authorities with delivery.

Austerity policy has impacted certain regions of the United Kingdom more than others (Dorling, 2012). Evidence suggests that public spending cuts have disproportionally been applied to cities that have traditionally high levels of social deprivation, despite the concentrated and deep-rooted social issues faced by these regions (Hastings, Bailey, Bramley, Gannon, & Watkins, 2015). Funding cuts have been larger in northern regions of England and in London than in southern areas (Parnell, Spracklen & Millward, 2016).

1.5.2 Sports Provision in the context of austerity and policy changes.

Government funding plays a key role in supporting most sectors but is a significantly important source of finance for third sector organisations in particular (Young, Wilsker & Grinsfelder, 2010). This includes TSSOs, who have experienced cuts in state funding provision due to austerity measures (Parnell, Spracklen & Millward, 2016). These cuts have occurred both directly (through reductions in grants from government bodies such as Sport England) and indirectly (through reduced private funding, such as donations, as a knock-on effect of austerity on the private sector).

In conjunction with these cuts, there have been significant changes to legislation and the delivery of public services through local authority provision in the United Kingdom, in line with the neo-liberalist ideology, consistent with the approaches adopted mostly by the Conservative-led government in recent history (King, 2014). During the 1970s, local authority sports services were set up to be provided directly by local authorities under the 'ensuring' council model (King, 2014). However, this has changed and a prompted shift away from this model has led to a 'commissioning' model of sports services whereby external providers are sourced to deliver local services (Association for Public Service Excellence [APSE], 2012). The commissioning model demonstrates how local authorities become purchasers rather than providers of sport and recreation services (Walker & Hayton, 2016) and that local authorities are able to continue providing sport in local communities, albeit by relinquishing control of the management and delivery of such services but retaining power over policy decisions (King, 2013).

Alongside the growth of this 'commissioning' model, an alternative service orientation also emerged in which local authorities devolved sport and recreation services to residents and communities (APSE, 2012). This shift away from the direct provision of sport services by local authorities through 'big society' and 'localism' agendas has led to the harnessing of capacity of the third sector – specifically charities and social enterprises – which now play a more prominent role in the running of public services (Alcock, 2010; King, 2014). While this means that the co-production of services encourages community engagement in delivering bespoke sport and leisure provision appropriate to community needs, service delivery that is dependent upon co-production is less likely to take place in poorer communities as there is often less capacity to take advantage of new innovations or mobilise volunteers (Kisby, 2010;

Lowndes & McCaughie, 2013). Hence, through this devolved approach to sport provision, less affluent communities are most likely to experience reduced sport and recreation services. Furthermore, while the 'big society' perspective means that local authorities have strategically reacted to austerity by devolving accountability for sports services onto TSSOs, evidence has shown that TSSOs have had funding substantially reduced, affecting their ability to deliver services and plug the gaps left by these local authorities. There are concerns that the speed and scale of direct state funding cuts and reductions to local authority funding streams will restrict the function, reach and overall development of TSSOs (Lowndes & Squires, 2012) and that continued cuts in funding for community sports provision will impair the widespread aim to increase sports participation in the United Kingdom (King, 2014). This reduced funding is especially concerning for organisations operating in deprived areas as specific grant programmes have previously targeted these areas, which has led to higher overall dependence on grant funding and proportionately larger cuts to contend with when funding reductions occur (Besemer & Bramley, 2012; Milbourne & Cushman, 2013). Thus, there is concern at local government level regarding the financial capacity of TSSOs going forward, without greater support from state (APSE, 2012).

The tendering of public service provision brings with it further negative consequences, including added pressure on TSSOs to operate in a more commercial manner. Many TSSOs now face an increasingly competitive environment, where organisations are pushed to demonstrate that they can outperform other bidders, both private and voluntary in manner (Metcalf, 2013). Non-profit and for-profit sector boundaries can become blurred during periods of external uncertainty, due to resource scarcity and state retrenchment, as organisations can find themselves operating in spaces left by public bodies (Misener & Misener, 2017). According to May, Harris and Collins (2013), the state has endorsed the 'mainstreaming' of the third sector as an ideological pillar of 'big society'. Hence, there is growing pressure on TSSOs to adopt the commercial practices typically associated with organisations that operate in the private sector (Walker & Hayton, 2016). For example, some of these organisations are trying to provide paid services to generate income through tendering processes, in which they compete against a wide range of other types of organisations. This is different to the traditional culture of third sector and is leading to further strain on TSSOs as they are forced to allocate additional resources for applying to alternative

sources of funding (Hastings et al., 2015). As TSSOs deploy more resources into these tendering processes and engage in more commercial activities, they are often forced to adjust their services to fit the expectations of funding briefs. Furthermore, this change in operational approach can also lead to 'mission drift' where, through bending to meet stakeholder requirements, organisations start to veer away from the key values and core purposes of the organisation, regardless of whether they are actually able to fulfil their promises of providing their outlined services (Hastings et al., 2015; Milbourne & Cushman, 2013). When third sector organisations begin to 'chase' funding, their long-term impact can be direly affected (Hastings et al., 2015).

In summary, research undertaken to understand the impact of austerity and policy on public services is growing (see Lowndes & Pratchet, 2012; Metcalf, 2013; Milbourne & Cushman, 2013). However, there is still limited literature focusing on the impact of austerity and policy implications upon TSSOs, and none focusing specifically on the effects of austerity and policy on the organisational capacity of TSSOs in the United Kingdom. Furthermore, there is a lack of research focusing specifically on the relationship between organisational capacity and the implementation of policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), which this study aims to address.

1.6 Research Aim, Questions and Objectives

The research aim, questions and objectives outlined for this study were:

Aim

To further understand the organisational capacity of TSSOs in England to deliver policy outcomes within a context of austerity.

Research Questions

- How has austerity impacted upon the organisational capacity of TSSOs?
- To what extent do TSSOs have the organisational capacity required to respond to the *Sporting Future* policy?

Research Objectives

- To examine the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising existing capacity frameworks
- To reflect on the ways in which TSSOs can successfully maintain or build their capacity in a changing economic and political context
- To explore the policy and strategic organisational implications of these findings

1.7 Thesis Structure

While austerity policy affects all of the Home Nations, grassroots sport, health and education policy is devolved in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Hence, the implications of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) and austerity policy, associated with the organisational capacity of TSSOs have been investigated in this study through an England-based sample in specific. This thesis offers a summary of relevant organisational capacity literature, provides a contextual description of austerity and relevant policy changes, and relates this back to the present mixed methods study. It consists of eight chapters, including two theoretical chapters and four empirical chapters, followed by a conclusions and implications chapter.

Chapter One has highlighted the economic and policy context relevant to this study, specifically discussing historical sport policy in the United Kingdom and the current *Sporting Future* (DCMs, 2015) policy, as well as the present financial context of austerity.

Chapter Two offers a summary of relevant literature on organisational capacity and capacity building. The chapter provides an insight into the capacity dimensions of a framework by Hall et al. (2003, p. 7), offers details of a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) and draws links with Resource Dependency Theory (RDT; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978) and Total Cost Economics (TCE; Williamson, 1987). The rationale behind the selection of these frameworks is also presented.

Chapter Three outlines the research strategy for this study, presenting the methodology and research design using the structure advocated by Grix (2002). This begins with sharing the ontological and epistemological assumptions that underpin this research, before highlighting the critical realism paradigm adopted for this study and also presenting

the chosen research design, sampling frame and methodology. This chapter includes justifications for the specific mixed methodological components of a quantitative survey and qualitative interviews that were selected. The chapter closes with a discussion of the reliability and validity of the research methods selected for this study.

Chapter Four is the first of the empirical chapters and presents the findings linked to the financial capacity dimension. The findings of both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research are presented together and are discussed in detail. A summary of the findings is included at the end of each chapter. This chapter structure is also followed in chapters Five (human resources capacity) and Six (structural capacity). Chapter Six is sub-divided into the structural capacity components of: relationship and network capacity, infrastructure and process capacity and planning and development capacity findings and discussions. While this study is not designed to be a comparative analysis, the findings and discussions chapters reflect on similar data from studies based in Canada (Hall et al., 2003) and Germany (Wicker & Breuer, 2011), as these studies have helped guide the data collection.

Chapter Seven is the last of the empirical chapters which focuses on the findings linked to the process of capacity building, including application of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) as a capacity building stimulus. The significance of policy implementation linked to the capacity building process is also discussed. Furthermore, additional components for these models are proposed and discussed.

Chapter Eight is the final chapter of this thesis and this offers a summary of the key findings and conclusions drawn from each chapter that directly address the aims and objectives of this study. This summary is followed by a review of the limitations of this research and offers directions towards future academic enquiry, as well as practical implications for sports managers and policy-makers. The final chapter concludes with a critical reflection on the research process.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This literature review begins with a consideration of TSSOs which are the primary focus of this research. It then examines how these organisations have sought to adapt their revenue streams due to increasing competition and pressure from stakeholders. Weisbrod's collectiveness index is included in this examination. Following on from this, Resource Dependency Theory and Total Cost Economics theory are discussed, and their relationship with organisational capacity is highlighted. Hall et al's (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity, which theoretically grounds this research and offers a tool with which to examine organisational capacity amongst TSSOs in England, is presented. The five key dimensions of this model are discussed in detail. The remaining theoretical foundation of the research, a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371), is also included and will be further investigated in this study. Its components are shared in detail.

2.2 The Third Sector and Third Sector Sports Organisations (TSSOs)

The third sector, also known as the voluntary or social sector, is a broad term for the range of organisations not owned by the state and which do not distribute profits (HM Office, 2018). While the term 'third sector' implies a separation between the spheres of public and private sectors and that this sector sits detached to those, this is not the case as the boundaries between the sectors are no longer distinct within the neo-liberalist agenda (Stenling, 2014). Furthermore, the third sector includes a range of different organisations that are considered not-for-profit. Not-for-profit is an all-encompassing term for organisations which are in existence to fulfil organisational objectives and where surplus revenues are used to further the purpose of the organisation (Smith & Jones, 2012). These organisations can be understood as self-governing, non-governmental organisations which are value-driven (National Audit Office, 2011). Although not-for-profit organisations can adopt various forms, the United Kingdom tax-system only recognises three main types (Smith & Jones, 2012), namely: charities, community amateur sports clubs and other not-for-profit bodies including community interest companies. In the context of this study, all of the participant

organisations were not-for-profit organisations which offered sport programmes or sport-related services either in isolation or alongside other activities. Hence, the term third sector sports organisations (TSSOs) is used to describe the different types of not-for-profit organisations that were the focus of this research.

Historically, TSSOs have been understood to be organisations characterised by their rather modest budgets, their local focus and their relatively informal structures (Nichols & James, 2008; Doherty et al., 2014). These organisations play a critical role in that they not only make a large contribution to providing recreational sport opportunities at grassroots level that are affordable and accessible (Cuskelly, 2004), but they also often play a significant role in combating social issues alongside the provision of sport. Furthermore, TSSOs play a unique role within communities as they have the ability to contribute to the establishment of social networks and to encourage volunteerism (Doherty & Misener, 2008;).

Today TSSOs make up a substantial percentage of both the United Kingdom voluntary sector and the sports sector as their important role has continued to expand. Sport England has invested over £260 million in funding awards for TSSOs per annum over the last five years (Sport England, 2018) and some of the larger TSSOs have turnovers of over £5.5 million (e.g. StreetGames, 2018). These figures demonstrate the scale of the TSSO landscape and the potential impact it can have on the population. TSSOs in particular reinvest their surpluses to meet their specific organisational objectives that are often related to sport or leisure, all with the ultimate goal of providing a range of opportunities for people of various ages and backgrounds to participate in sport and other activities.

With their increasingly important role as providers of community-based sport and physical activity opportunities across England, it is imperative to investigate the factors that impact TSSOs' abilities to achieve their distinctive missions. Furthermore, according to O'Boyle and Hassan (2014), a heterogeneous and uncertain situation is emerging across the sport landscape as a whole, but specifically across the TSSO network, as the non-profit status adds to the complexity of challenges that they are facing. Hence, it is critical to gain a further understanding of the resources required and the processes TSSOs employ to ensure mission success.

2.3 Third Sector Revenue Strategies

2.3.1 Revenue Generation and Diversification of Revenue Streams.

TSSOs operate in a variety of different ways and despite most being not-for-profit (see section 2.2) in nature, there has been a shift away from the voluntary nature of this sector with some organisations seeking ways to diversify their revenue streams due to increasing pressure and competition within the third sector linked to the neo-liberalist agenda (see section 1.4.2).

Froelich's (1999) statement that third sector organisations are challenged to develop strategies which juggle the shifting expectations of both public and commercial stakeholders, allow them to maintain adequate service and avoid mission drift amidst financial pressure is still applicable today. This pressure has resulted in third sector organisations being compelled to adapt traditional non-profit revenue generation models in order to meet the needs of stakeholders, often leading to the implementation of commercial business practices, which traditionally aim to generate a profit through practices such as the sale of services. This is evident through the expanding range of third sector organisations that exist today, with the emergence of new legal classifications of these types organisations in recent history. While historically charities were understood to be the traditional non-profit organisations, today new types of organisations such as social enterprises and CICs exist.

Due to an increasingly competitive funding environment as a result of an increasingly neo-liberal policy context, TSSOs are under pressure to demonstrate that they can outperform other private or voluntary organisations (Metcalf, 2013) in order to secure delivery opportunities and funding. Furthermore, austerity policy has resulted in more short-term and unpredictable funding and thus, TSSOs seek to compete for funding that is sometimes beyond their main remit (Metcalf, 2013). TSSOs have had to adapt and innovate to be able to measure, evidence and extend impact as funding is typically contingent on these organisations achieving tangible outcomes, that are aligned with government policy in order to access public funding sources (Ógáin et al., 2012). Furthermore, funding pressures have also led to organisations often needing to diversify revenue streams and look to sell products and services in order to generate sufficient revenue within a saturated market, with diminishing funding opportunities (Walker & Hayton, 2016). Unfortunately, this neo-liberal agenda is not appropriate for some organisations who operate in disadvantaged communities

in particular as they do not have the opportunity to diversify their revenues and charge for services, making it even more challenging for these organisations to operate. Furthermore, the United Kingdom government has made it clear it aims to target inactive and low active populations with *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). However, while participation rates are known to be lowest in disadvantaged communities (Sport England, 2017), these communities cannot always afford to pay for sport and physical activity services so this creates a tension. These issues are discussed in greater detail in the section that follows.

2.3.2. Non-Profit Organisations and the Collectiveness Index.

Weisbrod's (1988) 'collectiveness index' offers additional insight into the revenue generation strategies of TSSOs. While this index was devised some time ago, it is still helpful in understanding revenue diversification due to changes in the external context (see Chapter One). The 'collectiveness index' was proposed as a spectrum to categorise non-profit organisations into principle classes based on their similarities to state and private firms. The 'collectiveness index' is measured by the percentage of an organisation's income received in the form of grants, contributions and gifts (Weisbrod, 1988). The index also reflects the causal relationship between the financing of a non-profit organisation and the outputs it provides. Of particular interest within this index are the organisations which, even though they are considered 'non-profit', provide purely commercial outputs for members. While commercial activity cannot be considered a new endeavour for non-profit organisations, it is evident that non-profits can become increasingly dependent on this income source (Weisbrod, 1998). This commercial activity might provide organisations with additional opportunities and a greater opportunity to achieve financial security, however this trend is not embraced universally. Concerns of increasing commercialism are linked to the potential loss of values, unique to the non-profit sector (Froelich, 1999). According to Hodgkinson (1989), the essence of charity is to provide for the less fortunate and thus, conflict occurs when non-profits are asking both observers and participants to pay for products or services. It is thought that the fundamental attributes of charitable organisations might be in danger if a mindset of benevolence is replaced by that of competition (Bush, 1992). However, it has also been argued that commercial revenues offer more autonomy and flexibility for non-profit organisations than traditional revenue sources (Froelich, 1999). Furthermore, this historic view also does not

take into account the emergence of newer business models such as CICs, which typically reinvest surpluses into outlined social or environmental purposes yet generate profit through commercial trading of products or services (Smith & Jones, 2012). Furthermore, the effects of commercial activity on organisational processes seem to be limited, however structural changes have been documented (Peterson, 1986). Despite being thirty years old Weisbrod's (1988) model is still relevant currently as it offers insight into how TSSOs may be under pressure to adapt within the current financial climate, shifting along the 'collectiveness index' due to changes in resources and the political context – especially within the neo-liberalist agenda with added financial pressure and limited resources (highlighted in Chapter One). While some TSSOs might actively embrace this shift as a positive opportunity for growth, it is interesting to consider this model as part of the capacity building process, where organisations choose to plug financial capacity gaps by switching to more of a commercially-driven revenue model.

2.4 Resource Dependence Theory

Another theoretical perspective that is helpful in understanding the pressures that TSSOs are currently experiencing is Resource Dependence Theory (RDT). According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978), a further understanding of the structure and behaviour of an organisation can be gained by investigating its resources. Resource Dependency Theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) suggests that organisations are often unable to generate the complete quantity and quality of resources needed for survival. Thus, the organisation's inability to produce all required resources leads to a dependence on external resources. Those that control the critical resources have power and can influence the behaviour of the organisation (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). As management decisions in an organisation are influenced by internal (members of the organisation) and external stakeholders (organisations or institutions in the environment of the organisation), with an increasing dependence on external resources, the autonomy of the organisation will decrease (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

According to Mankiw (2008, p. 3) ''scarcity means that society has limited resources and therefore cannot produce all the goods and services people want to have''. In short, scarcity is regarded as the insufficient supply of important resources. However, the perception of what short supply is might differ from organisation to organisation. Despite the

issue of scarcity, an expectation remains that organisations will manage and respond successfully to changes in resources (Slack & Hinings, 1992). This means that when a resource becomes scarce the organisation must try to find a substitute. The dependence on external resources is perpetuated by the scarcity of internal resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). In other words, if some internal resources become scarce the organisation tries to acquire additional resources externally. Thus, scarcity of resources in one area can lead to increases in resources in another area.

Malatesta and Smith (2014) contend that the principles of RDT have specific relevance when examining the management of non-profit organisations within the context of fiscal change. Hence, RDT provides an exploratory framework through which to investigate the organisational management of austerity (Walker & Hayton, 2016). The outlook of the RDT framework is that problems arise not only due to organisational dependence on the environment, but because the nature of the environment is not dependable (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Thus, this is appropriate when considering the uncertain financial and policy environment that TSSOs find themselves operating in at present and in future; as this context will continue to provide different challenges over time (e.g. Brexit may offer different economic and policy challenges to these organisations in future).

TSSOs have to contend with scarcity of resources as not all resources are available in abundance (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). For example, community sports clubs, which are one of many types of TSSOs, have been found to have a lack of volunteers (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). In the current fiscal climate (context highlighted in section 1.4.2), TSSOs and sports clubs might also face financial resource deficits and, as a result, could face human resource retention consequences. Hence, scarcity of resources can become a critical issue for these organisations. The lack of resources has a significant impact on organisations' ability to achieve their intended mission (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). This lack of resources is linked with organisational capacity as, should organisations lack resources gaps will emerge in their capacity, potentially impacting their ability to achieve their goals and fulfil their organisational mission. Resource dependence will be further investigated in this study through an organisational capacity lens.

2.5 Transactional Cost Economics

Transactional Cost Economics (TCE) further augments the RDT perspective as it focuses on the costs associated with organisations turning necessary resources into products or services (Jones et al., 2017). It can be used to further understand how organisations are able to minimise the costs associated with production and trade (Williamson, 1991). These costs can be divided into both direct and indirect costs and also vary according to the size and location of an organisation (Barringer & Harrison, 2000). Direct costs include payments to staff, facility costs and equipment purchases (Williamson, 1987). Meanwhile, indirect costs include expenses linked to planning, implementing and monitoring activities (Williamson, 1987). It is important to understand these costs in further detail, especially within the current financial climate and amidst increasing pressure from external stakeholders. The strategies TSSOs employ to minimise these costs are important to understand as these could have a direct impact on their performance.

Furthermore, TCE posits that the tendency for organisations to demonstrate self-interested, opportunistic behaviour is understood to increase transaction costs in market settings (Williamson, 1975; 1987). This is due to discord occurring between organisations as a result of reduced trust, which ultimately leads to the internalisation of production elements that could have been more effectively produced through partnering with other organisations (Barringer & Harrison, 2000). Hence, production costs increase which can lead to market failure. According to Barringer and Harrison (2000), interorganisational partnerships extend decisions of production and purchasing by adding the option to partner for organisations. These partnerships can reduce the costs associated with production that organisations struggle to finance independently (Harrigan, 1988) and successful collaboration between organisations can also lead to increased trust that can foster more integrated management systems (Ansell & Gash, 2008; O'Boyle & Shilbury, 2016; Robertson & Choi, 2012). In the case of TSSOs, collaborative partnerships with other organisations which are either for-profit or non-profit in nature can have many positive effects including reducing costs and creating service efficiencies (Thibault et al., 1999). These collaborative partnerships and their impact on resource acquisition require further investigation, especially in the current financial and policy context. This will be done through an organisational capacity lens within the present study.

2.6 Organisational Capacity in the Third Sector

Organisational capacity has emerged within non-profit literature as a significant theoretical framework that provides an opportunity for the holistic analysis of goal attainment and, on a broader scale, organisational effectiveness (Austin, Regan, Samples, Schwartz & Carnochan, 2011). The study of organisational capacity has seen a growth in interest in recent years (Girginov, Peshin & Belousov, 2017), however researchers agree that the term remains theoretically unresolved (Harrow, 2001; Millar & Doherty, 2016). Organisational capacity is understood to comprise a range of organisational attributes that are considered critical to an organisation's ability to draw on various assets and resources to achieve its objectives and satisfy the expectations of stakeholders (Horton et al., 2003). Thus, the concept of organisational capacity is useful for this study as it aims to examine how TSSOs can operate to meet the needs of stakeholders including communities, funders and the government, and try to manage the tensions between these.

The term capacity is broadly used in many contexts (Morgan, 2006). According to Horton and colleagues (2003), organisational capacity refers to an organisation's potential to achieve its mission and objectives effectively, while Eisinger (2002) emphasised that the key components of organisational capacity influence organisational effectiveness. Within the voluntary setting, Hall and colleagues (2003) define organisational capacity as "the overall capacity of a non-profit and voluntary organisation to produce the outputs and outcomes it desires is a function of its ability to draw on or deploy a variety of types of organisational capital" (p. 4). Throughout the literature, organisational capacity is understood to be a multidimensional concept (Eisinger, 2002; Hall et al., 2003; Hou, Moynihan, & Ingraham, 2003) which comprises both processes and structures (Girginov, Peshin & Belousov, 2017). Sowa, Seldon and Sandfort (2004) also state that organisational capacity comprises both quantitative dimensions, such as the presence of formal goals, and qualitative dimensions, for example the staff evaluation associated with the achievement of those goals. Furthermore, the concept of capacity is also closely linked to that of capital as the capacity of an organisation to work toward an objective depends upon the capital it is able to deploy (Hall et al., 2003). In economic terms, capacity refers directly to the assets, goods and other resources that can be deployed in order to produce goods or deliver services (Hall et al., 2003).

Some non-profit literature has focused on measurements of capacity as potential indicators of organisational effectiveness (Eisinger, 2002), which can be understood as the ability to acquire and exploit resources to sustain an organisation's own survival and functioning (Forbes, 1997) and do so whilst providing high-quality service (Martin & Kettner, 1996). While there are many different positions on how to conceptualise organisational capacity, extant research has demonstrated that non-profit capacity should be assessed across multiple dimensions in order to capture their complexity (Sawhill & Williamson, 2001). Thus, it has been argued that capacity-based studies, with their multidimensional approach, hold the key to understanding organisational reforms more completely than traditional effectiveness measures (Hou, Moynihan & Ingraham, 2003).

Extant research focusing on organisational capacity within third sector organisations has not identified consistently significant findings. Hall and colleagues (2003) found that the most significant factor for organisational goal achievement was human resources capacity, while Chaskin (2001) noted that the strengthening of associational networks was required to successfully accomplish community organisation objectives. Meanwhile, McKinsey and Company (2001) presented findings which demonstrate that non-profit organisations which experienced the largest gains in capacity were those that undertook reassessments of their aims and their strategy. McKinsey and Company (2001) also noted that effective capacity building is rarely confined to addressing only one component of capacity in isolation.

2.7 Organisational Capacity and TSSOs

Organisational capacity has received increasing attention within sports literature and has mainly focused on community sports organisations through sport for development research. Within this context, organisational capacity has received attention both as an overall theoretical framework (Clutterbuck & Doherty, 2019; Doherty, Misener & Cuskelly, 2014; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011; Wicker & Hallman, 2013) and also to guide analysis of single capacity dimensions (Nichols, Padmore, Taylor & Barrett, 2012; Wicker, Breuer & Hennings, 2012), with external relationships and human resources studies dominating the literature focus.

This line of TSSO-focused research has investigated organisational capacity as a construct and furthered understanding regarding the many challenges sports organisations

might experience in addressing the needs of participants and members (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Studies have highlighted the challenges relating to gaps in organisational capacity or the inability of sports organisations to draw upon the different types of capital associated with organisational capacity (e.g., financial resources and human resources) such as inadequate revenue diversification (Wicker & Breuer, 2013). Some studies have also offered a further explanation of the nature of various forms of organisational capital in sport organisations (Misener & Doherty, 2009). For example, Gumulka and colleagues (2005) analysed a survey of Canadian non-profit voluntary organisations and noted that sports organisations in particular have fewer financial resources than other types of non-profit organisations. These studies offer further evidence of the multidimensional challenges sport organisations face and the attributes they possess.

Recent domestic sport for development research has also focused on organisational capacity. Domestic sport for development organisations can be understood as local organisations that deliver sport programmes, which are designed to meet the needs of their communities and are implemented by people from that community (Coalter, 2010). Regardless of any structural differences, these organisations share a mission to address local issues and, in turn, make improvements to local communities. Within this line of research Svensson, Hancock and Hums (2017) identified the critical elements of organisational capacity for urban-based sport for development organisations through qualitative research within 29 North American organisations. Furthermore, Svensson and Hambrick (2016) also focused on the critical elements of organisational capacity within a North American sport for development organisation that also operates in East Africa. Clutterbuck and Doherty (2019) extended this research within the sport for development context and conducted semi-structured interviews with representatives from 17 domestic sports for development organisations in Canada. The research was guided by Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity. This research highlighted the critical elements for human resources capacity as being passion, familiarity with development issues, valued skills, active and engaged volunteers, sufficient staff, administrative help from volunteers, training and support, and shared vision. The critical elements relating to financial capacity were also presented and included fundraising success, grant funding success, fiscal responsibility and sustainable funding. Furthermore, engaged partners, sustained partnerships, social capital

and time to manage partnerships were established as critical elements of relationship and network capacity. The critical elements of planning and development capacity (strategic planning, collaborative planning, awareness of risks/opportunities) and of infrastructure capacity (information technology, effective communication, facilities, formalisation) were also uncovered by Clutterback and Doherty (2019).

2.8 Conceptualisation of Organisational Capacity

Several conceptual frameworks linked to capacity have been developed with research conducted in non-profit organisations such as those operating in the international development space (Morgan, 2006), human service organisations (Eisinger, 2002) and other community-focused organisations (Glickman & Servon, 1998). While it is evident that capacity frameworks across the literature vary in the number of dimensions that they incorporate and the naming thereof, there are many common characteristics amongst these frameworks human resources, external linkages and capital/financial resources (Chaskin, 2001; Eisinger, 2002; Glickman & Servon, 1998; Hall et al., 2003).

Hall and colleagues' (2003, p. 7) model of organisational capacity outlines five key dimensions: financial capacity, human resources capacity and structural capacity, which is divided up into relationship and network capacity; infrastructure and process capacity; and, planning, development and resources capacity (Hall et al., 2003). These dimensions are consistent with Eisinger's (2002) summary of the most common dimensions associated with capacity research. The model further highlights the potential connections between capacity dimensions. For example, financial capacity may impact upon human resources capacity or relationships and network capacity, while human resource capacity may influence planning and development capacity (Hall et al., 2003). Furthermore, organisational capacity is understood to be influenced by a host of external factors, which includes access to resources, environmental constraints and historical factors, all of which are incorporated in this model (Hall et al., 2013). Previous models of organisational capacity and performance management do not always incorporate the historical factors associated with non-profit organisations as this model does, advancing this model and making it even more multidimensional in nature.

Originally, Hall et al. (2003) developed the model to gain an understanding of the role that the five dimensions play in the capability of non-profit organisations to achieve their

missions or hinder them from doing so. The research focused on qualitative data from key informant interviews and from 36 focus groups, which originated from 13 different communities across Canada (Hall et al., 2003). Through more than 300 qualitative interviews with individuals representing the major sub-sectors of Canada's non-profit and voluntary sector and through a large-scale National Survey of Non-profit and Voluntary Organisations (NSNVO), Hall and colleagues (2003, p. 7) developed their model of organisational capacity. This framework was developed distinctively for the non-profit and voluntary sector and therefore it was selected to underpin this study . This conceptual model was developed to guide research into non-profit and voluntary organisations in Canada as part of a national survey. The framework sought to understand how non-profit organisations marshalled their resources to achieve their mission and was derived primarily from the literature based on intellectual capital (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997; Nadler, Gerstein & Shaw (1992), Roos et al., 1998; Stewart, 1997). This framework was selected as a tool to guide the present research because:

- This framework was developed specifically for the voluntary sector and is hence appropriate for the sample in focus. It was also thoroughly grounded in the third sector and included over 300 participants operating in the third sector. Hence it was derived from a large third sector sample.
- The framework has not yet been employed within academic enquiry focusing on TSSOs in England. This provided an opportunity for novel application.
- This study is exploratory and includes a broad scoping exercise in order to offer an overview of organisational capacity across the TSSO landscape. The researcher believes Hall and colleagues' (2003) multidimensional model is appropriate for this exercise as it has suitable components that offer structure to this research but do not restrict it. Furthermore, this research aims to contribute to broadening initial knowledge. This model offers a platform to conduct this exploratory research.

Gumulka et al. (2005), Misener and Doherty (2009); Doherty and colleagues (2014), Breuer and Nowy (2015), Wicker and Breuer (2011), and others, have all employed Hall et al.'s (2003) multidimensional framework of capacity within their research, which was focused on community sports organisations. Hence this framework will add value to the present research

as it has been adopted in several settings, across many studies, and investigated in recent years. However, this model has seen limited implementation at a broader level, within national organisations and bodies, where often these differ in size, structure, resources and strategic orientation (Girginov, Peshin & Belousov, 2017). While, Kitchin and Crossin (2018) employed Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) model within a case-based disability study of two United Kingdom football clubs, the model has not been employed to investigate a broad sample of TSSOs within England to date, nor has the framework been used within research that has focused on the impact of austerity and policy change on TSSO capacity.

Overall, this research will prove valuable in investigating organisational capacity in both the not-for-profit sports setting and within sports clubs as no research has focused on both comparatively. Furthermore, this research will prove valuable for policy-makers and TSSOs as it will offer a greater understanding of the challenges these organisations face, particularly in a changing policy and economic context. The section that follows provides a more detailed account of the framework of organisational capacity developed by Hall et al. (2003, p. 7)

2.9 Framework of Organisational Capacity – Hall et al. (2003, p. 7)

The dimensions of Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework are discussed in further detail below, with select findings from research focused on the third sector.

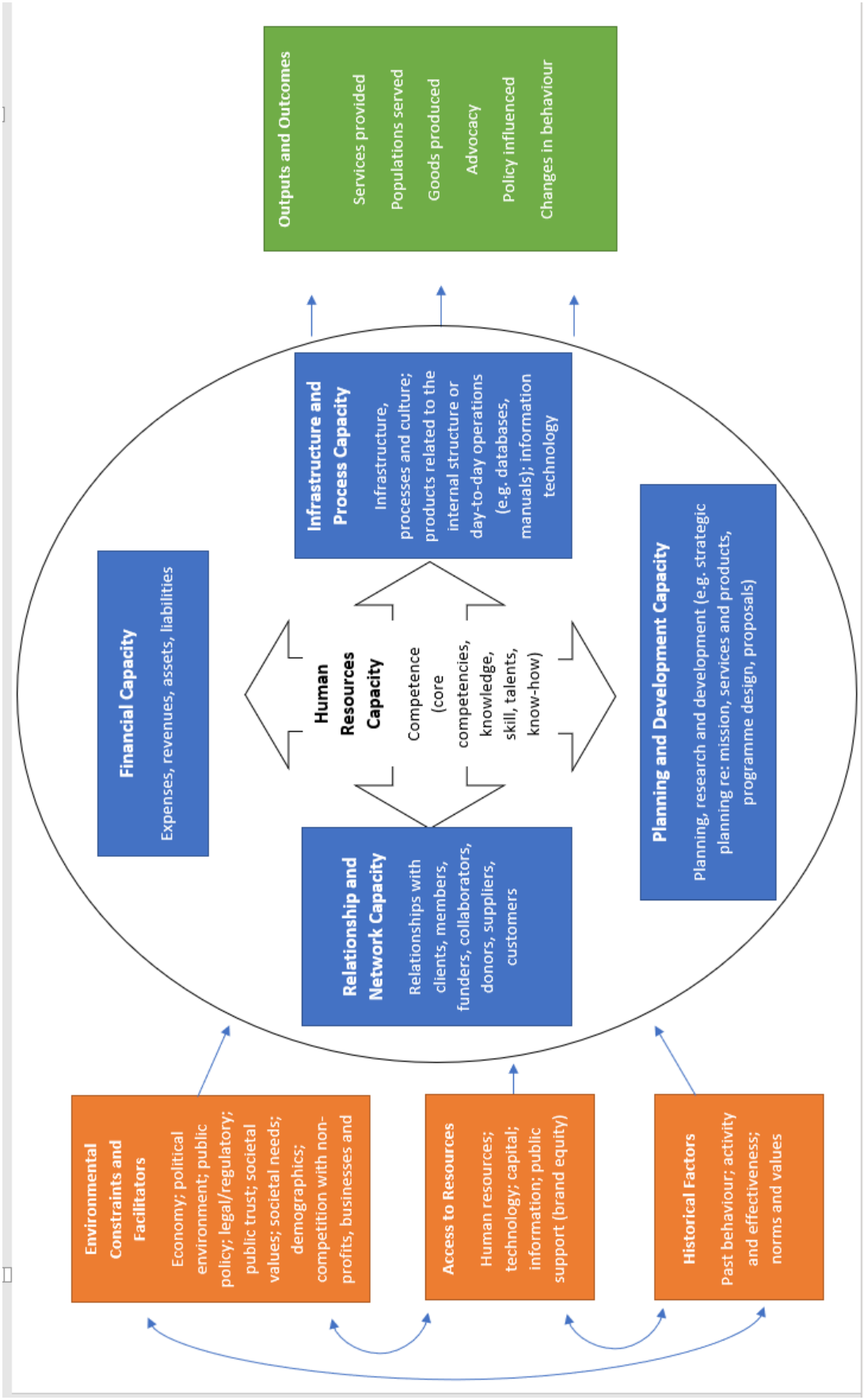

Figure 1. Framework of Organisational Capacity (Hall et al., 2003, p. 7)

External influences.

The framework includes three main categories of external factors that can affect the overall performance of not-for-profit and voluntary organisations. Firstly, environmental constraints and facilitators such as societal needs, societal values, public trust and confidence, the political environment, public policy and the nature and extent of competition among non-profits, businesses and the government must be considered (Hall et al., 2003). Secondly, historical factors, such as the norms and values of an organisation which have attracted or discouraged funders, and the past activities and behaviours, such as fundraising practices and the extent of unethical or ethical conduct, are also included in the framework (Hall et al., 2003). Finally, an organisation's access to resources must also be considered. This includes access to human resources, financial resources and technology, which is often affected by the environmental constraints and facilitators (Hall et al., 2003), as discussed above and within Chapter One of this thesis.

Organisational capacities.

Human resources capacity. Human resources capacity can be understood as the "ability to deploy human capital within the organisation" (Hall et al., 2003, p. 5). This comprises volunteers, trainees and paid staff within the organisation and includes the knowledge, motivation, competencies and attitudes of these individuals within the organisation (Hall et al., 2003). Human resources capacity is purported to be the key dimension that impacts directly upon all capacities (Hall et al., 2003, p. 7), thus it is located at the centre of the framework itself. Other non-profit sport research has further reflected and reinforced this point (Swierzy, Wicker, & Breuer, 2018; Wicker & Breuer, 2013).

Human resources have also been a primary research focus area within the context of community sports organisations, with a specific focus on volunteering and management structures (e.g., Balduck, Van Rossen, & Buelens, 2010; Nichols & James, 2008; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2011). Misener and Doherty (2009) conducted a single case study of organisational capacity within a non-profit community sport organisation, utilising Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework, and found that human resources capacity was perceived to be the most significant factor influencing goal attainment within the organisation. This finding is consistent with the work of Hall and colleagues' (2003), who posit that human resources

capacity is central to all other capacities. Hall et al. (2003) report that the overwhelming majority of their study participants identified human resources as their greatest strength, with volunteers in particular being recognised as organisations' greatest resources. However, these participants also cited the recruitment of staff, volunteers and board members as the most significant issues affecting human resource capacity within their organisations (Hall et al., 2003). Other concerns such as the need for the recruitment of more volunteers, more effective volunteer management strategies and the need for more specialised staff were also identified (Breuer, Wicker, & Von Hanau, 2012; Gumulka, Barr, Lasby, & Brownlee, 2005; Hall et al., 2003; Misener & Doherty, 2009). Meanwhile, a study by Wicker and Breuer (2011) which included a large-scale survey on non-profit sports clubs in Germany in 2007 (n = 13 068), found that human resources capacity presented the main concerns for sports clubs. Sports clubs within this study perceived human resources, especially volunteers, to be especially scarce (Wicker & Breuer, 2011).

The strong links between capacity dimensions were also highlighted by Hall and colleagues (2003) with human resources strongly linked with financial resource capacity, as access to stable funding sources would enable non-profit organisations to enhance human resources capacity through additional recruitment of paid staff and enhanced training for staff and volunteers. Planning and development capacity and relationship and network capacity are also difficult to maintain without adequate human resources (Hall et al., 2003).

Financial capacity. Financial capacity refers to the ability of an organisation to develop and deploy financial capital and constitutes the assets, expenses, revenues and liabilities of the organisation (Hall et al., 2003). However, as non-profit sports organisations meet a lower accounting standard, assets and liabilities cannot necessarily be taken into account (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). Hence, in the research conducted by Wicker and Breuer (2011) which focused on non-profit sports clubs, financial resources capacity is defined by the revenues, expenses and the balance sheet of the clubs. The balance sheet is an appropriate indicator of financial solvency, with a deficit reflecting limited financial resources (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). TSSOs have different types of revenue generating opportunities, as is previously highlighted in this literature review. However, all TSSOs must principally reinvest their surpluses to further objectives which incorporate sport or physical activity (National Audit Office, 2011). Furthermore, in the case of non-profit sports clubs both internal and external revenue sources

must be considered. All revenues from club members, such as membership and admission fees, constitute internal revenues while revenues from stakeholders within the environment, public subsidies and economic revenues are considered external income sources (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). It is suggested that, from a resource dependency perspective, TSSOs would prefer to increase the flow of internal revenues over that of external revenues as the latter creates decreasing autonomy and increasing dependence on the environment (Horch, 1994).

The expenses of TSSOs can also be classified. Wicker and Breuer (2011) summarised the expenses of community sports clubs across four main categories: expenses for personnel; expenses for taxes and insurance; expenses for equipment and facilities and; other expenses such as expenses for the organisation of both sporting and non-sporting events. Hall et al. (2003) refer to revenue streams in terms of 'more money' and 'better money'. 'More money' can be understood as an increase in the financial resources a non-profit has access to, while 'better money' refers to finance that is obtained without obligations to a specific funder (Hall et al., 2013). An example of better money would be unrestricted public donations. Grant funding through state bodies such as Sport England is mostly restricted and has many mandates attached to it so this would not be characterised as 'better money'.

Within Hall and colleagues' (2003) Canada-based study, the financial capacity issues that arose included financial management, revenue generation capacity and accountability concerns. It was found that human resource issues including limited fundraising skills and reduced staff numbers due to difficulties in retaining qualified staff had a negative impact on financial capacity (Hall et al., 2003). Drawing on results from the same Canadian survey, Gumulka et al. (2005) noted that non-profit sport and recreation organisations receive more of their revenues from income earned through donations, gifts and registration fees and less from the government. Allison (2001), states that the lack of full dependence on the government for direct financial support makes sports clubs more autonomous than other organisations operating within the voluntary sector.

According to Gumulka and colleagues (2005) and Cordery, Sim and Baskerville (2013), it is routine for voluntary sports organisations to report financial precarity and vulnerability, with specific concerns surrounding their funding models. Misener and Doherty (2009) report that the board members interviewed within their case study of a non-profit community sports club expressed a lack of, and a need for, long-range financial planning. This parallels Allison's

(2001) finding that non-profit sports clubs seem to operate on a very basic income and expenditure account and are generally under-developed in terms of their finances, with few holding cash reserves or assets available for development or longer-term investment and planning. Bowman (2007) suggested that it is critical for non-profit organisations to maintain an appropriate cushion of potential resources. Furthermore, planning for these resources would enable these organisations to adapt to financial pressures more easily and initiate change in strategy – both critical elements of non-profit financial capacity (Bowman, 2007).

Wicker, Feiler and Breuer (2013) reported that German sports clubs which had clear and non-conflicting missions were able to generate more diverse revenue streams. This in turn decreases the financial vulnerability of these organisations as they are no longer fully dependent on grant funding (Alison, 2001). Furthermore, research has also shown that the diversification of revenue streams and resource acquisition provides sports organisations with the flexibility and resources required to achieve their organisational aims (Vos et al., 2011; Wicker & Breuer, 2013; Wicker et al., 2012). It also enables non-profits to provide a fuller range of service offerings such as disability sport opportunities (Kitchin & Crossin, 2018; Wicker& Breuer, 2014) due to a diverse financial foundation.

Misener and Doherty (2009) identified that financial competencies, such as sound financial management by appropriately skilled accounting staff, were as important as the generation of income itself for community sports organisations. They present financial management and accountability as a significant challenge for community sports clubs within their research. Board members within Misener and Doherty's (2009) study recognised the need for accountable practices within the area of financial reporting, however, financial capacity was limited due to the lack of specialised knowledge required for this role. The importance of financial management skills for board members has also been documented as a financial capacity issue across several other studies which focused on smaller non-profit organisations (Hou et al., 2003; Scott, 2003; Sharpe, 2006).

Within Hall et al.'s (2003) research, the most pressing challenges that non-profit and voluntary organisations expressed were mostly within the area of financial capacity and specifically related to revenue concerns. However, in contrast to Hall and colleagues' (2003) findings, the participants within Misener and Doherty's (2009) study reported that, while there were apparent challenges related to finances and financial management, overall

financial capacity was not a critical issue in relation to goal attainment.

A distinct link between financial capacity and human resources reinforces the relationality of the dimensions within Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework. For example, if extra funds are allocated to attract highly competent staff with financial management skills, the risk of financial vulnerability can still increase. This is due to the fact that increasing administration costs increase financial risk if other revenue sources do not also increase (Cordery et al., 2013).

Infrastructure and process capacity. Infrastructure and process capacity is presented as a form of structural capacity within Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) model and can be understood as the ability of an organisation to rely on or to deploy elements, which relate to daily operations. Examples of this include policies, procedures, information technology, intellectual property and culture (Hall et al., 2003). Process capacity seeks to link organisational practice with culture. Eisinger (2002) reports that infrastructure resources are a significant factor of organisational capacity. Within Hall et al.'s (2003) study, challenges to information technology including internal technical capacity, training and maintenance, were identified as barriers to infrastructure and process capacity, while collaboration was presented as a means to overcome deficiencies in physical infrastructure, for example the lack of permanent facilities (Hall et al., 2003). Hence, a lack of human resources, insufficient relationship and network capacity and financial capacity limitations were all found to impact upon infrastructure and process capacity (Hall et al., 2003).

Overall, research shows that many sports clubs do not own their own sport facilities; instead, they mainly utilise the facilities of other providers or the community sport facilities available (Allison, 2001; Smith, 2000). Wicker and Breuer's (2011) research was mainly concerned with the sports facilities that clubs owned, when investigating infrastructure and process capacity. According to the study, more than 42% of German sport clubs owned sports facilities, while 61.4% of all sport clubs utilised public sport facilities in 2007 (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). Meanwhile, in Allison's (2001) Scottish study, it was found that only 26% of the sport clubs used their own facilities for training while 30% used them for playing matches. Local authority facilities were utilised by 44% of the sport clubs for training purposes and by 42% for playing matches (Allison, 2001).

Relationship and network resources capacity. Within Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework, the dimension of relationship and network capacity refers to the ability to draw on relationships with external individuals, organisations and institutions such as agencies, government, corporations, the media and the public. Inter-organisational partnerships can provide TSSOs with valuable links to resources and competencies (Babiak & Thibault, 2009; Cousens, Barnes, Stevens, Mallen, & Bradish, 2006; Frisby, Thibault, & Kikulis, 2004; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Misener & Doherty, 2012, 2013). It can provide extended access to accrued social capital, offering shared knowledge, and experience (Hall et al., 2003).

When managed effectively, collaborative partnerships with funding agencies, the government, commercial businesses, and other third sector organisations can be used to build organisational capacity (Casey, Payne, & Eime, 2009). Cross-sector collaboration has also become a key indicator of non-profit performance and governance (Jones et al., 2017), and are considered a critical component of contemporary non-profit management (Head & Alford, 2015). In fact, Lee and Nowell (2015) suggest that non-profit performance is no longer conceptualised in terms of a single organisation's performance but "in terms of how that organisation has managed its relations with other stakeholders and established a reputation for trust-worthiness and excellence within the broader network" (p. 10). According to Head and Alford (2015), some funding agencies are now asking non-profit organisations to demonstrate the reach and magnitude of their inter-organisational network and not just the impact of their delivery.

The formation of inter-organisational partnerships has been highlighted as a strategy for non-profit organisations to adapt to environmental challenges and build organisational capacity (Selsky & Parker, 2005). Thus, these relationships might be even more significant in a changing economic and policy context, where TSSOs might suffer additional pressure in certain capacity dimensions. Inter-organisational partnerships could be seen as a strategy to alleviate capacity gaps. This requires further investigation, which the present study aims to contribute towards.

Babiak (2003) defined partnerships as "voluntary, close, long-term planned strategic action between two or more organisations with the objective of serving mutually beneficial purposes in a problem domain" (p. 6). However, from a resource dependence perspective,

organisations seek inter-organisational links as they require resources which are presently scarce within their own organisation (Thibault & Harvey, 1997). Within this perspective, possible reasons for organisations to form relationships with other institutions and individuals would be for the exchange of personnel and infrastructure (Thibault & Harvey, 1997), the exchange of knowledge and information (Rittner & Keiner, 2007), or for corporate sponsorship (Doherty & Murray, 2007). However, as is the case with other organisational capacity dimensions, it is important to note that with increasing dependence on external stakeholders, organisational autonomy will decrease (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Furthermore, a significant dependence on partner organisations for resource provision might bring negative consequences should a partnership break down in the future.

Research suggests that many sports organisations form relationships with different institutions within surrounding communities (Allison, 2001; Barnes, Cousens & MacLean, 2007; Breuer & Haase, 2007; Glickman & Servon, 1998; Thibault & Harvey, 1997). In Allison's (2001) Scotland-based study, half of the sport clubs were found to have links with other sport clubs, 25% of the clubs were found to be linked with schools, and approximately 20% had relationships with local commercial companies and community organisations. In Germany, research has also revealed that sports clubs collaborated most frequently with other sports clubs, schools or kindergarten/day-care facilities (Breuer & Haase, 2007). German sports clubs were also found to develop relationships with business enterprises, health insurance companies, youth offices and commercial sport providers (Wicker & Breuer, 2011).

Within Hall et al.'s (2003) study, both human and financial resources were found to affect relationship and network capacity as organisations lacked the necessary resources, such as qualified staff with sufficient expertise, to engage in relationship-building activities. In addition, research shows that relationship and network capacity is considered beneficial and is linked to other dimensions of capacity as social capital is produced that can be beneficial in attaining financial and human resources (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006).

Planning and development capacity. The final domain of Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) model of organisational capacity, namely planning and development capacity represents the ability to develop and implement strategic plans, proposals and policies. Chappelet (2011)

states that strategic planning is central to a non-profit organisation's sustainability. The lack of stable, long-term funding posed the greatest challenge to the development of strategic planning for the majority of organisations within the Hall et al. (2003) study. Misener and Doherty (2009) acknowledged that strategic planning is critical to club goal attainment. Furthermore, a large-scale survey in Canada demonstrated that 58% of sport and recreation organisations had difficulty planning for the future (Gumulka et al., 2005).

While non-profit community sport organisations tend to be informal in nature (Doherty, 2005; Sharpe, 2006), Misener and Doherty (2009) argue that reactionary planning processes will no longer ensure that organisations meet the expanding expectations of multiple stakeholders. According to Eisinger (2002), strategic planning offers opportunities to overcome this challenge. This is due to the prospect of minimising uncertainty, while promoting future growth (Thibault, Slack & Hinings, 1993).

Several other capacity dimensions have been found to have a significant effect on planning and development capacity, including financial capacity in the form of funding concerns, and insufficient human resource capacity, specifically relating to the skills of staff and the expertise of board members (Hall et al., 2003). Allison (2001) states that the consideration of financial implications associated with planning and development is a significant indicator of success for sport clubs, while Doherty, Misener and Cuskelly (2014) urge caution, stating that without sufficient human resources, planning and implementation of policy can fail, creating additional organisational concerns.

Organisational outputs or outcomes.

Within Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) conceptual framework, organisational success is dependent on the external environment and the organisation's capacities. Furthermore, external pressures sometimes lead to TSSOs needing to adapt outputs and outcomes to meet the needs of a changing context (i.e. Sporting Future policy outcomes must be achieved to secure funding).

Outputs can vary widely within third sector sport organisations and include the provision of goods, such as sporting equipment and food for participants, and services, including coaching and training. Hall and colleagues (2003) included outcomes alongside outputs to acknowledge that, for many third sector organisations, "outputs are secondary to

the intended outcome of those outputs" (p. 6). For example, a sports charity may have the output of coaching football, however its primary interest may lie in their intended outcome – i.e. the impact that this coaching provision has on reducing anti-social behaviour within the community.

2.10 A Process Model of Capacity Building

Capacity building is an extension of organisational capacity as "capacity is not a static property but one which is constantly evolving" (Girginov, Peshin & Belousov, 2017, p. 2084). According to Hondale (1981), while capacity describes the means to performance, capacity building focuses on the organisational efforts to improve organisational means. Capacity building is a presumed process of addressing challenges or limitations within different dimensions of organisational capacity (Millar & Doherty, 2016). However, as it stands, there has been limited research focusing on this process, particularly within the sports environment. Previous research has focused on the gaps within organisational capacity, such as challenges to volunteer recruitment in community sport organisations (Breuer, Wicker & Von Hanau, 2012) and limited revenue diversification (Wicker & Breuer, 2013). The aim of capacity building is to successfully respond to challenges in order to remain relevant and maintain performance levels despite changes in the environment. According to Aref (2011), capacity building aims to improve an organisation's ability to devise and accomplish its objectives through the activation of various capacity dimensions (Cairns, Harris & Young, 2005). Capacity building is considered a strategic process involving decisions related to the allocation of resources, to pursue a specific plan (Millar & Doherty, 2016).

According to Millar and Doherty (2016), while there is a growing body of literature focusing on organisational capacity, considerable gaps remain when analysis shifts to the building of capacity in TSSOs. Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371) propose a comprehensive model of capacity building which acknowledges the concepts and relationships that are involved within that process. The model provides a foundation for further investigation of capacity building as a process; from the initial stimulus and determination of needs, to factors that influence readiness to develop capacity and the influence thereof (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371).

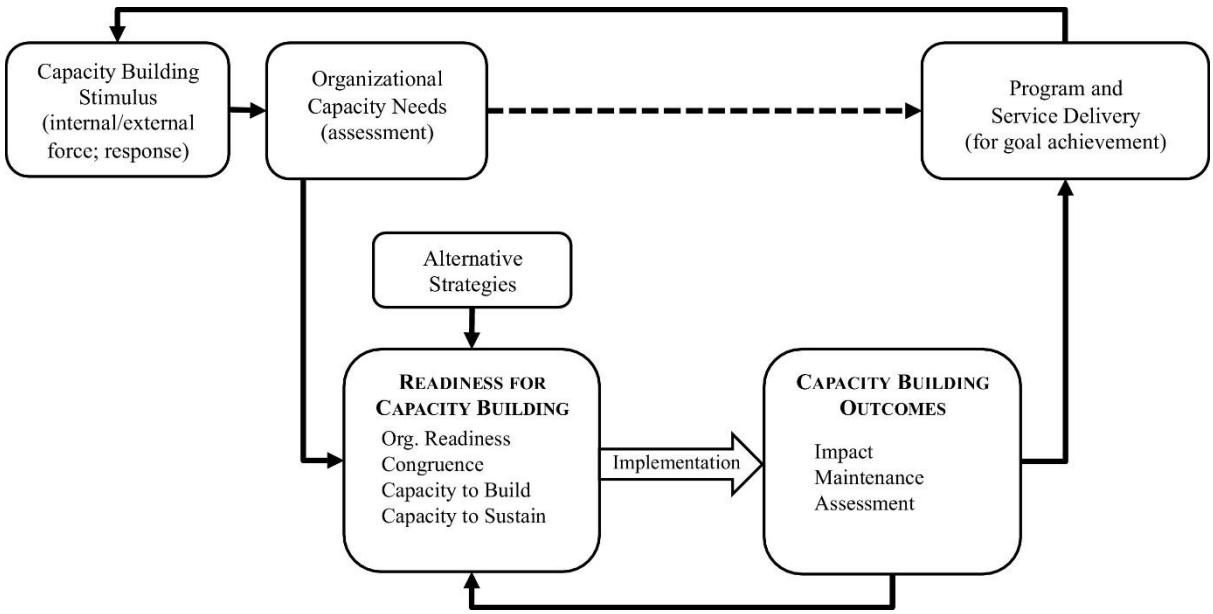

Figure 2. A Process Model of Capacity Building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371)

Heward, Hutchins and Keleher (2007) argue for a redefining of capacity building to incorporate an organisational change approach. There is currently limited research that explicitly addresses the link between organisational change and capacity building, hence Millar and Doherty (2016) aimed to capture change at progressive stages within the capacity building process. Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) model was developed according to interpretive-theoretical methodology, consisting of De Groot's (1969) four phases that guide the collection and review of appropriate literature. These phases included exploration, analysis, classification and explanation (De Groot, 1969). The model is made up of six components which contain similarities to other depictions of organisational change, focusing on the main drivers for change both externally and within an organisation (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371).

The following section provides a description of the model, with a focus on the process of capacity building.

Capacity building stimulus.

Overall, while capacity building lacks coherent conceptualisation across the literature, it is recognised that this is driven as the result of an organisation's decision to respond to an

environmental force (Millar & Doherty, 2016). An example of this could be an external force such as austerity measures or policy change (highlighted in Chapter One). It is critical to understand what prompts capacity building from the outset as further strategies and the readiness to build are directly linked to that stimulus (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Furthermore, the stimulus represents a threat or opportunity within the organisation's environment to which it chooses to either respond to or to ignore. It is expected that organisations will choose to respond to forces linked to their services, programmes and overall mission such as cuts to external funding, a decreasing volunteer workforce or a new government policy (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Further empirical investigation that provides additional understanding of the stimuli of capacity building is required.

Organisational capacity needs.

An initial needs assessment is required for successful capacity building, in order to prevent an organisation from diving straight into capacity building itself (Millar & Doherty, 2016). If an organisation is unaware of its particular needs and assets, ineffective capacity building is more likely to occur (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Furthermore, if an organisation conducts a needs assessment and determines that it does not have the capacity to respond to a stimulus, it is more likely to engage in capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016).

The capacity needs of an organisation are specific to its response to the environmental stimulus and "must be systematically identified as such, including their magnitude and relative importance, rather than relying on what it presumes it has and needs" (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 372). Hall and colleagues' (2013) dimensions of capacity in non-profit and voluntary organisations provide a useful framework for the identification of multiple organisational capacity needs and assets. Where there are deficiencies in any of these capacities, development and strengthening will be required. Any one or more of these capacity dimensions may need to be built, while others may prove to be beneficial in supporting that effort (Millar & Doherty, 2016).

As previously discussed, research focusing on TSSOs has consistently identified human resources as critical for goal achievement (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Wicker & Breuer, 2011) and financial and development capacity to be the most vulnerable dimensions of organisational capacity (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2013).

Thus, it is probable that these dimensions may require the most progression in order to respond to environmental forces. This can present further challenges when the greatest environmental threat is directly linked to a capacity dimension, as is the case with austerity and financial capacity. This will be further investigated within this research.

Readiness for capacity building.

Readiness to build capacity is dependent on "organisational readiness, congruence with the existing organisational processes and environment, and the organisation's capacity to build and sustain the changes" (Misener & Doherty, 2009, p. 373). These readiness factors highlight the constraints and opportunities which will impact upon capacity building and its desired outcomes. A variety of factors of readiness, such as whether the people and processes are available to facilitate capacity building strategies and whether built capacity is sustainable and long-term, must be considered (Millar & Doherty, 2016). It is likely that multiple dimensions of readiness will impact upon capacity building efforts (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Furthermore, readiness is distinctive for each organisation and relates directly to its capacity needs and capacity building strategies (Millar & Doherty, 2016).

Alternative strategies.

An organisation may identify a multitude of strategies to address capacity needs and objectives (Millar & Doherty, 2016). While there is limited knowledge of the means by which alternative capacity building strategies are selected (Millar & Doherty, 2016), this is considered a significant strategic process (Chaskin, 2001). The generation of strategies implies that an organisation is focused on addressing its needs through appropriate, tailored plans (Millar & Doherty, 2016), and is open to engaging with new alternatives rather than relying on what has been implemented in the past (Chelladurai, 2005). An example of this could be enhanced collaboration, when an organisation has largely worked in isolation in the past.

Within the third sector, research has focused predominantly on the influxes in funding or the impact of human resources development as alternative strategies (Austin et al., 2011; Brown, 2012; Mandeville, 2007; Sobeck & Agius, 2007), however these have been examined in the context of assumed capacity needs, rather than identified capacity needs (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Thus, Millar and Doherty (2016) call for empirical research to further develop

this area by exploring the processes behind the generation and selection of capacity building strategies. The present research aims to build on this extant research through reflecting on capacity building in the specific context of austerity and policy change, and understanding a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) within this context.

Capacity building outcomes.

The outcomes of capacity building are directly linked to successful strategy implementation, which is dependent upon the previously discussed elements of readiness for capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016). These outcomes can be understood in terms of having an immediate impact on capacity and whether the capacity which has been built is able to be maintained (Millar & Doherty, 2016). According to Chelladurai (2005), this occurs through the systematic assessment of an organisation's intended outcomes.

As is depicted in the model (Figure 2), a feedback loop has been included between the components of capacity building outcomes and the readiness for capacity building. If an organisation's capacity building objectives have not been achieved or maintained, it can be assumed that the organisation has not; been ready to implement their chosen strategies, has lacked the capacity to successfully address the identified needs, has not had the capacity to sustain the changes that resulted from building capacity and/or there has been incompatibility between the organisational processes and the chosen strategy (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Hence, a feedback loop has been incorporated in the model as the readiness factors may be reassessed and more appropriate capacity building processes may be implemented to address the recognised needs (Millar & Doherty, 2016).

Programme and service delivery.

While the effective building of capacity will allow an organisation to address the original force which prompted initial action, the impact of built capacity on programmes and service delivery may also be a stimulus for further capacity building in future (Millar & Doherty, 2016). The organisation will either proceed accordingly with its service delivery or may aim to address any additional needs or respond to new forces.

While there is limited empirical research which has investigated and tested this model, it is hoped that TSSOs will benefit from further research, implementation and development

of the model in future. Its veracity was, however, examined through one study by Millar and Doherty (2018), where further insight was gained into the nature of the processes and conditions associated with organisational capacity. This took place through an examination and comparison of cases of successful and unsuccessful organisational capacity building within two community sports club in Canada. The participating curling club experienced successful capacity building as they introduced a programme for new curlers, while a North American football club was unsuccessful in developing its capacity to introduce a new recreational league (Millar & Doherty, 2018). The findings revealed the key conditions and processes of capacity building in these two contrasting cases, particularly highlighting the attention to multiple dimensions of capacity as both needs and assets, and the dissimilarities in responses between these two organisations. Millar and Doherty (2018) also highlighted that multiple aspects of readiness for capacity building were evident with micro-level congruence (alignment with daily operations) and macro-level congruence (mandate and values) playing a role in this process.

While the findings of Millar and Doherty's (2018) study are not generalisable to all community sports clubs due to the case study approach adopted, the model offers an opportunity for broader application in future research. The veracity of the model was supported through further research by Millar and Doherty (2018) and it provided evidence of "the need to approach capacity building from a strategic perspective" (p.358). The notions of readiness to build and of capacity needs were also confirmed as multidimensional concepts through this study (Millar & Doherty, 2018). These findings also highlighted the significance of considering capacity limitations that might hinder the capacity building process (e.g. lack of finances to build and sustain capacity, lack of expertise to complete funding bids), which will be explored further in the present study.

2.11 The present study

Given the significant position that TSSOs occupy within the British sport system, the increasing pressure on these organisations to perform in the light of financial pressures, forced revenue diversification and the implementation of new state policies and strategies, as well as the increasing academic attention dedicated to organisational capacity within the sports sector, this thesis aims to build on this body of literature by providing new insight into organisational capacity and capacity building within TSSOs across England.

No extant research exists focusing on organisational capacity and resources on a national scale within TSSOs across England, in the context of economic and policy change. Furthermore, Adams (2008) iterates that while there is a growing body of research examining organisational capacity within the third sector, it has been limited to focus on the identification of capacity strengths and weaknesses and few studies have extended this to consider capacity building (Adams, 2008). Thus, it is critical for further research to be conducted in this area, especially to gain an understanding of the resources and organisational capacity these organisations possess and to further understand the capacity building process within these organisations, during a time of financial uncertainty and amidst a changing policy context.

Without strong capacity, including satisfactory facilities, sufficient funds and adequate volunteer numbers within these organisations, the sport services that contribute to extended societal benefits will be compromised (Misener & Doherty, 2009). Furthermore, the impact of austerity and policy changes in this context needs to be understood in further detail as this is timely.

While this study is not designed to be a comparative analysis, the findings and discussion chapters within this thesis reflect on similar data from studies based in Canada (Hall et al., 2003; Millar & Doherty, 2016) and Germany (Wicker & Breuer, 2011), as these studies and associated models have guided the data collection phases. As there is no other comparative data from within England, the data from Canada and Germany is helpful in understanding the present data in further detail.

2.12 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has offered an overview of the third sector and the not-for-profit organisations operating within it, that form the main focus of this study. It offered further detail as to why this sector is no longer considered separate to the private and public sectors, with the boundaries between the sectors no longer distinct within neo-liberalism. As a result, TSSOs are playing a significant role in providing opportunities that were once offered by the state. This has resulted in a proliferation of not-for-profit organisations and increased competition between these organisations to secure grant funding. As a result, these organisations have sought to diversify revenue streams. This chapter offered an insight into this diversification.

The theories of RDT and TCE were discussed in detail and provide a backdrop for

understanding the concept of organisational capacity, which is the primary focus of this study. Subsequently, the diverse operationalisation of the concept of organisational capacity was highlighted and the rationale behind the selection of Hall and colleagues' (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity was included. The framework includes environmental constraints and facilitators and historical factors, five dimensions of capacity and outputs and outcomes. The five dimensions of capacity, namely human resources capacity, financial capacity, infrastructure and process capacity, planning and development and relationship and network capacity, were discussed in detail. As a direct extension of organisational capacity, the concept of capacity building was presented and a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) was also discussed. The various components of this model including the capacity building stimulus, capacity needs assessment, readiness for capacity building, alternate strategies for capacity building, capacity building outcomes and goal attainment were explained in depth. Finally, the strategy to apply these models to the present study, as part of an investigation into organisational capacity of TSSOs in the context of austerity and policy change, was introduced. A two-phase methodology was selected in order to offer a broad overview of the TSSO landscape and to gain insight into both the strengths and challenges TSSOs in England face, their capacity to respond to external forces and their capacity building strategies. Further probing took place during the qualitative interviews. Specifically, this thesis involved the development of a survey which was disseminated to TSSOs across England as a scoping exercise, and in-depth qualitative interviews with several TSSO organisations to deepen understanding of the organisational capacity issues they face. This methodology will be discussed in the successive methodology chapter.

Chapter Three:

Methodology and study design

3.1 Introduction

The present study aims to provide an understanding of the organisational capacity of TSSOs against a backdrop of economic and policy change, and the implications of this changing context. The research questions which aim to be addressed are:

- How has austerity impacted on the organisational capacity of TSSOs?
- To what extent do TSSOs have the organisational capacity required to respond to the *Sporting Future* policy?

The research objectives of the study include:

- To examine the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising existing capacity frameworks
- To reflect on ways in which TSSOs can successfully maintain or build their capacity in a changing economic and political context
- To explore the policy and strategic organisational implications of these findings

The structure of this chapter follows the process advocated by Grix (2002) in which the relationship between ontology, epistemology, methodology, methods and sources is depicted and followed. Thus, the chapter initially addresses the ontological and epistemological assumptions that have served to shape this research and highlights the critical realist approach that has been adopted within this study. This is followed by a discussion of the selected mixed methods approach adopted for the study, and the use of an online survey and in-depth interviews as primary methods of data collection. Rationales for the selection of participant organisations and for the inclusion of survey and interview guide questions are also shared. This is followed by a discussion on the reliability and validity of the adopted methods.

3.2 Research paradigms

Any scientific research is based on a particular paradigm, which can be understood as a set of linked assumptions about the world (Kuhn, 1962) or a cognitive perspective to which a particular discipline adheres (Slevitch, 2011). Ontological and epistemological assumptions underlie research (Grix, 2002) and are considered two important components of the main building blocks of research (Figure 3).

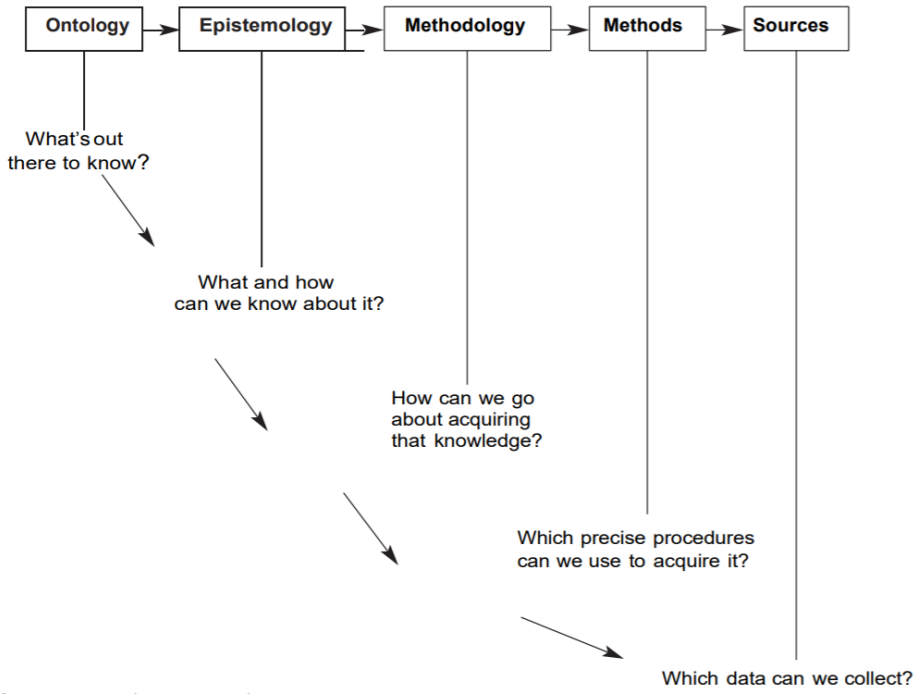

Figure 3. The interrelationship between the building blocks of research (Hay, 2002)

3.2.1 Ontology.

Ontology is defined as the study of reality and ontological positions describe what entities can be said to exist and the relationships that exist within basic categories of being (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

Ontological positions establish the process of knowing (Slevitch, 2011), thus only by answering the ontological question can the epistemological question of 'what can be known about this reality?', be addressed (Grix, 2002).

Furlong and Marsh (2010) describe two broad ontological positions including foundationalism and anti-foundationalism. Foundationalism is also termed realism, positivism or objectivism and it postulates that objective reality exists independent of human perception (Sale et al., 2002). It also posits that the ultimate truth exists and that there is only one truth (Slevitch, 2011).

Foundationalists work to identify the causes of social behaviour, in order to recognise causal relationships between social phenomena with an emphasis on explanation (Furlong & Marsh, 2010). Meanwhile, anti-foundationalism, also known as interpretivism, constructivism or relativism, emphasises that there is no single reality but multiple realities based on one's construction or interpretation of reality (Smith, 1983). Anti-foundationalism is also understood to be pre-interpreted and consists of meaning and social realities (Blaikie, 2003). Social reality is dependent on people's point-of-views, interests and purposes (Putnam, 1981). Parsons (2010) states that social constructs are shaped by "ideas, beliefs, norms, identities, or some other interpretive filter through which people perceive the world" (p.80). Anti-foundationalists focus on the meaning of behaviour with an emphasis upon understanding and not just explanation (Furlong & Marsh, 2010).

3.2.2 Epistemology.

Epistemology is concerned with the nature and the scope of knowledge (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and provides a justification for what can be known, what the criteria of knowledge are and how these differ to the criteria of beliefs (Blaikie, 1993). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), epistemology addresses fundamental questions such as: what is the truth? What is legitimate knowledge? How do we know what we know? What is the nature of the relationship between the investigator and what they are able to know? Within epistemology, approaches can be scientific or hermeneutic (Furlong & Marsh, 2010). These approaches include many families of research strands which run along a continuum (Grix, 2010).

3.3 Critical Realism

On reflection of the varying ontological and epistemological perspectives, a critical realist paradigm has been adopted for this study. Critical realism is appropriate as its search for

causation (Lawson, 1997; Sayer, 2000) helps to further explain social events and suggest practical policy recommendations to address social problems (Brown, Fleetwood & Roberts, 2002), as the current study aims to do. Furthermore, critical realism offers a coherent and valuable interdisciplinary approach to sport (Downward, 2005) and a view of reality that is potentially hierarchical, structured and has both social and individual features (Downward, 2005).

Critical realism originated as an alternative to both positivism and constructivism (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), however it draws upon components of both of these approaches in order to provide a comprehensive philosophy (Brown, Fleetwood & Roberts, 2002). Critical realism emerged through the work of Bhaskar in the 1970s and was further considered and expanded upon by critical realists such as Sayer (1992), Archer (1995), and Lawson (1997). It looks to recognise the reality of discourses of the social world (Bryman, 2012), and further posits that "we will only be able to understand – and so change – the social world if we identify the structures at work that generate those events and discourses" (Bhaskar, 1989, p.2). According to Fletcher (2016) it purports that ontology (i.e. the nature of reality) is not reducible to epistemology (i.e. our knowledge of reality). Instead, three domains of reality are posited. The 'real' and the 'actual' domains, in which events and their causes are generated and operate (Fletcher, 2016), and the 'empirical' domain in which events are actually experienced and observed (Hughes & Sharrock 1997).

The process of critical realist underpinned research is not necessarily linear; however, it does involve different steps. Critical realist researchers often begin with a particular problem or question which has been guided by theory. Bhaskar (1979) acknowledged the diverse but complementary significance of philosophy and empirical social science and hence accepted the use of existing theory as a foundation for research. While critical realists argue that the researcher can gain knowledge "in terms of theories, which can be more or less truth like" (Danermark et al., 2002, p.10), existing theories may not necessarily reflect reality accurately, and some theories may be more appropriate than others. Therefore, initial theories should be treated as just that; initial theories (Fletcher, 2016). The initial theory facilitates a deeper analysis that can either support, further explain, or reject that theory in order to build a new, more accurate explanation of reality (Fletcher, 2016). This approach is appropriate for the present research as it will be guided by a theorised framework of

organisational capacity developed by Hall and colleagues (2003). However, in keeping with critical realist epistemology, the researcher understands that she may ultimately support, modify, or reject this theoretical framework to better explain the particular context of TSSOs operating under austerity and in a changing policy environment.

Critical realism and data collection.

As a philosophy of science (Brown, Fleetwood & Roberts, 2002), critical realism provides a broad methodological research framework and is not associated with any particular set of methods. However, events should be observed at the empirical level using two categories of data, namely extensive and intensive data (Fletcher, 2016). Extensive level data focuses on broad trends and draws upon information such as statistical data. Meanwhile, intensive level data includes in-depth interpretive data, as obtained through interviews or focus groups. Within the current research, extensive level data will be observed through a wide-reaching online survey and other historical data. Intensive level data will be gathered through detailed qualitative interviews. Critical realism offers methodological guidelines to help ensure reliability throughout the research process. Within critical realism, a mixed methods approach is seen to offer an opportunity to identify different dimensions of the same subject (Fletcher, 2016), thus enriching one's understanding and explanation of this subject.

Critical realism and data analysis.

Critical realism seeks tendencies, not laws (Danermark et al., 2002). These tendencies can be seen in trends within empirical data and critical realists call these 'demi-regularities' (Fletcher, 2016). Demi-regularities can be identified through qualitative data coding which will take place during phase two of this research. While some critical realists promote grounded theory data analysis methods (Oliver, 2012; Yeung, 1997), a flexible deductive approach is also suitable as it is aligned with critical realism epistemology and ontology. This approach will be adopted in the data analysis of this research.

3.4 Methodology

Methodology is concerned with the ways we can go about attaining knowledge (Grix, 2010) and involves the combination of ontological and epistemological assumptions which constrain

the design of a study and lead to the selection of appropriate data collection methods. It is important that the methodology and data collection techniques selected are appropriate to the research aims and objectives of the research (Mason, 2002). In consideration of the aims and objectives of this study, a mixed-methods approach was adopted. This can be understood as an approach to data collection and analysis that combines both quantitative and qualitative methods within one study in order to provide a broader perspective to the research. This methodology was chosen as it allows the researcher to use all methods available to address a research problem and combines both inductive and deductive reasoning (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Furthermore, the study results will include both transcriptions combined with thematic analysis and statistical data combined with descriptive analysis. Thus, the results are validated within the study through two different data collection and analysis methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Using both of these approaches within the study will provide additional evidence and support for the findings through the process of data triangulation. Mixed methods further combines inductive and deductive thinking and reasoning.

The data collection of this study was divided into two phases including an online survey and qualitative interviews. The models and methodologies of studies by Hall and colleagues (2013, p. 7), Wicker and Breuer (2011) and Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371) were drawn upon in this study in order to assist with developing the survey, designing interview guides, thematically analysing the data and comparing findings.

3.5 Research Methods and Sources

Mason (2002) states that the choice of research methods and sources should be strategic and most suitable for answering the research questions selected. Thus, the data collection techniques considered most appropriate for the present study an online survey and semi-structured interviews. Phase One of this study (online survey) was concerned with understanding and mapping the TSSO landscape, whilst Phase Two (interviews) was concerned with understanding the unique experiences of different TSSOs. Both of these phases contributed to all of the research objectives of this study, however, Phase One was mostly used to 'examine the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising an existing capacity framework', while Phase Two focused more on the impact of the economic

and policy context and the implications thereof.

The survey was used as a quantitative data collection technique as it is primarily concerned with capturing measurable, predominantly statistical data while the interviews are aligned with qualitative enquiry (Grix, 2010). This is because interviews often collect data that is linked with concepts that are difficult or unsuitable to measure and "tend to explore questions of 'why' and 'how', rather than 'how many and 'when'" (Gratton and Jones, 2010, p.155).

3.5.1 Population.

The target population of this research is best described as 'third sector sports organisations (TSSOs)' operating in England. 'Third sector organisations' describes the range of organisations that are considered to be neither public nor private (as discussed in Chapter Two). This classification includes not-for-profit organisations (both incorporated and unincorporated charities and other organisations) social enterprises, mutuals and co-operatives (National Audit Office, 2011). TSSOs can be understood as self-governing, non-governmental organisations that are value driven and which principally reinvest their surpluses to further objectives which incorporate sport or physical activity (National Audit Office, 2011). This research focuses on TSSOs which serve young people within England as this is in line with the priority groups set out by Sport England (i.e. Towards an Active Nation, 2016) and the DCMS (i.e. within *Sporting Future* policy).

This population was selected primarily due to the increased importance that TSSOs have been afforded in recent years and, additionally, as no research has previously focused on investigating the capacity of TSSOs on a national-scale within England (see context outlined in Chapter One). Other research of this kind has been focused on sports clubs in isolation, operating in a community or commercial capacity in Germany (Wicker & Breuer 2009, 2012), or has investigated non-profit and community organisations from a variety of sectors – not specifically the sports sector – across Canada (Hall et al., 2003). Within England, the Sport and Recreation Alliance (2016) has conducted survey-based research on sports clubs, however, this was a general information survey and was not focused specifically on capacity or the context of austerity and the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. Thus, there is still a gap in the literature focusing on capacity within TSSOs in this context which clearly requires further

investigation.

TSSOs in England are currently facing a variety of challenges due to a turbulent financial and political context (see Chapter One), with the government making financial cuts and looking to ensure that sports organisations meet new targets as outlined in the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) strategy, in order to receive funding. This requires further understanding through an organisational capacity lens. TSSOs' responses to the strategy and subsequent plans will be further investigated in order to understand how this policy change may impact upon organisational capacity and future capacity building.

3.5.2 Phase One: Online Survey Sampling strategy.

A list of TSSOs – including charities, National Governing Bodies, Active Partnerships and community sports clubs – was compiled by the researcher (Appendix I). This was necessary because there was no pre-existing list of TSSOs that could be accessed (see Phase One sampling strategy). In order to provide a comparison, the decision was taken to include community sports clubs in the research population. The sample was divided as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Snapshot of sample, characteristics and examples

	Community Sports Clubs	Other TSSOs
Characteristics	• Operate with a local focus in community setting – often in just one area • Often focus on single sports • Often reliant on a volunteer workforce • Do not exist with the purpose of making large profits as commercial sports clubs do – typically reinvest any surpluses back into the club	• Operate in a bespoke way with different remits: local, regional and/or national focuses • Focus on various target groups, offering a variety of activities that are not always seen as 'sport for sport's sake'; linked to other social issues • Reliant on a mixture of volunteers and paid staff

		• Do not exist with the goal of making profit which benefits stakeholders – surpluses are reinvested into the organisations' mission-led activities
Types of organisation examples	E.g. local sports clubs in villages and towns	E.g. charities, National Governing Bodies, Active Partnerships, Community Interest Companies

These different types of TSSOs may have different roles in delivering *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). Thus, a comparison between these organisations made for a more detailed understanding of the adaptability of organisations and implementation of the policy across a wide range of organisations. The diversified population allowed for further comparison between certain groups of organisations with different objectives and different structures, i.e. sports clubs versus charities versus Community Interest Companies.

The criteria for selecting the organisations included in the sports club list and other TSSO list included:

(i) That they provide services for young people

(ii) That they operate primarily within England

The distinct missions and aims of these organisations was unknown when the list was devised. Thus, the survey hoped to provide further information in this regard. National Governing Bodies representing every sport within England and every Active Partnership are also included in the list, as is discussed further in the sections that follow.

The term TSSO is an umbrella term which includes a wide range of different organisational structures (as discussed in Chapter Two and above). A sample of sports clubs (n=1343) and a sample of other TSSOs (n=240) including sports charities, CICs, Active Partnerships and NGBs were selected to participate in the online survey. A summary of these types of organisations is presented in the table that follows:

Table 2

Description of the categories of TSSOs (divided into 'sports clubs' and 'other TSSOs') included in the online survey sample

Type of TSSO	**Definition**
Sports club sample	
Community Sports Clubs (Referred to as sports clubs)	Community sports clubs are organised sports organisations that offer membership opportunities and the opportunity to participate in sport at different levels. These are predominantly voluntary-led (Nagel, 2016). They provide coaching and other professional sports services but do not strive for maximum profit (Nagel, 2016) as larger professional sports clubs would. These sports clubs are often local, community-focused entities operating in one area.
Other TSSOs sample	
Incorporated and Unincorporated Sports charities (referred to as Sports Charities)	According to the Charity Commission for England and Wales (2017), a charity is an organisation with specific purposes defined in law to be charitable – and is exclusively for public benefit. The sole purpose of the organisation must be charitable with the charity's assets only permitted to be used to further its cause. Owners or shareholders cannot benefit from a charity. Charities can be incorporated or unincorporated. Unincorporated charities do not have limited liability status which means trustees may be personally liable for any money owed by the charity. According to the National Council for Voluntary Organisations (National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO); 2016), approximately 20% of charities in the United Kingdom are incorporated. Incorporation is much more common for larger charities: over 80% of large charities (those with income of more than £1 million) are incorporated (NCVO, 2016). A new type of incorporation became available to charities in England and Wales in 2013 – the Charitable Incorporated Organisation (NCVO, 2016). This provides the benefits of incorporation - chiefly limited liability - without charities having to register with Companies House as well as the Charity Commission. This is most popular with new charity registrations (NCVO, 2016). Sports charities in particular have purposes that include sport and recreation, but sometimes sport can be secondary to a main objective (e.g. teaching employability skills and offering other training with sport as the attraction to draw in participants).

Community Interest Companies (Referred to as CICs)	A CIC is a distinctive type of limited company which exists to benefit the community rather than private shareholders. This requires an 'asset lock'- a legal promise stating that the company's assets will only be used for its social objectives, and setting limits to the money it can pay to shareholders (Office of the Regulator of Community Interest Companies, 2016). CICs fall under the category of social enterprises which "can refer to any private activity conducted in the public interest, organised with an entrepreneurial strategy" (Simons, 2000. p.1).
National Governing Bodies (Referred to as NGBs)	Across England there are many different NGBs who have the main responsibility of governing and administrating a sport on a national basis, whether that is for the whole of the United Kingdom (i.e. England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales), for Great Britain (i.e. England, Scotland and Wales) or for one of the Home Countries individually. The organisations are understood to be the custodians and guardians of their sport. NGBs oversee their particular sport at both an elite and at a participation level. Some of their responsibilities include (SportScotland, 2016): - Controlling and regulating the environment of its sport; - Administering the practice and participation of its sport; - Planning and implementing a vision and strategic plan for its sport and determining how it will be implemented nationally, regionally and locally; - Promoting its sport; - Managing the rules and regulations of its sport, including anti-doping, child protection and equality; - Administering officials of its sport; - Developing the skills of coaches, athletes, officials and participants; - Organising and hosting competitions The Sport Council (Sport England, UK Sport, SportScotland, Sport Wales, Sport Northern Ireland) recognition criteria for NGBs focus on establishing whether the organisation has achieved a position of pre-eminence within its sport and if it has a reasonable level of organisation and governance (Sport England, 2018).
Active Partnerships	Active Partnerships are a nationwide network of 44 organisations in the counties of England. These organisations seek to make active lifestyles a social norm and address the concerning levels of inactivity in England – especially focusing focus their efforts on inactive people and under-represented groups who will benefit the most from an

	active lifestyle (Activepartnerships.org, 2019).The Active Partnerships work with a range of national and local partners to increase engagement in sport and physical activity and are closely aligned with national policy objectives (Activepartnerships.org, 2019).

Other TSSOs Sample. The details of England-based sports charity organisations were located through online charity databases such as Charity Choice and through the Government Charity Commission Register. The current record of charities is a comprehensive list of those found via this search (n = 103). While it is clear that this list is not exhaustive, as many organisations were added to this list as was possible considering the resources available to the researcher. An internet search of the Sport England, UK Sport and Active Partnership websites was also used to obtain a comprehensive list of Active Partnership organisations (n = 44) and all recognised sport NGBs in England (n = 84).

Sports Clubs Sample. While sourcing the charity, Active Partnership and NGB lists was relatively straightforward, devising the sport club sample proved challenging and the method for doing so had to be adapted in order to focus on the population underpinning the research. There was no comprehensive list of England-based sports clubs readily available to access and hence a detailed sampling strategy needed to be developed in order to fill this gap in available data. A database listing all sports clubs with relevant contact details or a contact form would prove a beneficial resource for those wanting to engage in sport and physical activity and for research purposes but this was unavailable. Initially it was proposed that the researcher would make use of participation data from Sport England's Active People survey (2016), which aims to provide a comprehensive overview of sports participation across England, in order to identify a list of sports clubs to target. This sample was selected as participation forms the basis of both Key Performance Indicator One (increase in percentage of the population taking part in sport and physical activity at least twice in the last month) and Key Performance Indicator Two (decrease in the percentage of people physically inactive) in the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) guidelines. As government funding will be dependent on organisations' ability to meet *Sporting Future*'s (DCMS, 2015) policy guidelines, the decision was taken to focus on funded sports (i.e. sports that receive state funding support via Sport England). It was initially suggested that the five funded sports with the greatest participation figures, the five funded sports with the lowest participation figures and one sport in the middle of this spectrum

would make up the list of sports clubs to be surveyed in the research. However, this soon became challenging as some of the sports listed in the data set were activities which predominantly do not require membership of a club to participate (e.g. swimming, running, cycling) and, the figures reported in the Active People data (2016) were not necessarily focused on young people as the data was for 14-year-olds upwards.

As a result, an alternative strategy to develop the list was adopted. The club sampling approach was adapted in order to focus on young people, as this is a Sport England and DCMS priority group (i.e. within *Sporting Future* priorities), and to focus on sports which have a high percentage of participants involved in clubs. This was achieved by initially ranking the Active People (2016) data which focuses on sports participation amongst young people aged 14-25 (Appendix II). Following on from this, the data depicting the percentage of participants that are members of a sports club from Active People (2016) was added to this ranking table. The ten sports with the highest participation figures amongst young people and also with the highest percentage of participants which are members of a club were then highlighted (Appendix II).

Unfortunately this sample still remained unsuitable as some of the sports that arose from this list do not match the target population underpinning this research (i.e. young people living in England). For example, according to the England Golf membership survey (2016), membership numbers amongst those aged 65+ were most common, while membership figures amongst those aged 16-19 and 26-29 were lowest. This offers evidence that golf is not necessarily serving young people and hence was not included in the sample. This was the case with several sports in the list. Thus, it was decided that only sports with the highest club memberships, and which also serve young people, will be included in this survey. Cricket, hockey, netball and rugby union were selected as the final four sports through which to develop a community sports club sample from. All of these sports had club membership rates of 30% and above and serve young people.

Having identified the target sports it then became possible to collate a list of clubs to be surveyed. Extensive lists of clubs from the four target sports were collated (Appendix III), through a two-stage approach. Firstly, a list of every local authority council in England was sourced online. Secondly, a sports club within each of these council areas for each of the four sports was identified. This was done so via a club finder search tool on the websites of England

Hockey, England Cricket Board and Rugby Football Union, which enabled the researcher to search for a club which has junior teams within each council area. The first club which appeared in the searches was added to the sampling table. England Netball does not have a club finder tool on their website and thus a Google search for 'Junior Netball Team' within each local council area was conducted for this sport. The first club that appeared in the Google search. and was found to serve young people through junior teams and operated in each local council's remit. was included. Unfortunately, some information was unavailable for some of the local councils and in that instance no club was listed. In total 1343 sports clubs were included in the sample and 230 TSSOs including charities, Active Partnerships and NGBs were also selected.

3.5.3 Online survey.

Phase one of the study involved the development, dissemination and analysis of an online survey. Online surveys collect data by interviewing a well-defined population via a digital platform through the use of a fixed questionnaire with prespecified questions (Cjaza, Blair & Blair, 2014). The purpose of the survey was to gain a broad understanding of the capacity of TSSOs in England within the current economic and policy context. It was also used to gain an overview of the challenges these organisations are facing, as well as their understanding of and attitudes towards *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). Furthermore, no comprehensive survey focusing on organisational capacity and *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) has been disseminated to such a diverse TSSO sample before so this survey aimed to bridge this gap and offer a broad insight into these organisations, as this information was not previously available.

This method of data collection was also chosen due to its strengths, which include (Evans & Mather, 2005):

(i) Limited costs

(ii) Flexibility and ease of access

(iii) Speed and timeliness

(iv) Convenience

(v) Ease of follow-up

(vi) Opportunity for question diversity

(vii) Ease of data entry and analysis

(viii) Required completion of an answer before respondents can advance to next question

(ix) Absence of interviewer bias

Research has confirmed that online surveys have a higher item completion rate compared to other forms of survey (Ilieva et al., 2002). However, online surveys also have weaknesses which needed to be considered. Firstly, unclear answering instructions can be a potential limitation in online surveys as online surveys are self-administered without instructional guidance in person. Thus, respondents may become frustrated and exit a survey if answering instructions are not explicitly clear (Ray & Tabor, 2003). This may also be the case if online surveys are too lengthy and are excessively time-consuming for respondents. To minimise or, where possible, eradicate the impact of such potential limitations, the researcher drew upon a number of procedures and techniques. Firstly, the researcher ensured that the length of the survey was appropriate and that it was not tedious for respondents, with a suitable number of items included. Furthermore, care was taken in providing explicitly clear answering instructions for each question.

According to Scholl et al. (2002), online surveys can limit the ability to probe in depth as there is no human contact through a skilled interviewer, thus survey responses are largely impersonal. In the case of the present survey, while the majority of the survey items were multiple choice or closed-ended, the limitation of responses being impersonal was countered through the inclusion of a qualitative phase which entailed semi-structured interviews, and the opportunity to probe in depth at a later date.

Privacy and security issues can also arise with online surveys (Berry, 2004) and data protection regulations need to be upheld. Firstly, data should be securely stored and the personal information of participants should not be shared (Berry, 2004). Furthermore, respondents might be hesitant to click URL links or open e-mail attachments for fear that these may be infected with a virus and this security issue needed to be taken into account in this study. These potential privacy and security limitations were minimised through the researcher obtaining ethical approval for the research through the Loughborough University Ethics Committee (Appendix IV) and following strict General Data Protection Regulation guidelines where it was explicitly emphasised that the personal data and contact details of

respondents will never be shared with external parties. The data collected from the survey has also been stored securely and any emails disseminated to potential respondents were sent via secure email platforms directly linked to the secure Loughborough University server. Finally, should any of the respondents have struggled to access the online survey website pages, or if they did not possess the relevant IT skills, the researcher had prepared paper copies of the survey which were readily available to disseminate.

3.5.3.1 Survey development. The survey had a strong theoretical underpinning as questions were formulated based on previous research approaches where possible. Table 3 outlines the rationale for the questions that were included in the survey. These sources of reference included resource dependency and organisational capacity research conducted by Breuer and Wicker (2009)/Wicker and Breuer (2011), and a general survey of sports clubs undertaken in the UK by the Sport and Recreation Alliance (2013, 2016). Hall et al.'s (2003) framework of organisational capacity underpinned the survey as a whole since the main purpose of the study was to examine the capacity of TSSOs in the present context. The survey collated data across a number of different dimensions including:

- Information about the organisation
- Perceptions of organisational capacity components (Hall et al., 2003) in their organisation
- Perceptions of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) and relevance to their organisation

A list of the majority of items included in the survey with the rationale for inclusion is presented below.

Table 3

Overview of survey item development and rationale/underpinning

Section included (linked to Hall et al. (2003) dimensions and other topics)	**Items**	**Reference/origin**	**Rationale**
Historical Factors and context	Approximately how old is your organisation?	Self-developed	Lack of historical information;

	Where does your organisation operate	Self-developed	helpful in providing case details; provides demographic insight
	To what extent does your organisation work with the following groups? (List of hard-to-reach groups included)	Self-developed	Helps to confirm that young people are a main priority group
	Which of the following describes what type of organisation yours is?	Self-developed	Helps understand the sample more and divide between sports clubs and other TSSOs
	Please select the main sports your organisation focuses on. (List of sports is provided)	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	Helps to know which sports clubs responded (out of four of focus) and what main sports are that other TSSOs are delivering
	Approximately how many beneficiaries does your organisation serve?	Self-developed	Helps understand reach of organisation – potential selection criteria for Phase Two
	What is the approximate annual turnover of your organisation?	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	Provides more context
	Has your annual turnover decreased or increased within the last year?	Self-developed	Provides more context
Financial Capacity	What are your organisation's main sources of income? Please select an approximate percentage for each of these categories (categories are listed)	Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013), self-developed	Provides more detail in line with Hall et al. (2003); offers insight into impact of austerity and funding changes; not enough historical data on TSSO finances in England
	What are your organisation's main areas of	Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	

	expenditure? Please complete the table below.		
	To what extent do you agree with the following statements (listed below): Meeting the needs of funders has taken precedence over our core mission at times	Self-developed	
	Demonstrating impact to funders is increasingly complex	Self-developed	
	Our organisation is currently facing financial uncertainty	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	Our organisation is currently facing financial uncertainty	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	
	Our organisation is confident it will secure sufficient funding for the next financial period	Ministry of Justice (2015) non-profit survey (focusing on legal non-profits only)	
	Our organisation is concerned about accessing funding in the upcoming two years	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	Our organisation is concerned about accessing funding after 2020	Self-developed	
	The consequences of austerity policy are creating substantial challenges for our organisation	Self-developed	
	Which activities out of the list below has our organisation undertaken in order to increase its income and/or reduce expenditure over the past year? (Listed)	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	What, in your opinion, are the greatest challenges to financial resources your organisation faces?	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	

Relationship and network capacity	Please describe the level of collaboration between your organisation and other types of organisations (organisations listed)	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Ministry of Justice (2015) non-profit survey, Wicker & Breuer (2011)	Provides further understanding on relationships being formed and level of collaboration which little is known about amongst TSSOs in England; in line with Hall et al. (2003)
	To what extent do you agree with the following statements (listed below): We are currently collaborating with an increasing number of organisations in order to help ensure the survival of our organisation	Self-developed	
	The main driver for collaboration is to access additional financial resources	Self-developed	
	We collaborate through sharing delivery resources in order to deliver to more beneficiaries	Ministry of Justice (2015) non-profit survey	
	We collaborate in order to share data and information which might assist us in acquiring funding	Self-developed	
Infrastructure and process capacity	How many offices or branches does your organisation have?	Self-developed	Provides further understanding of infrastructure and process capacity strengths and weaknesses in line with Hall et al. (2003); limited extant research on this area in England
	To what extent do you agree with the following statements: Our organisation has the physical infrastructure it requires to successfully fulfil its mission	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	
	Our organisation has the correct level of technological infrastructure to enable it to operate to its full potential	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	
	The physical and technological infrastructure of our organisation is a concern at present	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	

	Our organisation has a set of values which all staff members are aware of	Self-developed	
	Our organisation has specific policies which have been disseminated to all staff	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	The staff and volunteers involved with our organisation adhere to the policies we have created most of the time	Self-developed	
	The staff and volunteers involved with our organisation are aware of the consequences they will face if they do not adhere to our organisational policies	Self-developed	
	Our organisation feels that increasing facility costs are a future challenge	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	Does your organisation own sports facilities of its own?	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	Does your organisation make use of more than one sports facility?	Self-developed	
	Does your organisation hire facilities from local authorities?	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	
	Does your organisation hire any equipment to help fulfil its mission?	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	Over the past 2 years has your organisation been forced to reduce any office space or sports facilities it requires?	Self-developed	
	Over the past 2 years has your organisation been forced to expand the office	Self-developed	

	space and sports facilities it requires?		
	Has your organisation invested in any new technology which supports organisational aims or missions within the last year?	Breuer & Wicker (2009) Ministry of Justice (2015) non-profit survey	
	Does your organisation make use of facilities offered through schools or educational institutions?	Self-developed	
Planning and development capacity **(including research and impact)**	To what extent do you agree with the following statements (listed below): Our organisation has a clear strategy driving the organisation	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	Provides further understanding of the role of research, impact reporting and planning; in line with Hall et al. (2003)
	We are proactive in planning for the future	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	Investing in staff and volunteer development is a main priority for our organisation for the future	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	Planning for the future is challenging under austerity	Self-developed	
	Does your organisation plan to extend its offering of sports or activities in the next 2 years?	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Wicker & Breuer (2011)	
	Does your organisation plan to extend its geographic reach in the next 2 years?	Ministry of Justice (2015) non-profit survey	
	Has your organisation commissioned any research within the last 5 years?	Self-developed	
	In future, does your organisation plan to commission any research projects?	Self-developed	
	Do you currently evaluate the performance of your organisation with specific measures or indicators? Please provide further details.	Self-developed	

Human resources capacity	Approximately how many PAID staff does your organisation employ?	Breuer & Wicker (2009), Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	In line with Hall et al. (2003) dimension; offers further understanding of organisational capacity strengths and weaknesses, degree of reliance on volunteers and key human resources focus areas
	Approximately what percentage of volunteers and paid staff undertake the following roles? (Roles listed)	Wicker & Breuer (2011, 2013)	
	Approximately how many volunteers does your organisation recruit annually?	Allison (2009);	
	Approximately what percentage of your organisation's delivery staff have formal coaching qualifications?	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	Approximately what percentage of your organisation's staff have mental health qualifications?	Self-developed	
	To what extent do you agree with the following statements (listed below): The recruitment of paid staff is a concern for our organisation at present	Self-developed	
	The recruitment of volunteers is a concern for our organisation at present	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	The retention of paid staff is a concern for our organisation at present due to financial constraints	Self-developed	
	The retention of volunteers is a concern for our organisation at present	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	A lack of volunteers currently threatens the existence of our organisation	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	Our organisation has invested significant resources into training staff	Self-developed	

	Sourcing willing volunteers to support our organisation is difficult	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
	Volunteers typically stay with our organisation for 6 months or more	Self-developed	
	Volunteers are usually recruited from the communities where our services are delivered	Self-developed	
	The recruitment of appropriate board members is currently a concern within our organisation	Self-developed	
	Since the start of the last financial year, the number of paid employees has increased within our organisation	Self-developed	
	Since the start of the last financial year, the number of volunteers has increased within our organisation	Breuer & Wicker (2009)	
Overall Organisational Capacity	From the list below, please tick which areas are of greatest concern within your organisation at present (options listed)	Self-developed	To gain a broad understanding of what respondents believe to be greatest capacity issues
Sporting Future	Is your organisation aware of the UK government's new *Sporting Future* strategy?	Self-developed	No extant research on *Sporting Future*; provides insight into the effects on TSSOs and how this is linked to capacity
	If yes, do you feel this is relevant to your organisation?	Self-developed	
	If yes, does your organisation plan to make any changes in order to meet the requirements set out in the new strategy?	Self-developed	
	Our organisation is greatly dependent on government funding	Self-developed	

	Our organisation has received sufficient training and support in applying for government funding	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	Our organisation wishes to receive further training and support in applying for government funding	Sports Club Survey (Sport & Recreation Alliance, 2013; 2016)	
	We believe the *Sporting Future* strategy will benefit or organisation	Self-developed	
	We believe the *Sporting Future* plans are appropriate for non-profit sports organisations:	Self-developed	

Bryman's (2015) 22-step plan for developing and conducting a social survey has also guided the development of this online survey (Appendix V). Ethical clearance was obtained by the Loughborough University Ethical Sub-Committee for this phase of the research on 14 July 2017 (Appendix VI).

The disseminated survey included 124 items in total. These questions were presented in a variety of formats, including Likert-scales, selection lists and ranking scales. The survey was pilot tested by a medium-sized London-based sports charity in February 2018. Pilot testing, or pre-testing, is considered one of the most important stages of developing a new survey as it offers an opportunity for identifying errors in a survey's presentation, form and content (Litwin, 1995). Pilot-testing survey procedures. Pilot-tests are also important for assessing the adequacy of the sampling frame (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The pilot-tested survey was found to be easy to follow and took approximately 20 minutes for the respondent to complete. The pilot respondent made several suggestions for improving the survey which were taken into account when creating the final version. These suggestions included clarifying two questions and adding additional questions which would provide further information on the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy.

3.5.3.2 Online survey distribution and tools to increase response rates. The online survey was disseminated to all organisations included in the sample in April 2018. The survey

was uploaded onto the Bristol Online Survey platform and was disseminated to the sample organisations. A participant information sheet (Appendix VII) and detailed email was distributed to the sample organisations. Informed consent was gained through an online agreement page included on the website before the survey started. The email correspondence included a hyperlink to the online survey itself and also the contact details of the researcher should the sample organisations require any further information.

Online survey response rates can prove challenging as many people feel inundated to participate in research or they do not believe that their contribution to the research will be helpful (Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). However, researchers can maximise respondent motivation through a variety of techniques. These can be classified by timing and technique (Mehta & Sivadas, 1995). The timing of communication may have an effect, as in the case of preliminary notification and reminders, while the techniques, such as survey length, anonymity and incentives (Kanuk & Berenson, 1975; Dillman, 1978), can also boost response rates. The following steps were taken to promote responses amongst the sample:

Timing:

i) Response period: the response period was limited to a maximum of two weeks so as to encourage the sample to promptly complete the survey. This was clearly communicated in the disseminated emails. The survey response period was then extended by one week in order to attract further responses.

ii) Reminders: Sheehan and Hoy (1997) found that a reminder for e-mail surveys increased response by 25%. Multiple follow-ups have been seen to yield higher response rates than one-time reminders (Heberlein & Baumgartner, 1978). Thus, two email reminders were sent to the sample – one at the end of the first week and one at the end of the second week to encourage last minute responses. This successive contact substantially increased the response rate.

Technique:

i) Rationale: The survey included a clear rationale as to why the data collected is valuable and how it can benefit the third sector, and the respondent organisations in specific. This was included in the survey invitation email sent to the sample, in the form of an attached information sheet.

ii) Survey length: Previous studies have indicated that samples were sensitive to the length of surveys (Jobber & Saunders, 1993; Tomasokovic-Devey, et al., 1994; Smith, 1997). The present survey was as concise as possible.

iii) Question format: Crawford et al. (2001) found that respondents are most likely to abandon their questionnaires part of the way through, when completing a series of open-ended questions. Thus, the number of open-ended questions was limited to just one in the present survey. Open-ended questions were retained for further investigation during the qualitative phase.

iv) Progress indicator: including a progress indicator in an online survey can reduce the number of people who abandon their responses part of the way through (Couper et al., 2001). The present survey included this on each page.

v) Related items: Couper and colleagues (2001) found that it took less time for respondents to complete related items, such as Likert-scale items relating to the same topic, when they were presented together on one page. The survey in this study made use of Likert-scale tables with multiple related questions to make responding easier and to refine the presentation of questions.

vi) Incentives: incentivising potential respondents can boost response rates. While no monetary incentives were offered in this study, participants were offered the option of receiving the overall results of the survey through a tick-box. This information could be beneficial to the participant organisations so is seen as an incentive.

The survey was officially closed to responses in May 2018. A total of 114 organisations completed the survey, including 63 sports clubs and 51 other TSSOs. The decision was taken to present findings in two groups – 'sports clubs' and 'other TSSOs' at this stage. It became clear that relatively small NGBs with low turnover, and just one Olympic sport NGB with a relatively small budget, had completed the survey. While it may be expected that larger NGBs would experience very different capacity issues to smaller charities or social enterprises, it is expected that, due to the smaller turnover of the NGBs, that they may face similar capacity constraints to some of the other smaller types of organisations. For this reason, the survey findings for 'sports clubs' and 'other TSSOs' will be presented as two main categories. However, in order to demonstrate the subtle differences between the types of TSSOs, a

further break down into charities, NGBs, Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts and Social Enterprises/CICs will also be presented.

3.5.3.3 Data Analysis.

The online survey data was analysed descriptively. Comparisons were made between the two main categories of TSSOs – sports clubs and other TSSOs – where appropriate. The purpose of the analysis was to fill gaps in extant knowledge on this sample and use this knowledge to inform the selection of participants for Phase Two of the research.

The analysis is presented using graphs and other diagrams in order to indicate variations between the two samples.

3.5.3.4 Survey Validity and Reliability.

In order for a survey to provide sufficiently sound and consistent evidence, the information it provides must be both reliable and valid (Litwin, 1995). Validity and reliability must be considered in order to avoid measurement error.

Validity. Validity can be understood as the amount of systematic or built-in error within a survey, or how well it measures what it sets out to measure (Litwin, 1995). Several types of validity are typically measured when assessing the performance of a survey instrument: face, content, criterion, and construct (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Face validity is a casual assessment of item appropriateness, whereby the items in the survey are reviewed by untrained individuals (Litwin, 1995). This process helps to provide insight into whether the instructions in the survey are clear, the questions are easy to follow, and the content is appropriate to the respondent. In the case of the present study, the researcher assessed face validity by allowing fellow PhD students to review the draft survey.

Furthermore, content validity which is a subjective measure of how appropriate the items seem to a set of reviewers who have some knowledge of the subject matter (Litwin, 1995), was also assessed through consultations with PhD supervisors and through the pilot study of the survey with a London-based sports charity. In order to achieve content validity, care was taken to ensure that extensive literature relating to organisational capacity and the

Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) policy was explored before the survey was developed in order for the researcher to acquire a detailed understanding of the subject matter (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The researcher then constructed items that reflected the meaning associated with each dimension of organisational capacity and the different outcome categories of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), with assistance from other organisational capacity-focused surveys (i.e. Wicker & Breuer, 2011; 2013). According to Carmines and Zeller (1979, p.29), "it is always preferable to construct too many items rather than too few; inadequate items can always be eliminated, but one is rarely in a position to add 'good' items at a later stage in the research". This process was also followed by the researcher in order to ensure the content of the survey was most appropriate and to avoid duplication and unnecessary length.

Concurrent validity was not assessed in this survey as this requires that the survey instrument in question be judged against another method that is acknowledged as the highest standard for assessing the same variable (Litwin, 1995). The concurrent validity statistic is then calculated as a correlation coefficient with that test. The present study sought to employ the online survey as a broad scoping study and not to devise a replicable survey instrument for mass dissemination. Furthermore, as no surveys had been conducted within England focusing on organisational capacity amongst TSSOs or probed into the impact of the policy and economic context, this survey was developed to bridge this gap in knowledge. Thus, concurrent validity is not applicable to this study as there are no comparable instruments. Construct validity was also not measured in this survey as the survey was exploratory in nature with the aim of providing a broad overview of the TSSO landscape rather than the development of a sound survey instrument. Thus, formal scientific testing was not necessary at this stage.

Reliability. Reliability is a statistical measure of how reproducible the survey instrument's data are (Litwin, 1995). While reliability can be assessed using statistical measures and techniques such as test-retest, intra-observer and alternate-form (Litwin, 1995), as this survey was used as an exploratory scoping exercise to obtain descriptive statistics alone, the researcher took the decision not to implement these tools as this formal testing was not necessary at this stage. Instead, certain procedures were adopted by the researcher in order to enhance consistency. Reliability requires the use of standardised data collection procedures and instruments that are designed to enhance consistency (Litwin,

1995). In this sense, the same online survey was disseminated to all participants through the same digital survey platform and all responses were obtained within a set time period. Furthermore, according to Carmines and Zeller (1979), it is critical that the data is collected from the individuals best suited to providing relevant information that is in line with the survey objectives. In order to contribute to reliability on this plane, the researcher ensured that the sampling strategy of this survey was comprehensive and that the organisations sampled would be most appropriate in providing information relating to TSSO organisational capacity, and the understanding and the implementation of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). A list of appropriate survey items was also carefully devised and previous research was drawn upon when compiling this list (see Table 3).

3.5.4 Phase Two: Qualitative interview sampling and data collection

In line with the aims and objectives of this study, the purpose of this phase of the research was to obtain a much more detailed understanding of the challenges TSSOs face, how they overcome these challenges, how organisational capacity issues might be linked to these challenges, their readiness for capacity building and the impact of austerity and policy changes on their organisations. Thus, interviews were selected as the most appropriate means of obtaining this level of detailed information.

Interviews are the most frequently used method of data collection within qualitative research (Mason, 2002; Gratton and Jones, 2010), as they provide an opportunity to obtain complex and contextual case study information (Veal, 1997). Interviews provide a means through which individuals can share their personal beliefs and experiences (Vromen, 2010), alongside how they make sense of their social world and act within it (May, 1997). These variable interpretations of reality compliment the ontological and epistemological positions of critical realism.

Interviews can be categorised into four categories namely; unstructured, semi-structured, structured and group interviews (Grix, 2002). Semi-structured interviews were deemed most appropriate for the present study as these traditionally include the use of an interview guide, which contains open-ended questions, and informal probing to facilitate a discussion and obtain further details from the participant (Devine, 2002). Thus, the semi-structured interview technique has the potential to promote “thick and rich descriptions”

(Smith and Caddick, 2012, p.64) regarding the subject area being discussed. Furthermore, such interviews are appropriate when seeking to further understand actors' perspectives and their interpretation of their own actions and situation, as well as that of others (Keat & Urry, 1975). However, the weaknesses of semi-structured interviews were also considered in an attempt to minimise or eradicate any negative implications associated with these. For example, potential interview biases in questioning styles, interviewee dominance, misperception of interviewees and problems of insufficient recall or insufficient knowledge of the subject (Gratton & Jones, 2010) could impact upon the quality of the data collected and ultimately affect the findings of the research. Thus, the following procedures and techniques were employed by the researcher to reduce these limitations:

(i) Extensive preparation by the researcher, including the development of an interview guide which was in line with the research aims and objectives and included, unambiguous and appropriate language (Bryman, 2012).

(ii) The researcher remained enthusiastic and professional throughout the interview process (Gratton & Jones, 2010) and leading questions were avoided.

(iii) The researcher also has extensive personal interview experience, having worked as a sports journalist for several years before pursuing a career in academia through the completion of a MSc and the present PhD. The researcher has worked on several national research studies which have involved the researcher conducting close to 80 interviews or focus groups within the past five years. As such, the researcher possesses appropriate sets of social skills and required demeanours to aid the interview process (Mason, 2002).

3.5.4.1 Qualitative Sample Selection. The selection of interview participants requires a strong rationale to demonstrate that selection is appropriate and will ultimately contribute to the researcher being able to develop an empirically and theoretically grounded argument (Mason, 2002). There are various sampling methods that are appropriate for qualitative research but according to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), many qualitative researchers employ purposive sampling methods instead of random sampling methods. In this way, appropriate groups and individuals are selected that can provide more detailed information on the phenomena being studied. Thus, purposive sampling is seen as a strategic method to link

sources of information to research questions (Bryman, 2012). According to Mason (2002), purposive sampling can also be understood as theoretical sampling as it involves the construction of a sample which is "meaningful theoretically and empirically" as it includes "criteria which help to develop and test theory or argument." (p.124).

The present study adopted a purposive approach to selecting organisations to participate in Phase Two, on the basis that the selected organisations would be relevant and contribute directly to the overall research aims and objectives. Within this second phase of the study, the in-depth collection of data with respondent organisations, which were involved in the completion of the online survey during phase one of the research, took place. Following the receipt and analysis of 114 online survey responses, the opportunity to select appropriate organisations for in-depth research arose. In order to gain an understanding of the different capacity issues that organisations of different sizes present, and how these different organisations respond to the external changes such as austerity and the *Sporting Future* policy (DCMS, 2015), it was decided that the Phase Two selection criteria would be based on the following:

- Size of the organisations' reach - i.e. how many beneficiaries these organisations serve (primary selection tool)
- Location - in order to gain a wider understanding from a diverse range of respondents, the decision was also taken to include organisations from different locations in England
- Age of the organisation - to reflect the diversity in TSSOs and therefore select a broad range of ages of TSSOs
- Noteworthy – inclusion of any interesting comments within survey responses that require further investigation

Organisations were primarily divided into small (serving less than 500 beneficiaries), medium (serving 501-10 000 beneficiaries) and large (serving over 10 000 beneficiaries) in reach size. Thereafter, one sports club and one sports charity or CIC was selected for each of these categories. It was also decided that one NGB and one Active Partnership should be included in Phase Two of the research. The organisations which were selected are presented below (Table 4), with the specific rationale behind each selection explained in further detail. As is

depicted in the table, organisations of different locations, ages and with unique traits were included.

Table 4

Selection of Phase Two Organisations

	Sports Clubs:		Charities/CIC:
Small (Under 500 participants)	**Sports Club A** *Rationale:* • *NOTEWORTHY: Expressed variety of capacity issues in survey but still looking to grow* • *NOTEWORTHY: Target groups are young people/women and girls from variety of backgrounds*	**NGB:** • *NOTEWORTHY: Heavily reliant on state funding* • *NOTEWORTHY: Looking to grow in the UK and take control of more private clubs*	**TSSO A** *Rationale:* • *NOTEWORTHY: CIC status makes interesting case* • *NOTEWORTHY: Variety of capacity issues expressed* • *AGE: Under five years old* • *LOCATION: Operating in disadvantaged communities in large towns and smaller suburbs*
Medium (501 – 10 000 participants)	**Sports Club B** *Rationale:* • *NOTEWORTHY: Expressed variety of capacity issues* • *NOTEWORTHY: Have diversified their sports offering to now offer other activities at their club in order to stay afloat*	**Active Partnership:** • *SIZE: Large organisation serving over 50 000 participants from disadvantaged communities* • *AGE: Fairly young organisation but growing quickly*	**TSSO B** *Rationale:* • *NOTEWORTHY: Variety of capacity issues expressed* • *AGE: Older organisation*

	• *LOCATION: Rural setting in small town yet large reach*		
Large (10 001+ participants)	None completed survey		**TSSO C** *Rationale:* • *SIZE: Largest TSSO to complete survey* • *AGE: Under 15 years old*

The above organisations were contacted via email after they had marked a survey selection box that asked if they would wish to participate in the second phase of the research. All of the chosen organisations (n=7) agreed to participate once they were contacted via email, following the analysis of the survey findings.

The detailed profiles of these organisations are presented in Table 5:

Table 5

Profiles of selected phase two organisations

Third Sector Sports Organisation A (TSSO A):	TSSO A is a CIC operating predominantly in the Midlands but with subsidiary sites in the North West. It aims to develop communities and deliver cost-effective, timely and professional services in the sports and creative sectors. The organisation's main target group is young people, however, it also organises physical activity sessions in care homes for the elderly. The organisation aims to make a difference within communities through as many diverse activities as possible. This CIC is a relatively new organisation as it is just six years old. The organisation has invested over £730 000 into local communities and has engaged more than 9000 people to date. According to the organisation's phase one survey responses, it currently serves between 2000 and 5000 individuals (2018). It employs between 11 and 50 staff members and has 1-50 volunteers (2018). The turnover of this organisation is between £101 000 and 500 000 (2018) and 81-100% of this stems from grant funding. The CIC respondents expressed that infrastructure concerns, financial concerns and network concerns were the greatest organisational capacity issues that the organisation was facing at the time of the survey (2018).
Third Sector Sports	TSSO B is a sports charity operating in Greater London with the mission to improve the lives of young people in disadvantaged areas through intensive

Organisation (TSSO B):	sports coaching and mentoring. This organisation delivers over 50 sports programmes in schools throughout 16 London boroughs. Over 1200 participants attend the programmes for more than three hours per week. The charity also has its own centre which not only hosts its flagship sports programmes but also serves the local community through food banks, health programmes and social events. The centre is located in a ward which is in the bottom 10% of the most deprived wards in the United Kingdom. The charity measures the impact of its programmes through a Theory of Change model and through a STEP (social, thinking, emotional, physical) skills approach. STEP skills are measured via a combination of self-assessments, coach assessments and objective measures such a fitness testing. The charity uses the results to help strengthen its programmes and identify areas for improvement, as well as report back to funders. According to the charity's survey responses, obtained in Phase One of the research, 51-100 staff members are currently employed as either office staff or in delivery roles. The organisation does not rely on any volunteers and prefers to employ staff in paid roles. This charity has a turnover of over £1 million (2018). 41 to 60% of this turnover stems from private donations and the remainder is made up of grants (10-20%) and corporate donations (10-20%). This organisation's respondents reported issues relating to financial capacity and human resources capacity to be of greatest concern to the organisation, at the time of the survey (2018).
Third Sector Sports Organisation C (TSSO C):	This sports charity operates nationally and serves a large number of disadvantaged localities across England and the United Kingdom. It aims to use sports as a tool to create positive change in the lives of disadvantaged young people through making young people and their communities safer and healthier. The organisation is under 15 years old. The charity runs several flagship programmes, including a sports programme which serves poverty-hit communities. The charity also operates other programmes relating to food poverty and young female sports participation. Most importantly, this charity operates differently to the other TSSOs selected for phase two of the research in that it operates in a grant-giving capacity; mostly distributing funding to smaller charities. These organisations then fall within the charity's network, delivering their programmes and receiving the funding support in order to do so. According to the phase one survey responses, this charity serves over 50 000 young people and has a turnover of over £1 million (2018). The majority of this charity's income stems from grant funding (61-80%) and it redistributes the majority of its income. It employs between 51 and 100 staff. This charity's respondents perceived issues relating to financial capacity to be of concern to the organisation at the time of the survey (2018).
Sports Club A (SC A):	This hockey club operates in an urban setting within the Midlands and is made up of eight teams. It is one of the oldest women's hockey clubs in England at over 100 years old. Historically the club served women only but has also started running a senior men's team within the past two seasons. According to the club website, it aims to offer a safe and supportive environment for all players to develop and thrive. The survey responses of

	the club indicate that it has 101 to 500 participants, employs 1 to 5 staff members and has 1 to 50 volunteers (2018). All of the administration roles are filled by volunteers, while 50% of delivery roles and 80% of management roles are filled by volunteers (2018). The club has a turnover of £51 000 to £100 000 (2018) and a large percentage of its income stems from membership fees (41%-60%). This organisation expressed concerns relating to all five organisational capacity dimensions when completing the survey (2018).
Sports Club B (SC B):	The second sports club selected to participate in phase two of the research is a rugby club based within rural setting within the East Midlands. The club is over 140 years old and has over 500 members between the ages of six to sixty years. It currently has 15 competitive men's teams. The club hires out its facilities to other sports organisations which provide a range of sports activities for the community. The club respondents confirmed through Phase One survey responses that it employs 1 to 5 staff members and has between 51 and 100 volunteers (2018). The annual turnover of the organisation is between £51 000 and £100 000. The majority of its income stems from membership fees (41-60%) and the external private hire of its facilities (41-60%). The organisation's respondents expressed that it is most concerned about issues relating to financial capacity, in its survey responses (2018).
Active Partnership:	This organisation operates in an urban setting in the West Midlands with the aim of using sport and physical activity to improve lives through its various projects and partnerships. This Active Partnership promotes sport participation through a network of sports clubs and programmes around its region. Sports participation opportunities are advertised through its website but it also assists in the development of new sports projects in its locality. The organisation also provides grant funding for sports charities and programmes operating in the community. It is a relatively young organisation which has been in operation for less than five years. The organisation serves a wide target audience, mostly focusing on young people in disadvantaged communities but also serving the elderly, disabled individuals and minority groups. According to the phase one survey responses, this Active Partnership has a turnover of over £1 million (2018). It currently serves over 50 000 participants and 76-100% of these are understood to reside in disadvantaged communities. The Active Partnership employs between 11 and 50 staff members. This organisation's survey respondent expressed that the greatest organisational capacity issues it faces are linked to human resources capacity (2018).
National Governing Body (NGB):	The NGB selected for phase two of the research represents an Olympic sport. This organisation has two main areas of focus as it promotes participation at grassroots level and supports elite athletes in their journey to participate at international events. The NGB's current strategy outlines its aim to increase participation to 50 000 individuals and also target international success at the Olympics and Paralympics in 2020. The organisation currently has over 45 000 members and works alongside more than 850 accredited clubs. It runs a variety of different programmes

	promoting participation for women and girls, men and boys, young adults from disadvantaged communities and for current and ex-servicemen and women. According to the organisation's survey responses received in phase one of the research, it employs between 11 and 50 staff members and has over 1001 volunteers (2018). This NGB has a turnover of over £5 million (2018).

The specific staff members selected for the interviews were also chosen through a purposive approach. Participants were selected if they were deemed to be key informants, considered to be meaningful theoretically, empirically and contextually (Mason, 2002) and were in line with the research aims and objectives. Participant selection was based upon organisational roles and experience and the ability to provide specialist knowledge. Participant selection constituted the fulfilment of one or more of the following criteria:

(i) Holds a position that is linked directly to at least one of the five organisational capacity dimensions set out by Hall et al. (2003) (e.g. HR manager linked with human resources capacity)

(ii) Has been serving the organisation for at least one year through employment or volunteering

The participants that met these criteria and that were subsequently interviewed included staff from senior management level to delivery level. However, there were barriers to interviewing all requested staff members at some of the participant organisations. These barriers included limited staff availability and staff time constraints.

Some of the participants available to interview from the sports clubs covered many different roles within their organisations. Thus, it was best to speak to one committee member who could advise on many areas of organisational capacity and provide a strategic overview. The 16 participants that were selected and available to contribute to the research are presented in Table 6:

Table 6

The participant details for interviews conducted in Phase Two

Organisation	Number of interviews conducted	Positions of interview participants

Sports Club A (SC A)	1	Vice-President
Sports Club B (SC B)	1	Vice-President
Active Partnership	4	Senior Partnership Manager; Community Projects Manager; Marketing Manager; Insight and Communications Officer
NGB	1	Chief Executive Officer
Third Sector Sports Organisation A (TSSO A)	3	Managing Director; Director of Social Change; Development Officer
Third Sector Sports Organisation A (TSSO B)	4	Chief Executive Officer; Fundraising and Communications Manager; Head of Finance; Head of Impact and Research
Third Sector Sports Organisation A (TSSO C)	2	Chief Financial Officer; Head of Knowledge and Insight
Total:	16	

3.5.4.2 Interview Guide Development. An interview guide was created with general questions derived from the five dimensions of organisational capacity (Hall et al., 2003) and sought to probe further into the survey responses obtained in Phase One of the study. Tailored questions were included in the interview guides for each organisation, following a detailed review of their organisational responses to the survey, and after a thorough review of their websites and annual reviews if available. There were also questions added to further understand the impact of austerity and the *Sporting Future* policy on these organisations. Specific questions were included in the guides relating to the implementation of the *Sporting Future* policy (DCMS, 2015). A summary of the topics discussed is presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Summary of topics covered in interview guides and example questions

Broad topic category:	Example questions:
General	"How long have you been with the organisation/club?" "What was the appeal of working for this organisation/club for you?" "Can you briefly tell me about your background and how this prepared you for your current role?" "What are your responsibilities in your current role?"
Sporting Future and Austerity	"Do you find it challenging to plan for the future in the current political climate and/or under austerity measures? How does this affect your projects?" "What is your view on the *Sporting Future* strategy? How has this impacted your organisation and how do you think it will impact your organisation in future?" "Have you made significant changes since *Sporting Future* was announced?" "How are you meeting the objectives of *Sporting Future*? How are you measuring and reporting these?"
Financial Capacity	"Do you believe your revenue strategies fully fit what you associate with the 'non profit' status of your organisation?" "Have you ever had any training on how to apply for grants or state funding?" "Has the current political or economic climate had an impact on your organisation's finances? If so, how?" "Have you ever had to adapt your organisational mission, aims or delivery in order to acquire additional funding? How? Why did you feel the need to do so?"
Human Resources Capacity	"In your organisation's survey responses, you mentioned that volunteer recruitment is a concern for your organisation at present. Could you go into a bit more detail about this please?" "How do you recruit volunteers? You've mentioned that the number of volunteers in your organisation has increased this year, why is this? Have you changed the way in which you recruit at all?" "Has the number of paid staff in your organisation increased or decreased in the last two years? Can you tell me more?"
Infrastructure and Process Capacity	"Do you feel you have the correct level of infrastructure to fulfil your projects/commitments?"

	"You mentioned that you hire your delivery site from a school/university. Can you tell me more about this site and why you chose it? How long have you been based there?" "Is there any specific technology your organisation requires? What?" "What infrastructure components do you consider to be critical to your work at here? Do you feel you have the correct level of infrastructure?"
Planning and Development Capacity	"Please tell me more about the external research your organisation has commissioned." "Does your organisation have a clear strategy for the future? Can you tell me more about this and how you devised this strategy?"
Relationship and Network Capacity	"Do you collaborate with any organisations and share resources? If so, who?" "In the survey, your organisation said that you would not exist without collaboration. Can you tell me more about this? Why is it so important to your organisation?" "Has the number of organisations/bodies that your organisation works with increased or decreased recently? Why is this the case?" "Does your organisation collaborate in order to access financial resources? Or to deliver to more beneficiaries? Or to share data and information?" "What are the challenges that come with collaborating?"

***3.5.4.3 Data Collection through Interviews*.** Before any data was collected, ethical clearance for this phase of the research was obtained from the Loughborough University Ethics Committee in August 2018 (Appendix VIII). Informed consent was obtained from all participants before the interviews were conducted (Appendix IX). The details of the study and the ethical rights of the participants were also clearly outlined before the interviews commenced.

The data collection took place through semi-structured interviews with employees and volunteers of the seven selected organisations. Face-to-face or telephonic interviews were conducted. The interviews lasted between 25-60 minutes each and were recorded with a digital audio-recording device. These recordings were deleted, once verbatim transcription had taken place, in order to uphold the anonymity of the participants.

The use of a digital audio-recording device and subsequent transcription is considered as the main method of choice by qualitative researchers (Bryman, 2012). This is the case as semi-structured interviews in particular mean that the interviewer should be engaging in more of an open conversation with participants, where they follow up on interesting points made, probe for further details and also identify any inconsistencies in responses (Bryman, 2012). Thus, recording the interview supports the conversation process as it allows for enhanced rapport between the interviewer and interviewee that may result in the disclosure of unexpected information (Gratton and Jones, 2010).

The process of verbatim transcription by the researcher is also highly beneficial as it allows for the repeated examination of interviewee responses, with the researcher further immersed in the data (Bryman, 2012). According to Bryman (2012), transcription also allows for public scrutiny of the data to counter accusations of bias and provides a record of the exact words and tone of the interviewee, thus enhancing the reliability of the data.

3.5.4.4 Qualitative Data Analysis. While there are several analytic lenses that are used within qualitative research methods (Bryman, 2012), thematic analysis was considered the most appropriate method for this phase of the research as it offers an opportunity to identify, analyse and report patterns and themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2008). Thematic analysis encompasses the activity of searching for themes and codes (Bryman, 2012). These themes and codes are not predetermined but are identifiable before, during and following the collection of data (Ryan & Barnard, 2003). In this sense, the themes that emerged within this study stemmed from previous literature, the researcher's prior knowledge and the collection and analysis of new data.

Thematic analysis presents many strengths in that it offers a clear summation of the key points from extensive data, highlights similarities and differences in the data, allows for interpretation of the data from different theoretical perspectives and offers a dense description of the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). However, thematic analysis also has potential weaknesses such as lack of description of the data collected and minimalistic organisation (Smith & Caddick, 2012). Thematic analysis also provides no clear way to measure validity or reliability and can have "limited interpretative power beyond mere description if it is not used within an existing theoretical framework" (Braun & Clarke, 2006,

p.97). These potential limitations have been countered through using existing theoretical frameworks (i.e. Hall et al. (2003); Millar & Doherty (2016)) to categorise and explain findings, negating the potential weakness of limited interpretative power. The selected organisations and interviewees are also considered to be appropriate and have sufficient knowledge to contribute to this research in adequate detail.

In the case of this study, thematic analysis entailed searching across a data set of 16 interviews to find repeated patterns of meaning. Braun and Clarke's (2008) five-phase approach to thematic analysis was adopted. Phase one of this approach entails the researcher becoming familiarised with the data through transcribing interviews, reading and re-reading the transcripts and writing down initial ideas (Braun & Clarke, 2008). Phase two focuses on the generation of initial codes, which identify a feature of the data which appears interesting to the researcher (Braun & Clarke, 2008). Examples of initial codes from the present study data included 'Sport England funding', 'staff recruitment', 'venue hire', 'volunteer retention'. In phase three, codes are grouped into over-arching themes, with some codes becoming main themes and others being grouped into sub-themes (Braun & Clarke 2008). In the case of the present data, an example of a sub-theme is 'expenditure', whereas the overarching themes of the research tie in with Hall et al.'s (2003) organisational capacity dimensions, including 'financial capacity'. Phase four entails the refinement of themes, where data within themes should cohere together meaningfully and there should be clear identifiable distinctions between each theme (Braun & Clarke, 2003). The final phase involves the defining and naming of themes which includes identifying what each them is about and determining what aspect of the data each theme captures (Braun & Clarke, 2003). The final report should be embedded with an analytical story that provides a clear interpretation of these themes (Braun & Clarke, 2003).

Overall, a flexible deductive approach was taken when analysing the data, as this is consistent with critical realist ontology and epistemology (Fletcher, 2016). This approach meant making use of extant theory to deduce already theoretically established codes and determining whether these apply to the present text and how and when this is the case (Hyde, 2000; Mayring, 2000). It also meant probing further into the data collected from the quantitative survey phase, which contributed to the overall analysis of the qualitative interviews, as these enabled further explanation of survey data. Phase One of the study

outlined general insight into the TSSO landscape, while Phase Two was used to explore processes and concepts in further detail. While a lot of the transcribed data fitted into the five original organisational capacity dimensions outlined by Hall et al. (2003), and overlap was identified between other themes presented in the literature review, additional themes emerged as sub-themes or novel categories. These have been presented and analysed in detail in the findings chapters that follow.

It is also important to clarify that a manual thematic analysis was adopted for this research. While there are many advantages of using analytical computer software such as NVivo for thematic analyses, a manual approach was considered more desirable by the researcher. Neither a manual approach nor a computer programme approach affects the value of the study (Gratton & Jones, 2010), and is simply a preference of the inquirer. However, manual thematic analysis allows for increased familiarity with the transcripts (Gratton & Jones, 2010) which is an important part of Braun and Clarke's (2003) process of thematic analysis.

3.5.4.5 Qualitative reliability and validity. While qualitative research is labelled as producing 'soft' and unscientific results, Silverman (2002) argues that qualitative research still demands theoretical intricacy and methodological rigour. In the case of qualitative data, validity is essentially understood as the "truthfulness of one's conclusions" (Smith & Caddick, 2005, p.69) or the extent to which the findings accurately represent the social phenomena that are referred to (Hammersley, 1990). Meanwhile, reliability entails the consistency of the procedures and methods used to collect data (Gratton & Jones, 2010).

The overall trustworthiness of the data has been considered through Guba's (1981) framework which proposes four criteria that should be reviewed in qualitative-focused studies. This has been adopted in place of the views of reliability and validity associated with quantitative work (as is previously discussed in this chapter) through the implementation of the following criteria (Guba, 1981):

a) credibility (in preference to internal validity)

b) transferability (in preference to external validity/generalisability)

c) dependability (in preference to reliability);

d) confirmability (in preference to objectivity).

Credibility deals with how congruent the findings are with reality (Merriam, 1998), with Lincoln and Guba (1985) arguing that ensuring credibility is one of the most significant factors in establishing overall trustworthiness. Transferability is often harder to prove in qualitative studies as these studies are normally specific to small number of environments, groups or individuals (Shenton, 2004). However, Guba (1985) suggests providing a full description of the contextual factors associated with the study in order to convey the boundaries of the study. While transferability is important in research, the results of a qualitative study must be understood in the context of the organisations or individuals involved and, perhaps, the geographical area in which the data was collated (Shenton, 2004). One way of understanding transferability to other settings is to assess the extent to which the present study mirrors other project methodology conducted in different environments (Shenton, 2004). Dependability is used in preference to the positivist view of reliability which occurs when, if the work were to be repeated in the same context and with the same participants and methods, similar results would be obtained (Shenton, 2004). In order to directly address dependability, Shenton (2004) suggests that the processes in the study be reported in detail, therefore enabling a researcher to be able to replicate the work in future. Hence the research design acts as a prototype. The concept of confirmability can be understood as the qualitative investigator's equivalent to objectivity (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The 'audit trail' is crucial to this process as it allows an observer to trace the steps of the research through the decisions made and the procedures outlined (Shenton, 2004).

The steps taken in the present study, with the aim of achieving credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability, have been outlined in the table below.

Table 8

Provisions made in the present study to address Guba's (1985) criteria for trustworthiness

Quality Criterion	**Steps taken by researcher in the present study**
Credibility	a) Adoption of appropriate, well recognised research methods including quantitative online surveys and qualitative interviews. b) Development of early familiarity with participating organisations through reading annual reports and websites in detail. c) Triangulation of method, whereby multiple methods of data collection are used to investigate the same phenomena (quantitative survey and qualitative interviews). See the

	methodology discussion 3.4 for more information about this process. d) Careful selection of participants based on relevance to research aims and objectives and rationale provided. d) Multiple sources of informants (staff with diverse roles, qualifications and experience) from different sites (several different organisations across England). d) Examination of previous research to assess the degree to which the study's results are congruent with previous findings and relating present findings to existing research on organisational capacity and related concepts. e) Tactics to help ensure honesty in informants through establishing rapport with participants and acting ethically, communicating the participant rights at the outset. f) Iterative questioning in interviews, whereby the researcher used probing questions. g) Peer scrutiny of the research. h) Debriefing sessions between researcher and superiors, where supervisors have offered alternative approaches and a collaborative approach to decision making has taken place. i) Description of the background, qualifications and experience of the researcher in order to demonstrate credibility. j) Member checks of data collected through confirming comments and viewpoints during the interviews, and at the end of the interviews.
Transferability	a) Explanation of context through sharing background information on participant organisations and the environment that they find themselves in. b) Detailed description of the theories and situations under investigation, enabling readers to compare these to instances of these in other environments.
Dependability	a) Detailed description of methodology to allow study to be replicated in future.
Confirmability	a) Triangulation through mixed methods, different sites and different informants in order to reduce the effect of investigator bias. b) Detailed description of methodology to allow for integrity of the research results to be scrutinised, and an 'audit trail' of decision-making. c) Recognition of the limitations of the study methodology and the potential effects thereof.

Furthermore, dependability and credibility are demonstrated further through professional scrutiny from the internal research supervisors, internal reviewers and external academic peers at research conferences. The chosen research strategy, including the techniques selected for data collection and analysis, was considered to be the most appropriate for this research.

3.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has offered a detailed discussion of the research strategy and the methods considered to be the most rational and appropriate for achieving the aims and objectives of this study, in relation to underlying ontological and epistemological assumptions. This discussion was presented in a logical manner to highlight the directional relationship between ontology, epistemology, methodology, methods and sources as endorsed by Grix (2002). Ontological and epistemological assumptions impact upon the choice of methodological approaches, which equally have a bearing on the selection of research methods within a study (Grix, 2002).

A critical realist position has been adopted for this study. Critical realism assumes that both observable and unobservable social and political phenomena occur independently of individual beliefs and that the meaning and causes of social phenomena require an understanding of the relationship between structure and agency, within correlating political and social contexts (Sayer, 2000). Critical realism is appropriate for this study as its search for causation (Lawson, 1997; Sayer, 2000) helps to further explain social events and suggest practical policy recommendations to address social problems (Brown, Fleetwood & Roberts, 2002), as the present research aims to do through offering a deeper understanding of economic and policy context and its impact on TSSO and sports clubs' organisational capacity.

Critical realism supports an intensive qualitative approach to investigation, and thus the use of interviews as a method for data collection was adopted. However, due to the lack of broader understanding of TSSO capacity in England and no historical research focusing on both sports clubs and other TSSOs simultaneously, the decision to disseminate a wide-reaching online survey was also taken. Hence, a mixed-methods approach was adopted for

this study with phase one entailing the planning and distribution of a quantitative online survey and phase two consisting of in-depth qualitative interviews. This approach was also chosen as it is in line with critical realism's adoption of a retroductive approach in which surface level phenomenon are explored by deeper investigation of cause (Olsen, 2007), as this study aims to do. The choice of these methods was considered strategic and appropriate to answer the research questions and contribute to developing an empirically and theoretically grounded argument (Mason, 2002).

This chapter outlined the adopted research methods in detail. Initially, the survey which consisted of 124 items, and was based on previous TSSO organisational capacity research and surveys that had been conducted on sports organisations outside of England (e.g. Wicker and Breuer, 2011), was discussed. The survey was also comprised of several items that related to the understanding and implementation of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. The survey was disseminated to 1573 organisations (1343 sports clubs and 230 other TSSOs) which made up the sample. The selection of the sports club sample was complex and entailed sourcing the contact details of one hockey, rugby, cricket and netball club from every local authority in England, in order to provide a representative sample. The other TSSO sample included all NGBs and Active Partnerships in England, and as many sports charities and sports-focused CICs that the researcher could source through the charity commission database and other charity websites. In total 114 respondents (63 sports clubs and 51 other TSSOs) completed the survey. Various methods were employed to boost response rates and these were outlined in this chapter. A descriptive analysis took place once the survey had closed to responses. The validity and reliability of this method was also discussed in detail.

Phase Two of the study entailed the selection of seven organisations that had originally participated in the online survey, and agreed to participate further in the study. These organisations were selected based on their size (reach/participants) and other unique factors, as is highlighted in this chapter. The final sample for this phase included two sports clubs, one NGB, one Active Partnership, one CIC and two sports charities. Detailed semi-structured interviews with key informants within these organisations took place and were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Useful insights into the beliefs, interpretations and perceptions of employees and volunteers were gathered. A thematic analysis was conducted and the key themes to emerge were in line with the five dimensions of organisational capacity

(Hall et al., 2003) and other context-focused themes These findings are presented in the empirical chapters that follow.

Chapter Four:

Findings and discussion – Financial Capacity

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and a relevant discussion focusing on the organisational capacity dimension of financial capacity. This is the first of four empirical chapters in which the emerging themes associated with each dimension of Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework are presented. The dimensions which are perceived as strengths or challenges for the organisations are also highlighted. While this study is not designed to be a comparative analysis, the findings and discussions chapters that follow reflect upon similar data collected from studies based in Canada (Hall et al., 2003; Millar & Doherty, 2016) and Germany (Wicker & Breuer, 2011), as these studies helped guide the data collection phases. Furthermore, as this study aims to address a gap in extant literature, with no other relevant, comparative data from within England available, the findings from other regions are helpful in understanding the present data in more detail and provide an opportunity to consider these findings through a broader lens and wider context.

Most importantly, the capacity of these organisations to deliver policy outcomes within a context of austerity is discussed. A selected sample of quotations that best represent the emergent themes is included in order to illustrate the findings. Graphs summarising the survey findings are included and the majority of these graphs split the findings between sports clubs and other TSSOs to depict similarities and differences within this sample.

This chapter firstly outlines the financial context (i.e. turnover of organisations) and then goes on to discuss the revenue sources and strategies of sports clubs and other TSSOs, demonstrating that these organisations are looking to diversify their revenue streams in order to become less reliant on grant funding. This is especially evident amongst the other TSSO sample, who explained how an over reliance on short-term grant funding has presented many challenges. The implications of this finding are considered, especially in line with the *Sporting Future* (2015) policy. While the implementation of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) is assumed to arise through grants being awarded to organisations that will deliver its outcomes, the present study has demonstrated that this may not be the case because TSSOs are in fact seeking other sources of income. Thus, the policy might not necessarily have the effect that

the state had intended. This chapter also provides information relating to the expenditure of these organisations and financial management practices.

Financial capacity refers to "the ability to develop and deploy financial capital" (Hall et al., 2003, p. 5) and includes revenues, expenses, assets and liabilities of organisations. Assets and liabilities are balance sheet items, while revenues and expenses are flows of money that impact more directly on the day-to-day operation of organisations. The consequences of reduced revenue can be felt immediately for TSSOs as a positive cashflow is essential for survival in both the short and long term.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, within a period of financial uncertainty through austerity measures, financial capacity emerged as the area of greatest concern amongst the other TSSO survey respondent organisations during Phase One of the study (Figure 4). The sports club sample also identified this as being one of their main areas of concern, alongside human resources and infrastructure concerns. In total, 38.5% of other TSSOs and 29.8% of sports clubs identified financial capacity as a challenge. Thus, this has been identified as a significant organisational capacity issue which requires extensive analysis within this study. This research has focused on revenues and expenses of TSSOs as these are most relevant to this sample.

Within their Canada-based study, Hall and colleagues (2003) found the financial capacity issues of their sample to include financial planning concerns, revenue generation issues and negative consequences associated with grant funding. The findings of this study mirror Hall et al.'s (2003) findings to some extent, however, the main themes that emerged were diversification of revenue streams due to the uncertain fiscal climate and the hostility towards grant funding. This will be further discussed in the sections that follow in this chapter.

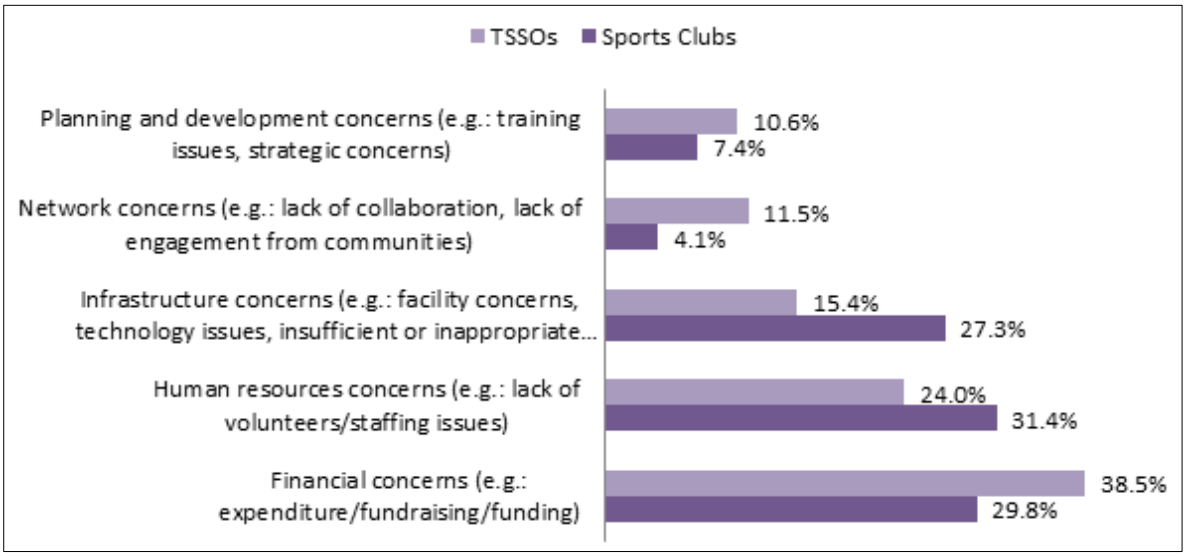

Figure 4. Sports clubs and other TSSOs' greatest capacity concerns at the time of survey completion

4.2 Financial Context - Turnover

Understanding the financial context of the participant organisations is important before focusing on financial capacity strengths and weaknesses.

The quantitative findings confirmed that the sports clubs and other TSSOs that responded to the survey varied considerably in their turnover. It is also evident that there is more variety amongst other TSSOs than sports clubs with regards to overall turnover. As was expected, due to the nature of community-based sports clubs, more than half of the sports clubs were operating with relatively small turnover (57.1% under £25 000 and 25.4% between £10 000 and £25 000) (Table 9). This position is in contrast with the other TSSOs which typically had much higher approximate turnovers (Table 9). This is due to the scale of some of the TSSOs which operate nationally or regionally, whereas the majority of sports clubs have a much smaller remit and on average serve fewer participants, with a smaller geographical remit. It is significant that almost one third of the other TSSOs have a turnover of over £1 million as this challenges the historical view of TSSOs being small organisations (see Chapter Two). Furthermore, it is evident from the turnover of these organisations that predominantly smaller NGBs completed the survey (44.4% have a turnover of under £100 000, while a futher 44.4% have a turnover of between £100 000 and £500 000). While it may be expected that larger NGBs would experience very different capacity issues to smaller charities or social enterprises, it is expected that due to the smaller turnover of the NGBs that they may face similar capacity constraints to some of the other smaller types of organisations (such as social

enterprises and some charities). For this reason, the findings for 'sports clubs' and 'other TSSOs' will be presented as two main categories, with a further break down into charities, NGBs, Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts and Social Enterprises/CICs within the 'other TSSO' umbrella category.

Table 9

Approximate annual turnover of respondent organisations

	£25 000 and under	**£26 000 - £100 000**	**£101 000 - £500 000**	**£501 000 - £1 million**	**Over £1 million**
Sports Clubs	57.1%	28.6%	14.3%	0%	0%
Other TSSOs	11.7%	21.5%	27.5%	9.9%	29.4%
Charities	7.6%	23.1%	30.8%	7.7%	30.8%
NGBs	33.3%	11.1%	44.4%	5.6%	5.6%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	0%	0%	10%	20%	70%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%	0%	0%

4.3 Revenue sources

Within the third sector, revenues can stem from both internal and external sources. Internal revenues sources include membership fees, match fees and admission fees (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) - especially in the case of sports clubs. Meanwhile, external revenues are derived from external stakeholders (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) and sources include grant funding and sponsorship. In the case of sports clubs, there are some revenue sources which are harder to classify and these include revenues from business operations, courses, sports events and social gatherings (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). These income sources can be understood as traditionally 'for-profit' or commercial business operation revenues. While commercial sales would not necessarily be considered as the traditional income sources for TSSOs, like grants and fundraising would be, it is evident through both the quantitative and qualitative findings of this research that diversification of revenue streams is taking place within this sector, and this is becoming increasingly important for organisations (see Chapter Two).

Lee and Nowell (2015) reported the impact of downturns in the global economy on the non-profit sector in the United States, stating that organisations have suffered from diminishing sponsorships, in-kind donations and other forms of fundraising. It is important to

understand the different revenue streams of the TSSOs in England and gain an understanding of how these might have changed as a result of austerity or policy changes.

For the purposes of this study, the revenue sources of sports clubs and other TSSOs have been divided into three sections: internal revenue sources, external revenue sources and other revenue sources which are not strictly considered either external or internal. This classification is also evident in previous studies of sports clubs by Wicker & Breuer (2011; 2013).

4.3.1 Internal revenue sources.

Internal revenues sources are generated from sources within the organisation and include membership fees (Wicker & Breuer, 2011), which are discussed further within this sub-section.

Membership fees. As expected, it is evident through Table 10 that membership fees are a more significant contributor for the sports clubs than for the other TSSOs. A third of sports clubs gain 80% or more of their revenue from membership fees, whereas only 10% of other TSSOs do. It is also evident that 45.2% of other TSSOs gain 10% or less of revenue through membership fees. However, when analysing the other TSSO sample further, it is evident that one third of Social Enterprises/CICs are deriving 81-100% of their revenue income from membership fees. This is also a main source of revenue generation for the NGB sample, with 44.4% of NGBs reporting that membership fees make up 61-100% of their income. This is one way of organisations diversifying revenue streams in order to avoid reliance on grants and state funding.

Table 10

Percentage of organisations' income stemming from membership fees

	0-10%	**11-20%**	**21-40%**	**41-60%**	**61-80%**	**81-100%**
Sports Clubs	1.6%	6.3%	17.6%	22.2%	19.0%	33.3%
Other TSSOs	45.2%	4.8%	7.1%	11.9%	21.4%	9.6%
Charities	56.5%	4.3%	13.1%	4.3%	13.1%	8.7%
NGBs	33.3%	11.1%	0%	11.1%	33.3%	11.1%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	50.0%	0%	0%	25.0%	25.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	0%	0%	33.3%	0%	33.3%

The qualitative findings of the study supported the survey findings discussed above. It is evident from the following quote that the NGB in particular is reliant on membership fee revenue:

> We're generating an income as they pay us directly. An adult membership is £39 and a junior membership is £22 per month. We have 680 odd members in England. (CEO, NGB)

The NGB in question experienced a reduction of £1.27 million in financial support from Sport England for the current funding cycle (2017-2021). It is also evident, from the qualitative interviews conducted in Phase Two of this research, that the NGB has struggled to regulate clubs and manage relationships with clubs in the past and, as a result, has lost out on revenue due to fewer member clubs and a limited membership. Hence, the NGB has taken the decision to diversify revenue streams and develop a membership offering in order to avoid the volatility of grant funding. The membership offering includes priority entry to competitions, discounts from partner organisations and general support, in order to bolster income and become less reliant on state funding. A similar model has been employed by British Cycling and this has resulted in increased revenue and many other benefits, including improved dialogue with participants and enhanced collaboration with commercial organisations who are now able to promote their products and services through a membership base (British Cycling, 2018). This is in line with previous studies which emphasise that many youth sport non-profit organisations are more reliant on membership fees to support their operations (Doherty, Misener, & Cuskelly, 2014). This will be discussed further in the *Diversification of Revenue Streams* section that follows later in this chapter.

4.3.2 External revenue sources.

External revenues are derived from external stakeholders (Wicker & Breuer, 2011). These sources include grant funding and statutory funding which will be discussed in further detail.

Grants and statutory funding. External grant funding for non-profit organisations can be divided into two main categories: project funding and core funding (Hall et al., 2003). Project funding can be understood as funding which is designated for specific purposes such as distinctive projects, set target audiences or for specific locations. Project funding is typically restricted to payment for non-operational expenses (Hall et al., 2003). In contrast, core funding is not specific or restricted to particular projects and allows organisations to strategically plan ahead and finance operational costs (Hall et al., 2003).

The other TSSO respondents reported a much greater dependence on grant funding for revenue generation than the participant sports clubs. However, the NGBs in particular demonstrated a mixed reliance on grant funding, with 60% of NGB respondents mentioning that 10% or less of their revenue is generated from grants but the remaining 40% stating that 61-100% of their revenue stems from grants. This is depicted in Table 11 and is discussed further in the analysis that follows.

Table 11

Percentage of organisations' income that stems from grant funding

	0-10%	**11-20%**	**21-40%**	**41-60%**	**61-80%**	**81-100%**
Sports Clubs	75.5%	20.4%	4.1%	0%	0%	0%
Other TSSOs	37.0%	13.0%	8.7%	13.0%	13.0%	15.2%
Charities	36.0%	20.0%	12.0%	16.0%	8.0%	8.0%
NGBs	60.0%	0%	0%	0%	20.0%	20.0%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	10.0%	0%	10.0%	20.0%	30.0%	30.0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	33.3%	0%	0%	0%	33.3%

Previous research indicates that sports clubs do not rely extensively on grant funding because they are more reliant on membership fees (Wicker & Breuer, 2011), as is highlighted above. If sports clubs receive this funding it is usually in small amounts and is restricted for specific projects or infrastructure needs. However, one of the sports clubs within this study recognised the importance of grant funding and confirmed that they will be investing resources into bid applications in future:

> We believe there is opportunity there (for securing grant funding). I mean one of the things I am doing at the minute is putting together a team to help with bid-writing and that kind of thing. (Vice-President, SC A)

While it was not made clear why this sports club intended targeting grant funding in particular, the club did express wanting to diversify its revenue streams as it planned to open a second, larger venue within 12 months. Thus, it is evident that this sports club is seeking to grow rather than maintain delivery output and, in order to do this, it will need to assess whether capacity building is necessary and is viable. This is especially important in terms of financial capacity as the organisation may not have the level of funds required to expand under its current revenue model. This finding indicates that the desire to expand may be a catalyst for sports organisations that are seeking to develop their revenue sources. However, the aim of expanding delivery is not necessarily a priority for all sports clubs or TSSOs.

While it is likely that sports clubs don't need to rely on grant funding unless there is a catalyst for changing the funding model (e.g. wanting to grow or having existing funding withdrawn), it is also important to note that another potential reason behind the lack of sports clubs' reliance on grant funding could be linked to a lack of knowledge on how to access statutory funding in particular. This was made apparent in the quantitative findings, where 63.5% of sports clubs disagree or strongly disagree that they have received sufficient support and training in this regard, compared to 41.1% of other TSSOs reporting the same. Furthermore, many of these organisations (44.4% of sports clubs and 54.9% of other TSSOs) expressed their wish to receive further training and support to access grant funding. This support would potentially assist organisations who wish to apply for financial support in future or provide them with information on how to evaluate and report their work.

It is evident from the quantitative findings (Table 11) that none of the sports clubs are very reliant on grant income as the majority (75.5%) of sports club respondents confirmed that they rely on this source for 10% or less of their total revenue. Meanwhile more than one third of TSSOs reported that at least 60% of their income is grant funded. This indicates that most sports clubs are very unreliant on grant funding, while some TSSOs are very reliant on this source of income. Thus, questions relating to the implementation of policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) amongst sports clubs remain. Sports clubs demonstrate self-

sufficiency and less reliance on grants, including state funding. Thus, their revenue models are not necessarily affected by policy change as much as the other TSSOs might be. As a result, one must question whether sports clubs are as aware of, and as receptive to, *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) as the state would have hoped. If there are no clear financial benefits for sports clubs, can the state expect these organisations to strive towards achieving the outcomes set out by *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015)?

The qualitative interviews revealed that TSSOs are aiming to become less dependent on grant funding as there is increasing competition for this type of funding and grants are often smaller than they were in the past. This is also evident by the mixed level of dependence on grant funding by the NGBs (qualitative findings presented in Table 11). The qualitative interviews indicated that two TSSOs (A and C) in particular are heavily reliant on grant funding but the nature of this grant funding has changed over time:

> We are constantly on the lookout for new grant sources. The majority of our funding comes from grants. We have some grants from big sources like the lottery, Sport England, Children in Need... and then all the way down to small local grants from borough and county councils. Grants range from £1000 to £36 000 so it's a big range of applications we go for. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> I started working here about five years ago... we had about five or six grant funders that covered our full income back then. Now we have about 30 different grant providers when we just had those 5 or so before! We've started a range of new programmes and all of those are covered by grant offerings now. (Chief Finance Officer, TSSO C)

Some interviewees from the other TSSOs, that are to some extent reliant on grant funding, reported that this funding is largely unstable and this has many negative implications for their organisations. The grant funding mentioned by the TSSOs in the qualitative phase of this study is predominantly project funding, and it is therefore short term in nature and aligned with time-limited projects, which can result in organisations having to terminate successful projects when the funding comes to an end. These findings are aligned with those of Hall and

colleagues' (2003), as the desire for core funding (see Chapter Two) was frequently raised by participants and the same concerns were highlighted regarding restricted funds. Hence, a need for more diverse and 'better money' was identified by organisations (Hall et al., 2003). 'Better money' refers to unrestricted finance that is obtained without obligations to a specific funder (Hall et al., 2013) and hence it can be used as the organisation sees fit without being allocated to specified projects or within specified timelines. The lack of 'better money' is a potential reason that organisations may wish to become less reliant on grant funding, allowing them more freedom to allocate finance and make planning decisions when revenues are not restricted by the demands of funders.

The funding issues raised by the participants in Hall et al.'s (2003) study were mirrored in the present study, with interviewees reporting that time-limited or short-term funding proves challenging for TSSOs. The concerns of the other TSSOs are highlighted in the following quotes:

> Keeping the work is hard sometimes. We have a park-based session we run and now about 25 people are about to lose that session because we no longer have the funding. We will also lose the staff that work there and that is very upsetting. That's the most stressful part of my role – just keeping projects going... it is very frustrating that these funding pots dry up. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> The issue for us is financial uncertainty. I say that because we don't have many multi-year grants. It's as if each year we need to reset the clock. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> Funding doesn't last forever so sometimes we have to reduce our offering or adapt to projects closing. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

It is also evident that the short-term nature of grant funding is undermining the ability of TSSOs to implement *Sporting Future*'s (DCMS, 2015) outcomes. This is due to time limits being set on organisations to implement projects and affect change in line with funding timelines. The following quote emphasises this finding:

> It's interesting because change doesn't just happen within a timeframe that is simply dictated by funding. Change happens in line with what the community wants and how it brings about change. That could take ten years when you only have two years of funding so it's always going to fail and fall short. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

It is evident that the majority of other TSSOs, albeit reliant on grant funding, have had negative experiences associated with this type of funding due to its often-short-term existence and the impact thereof. The interviewees expressed different consequences including having to start over by resetting their programmes every time new grant funding sources arise. As a result, these organisations never seem to progress any further with their delivery and simply 'hold on' as they try to obtain funding in order to keep programmes going. One of the organisations demonstrated how it is not just the funding that is unstable but also the expectations of funders that change with this. These expectations are often unrealistic in their time scales or targets which makes delivery even more challenging for these organisations.

Short-term funding could have an impact upon what these organisations can achieve in the long term. If organisations need to constantly reapply for grant funding and prove impact in order to secure this through funding policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), they are wasting valuable staff resources and delivery time which could be spent trying to achieve the outcomes set out by this policy.

The challenges associated with grant funding may result in organisations choosing to seek alternative revenue sources. This is significant as, should organisations be successful in accessing other means of funding, they will not be so reliant on grant funding provided by the state which is intended to support the delivery of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) outcomes. As a result of greater financial autonomy TSSOs may be more reluctant to strive to deliver *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) and other policies because they will have gained autonomy to prioritise their own work. These and other concerns raised by the organisations are addressed later in this chapter.

4.3.3 Other revenue sources.

Corporate donations. The survey findings confirmed that, in the case of the majority of sports clubs (95.3%) and TSSOs (82.8%) corporate donations made up less than 21% of total revenue.

Table 12

Other revenue sources of sports clubs that completed online survey

	0-10%	11-20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Corporate donations	76.7%	18.6%	4.7%	0%	0%	0%
Private donations	76.1%	17.4%	4.3%	0%	2.2%	0%
Sale of products	70.5%	13.5%	11.4%	2.3%	2.3%	0%
Other fundraising activities	50.8%	30.5%	6.8%	8.5%	3.4%	0%

Table 13

Other revenue sources of Other TSSOs that completed online survey

	0-10%	11-20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
Corporate donations	57.1%	25.7%	14.3%	0%	2.9%	0%
Private donations	67.6%	17.6%	8.8%	5.8%	0%	0%
Sale of products	68.4%	18.4%	13.2%	0%	0%	0%
Other fundraising activities	30.0%	30.0%	25.0%	10.0%	0%	15.0%

The other TSSO participants that took part in the qualitative interviews confirmed the finding depicted in Table 10; that corporate donations make up a small percentage of overall revenue for the majority of these organisations. However, the sports clubs did mention the big impact that corporate donors have made within their organisations during this qualitative phase. This is emphasised in the following quotes:

> In terms of corporate sponsors, we have a kit supplier called Hockey Warehouse. We've also got sponsorship from a local audit company, a wood company and a consultancy firm who sponsor our players... people have asked if they can sponsor different teams but we have already handed our full shirt sponsorship deal over to (a local University). (Vice-President, SC A)

> Yes, we have several corporate sponsors who sponsor players and the idea is that they sponsor players or anyone in the club and if they sponsor them then they will be covering the players' fees and contributing to the club too. (Vice-President, SC B)

These sports clubs mentioned that their corporate sponsors are mostly local firms which they have links with through their players, or that they have made links with at community networking events. This is described through the following quote:

> Basically, I go to black tie dos and I talk about hockey and the club... I get their business card and I drop them a line. People are generous to a point for local organisations. (Vice-President, SC A)

The above quote indicates that local-level corporate organisations might prefer giving back to local organisations and communities instead of donating to larger TSSOs or commercial sports clubs due to their locality and personal links. Corporate funding can therefore be seen as being relatively ad-hoc and hence it shares some of the features of grant funding. Thus, whilst the funding is valuable it is not conducive to long-term planning. Sports clubs seem to take more of a direct stance when seeking funding from local sponsors, whereas the other TSSOs in this study do not prioritise sponsorship to the same extent.

The majority of the other TSSO survey respondents did not seem driven to secure corporate funding in future. However, two of the organisations interviewed in the qualitative phase of the research made it clear that it was a priority for them to focus on securing more corporate donations in the near future.

> It's about making sure we can extend into new networks, particularly corporate networks in future. (CEO, TSSO B)

> We know we need to find London-based footprint companies who are successful enough to give money away in future through sponsorship and donations. (Fundraising and Communications Manager, TSSO B)

> We would love to host a European Championships and World Championships here but we need to make relationships with large corporates to sponsor this and offset the costs for us as they are high. (CEO, NGB)

Private donations. Both the sports clubs and other TSSOs confirmed in their respective survey responses that they are not extensively reliant on private donations. Private donations accounted for less than 10% of income for the majority of sports clubs (76%) and other TSSOs (67.6%). Due to its unique funding model however, one TSSO reported that it was very reliant on donations:

> At the moment more is given from individuals than corporates and grants and that is through a well-developed trustee network we have that opens a lot of doors. (Fundraising and Communications Manager, TSSO B)

> There is £1 million that the fundraising team would probably have to source if we lost the donor networks completely. (Head of finance, TSSO B)

4.3.4 Other fundraising activities.

Some of the survey respondents reported that they generate income through 'other fundraising activities'. The survey asked organisations to provide further information about what these fundraising activities might be and the majority of respondents who provided this information were sports clubs. The responses of these organisations were summarised as falling under four main activities:

(i) Internal Events (fundraising dinners, markets)
(ii) External Event Hire (clubhouse hire for external events, clubhouse catering)
(iii) Sports Competitions (hosting and running corporate tournaments, hosting other local clubs for large sports festivals)
(iv) Property hire (renting out property as office space, renting out clubhouse as a day care/nursery space)

The sports club interviews also highlighted that clubs run internal fundraising events, host sports competitions and also hire out their facilities to other sports organisations who deliver other sport and recreation activities.

> We have a dinner and a big club tournament. It's a mixed tournament for everybody... everyone pays to enter so we raise funds that way. One of the mums makes a big paella for everybody. We sell that with a beer for £10 so that all adds up. At the end of the season dinner we normally make at least £2000 profit too. (Vice-President, SC A)

> They use our clubhouse and facilities to deliver judo and dance and other sports. We also hire it out for corporate events. (Vice-President, SC B)

4.3.5 Sale of products/services and diversification of revenue streams.

It is evident that some organisations are not highly reliant on grant funding (as highlighted earlier in this chapter) and these organisations could potentially be working to diversify their revenue streams. This is a very proactive strategy implemented with the aim of

becoming less reliant on grants and dwindling government funding. It also means that, as a result of lower reliance on statutory funding, policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) will not have as much impact on the programme development, measurement and reporting within these organisations if the recipient target organisations have reduced interest in applying for this funding. Furthermore, another reason for not being heavily reliant on grant funding could simply be due to some organisations having potentially failed when bidding for grant funding opportunities. A low success rate in grant bids may be linked with a lack of training for funding as is highlighted by the survey responses.

Historically one might not necessarily expect TSSOs – especially charities –to sell goods and services as these organisations supply output of a public good which is not traditionally in line with commercial practices (Weisbrod, 1988) However, non-profit and for-profit sector boundaries can become blurred during periods of external uncertainty, due to resource scarcity and state retrenchment, as organisations can find themselves operating in spaces left by public bodies (see Chapter One). Revenue through sales is evident in the current study, with 13.2% of all respondent organisations confirming that 21-40% of their income stems from the sale of goods. This finding is further evidence of TSSOs and community sports clubs working to explore a wide variety of potential funding sources, particular to secure core funding. This diversification demonstrates obviating resource dependence on traditional funding streams and the development of diversification strategies for accessing wider revenue streams that will not compromise the mission of the organisations (Macedo & Pinho, 2006; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Previous research focusing on financial capacity reveals that revenue diversification allows organisations to have more flexibility to achieve organisational objectives (Vos et al., 2011; Wicker & Breuer, 2013; Wicker et al., 2012).

Within the qualitative interviews none of the TSSO participants mentioned that they sell goods, however it was very clear that three of these organisations sell services, with some stating that they aim to make these services a revenue-generating priority in future. Some of the services these organisations offer include running sports programmes for schools, delivering leadership programmes in schools and colleges, providing first aid and mental well-being training and running apprenticeship schemes. Further details are shared in the following quotes:

> We have gotten better at sales. We made a conscious decision about 18 months ago that we need to become more sustainable. The small grants that we once considered to be our bread and butter we are no longer eligible for as we have grown too much as an organisation. So we had to look for other sources and we needed to make sure we were selling something. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> About £1 million comes from schools. The schools we operate in contribute a chunk towards the cost of the programmes we run. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> What we have been looking to do is diversify income sources. As part of our Sport England grant, we agreed to train people up to deliver more sports programmes. We found that actually there is a commercial market for this training... now we get ad hoc bookings for the training... potentially we believe there is a market of £500 000 a year for us to make in terms of the training we provide. We also developed a standard on apprenticeships that we would like to deliver. We are working now on delivering apprenticeship cohorts. It's pushing us as an organisation to act much more like a business and generate income through commercial activities, which is very different to what a charity normally does. (Chief Financial Officer, TSSO C)

The sports club respondents reported that they generate revenue through more direct sales in the form of food and beverages at matches, and also through clubhouse bar income. They also confirmed that they sell branded items such as sports kit and club souvenirs. One of the sports clubs highlighted that they have a relationship with a kit supplier who gives them a percentage of the profit from every sale made.

4.4 Implications of revenue models

There are several challenges linked to the revenue models that the TSSOs and sports clubs in this study have reported. These include a loss of autonomy associated with grant funding, mission drift, a burden on human resources and long-term planning challenges associated with project funding, bureaucracy and increasing demands from funders and increased competition for funding. These challenges are interlinked and are discussed further below.

Within the qualitative phase, two organisations reported an example of loss of organisational and financial autonomy due to specific funding conditions or specific project funding. The loss of autonomy may occur as organisations are limited to running specific programmes and activities that funders are willing to support.

> We need to be informing funders and drill down and do pre-research in those communities before we just tick their boxes. Unfortunately, that has happened in the past where we don't get to do things in that structured way as they want to do it their way. We can't just chuck money at communities that we know nothing about and expect change... yet the funders believe that's the case and they don't listen to our advice. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> Sometimes they tell us to report things in a specific way which we wouldn't have done on other projects and that can be hugely frustrating. (Senior Partnership Manager, Active Partnership)

This loss of autonomy was also highlighted in the research by Hall and colleagues (2003) who shared similar findings from their study focusing on Canadian third sector organisations. It is evident that the organisations in the present study feel uneasy regarding restricted funding which involves setting up new projects or delivering in new areas that they do not presently operate in. As is mentioned in the above quotes, organisations do not feel comfortable investing time and resources into communities that they do not have sufficient knowledge of, as this might lead to wasted resources, yet they feel compelled to fulfil the wishes of funders due to the financial pressures that they are currently facing. Hence one can question whether austerity measures are in fact negatively impacting the delivery of these organisations as they waste valuable resources starting new projects when the chance of these succeeding is not always high enough.

This is linked to another potential challenge that these organisations face, known as 'mission drift'. Often project funding is assigned by funders for specific activities and thus, organisations could be required to adapt their programmes and in turn their overall aims and missions to fit funding mandates (Hall et al., 2003). This can lead to over-promising or 'mission

drift', where organisations start to veer away from their key values and core purposes to meet the needs of stakeholders, regardless of whether they are able to fill their promises of providing the outlined services (Hastings et al., 2015; Milbourne & Cushman, 2013). Some of the TSSOs in this study confirmed that they have had to adapt their programmes to meet funder requirements and recognised the dangers of this, including reduced long-term impact (Hastings et al., 2015). However, most of the participant TSSOs stated that they were determined to avoid 'mission drift' and ensure that the 'character' of their organisation is not impacted upon:

> I think it's about balancing what is acceptable and what is completely going against your mission and what you stand for. You can't just push aside your mission for any opportunity as then it just goes against what you stand for and it doesn't look very good from the outside. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> We were in a position where we had to deliver a set number of school projects because that is what Sport England wanted for their statutory funding. Quite openly, that meant we needed to maintain that number of school programmes but when you're trying to maintain quality or drive quality you actually want to be able to follow your own figures and your own rules. We had to compromise on that aspect and we didn't agree with it so we've renegotiated the new Sport England contract to ensure that compromise doesn't happen again. (CEO, TSSO B)

> While we can grow and branch out, is that growth really sustainable? We don't want mission drift by chasing funding. (Insight and Communications Officer, Active Partnership)

Within these examples of funding relationships, it is evident that there is a direction of power. This can be understood further through Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978) resource dependence theory (RDT). RDT posits that an organisation's survival is dependent on its ability to secure resources from its environment (Hoye & Doherty, 2011). As a result, an organisation's decision making is influenced by internal and external agents perceived to control critical

resources, such as state funding in these examples. Thus, a dependency occurs and while these are often reciprocal dependencies between organisations, there is an inability for these organisations to operate wholly autonomously (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). According to RDT, those organisations that own or control critical resources are conferred with power which influences the behaviour of beneficiaries or partner organisations (Nienhuser. 2008; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The partner that controls the most important resources, in this case financial resources, typically holds strategic control (Yan & Gray, 2001). Emerson's (1962) power dependency theory is also relevant as this theory dictates that the dependence of one organisation over another implies the direction of power in the relationship, with the least dependent organisation possessing the greatest power. This power imbalance can lead to 'mission drift' as discussed. When third sector organisations begin to 'chase' funding, their long-term impact can be negatively affected (Hastings et al., 2015).

Within the qualitative findings it is evident that organisations try to resist mission drift and have tried to reverse the power dynamic addressed by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) and Emerson (1962) (i.e. TSSO B) or have tried to balance this by having the power of choice in who they partner with and to what extent they adapt practices (i.e. TSSO A; Active Partnership). It can be argued that the potential for one organisation to influence another derives from the discretionary control of the resources it possesses and the level of dependence of another organisation (i.e. whether it is able to acquire resources from alternative sources) (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Thus, it might be the case that these TSSOs feel that they are able to maintain a level of power as they are not solely dependent on one source of funding or are able to secure funding while still maintaining their mission and practices.

The evasion of 'mission drift' was also evident in the survey findings (Table 14). The majority of sports clubs (50.9%) and other TSSOs (61.9%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed that meeting the needs of funders has taken precedence over their core mission at times. While it is significant that 21.6% of the TSSOs agreed or strongly agreed that the needs of funders had taken precedence over their core mission, it is encouraging that the majority of these organisations are able to resist mission drift and are able to uphold their clear visions. The NGBs (11.1%) and Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts (20%) that did strongly agree that meeting the needs of funders has taken precedence over their core mission also

demonstrated the highest levels of dependence on grant funding (Table 11). The organisations that were less dependent on this form of funding and had more varied revenue sources, did not report that meeting the needs of funders had taken precedence over their core mission as explicitly.

Table 14

Degree to which organisations believe that meeting the needs of funders has taken precedence over their core mission at times

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Sports Clubs	1.6%	5.9%	31.7%	28.6%	33.3%
Other TSSOs	5.9%	15.7%	27.5%	33.3%	17.6%
Charities	0%	19.2%	26.9%	38.50%	15.4%
NGBs	11.1%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	22.2%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	20.0%	30.0%	30.0%	10.0%	10.0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	0%	0%	66.6%	33.3%

Another issue associated with project funding relates to human resources capacity. Due to the often-short-term nature of many grants, a strain on human resources occurs due to the process of continuously searching and reapplying for new pools of funding. Within this study, participant organisations recognised the impact that bid writing and funding applications has on staff members and how this process is a challenge for their organisations.

> We put a lot of work and time into grant and tender applications and when you don't get them it feels like a serious waste of time. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> It took us over a year to get this current bout of funding, which is actually a huge amount of time and burden on staff for a charity. (CEO, TSSO B)

> The other thing we need to take into account is that sometimes the admin associated with the bids is huge and we have had to start factoring that in... at the end of the day, we need to pay the payroll. Sometimes a bid of £20 000 is not even worth it for us as

> the admin work alone is going to be costed at around a quarter of that anyway. (Chief Finance Officer, TSSO C)

Short-term funding also provides long-term planning challenges. Several participant organisations highlighted the challenges associated with a lack of consistent, long-term funding in the qualitative phase of this study and the resultant impact upon sustained sports provision, including the associated challenges in planning for the future. Hence, organisations value unrestricted core funding over specific project funding (Hall et al., 2003) yet this is not always straight forward and easy to achieve.

It is evident from the survey findings that there is a degree of uncertainty regarding securing funding in future for both the TSSOs and the sports clubs. When asked whether their organisation is concerned about accessing funding in the next two years (2018-2020), 40.3% of sports clubs and 43.2% of TSSOs agreed and strongly agreed that this is the case. This was even more apparent amongst TSSOs when asked whether they were concerned about accessing funding after 2020 (more than two years after the survey). 56.9% of the other TSSOs agreed or strongly agreed that their organisation is concerned about accessing funding after 2020, with 39.9% of sports clubs reporting the same. This shows the implications of the usually short-term nature of grant funding and project funding, which may also be linked to concerns surrounding the consequences of austerity measures.

Furthermore, one of the TSSO participants mentioned that the greatest challenge they currently face is planning for the future. This is due to short-term project funding but also due to the brief funding cycles of Sport England.

> I think long-term planning is very challenging. I think we have recently been in quite a few positions where we know what we are doing in the next year but no longer than that. Our longest grant is with Sport England and even that is short. That lasts three years. Often funding is too short-term so we know what we have for the next one or two years but often not much longer so it is very hard to plan too far ahead. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

Bureaucracy and increasing demands from funders were also highlighted as challenges for the TSSOs in this study. Several TSSOs confirmed that some grants are more difficult to secure and maintain as the demands of funders are often difficult to satisfy. This can lead to applicants over-promising and under-delivering. The participants within this research highlighted that there is a sense of bureaucracy when applying for funding, as is highlighted in the following quotes:

> Sometimes they set the most unachievable, ridiculous targets. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> With Sport England there's a sense of bureaucracy and the hoops that you need to jump through to get the money. (CEO, TSSO B)

> Our funders require a lot from us. Even though Sport England is now only 50% funding us, we are still brought down by their bureaucracy and reporting needs. (Senior Partnership Manager, Active Partnership)

Furthermore, the survey results (Table 15) from TSSOs indicate that 37.3% of these organisations agree and 17.7% strongly agree that demonstrating impact to funders is becoming increasingly complex. The Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts in particular reported this. The majority of sports clubs did not feel as strongly about this, potentially because they are smaller, community-based organisations that are not as reliant on grants and they often also have more of a direct approach to acquiring funding through corporate and individual donors.

Table 15

TSSO and sports club survey views on whether demonstrating impact to funders is becoming increasingly complex for their organisation

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Sports Clubs	8.1%	17.7%	40.3%	16.1%	17.7%
Other TSSOs	15.7%	37.3%	21.6%	15.7%	9.8%
Charities	15.40%	42.30%	15.40%	15.40%	11.50%
NGBs	11.10%	33.30%	33.30%	11.10%	11.10%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	30.0%	40.0%	10.0%	20.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	0%	66.6%	33.3%	0%

It was also suggested by the participant organisations that increasing competition for funding and resources is a challenge for the TSSOs. Two of the other TSSO sample that took part in the qualitative phase of the research highlighted that the number of organisations competing for grant funding is proliferating. Hence, it is not only challenging to obtain funding due to reduced statutory funding, which has taken place as a result of austerity, and meeting increasing funder demands, but also due to the increase in applicants for grant funding. This seemed to be more prevalent in the case of the other TSSO respondents as sports club are not as reliant on grant funding. Sports clubs, however, still need to compete for financial support from commercial organisations and the participant organisations addressed the concern of increasing competition for funding in this area.

> The pools of funding get smaller but the number of organisations wanting those pools is getting bigger by the day! (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> We have seen a lot of CICs pop up and they are all bidding for our same pots of money. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> Sometimes they (commercial organisations and donors) say that other charities and sports clubs have already asked for help and they can't always help all of us. (Vice-President, TSSO B)

Furthermore, one organisation expressed that there is not only competition for funding amongst TSSOs in the sports sector but also for TSSOs now extending their funding bids to other sectors. Some TSSOs are applying for grant funding in other areas, such as education, health and transport, if they can prove that their impact is evident across multiple domains. This shows how TSSOs are struggling to secure funding through traditional funding routes and have had to look further afield in order to access grant funding opportunities.

> There's not huge wealth in sport charity funding. If you went to funders that are just funding sport charities, you'll see that they are few and far between. Hence we are increasingly competing with charities in the education and health spaces. (Head of Impact and Research, TSSO B)

4.5 Impact of Austerity on Revenue

The economic crisis in the United Kingdom which has resulted in long-term public funding cuts has had a substantial impact on the financial capacity of NGBs, Active Partnerships and charities within this study. In the qualitative research phase, all but one of the TSSOs confirmed that their statutory grants from Sport England and other public bodies have diminished as a result of austerity cuts, with some organisations expressing that they feel neglected by the state. It is also evident that at least two of the TSSOs restructured due to public sector funding cuts, as Sport England grants have diminished and they have been unable to operate with the same number of staff. This further illustrates the dangers of relying on short-term grant funding alone.

> Local authorities want to support us but they just don't have the money to give us for projects anymore. The third sector organisations are desperately trying to plug the gaps that have been left by the state pulling away and the consequences of that. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> Yeah (austerity) is definitely having an impact... unfortunately now as local authorities have shrunk so much, what we have found is that more recently they are starting to internalise everything. Rather than continuing to fund groups like ourselves, they are

actually even going to the extent of setting up their own CICs and investing back into those or finding other loopholes in the way they invest funding. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

This year we have a turnover of about £6 million. When I first arrived we were closer to £10 million and I'd say the changes are largely driven by the changes in our grants from Sport England. Four years ago it was £4 million and this year it is only £2 million... we are continuously on a downward trajectory with their funding. So sometimes when we move from one Sport England contract to another then we have to look at the organisational structure. We have had to go through two restructurings and that has involved redundancy. (Chief Financial Officer, TSSO C)

We have had to close a programme as our budget was cut from £10.2 million to £7.6 million…. we reduced the size of the London team... there was a reduction in activity of that makes sense. (CEO, NGB)

A couple of years ago we were almost 90% funded by Sport England and now it's down to 50%. We had to take a hit on the Sport England funding we had. (Insight and Communications Officer, Active Partnership)

It is evident that almost all of the TSSOs involved in Phase Two of the research have experienced the negative consequences of austerity measures. The larger organisations (NGB, Active Partnership, TSSO C) seem to have faced the higher percentage in reductions from Sport England and have hence had to restructure or lose staff members. The other smaller TSSOs (TSSO A and B) seem to have prepared for limited provision from the state from the outset, adopting unique structures or revenue models, as they may not have qualified for specific grants or have alternate funding options available to them. TSSO A has chosen to operate as a CIC where revenue from the sales of services (such as running sports programmes in schools) is substantial, whereas TSSO B has a unique donor-focused model of funding where a network of private donors makes up a significant percentage of its total revenue. TSSO A has, however, experienced the consequences of austerity through reductions in funding from local authorities instead of Sport England directly. This

organisation is younger than the other TSSOs in this study at just seven years old and this might be the reason this organisation has chosen to operate with the more contemporary status as a CIC, and be less reliant on state funding, having witnessed the austerity measures being implemented from 2009 onwards.

Furthermore, TSSO A felt that, even in a time of austerity where it is imperative that funding is better managed, the state is not making sound funding allocation decisions. The organisation offered solutions to what they consider to be poor funding allocations. These suggestions are highlighted in the following quotes:

> I understand there will be cuts sometimes but what can be done better is that localised pots of money could be tendered for on a yearly basis so the good work can continue. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> I feel that central government are often giving money to the wrong people. They give it to people that talk the talk but don't necessarily produce the goods. We are on the outside and get to do the developmental work and have to deal with the issues left by these bad funding decisions. I want them to start listening. I'm a socialist by heart but because they've dismantled local authorities it seems like we still have these people holding on to their jobs when they are 'old-school' thinkers. We need to get rid of them so we can start to think about how to use the money we have more effectively... I believe we need a consortium of funding where groups come together through a democratic process and decide where is best to put the money and decide how it should be spent. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

4.6 Expenditure

Organisational expenditure was reported by the sports clubs and TSSOs during the quantitative phase of the research. 28.3% of sports clubs confirmed that the majority of their budget (61-100%) is spent on resources required for the delivery of services. 32% of the sports club respondents confirmed that 41-100% of their budget is spent on property costs. The lowest sources of expenditure were reported to be external independent research and monitoring and evaluation, with all respondents spending less than 10% of their budgets on

these areas. Staff salaries were also a low percentage of total expenditure, with 66% of sports clubs stating that less than 10% of their expenditure is dedicated to this area. This is due to the often higher numbers of volunteers that serve sports clubs.

The TSSOs reported very different findings, with the majority of respondents (52.1%) stating that their organisations spend 41-100% of their budget on staff salaries. Furthermore, these organisations dedicated slightly more finance to monitoring and evaluation (17.9% spent between 11-40% of total budget). External independent research was the lowest source of expenditure, with 96.9% of organisations stating that they spend less than 10% of their budget on this exercise.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, these findings confirm that sports clubs and other TSSOs differ across some expenditure categories. Due to their voluntary nature, sports clubs do not spend as much on staff salaries. It is also understandable that, often due to smaller budgets on average, it is not commonplace for sports clubs to allocate finances for external independent research to be conducted. What is interesting, however, is that some sports clubs are spending a substantial percentage of their budget on training and accrediting staff, and also on property costs. This is potentially due to the need for clubs to ensure that coaches have the necessary levels of first aid training and coaching qualifications in order to meet Clubmark criteria (Sport England Clubmark, 2016).

It is also important to consider fixed versus variable costs when understanding the expenditure of these organisations. Fixed costs can be understood as expenses which do not change substantially over time, such as monthly property rental costs and staff salaries. Variable costs fluctuate each month, and these include travel, telephonic expenses and research costs. It is evident that the TSSOs within this study have a higher proportion of variable costs than the sports clubs, making monthly expenditure more unstable. However, the TSSOs also generally spend more on fixed costs such as staff salaries, which the sports clubs do not. This means that TSSOs potentially need to ensure that a larger baseline revenue is generated in order to cover staff salary costs, adding to the financial pressure they are under, especially during times of austerity. Most grassroots sports clubs operate with relatively modest budgets and any deviations due to increased delivery expenditure could have significant consequences; for example the inability to cover any variable costs as fixed

costs such as facility rent would need to be paid first. This could lead to reduced delivery or the need to increase membership fees.

The qualitative interviews revealed that the sports clubs do not pay many of the staff members that they employ and that their main outgoings are linked to property costs. As discussed, these organisations traditionally rely on a larger volunteer workforce (see Chapter Two).

> The head coaches and the physios are the only ones who get paid. They are not employed by us but they invoice us. (Vice-President, SC A)

> Our main costs are related to maintaining our fields and clubhouse. (Vice-President, SC B)

With regards to the TSSO respondents, it is somewhat surprising that the majority of these organisations are spending 10% or less of their budget on external independent research (96.9%) and monitoring and evaluation (82.1%). These organisations had also mentioned that they are experiencing increasing performance pressure from stakeholders, and that funders are demanding more in terms of impact and reporting, yet they presently only allocate a small percentage of their budget towards this. This seems to be considered an additional cost which some of the smaller TSSOs can simply not afford to invest into; either through the process of acquiring expert monitoring and evaluation staff members or through outsourcing this research.

During the qualitative phase of the research, two TSSOs confirmed that they spend the majority of their budget on staff salaries. One of these organisations also mentioned the high costs associated with property maintenance. This was highlighted in the following quotes:

> Staff costs are huge. If we're looking at a £5 million income, I'd say that between £3-£3.5 million goes to staff costs. We've got around 100 people on our payroll... there's a lot of people to pay. Once you get past that, the biggest cost is this building. The cost of running this building is around about half a million. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> Our staffing is our biggest cost so that needs to be the thing that gets cut when we get into trouble. (Chief Financial Officer, TSSO C)

4.7 Financial management

Financial management has been previously explored in organisational capacity studies focusing on community sports clubs or non-profit sports organisations (e.g. Doherty et al., 2014; Hall et al., 2003; Misener & Doherty, 2009; Wicker & Breuer, 2011).It is important to note that the acquisition and maintenance of required financial resources might not guarantee organisational goal attainment (Hall et al., 2003). Thus it is also important to consider the processes involved in acquiring and managing these resources.

In this study, most of the participants appeared to be satisfied with their organisation's ability to manage organisational finances. Financial management did not appear to be much of a concern for the organisations within this research and did not emerge as a predominant theme within the qualitative findings. The participants seemed to believe that their organisations are performing well, given their current level of resources and the high demands placed upon them to be financially accountable. This satisfaction of financial management is potentially due to the fact that almost all of the organisations in this study employ a full-time accountant. Sports clubs do not typically employ bookkeepers or accountants due to the smaller scale of their budgets (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) so it is interesting that both of the sports clubs participating in the qualitative phase confirmed that they do in fact employ bookkeepers:

> This year for the first time ever we have actually employed a bookkeeper instead of having a voluntary secretary or treasurer handling things. We are in a position where we are turning over around £80 000 a year so we need to run more like a business now. When I first took over the presidency there was no cost model or anything... now we have reached the levels we need and we are a well-oiled business machine. (Vice-President, SC A)

> Yes, we have a bookkeeper who works with our secretary to look after our finances. (Vice-President, SC B)

Thus, it is evident that the main financial capacity issues within this study are linked to a lack of revenue, the inability to sustain long-term funding and challenges associated with project funding and are not stemming from the management of finances.

4.8 Chapter Conclusion

TSSOs frequently encounter significant financial challenges that may affect their stability and sustainability (Hall et al., 2003). It is evident that austerity measures and policy changes have resulted in financial challenges for the organisations within this study, with organisations reporting financial capacity to be their greatest concern in the quantitative survey results. This was mostly evident for the other TSSO participants who reported that their present challenges include diminished state funding (through direct grants from Sport England and indirectly through local authority grants and contracts) and challenges associated with short-term grants and project funding. The volatility of grant funding and the constraints that are associated with it seems to have unfavourable consequences for these organisations, including a strain on human resources through the constant search for new funding sources, restricted autonomy and the hindrance of long-term operational or programme planning. While the sports clubs are less reliant on grant funding, it was interesting that one of the participant clubs considered applying for this type of funding in future. However, it is concerning that the majority of sports club participants and a substantial percentage of the TSSO participants felt that they had not received sufficient support in applying for state funding to date. With the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy outlining specific criteria that organisations need to demonstrate in order to secure state funding and specific procedures that need to be followed, it is concerning that the TSSOs and sports clubs feel they have not received sufficient support in this regard. Without adequate support, these organisations could have funding bids rejected or could lack the expertise and confidence to submit funding applications from the outset.

As a result of the diminished statutory funding, the TSSOs within this study emphasised their efforts to diversify their revenue streams in order to reduce their reliance on short-term grant funding. They have done so by selling their services or charging membership fees. However, the sports clubs plan to diversify their revenue streams in the opposite way – by applying for grants that they have not previously accessed. Other financial capacity pressures stem from increased competition between organisations for the diminishing supply of grant funding. This seemed to affect the other TSSO especially. This competition is reported to be arising from reductions in government funding, greater restrictions on the use of funds and a growth in the number of TSSOs operating in England. Some of the organisations in this study have responded to this pressure by focusing on boosting collaboration with other TSSOs, where they have used collaboration as a means to plug caps in capacity or to secure missing resources (to be discussed further in relationship and network capacity chapter).

Bureaucracy and increasing pressure to prove impact to funders was also highlighted as a challenge by the TSSOs. Recent state policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) may have added to this pressure through increasingly complex funding criteria which requires extensive impact reporting and places a burden on human resources.

Chapter Five:

Findings and Discussion - Human Resources Capacity

5.1 Introduction

Human resources capacity is central to Hall and colleagues' (2003, p. 7) framework and has historically been identified as one of the greatest strengths of non-profit organisations. Human resource elements have been identified as critical for the establishment and sustainability of community sport-for-development projects as they facilitate the communication of important information across networks, develop new programmes and educate partners (MacIntosh et al., 2016). However, the participants within this study also identified a number of challenges in the area of human resources which should be addressed. In fact, the quantitative survey respondents confirmed that issues relating to human resources were the second highest concern for their organisations (Figure 4). These concerns were investigated further in the qualitative phase of the study, where participant organisations expressed trepidations relating to both volunteers and lack of paid staff. These included concerns surrounding the recruitment of staff with insufficient experience, a lack of staff and overloaded staff due to financial constraints, staff and volunteer retention concerns, and the need for more volunteers. Detailed findings relating to these human resource capacity concerns are presented in this chapter. Furthermore, it is interesting that both the sports club and other TSSO participants in this study expressed negative attitudes towards the recruitment of volunteers. The reasons behind these organisations choosing not to take on volunteers, including the strain on human resources associated with training and supervising volunteers, are addressed in this chapter.

As the different types of organisations within this study are reliant on different forms of human resource capacity (volunteer workforce versus paid workforce), different issues were discussed across the sample, and these are split into two sub-sections in the results and discussion that follows.

5.2 Paid Staff

Participants were asked questions relating to their organisations' paid work force during the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research. The survey findings confirmed that the

majority of community sports club respondents (93.7%) employ five staff members or less within their organisations. This is to be expected within community sports clubs, who traditionally rely on a larger volunteer workforce (i.e. Wicker & Breuer, 2011). However, 54.9% of the other TSSOs employed ten staff or less which implies that these are either smaller organisations or that they also rely heavily on volunteers. Interestingly, 7.8% of the other TSSO respondents stated that they employ over 100 staff, so it is evident that organisations of varying staff size completed the survey.

5.2.1 Staff recruitment.

The survey questioned respondents on the extent to which recruiting paid staff is challenging for their organisations, with 31.7% of sports clubs and 31.4% of TSSOs confirming that they agreed or strongly agreed that this is a challenge. The qualitative phase of the research investigated staff recruitment challenges in further detail and organisations shared that these challenges are predominantly due to funding constraints and difficulties in sourcing staff who are the right fit for the organisation. Some organisations stated that they cannot attract candidates with adequate experience and qualifications due to financial constraints. These findings are highlighted in the following quotes and are discussed further in the sections that follow:

> All coaches and engagement officers need to agree to our code of ethics when they sign up. Sometimes people don't like how on top of things we are and won't fit in with what we do so they prefer not to join us. Recruitment can be a challenge but we must stick to what is best for us. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> An area we've never been particular good at as a charity is human resourcing. Um, mainly because we haven't put enough emphasis on it or recruited a senior enough person who looks at transactional HR like recruitment but also at organisational development. (CEO, TSSO B)

5.2.2 Lack of staff/overloaded staff.

Whilst recruitment was seen to be a challenge for the survey respondents, staff capacity to undertake their roles was shown to be another challenge for some of the organisations taking part in the qualitative interviews. The second phase of the research revealed that the TSSOs believe their paid staff resources to be over-stretched. Two organisations mentioned that they are struggling with a lack of paid staff and, again, this is linked to insufficient financial resources for additional employment. This was highlighted in the following quotes:

> Once we start hitting bigger figures then we can invest in the staff which we really need. We really struggle without a full-time administrator or head of finance. I'd say we need somebody else to come in and support the management of some of the areas we operate in too. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> We don't have the staffing capacity to do some things we want to do. (Vice-President, SC A)

> I am basically juggling. It's like I'm spinning plates. We could do with the help of a marketing graduate or someone like that. The struggle is you don't have time to train someone. You need someone with a basic knowledge and experience to help and that costs money; money which we don't have... I think maybe as an organisation we should have a few more staff and that would help. At the minute we have one person working on each project area but if we had a few that would be more beneficial. I think it would also create more opportunities. (Marketing Officer, Active Partnership)

> In an ideal world I would have more staff in my department and also in every one of the ten wards on the ground... there should be more. We need bigger budgets to attract the right level of candidates too. (Insight and Communications Officer, Active Partnership)

Thus, it is evident through these quotes that human resources capacity is limited because financial capacity is limited for these organisations. This emphasises the strong link between

these organisational capacity dimensions and demonstrates how important it is for these organisations to remain financially stable. While human resources capacity is considered to be central to Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity, without consistent revenue streams and sound financial management this capacity dimension will be severely impeded.

5.2.3 Staff retention.

The qualitative phase of the research highlighted another human resources concern in the form of staff retention. Staff retention concerns were discussed by two of the TSSOs who mentioned that this is due to organisational culture issues or due to financial constraints associated with project funding (financial capacity). These concerns are highlighted in the following quotes:

> We've had a high turnover of staff within the last two years so we've ended up recruiting for around 30 roles per year. It is difficult as it can be really time consuming because you have to retrain staff and make sure they are clued up regarding safeguarding and health and safety issues. I think the issue is that we need to do some work on the culture. We've identified that some of the turnover is due to staff being unhappy. We need to be honest with ourselves and ask questions regarding pay and career progression opportunities. We need to think of how to make sure staff feel happy in what they are doing and feel rewarded for the work they do. This is tricky because we are obviously a charity and cash is not free flowing." (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> Recruiting staff is my greatest challenge! Finding the right people for a charity is a challenge as they need to buy in to what we do. (Head of Impact and Research, TSSO B)

> Funding streams come to an end all the time and sometimes contracted staff would need to be let go or new staff brought in for new funded programmes. (Chief Financial Officer, TSSO C)

5.2.4 Type of employment.

While the majority of TSSOs that employ staff members have done so through traditional employment methods, where staff are employed directly through the organisation, three of the participant organisations in this study have chosen an alternative employment route. One TSSO has chosen to register as a CIC instead of a charity and has also opted for staff to be self-employed instead of directly employed by the organisation. This has several benefits including less strain on financial administration due to tax calculations (as tax returns would become the responsibility of the employees) and also the freedom to change the hours of staff according to demand and financial income. However, these fluctuating hours might also prove a challenge for organisations if staff choose to find more consistent and permanent roles. This is emphasised in further detail through the quote that follows:

> The one reason we went down the self-employed road is because most of our coaching staff had roles elsewhere and our work was only going to be bits here and there and hourly paid. That gave the staff the flexibility to say when they can and can't work. It's more freelance and they can opt in like a plumber or electrician would. As self-employed individuals they have the freedom to initiate their own ideas for the organisation too. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

Both of the participant sports clubs also confirmed that they choose to employ staff through self-employment methods, where coaches and medical staff in particular submit invoices on a monthly basis. This method of employment might be considered more appropriate in a community sports club environment, where some of the staff would not be employed full time and might assist the club for specific seasons of the year only.

5.3 Volunteers

Hall and colleagues' (2003) identified the need for more volunteers as the most pressing human resources capacity issue. The current research study did not mirror these findings and, surprisingly, the most common perception of volunteer involvement was negative overall. Furthermore, it became apparent that the majority of the other TSSO participants are barely

reliant on volunteers as they prefer to offer paid roles. These points are discussed further in the sections that follow and highlighted in the following quotes:

> We aren't heavily reliant on volunteers. Instead we rather choose to employ staff on a self-employed basis as then if they don't work they don't get paid. It's giving them responsibility and ownership of what they do. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> We have more paid staff than volunteers. It works best for us. (CEO, TSSO B)

> We ourselves don't have any volunteers. The organisations I work with (beneficiary organisations) have their own staff and also some volunteers so we assist them and upskill them but we as an organisation have chosen to rather just have paid staff than rely on volunteers. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

However, it is clear that sports clubs in particular are struggling with a lack of volunteers, with 39.7% of the respondent sports clubs stating that they agree or strongly agree that a lack of volunteers is threatening the existence of their organisation (Table 16).

Table 16

Sports Clubs and TSSOs' opinions on the extent to which a lack of volunteers currently threatens the existence of their organisation

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Sports Clubs	11.1%	28.6%	17.5%	31.7%	11.1%
Other TSSOs	3.9%	11.8%	21.6%	33.3%	29.4%
Charities	3.8%	11.5%	11.5%	30.8%	42.3%
NGBs	11.1%	33.3%	11.1%	44.4%	0%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	0%	0%	30.0%	40.0%	30.0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	33.3%

5.3.1 Need for more volunteers.

The sports clubs were the only respondent organisations to mention that they struggle with recruiting sufficient volunteer numbers to cover the workload of the organisation. This

is partly due to the fact that the majority of their roles are filled by volunteers and that there are very few paid staff within their organisations. Hence, there are more roles to fill and some of these roles require a substantial time commitment. On the other hand, the other TSSOs in this study, confirmed that they do not recruit many volunteers and instead choose to employ paid staff as their workforce model. At present, they do not feel the need to recruit more volunteers.

> It's mainly that there are never enough people to do the jobs. It's always the same people doing the same jobs. Most people in the committee have two or three roles. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We can always do with more help but it's a big ask sometimes to properly commit to serving a club. (Vice-President, SC B)

5.3.2 Volunteer retention.

An important element of human resources capacity is the retention of volunteers. The survey highlighted concerns relating to volunteer retention. 61.7% of sports clubs and 45.1% of other TSSOs confirmed that they agree or strongly agree that retaining volunteers is a concern for their organisation. These figures were much higher than the statistics surrounding paid staff, where only 19% of sports clubs and 29.4% of other TSSOs agreed or strongly agreed that retaining paid staff was a concern.

The community sports club participants spoke of the challenges relating to volunteer retention during the qualitative phase of the research. They highlighted the main reasons behind volunteer retainment difficulties as being linked to an additional workload separate to their volunteering role, and not being the right fit for the volunteering role or for the club:

> Sometimes our turnover is high and it's just not the right person for the role. Sometimes it just gets to the end of the year and people are burnt out! I mean also the stress levels that you get from this which is supposed to be a hobby and a passion can far outweigh somebody's day-to-day job! It's hard for people to manage that. The other thing is we've had volunteers in the past where we've actually had to ask them

> to reconsider their positions as they've been too agenda heavy! We don't just shed volunteers because of natural progression or lack of interest... sometimes we actually lose them because we've explained that they aren't necessarily the right person for us as they have their own agendas! (Vice-President, SC A)

> It can really be daunting for people to take on such a huge amount of responsibility sometimes and they need to know where support is but often they just feel that they won't cope. (Vice-President, SC B)

5.3.3 Negative attitudes and frustrations towards volunteers.

The majority of organisations that took part in the qualitative phase of the research indicated that recruiting volunteers was problematic for their organisations. This is due to several factors including the strain on paid staff through the supervision required for supporting volunteers, and the organisations' needs for more stability and longer-term commitment from volunteers. Concerns linked to the lack of skills some volunteers possess and the human resource-intensive training they require, were also highlighted. These concerns were also expressed in Hall and colleagues' (2003) findings, however, the participant organisations in the present study were ultimately against the recruitment of volunteers for these reasons, whereas the participants in Hall and colleagues' (2003) study were happy to work through these concerns as they valued volunteers. Hall et al.'s (2003) study was conducted before the financial economic crisis and thus organisations and individuals were under less financial pressure overall than those in the present study, due to austerity measures. As a result of this strain on resources, both the sports clubs and other TSSO participants made it clear that they have turned away volunteers or have chosen to ultimately rather recruit a few additional paid staff than have volunteers serving their organisations. Thus, paid staff are seen as making a more sustainable contribution to the human resources capacity of these organisations than volunteers do. This is a significant finding which highlights how volunteers can detract from human resources capacity and not necessarily contribute positively to it, as might have been expected. Organisations need to invest a wide range of resources into recruiting and retaining volunteers. Thus, when financial resources

are stretched, as is evident in the current economic context, volunteers may become a less attractive human resource option for these organisations.

> Some people will put their hand up and offer to do everything and anything but actually they are just rubbish at the job! Managing these volunteers is more difficult than herding cats! Some people are keen but just not effective to work with. (Vice-President, SC A)

> When it comes to somebody new coming in it's a whole big project trying to train them and delegate you know. Sometimes it's easier to just do it yourself. (Vice-President, SC B)

> Volunteers should be there to support but you don't get enough out of them to rely on them too much. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> Bringing in volunteers just isn't right for our organisation. We don't want to be reliant on them for many roles as we value long-term and daily commitment which they cannot always offer. Managing them would be an absolute nightmare. We feel we can get more out of employing staff and having a contract with them instead. (Head of Fundraising, TSSO B)

> You have more control over staff if you employ them. We have more certainty on availability. A good example is the venue we own. We could try to source a troop of volunteers manning reception for example but that doesn't give us certainty of availability. We also know we'd need a large pool of volunteers across the board to assist us and then we would have to employ more people to manage this large pool of individuals anyway! It makes sense to employ staff members. Unfortunately volunteers just carry too much risk and uncertainty. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

While the government expects volunteers to play a key role in delivering the key outcomes of the *Sporting Future* policy (DCMS, 2015), the participating sports clubs and TSSOs in this study

do not see volunteers as a helpful addition to their organisations. These organisations do not have the necessary capacity required to support volunteers. Thus, questions must be asked as to whether the state's vision, that volunteers are to play a key role in delivering the policy, is appropriate and whether this element of the policy is achievable if the TSSO system does not have the necessary capacity to implement it.

5.4 Staff qualifications and training

The survey offered some interesting findings relating to delivery staff coaching qualifications (Table 17). According to Table 17, 23.8% of sports clubs revealed that 0-10% of their delivery staff have formal coaching qualifications. While sports clubs are traditionally run by a larger cohort of volunteers, it is still surprising that such a large percentage of these organisations do not have adequately trained delivery staff. However, it is positive that 47.1% of the other TSSOs confirmed that more than 75% of their delivery staff have formal coaching qualifications. However, the NGBs and Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts were the outliers in this group with more than half of these organisations stating that less than 50% of their delivery staff have formal coaching qualifications. This finding is potentially linked to the funding constraints and increased pressure from funders discussed in Chapter Four. The qualifications are a major human resource capacity strength for the charities and the social enterprises but a concern for the NGBs and Active Partnerships.

Table 17

Approximate percentage of delivery staff that have formal coaching qualifications

	0%	**1-10%**	**11-25%**	**26-50%**	**51-75%**	**76-100%**
Sports Clubs	4.8%	19.0%	9.5%	12.7%	15.9%	38.1%
Other TSSOs	3.9%	9.8%	9.8%	17.6%	11.8%	47.1%
Charities	3.8%	7.7%	3.8%	19.2%	7.7%	57.7%
NGBs	11.1%	33.3%	11.1%	11.1%	11.1%	22.2%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	0%	0%	30.0%	30.0%	20.0%	20.0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0%

However, the sports clubs that participated in the qualitative phase of the research were happy to report that their staff possessed relevant coaching qualifications:

We are in a good position with qualified staff, qualified umpires. (Vice-President, SC A)

We only recruit coaches with the appropriate level of skill and it's important that they have their Level 1 or 2 training. (Vice-President, SC B)

While there is pressure from the United Kingdom government for sports organisations to prove impact on participants' mental well-being in order to secure state funding, it is evident that the staff of these organisations have not undergone sufficient mental health training themselves. This finding is evident in the survey results which are presented in Table 18, where almost all sports clubs and many TSSOs confirmed that the majority of their staff members do not have any mental health qualifications. This is potentially linked with financial constraints. The charities and Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts reported the highest percentages of staff mental health training.

Table 18

Approximate percentage of respondent organisations' staff that have mental health qualifications

	0%	**1-10%**	**11-25%**	**26-50%**	**51-75%**	**76-100%**
Sports Clubs	55.6%	44.4%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Other TSSOs	31.4%	33.3%	9.8%	9.8%	3.9%	11.8%
Charities	34.6%	23.1%	11.5%	7.7%	7.7%	15.4%
NGBs	55.6%	22.2%	11.1%	11.1%	0%	0%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	20.0%	40.0%	10.0%	10.0%	0%	20.0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	66.7%	0%	33.3%	0%	0%

Within the qualitative interviews, three of the other TSSOs confirmed that the mental health of participants and of staff has become more of a priority for their organisations. These organisations also confirmed that mental health training was offered to all delivery staff members. This finding illustrates that TSSOs cannot simply stand still in a changing context; these organisations need to adapt what they do as the context fluctuates, and this provides some evidence of these organisations making this change.

> I am mental health first aid trained and everyone who works here is offered that training. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> We are trying to offer more training for staff and partner organisations and yes this also includes mental health training now. There is a big drive for mental health training now and a lot of funding is also linking back to that. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

> We do offer mental health training opportunities for staff and we signpost the organisations we work with to get the relevant training too. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

According to the survey findings, 50.8% of sports clubs and 54.9% of other TSSOs agreed or strongly agreed that they have invested significant resources into training staff. The qualitative interviews revealed that this training includes sending coaches on courses, spending time training paid staff and volunteers in specific operations, paying for staff to have mental health or safeguarding training and sending staff to conferences. However, one of the TSSOs recognised that they have low staff retention rates due to a lack of staff development opportunities:

> We need to think of how to create career pathways for coaches and more training and development opportunities. We do a few coach CPD days a year. We've had a lot of feedback on how those days can improve and I think they need to be targeted to specific needs. I think a one-size-fits-all approach won't work always. We need to develop the courses more to offer a tailored approach and maybe have smaller workshops running side-by-side for coaches who face different issues. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

5.5 Board/Committee Members

Although many participant sports clubs and TSSOs expressed that they have strong and active boards, they also raised some concerns relating to board/committee member recruitment.

The survey findings below highlight that over a third of sports clubs and other TSSO respondents feel that board/committee recruitment is not a straightforward task (Table 19). However, the majority of social enterprises/CICs felt that this was straightforward for them. They may have found this easier due to the structure and age of their organisations, with many having started up with appropriate board members at the outset and still being relatively new organisations.

Table 19

Extent to which respondents believe that recruitment of board members has been a straightforward task

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Sports Clubs	6.3%	19.0%	36.5%	20.6%	17.5%
Other TSSOs	9.8%	19.6%	29.4%	39.2%	2.0%
Charities	11.5%	19.2%	23.1%	42.3%	3.8%
NGBs	0%	11.1%	11.1%	77.8%	0%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	10.0%	30.0%	40.0%	20.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	33.3%	33.%	0%	0%

While board/committee member recruitment was not addressed by many of the participating organisations in the qualitative phase of the research, one of the sports clubs commented on the challenges associated with this:

> We have a fairly stable committee now but it was challenging for a long time to find the right people due to the level of commitment we need. I think some people just assume this is a very small task looking after a rugby club but we are growing all the time and have a proud history so we need the right people who can put in time and want to get stuck in. Our committee members wouldn't stick around for long periods of time before but we are trying to be more open about what this entails from the start now. (Vice-President, SC B)

5.6 Chapter Conclusion

Human resources capacity was expressed as the second largest capacity concern faced by TSSO and sports club survey respondents. The main human resources capacity issues that were highlighted by the other TSSO sample included the need for more paid staff, staff being overloaded and staff retention challenges. These issues are directly linked with financial capacity as a lack of funding will hamper the number of staff employed or could lead to the redundancy of staff.

The sports club interviewees expressed concerns relating to volunteers, including difficulties in finding committed volunteers who align with the values and vision of the clubs, and retaining competent volunteers. Furthermore, volunteer recruitment was also addressed by the other TSSO participants in the qualitative phase of the research. Concerns about the value of volunteers were expressed by these organisations and it was admitted that avoidance of volunteer recruitment is taking place. The negative attitudes these organisations have are linked to the strain on paid staff associated with recruiting, training and managing a volunteer workforce. With TSSOs already expressing a shortage in paid staff and staff being made redundant due to austerity measures, it is clear that these organisations do not have the staffing capacity required to manage volunteers. Thus, it is concerning that the state expects volunteers to play a key role in delivering the key outcomes of the *Sporting Future* strategy (DCMS, 2015) when TSSOs do not necessarily have the financial resources required to recruit appropriate staff to manage these volunteers.

Furthermore, nearly one quarter of respondent sports clubs also highlighted that less than 10% of their delivery staff have formal coaching qualifications. This is a challenge for sports clubs as, due to their reliance on a large volunteer workforce, it must be difficult to attract highly qualified staff when these individuals are not always able to be paid for their services. Despite the increased national focus on mental health in recent years, and a drive from the government for sports organisations to prove impact on mental well-being in order to secure funding, it is interesting that almost all of the staff of TSSO and sports club respondents have not undergone any mental health training. This too is linked with a lack of financial resources as these organisations would prioritise delivery and fixed costs over additional extras such as mental health training. The government should look to invest in more subsidised, easily accessible mental health courses to offer these organisations.

Chapter Six:

Findings and Discussion - Structural capacity

6.1 Introduction

According to Hall et al. (2003) structural capacity refers to the processes, practices and support structures that help an organisation to meet its goals and function optimally. Hall and colleagues (2003) have divided this into three components: planning and development capacity; infrastructure and process capacity and relationship and network capacity. This chapter will highlight the findings across all three of these categories and offer a summary of findings after each category is discussed. Within the relationship and network capacity section, findings relating to the importance of collaboration are highlighted. These include the type and degree of collaboration taking place for the organisations in this study and the reasons behind collaboration; namely, financial resources, shared human resources, shared infrastructure and shared knowledge. Findings related to relationship processes, including communication, trust and authenticity are presented and discussed. Furthermore, barriers to successful collaboration are also presented.

Within the planning and development capacity section of this chapter, positive findings relating to participants' strategy are discussed. However, financial capacity was found to have a substantial impact on organisations' ability to plan ahead, especially due to a lack of stable and long-term core funding. This is discussed alongside the impact of human resource capacity concerns within this chapter. Furthermore, findings relating to research and reporting are also included.

The structural capacity component of infrastructure and process capacity makes up the final section of this chapter. Within this section, the facilities and technological infrastructure of respondent organisations is highlighted. This section also sheds light on the degree of awareness and acceptance of mission and values by staff and volunteers within the sports clubs and other TSSOs.

6.2 Relationship and network capacity

Relationship and network capacity refers to the ability to draw on relationships with other organisations or institutions (Hall et al., 2003). Inter-organisational relationships can be

understood as strategic collaboration which takes place when organisations work towards achieving certain aims in connection with these relationships (Cousens et al., 2006; Thibault and Harvey, 1997). This study used Babiak's (2003) criteria to focus on collaboration that involved planned, strategic action between organisations with the objective of mutually beneficial outcomes.

A dominant theme to emerge from both the survey and interviews was the importance of relationship and network capacity to TSSOs, and most specifically the value of collaboration or the formation of inter-organisational relationships.

Many organisations within this study confirmed that collaboration is crucial and it plays an important role in aiding TSSOs to achieve their aims and objectives. The reasons behind these collaborative partnerships, the types and extent of collaboration and specific relationship processes will be discussed in this chapter.

Within phase one of the research, survey respondents were asked the extent to which they are reliant on collaboration in order to ensure survival. More than half of the other TSSO respondents agreed (45.2%) /strongly agreed (9.8%) that they are reliant on collaboration in order to survive at present (Table 20). The Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts expressed the highest percentage of agreement (80%). Meanwhile, only a third of sports clubs agreed that collaboration was relevant to ensuring survival.

Table 20

Extent to which organisation is collaborating with increasing number of other organisations to ensure survival

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Sports Clubs	4.8%	27.0%	28.6%	25.4%	14.3%
Other TSSOs	9.8%	45.2%	17.6%	19.6%	7.8%
Charities	11.5%	38.5%	19.2%	19.2%	11.5%
NGBs	11.1%	44.4%	22.2%	22.2%	0%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	10.0%	70.0%	10.0%	10.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	66.6%	0%	33.3%	0%

The importance of collaboration was also highlighted in the qualitative interviews. The quotes that follow indicate that collaboration is critical for these organisations:

> We probably wouldn't exist without collaborating. We are so close to the council and local authorities, schools and police and I think that really is what makes our projects so successful. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> We definitely collaborate in order to exist. Networking and partnerships are the lifeblood of our organisation. We can't help the organisations in our own network without help from others. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

> You definitely need them (relationships) to stay relevant. I think you can exist but not very well! If we didn't collaborate then I think we would probably die a slow death over a period of about 10 years. (Vice-president, SC A)

> We would 100% not be successful – even remotely successful – if we did not work with other organisations. I feel that collaboration is the most important tool for us. We just can't do it ourselves. We are experts in certain areas but we aren't the expert in everything and that's why we need to work strategically with others. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

These quotes highlight the significance of collaboration for these organisations, with some interviewees expressing that their organisation's success, or even ultimately its existence, is hinging on their ability to collaborate with other key partners. Without collaboration these organisations may not be able to function and would not survive. This is an interesting finding which requires further investigation in future as organisations which lack the skills required to collaborate, lack human resources needed to manage collaborative partnerships and are perhaps located in areas with limited collaborative opportunities might find changes in the external context, such as austerity measures or policy changes, more challenging to face on their own.

6.2.1 Nature of Collaboration.

Collaboration with Local Authorities. According to the survey results, the TSSOs reported that varying levels of collaboration are taking place between themselves and local authorities within their delivery areas. Sports clubs indicated that there was less collaboration taking place with local authorities than the other TSSO respondents did. As per Tables 21 and 22, it is evident that 31.7% of respondent sports clubs and 16% of the respondent TSSOs do not currently collaborate with their local authority and 42.9% of sports clubs and 42% of TSSOs only have ad-hoc collaboration with their local authority. Thus, ports clubs are less likely to collaborate with their local authorities than other TSSOs are. However, of the other TSSOs that reported a level of collaboration between themselves and their local authority, 28% consider their local authority to be a strategic partner.

Table 21

Level of collaboration between sports clubs and local authorities/third sector organisations/commercial organisations.

	No collaboration	Ad-hoc Collaboration	Increasing Collaboration	Established Strategic Partner
Local Authorities	31.7%	42.9%	15.9%	9.5%
Third Sector Organisations	24.2%	54.8%	17.7%	3.3%
Commercial Organisations	36.5%	46%	14.3%	3.2%

Table 22

Level of collaboration between other TSSOs and local authorities/third sector organisations/commercial organisations.

	No collaboration	Ad-hoc Collaboration	Increasing Collaboration	Established Strategic Partner
Local Authorities	16%	42%	14%	28%
Third Sector Organisations	11.7%	27.5%	33.3%	27.5%
Commercial Organisations	17.6%	49%	17.6%	15.8%

Table 12 highlights how other TSSOs are more likely to collaborate with local authorities and commercial organisations than with third sector organisations, through ad-hoc collaboration. However, this is changing as these findings show evidence of increasing collaboration between the respondent TSSOs and other third sector organisations. These results were predominantly mirrored by the qualitative interview findings which confirmed that there are varying degrees of collaboration between sports clubs/TSSOs and their local authorities. These collaborations were seen as positive overall:

> We have neighbourhood wards including the local council... we get together to see how we can make a difference in the community. We have to work together to make a difference. The local authorities are often on our side. We are close to the council and local authorities... I think that really is what makes our projects so successful. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> We have quite a good relationship with the county local authority and the city local authority. (Vice-President, SC A)

It is evident that these organisations value the support of local authorities. However, some have identified that, due to issues relating to austerity cuts, that they are forced to be less reliant on local authority collaboration. As local authorities have experienced reduced state funding support, the number of programmes that they run with partner organisations has diminished due to the re-internalisation of delivery work (see Chapter One). Hence there is often less opportunity for TSSOs and sports clubs to collaborate with these local authorities at present. This was not always the case as, due to austerity measures a 'commissioning' model of sports services whereby external providers are sourced to deliver local services (Association for Public Service Excellence [APSE], 2012), was adopted. This model meant that local authorities outsourced some services such as sports provision (Walker & Hayton, 2016) and as a result, were able to continue provision for sport in their local communities amidst funding cuts. However, according to the participants in this study, as state funding has shrunk even further, the local authorities seem to have taken the decision to no longer make use of

collaborative partnerships but to set up their own charities and CICs so as to reinvest funding into their own projects. This is highlighted in the following quote:

> Strangely enough, when we first set up we actually experienced the benefits of (austerity measures) because the local authorities were cutting back and when we came along then everyone seemed to be quite excited that we could work with the local authorities and deliver services for cheaper… unfortunately now though, as local authorities have shrunk so much, what we have found is that more recently they are starting to internalise everything again. Rather than continuing to work with groups like ourselves they are actually going to the extent of setting up their own CICs and investing back into those or finding other loopholes in the way they invest funding. We've definitely found that local authorities want to work with us and support us but they just don't have the staff numbers and the money to work with us on projects anymore. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

Collaboration with Other TSSOs.

Similar findings relating to collaboration between the participant organisations and other TSSOs were found. Sports clubs confirmed that the majority of their collaboration with other TSSOs is on an ad-hoc basis (54.8%), while the other TSSOs surveyed confirmed that increasing collaboration (33.3%) was taking place between themselves and other TSSOs (Tables 11 and 12).

This relationship was most evident through the work of two of the TSSOs (TSSO C and Active Partnership) interviewed in Phase Two of the research. These organisations in particular work very closely with other TSSOs as they act as brokers and distribute funds to many other organisations. Hence, a lot of the impact that they make as organisations is dependent on the performance of their partners, which they actively support through funding, training and mentoring. This type of relationship is heavily dependent on the broker organisation having sufficient funds to distribute and support other organisations with. Thus, in a period of financial uncertainty and with the implementation of new policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), there would be implications for the broker organisations as well as the recipient organisations/programmes. This type of dependent relationship could

prove challenging or unsustainable if there is a lack of funding for the broker organisations or if these organisations are unable to successfully prove and report impact in order to secure Sport England funding (DCMS, 2015).

> We're working with UK Youth and the Youth Sports Trust and getting linkages with those types of organisations. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> We know we won't be able to achieve our mission alone. We know it's valuable to encourage other third sector organisations to be more inclusive. We work with a variety of these organisations. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C).

> I think we have given funding to around 600 clubs since we started. We have specific targets. At the moment we are funding around 30 satellite organisations and clubs. We set up a meeting to find out what they (local organisations) want to do and then we will assist them in starting that. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

Two of the interviewees from the participant organisations expressed supporting other organisations with financial resources or sharing expertise. These findings reflect those of Kelly et al. (2014) who report that, with the effects of austerity on the third sector, larger third sector organisations dominate the funding landscape and become the main direct beneficiaries of state funding, with the remaining share of funding being distributed via local authorities and other sources shrinking markedly. Hence, collaborative working between TSSOs has become a more common practice across third sector sports provision (Walker & Hayton, 2016). This collaboration often takes place in the form of larger TSSOs supporting smaller TSSOs with funding grants and also sharing expertise with smaller and less financially secure TSSOs through training sessions (Walker & Hayton, 2016). Hastings et al. (2015) reported that many third sector organisations have had to pay for grant consultants or related training for their staff, which is costly and adds to the financial pressures these organisations are already facing (see Chapter Five). Hence, TSSOs that act in a facilitative capacity to other TSSOs have emerged. These organisations are providing a vital service, especially to organisations that are smaller, with limited resources. Walker and Hayton (2016) found

supporting evidence of this, with some TSSOs even choosing to merge with larger organisations in order to acquire further resources or extend reach and impact.

Collaboration with Commercial Organisations.

Sports clubs and TSSOs within the study confirmed that they predominantly have ad-hoc collaboration with commercial organisations (Tables 11 and 12). These findings were confirmed in the Phase Two interviews and are highlighted by the following quotes:

> We work with corporates sometimes. We host events and make about half a million through a corporate dodgeball tournament with corporate partners. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> Yes we have corporate partners who support us with some things, such as a kit supplier called Hockey Warehouse. Others sponsor our players. (Vice-President, SC A)

While the participant organisations seemed content with the level of ad-hoc collaboration that they currently have with commercial organisations, it is important to note that ad-hoc collaboration still has resource implications for TSSOs and community sports clubs (see Chapter Four). While this study has been unable to answer whether investing resources into ad-hoc collaboration has greater sustainability implications for TSSOs and sports clubs, this should potentially be researched in more detail in future. It would also be interesting to gain a better understanding as to which TSSOs and sports clubs commercial organisations choose to collaborate with in order to meet their own needs (I.e. do they prefer to partner with larger TSSOs/sports clubs? Does the location of the TSSO/sports club make a difference?).

6.2.2 Rationale for collaboration/relationship outcomes.

Relationship and network capacity is considered advantageous as it leads to the development of social capital, which is often beneficial in attaining financial and human resources (Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006). From a resource dependency approach, interorganisational relationships are initiated primarily because organisations need to acquire resources that are scarce within their own set-up (Oliver, 1990; Thibault & Harvey, 1997). The

importance of collaboration is also evident within the transactional cost economics (TCE) perspective (see Chapter Two), which focuses on the costs associated with turning resources into products or services and is used to gain an understanding of how organisations minimise production costs (Williamson, 1991).

The organisations that participated in this research confirmed a variety of reasons that motivate them to collaborate. These reasons are discussed in further detail in the sub-themes that follow, and include access to financial resources, combined human resources, shared knowledge and shared infrastructure.

Financial resources.

The survey results indicate that obtaining financial resources was stated as a motivator for collaboration for almost half of the sports clubs (48%) while a third of the other TSSOs (32%) agreed that this was a primary motivator for collaboration. Social enterprises/CICs in particular (66.6%) agreed that access to additional financial resources is a main driver for collaboration for them. The quantitative findings of the research confirmed that access to additional financial resources is seen as a main driver for collaboration for sports clubs (Table 23).

Table 23

Extent to which main driver for respondent organisation collaboration is access to additional financial resources

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
Sports Clubs	6.3%	41.3%	30.2%	14.3%	7.9%
Other TSSOs	2.0%	29.4%	35.3%	29.4%	3.9%
Charities	3.8%	23.1%	26.9%	42.3%	3.8%
NGBs	0%	22.2%	44.4%	33.3%	0%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	0%	30.0%	60.0%	10.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	0%	66.6%	0%	33.3%	0%

While the data was split equally for the other TSSOs, several organisations interviewed in the qualitative phase of the research mentioned that securing additional funding is

evidently one of the reasons that they choose to collaborate with other organisations. This was highlighted in the following quotes:

> We partner with other organisations sometimes and work on bids together as two organisations instead of one applying makes a stronger case, and we'd be happy to split the funding instead of getting nothing. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)
>
> There is a lot of power from within our network to generate the funds we need year on year. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> We are constantly needing to form new relationships and also retain the old partners so we can grow the pie overall and stay afloat! (Fundraising and Communications Manager, TSSO B)

> We've had a large committed sum from the council through our relationship with them. (Vice President, SC A)

> We have corporate relationships... they sponsor players or anyone in the club. The idea is that it alleviated the financial burden. (Vice President, SC B)

Through these quotes it is evident that the sports clubs collaborate with organisations which provide them with direct financial support such as a committed grant, through working directly with the local authority, or securing direct corporate sponsorship. However, the TSSOs seem to collaborate with other organisations in order to work together to obtain funding and see collaboration as providing a greater chance of securing grants and access to finances. Thus, collaboration is seen as a tool for mutual financial gain amongst the other TSSOs. While there is not extensive evidence of this within this study, this is an interesting preliminary finding as extant literature has highlighted that many TSSOs have become caught up in an increasingly competitive environment, where they are pushed to demonstrate that they can outperform other funding bidders in order to secure revenue (Metcalf, 2013). In this case, however, the organisations seem to be interested in collaborating rather than competing, even if that means splitting funding between partner organisations. This could be

due to both financial uncertainty as a result of austerity or due to smaller organisations perhaps not having sufficient staff with the relevant expertise to enter funding bids frequently. Thus, this pressure on human resources is easier to manage between multiple organisations.

Shared Human Resources. Shared human resources was a less common sub-theme within the research findings. However, one of the organisations confirmed that collaboration is taking place with a partner charity and staff resources are being shared between partner organisations.

> I think it's all about collaboration and sharing resources. At (*partner organisation*) they have a weak marketing function, whereas here we have a strong marketing function. We have a lot of experience so it was a great opportunity for them to collaborate with us. It makes sense to help other organisations and bring them closer when we have similar missions and can share resources. (Marketing Manager, Active Partnership)

Shared infrastructure. Several of the participant organisations confirmed that they collaborate in order to share infrastructure, most specifically in the form of facilities. This applies to the organisations making use of facilities belonging to other organisations or sharing their own facilities with others. This shared infrastructure is also linked with financial capacity in that it assists organisations in reducing expenditure of facility hire or increases revenue when they offer their own facilities to external partners. This was expressed in the following quotes:

> You also build relationships so you get venues for free and that kind of thing. We massively underspent last year because we got so much for free in terms of venues and that kind of thing. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> We have had chats about how to integrate the local community and we are planning on sharing the space with health and well-being groups and a local clinical commission

group. We will allow other non-profits to use it as a venue to partner with us. (CEO, TSSO B)

The City Council is working with us as a partner and is going to be handing over a multi-sport venue to us… we are also using the venue at a grammar school presently and will continue that relationship. (Vice-President, SC A)

We have many other sports clubs we work with in the local area. They use our clubhouse and facilities to deliver judo and dance and other sports. (Vice-President, SC B)

For some of them (venues) we get discounted rates and stuff like that. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

Shared knowledge and information. While relationships with other organisations can result in additional human resources, access to infrastructure resources and added financial resources, non-material resources such as knowledge and information (Rittner & Keiner, 2007) are also significant in the cooperative process. Several organisations confirmed that they find it important to collaborate in order to share knowledge regarding the local communities that they operate in and to learn from each other. Some of these organisations play a crucial role in offering advice to organisations within their network as they currently act as brokers within the third sector. They shared this information within the following quotes:

The whole point is that we act as that broker to other small organisations or partners who require support or advice or need a door opened for them. (Senior Partnership Manager, Active Partnership)

We provide information and training and that kind of thing. We work with our partner organisations to help them access funding through other grants too as sometimes they struggle to know what steps to take and how to prove impact in their own way... This

> is becoming more important for these organisations as so much funding is dependent on (impact reporting). (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C).

It is evident that the participant organisations in this study are collaborating primarily to acquire resources or to minimise costs associated with the services that they provide, and not simply for the sake of having shared interest groups or organisational goals. This is linked to both RDT and TCE. From a RDT approach, interorganisational relationships are initiated primarily because these organisations lack the above mentioned resources that they require to function. Meanwhile, from a TCE perspective, it is evident that some of these organisations aim to reduce expenditure by collaborating and sharing resources. In the case of the sports club respondents, it is evident that these organisations are mostly looking to reduce facility costs through collaborating (TCE). The other TSSOs also use collaboration to secure financial resources (RDT) and to reduce human resource costs (TCE). Some of the larger organisations (TSSO C and the Active Partnership) in this study are also offering partner organisations assistance in the form of knowledge sharing. From an RDT perspective, this means that the organisations that require critical resources, and collaborate in order to access these resources, have less power than the organisations that control the critical resources. These power imbalances may result in a loss of autonomy that can perpetuate mission drift (Allison, 2001; Coalter, 2010; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010). This means that organisations that have the biggest gaps in capacity and choose to remedy these through collaboration, where resources can be accessed or shared, may be at risk of the consequences of power imbalance. The larger organisations in this study, that reported offering knowledge and information sharing, will have more power over the beneficiary organisations as they possess the knowledge and information required to access grant funding and other funding opportunities. This is directly linked to the policy context, where the UK government expects organisations to prove impact in order to obtain funding through the *Sporting Future* policy (DCMS, 2015). As a result of TSSOs needing to measure and report impact, they are inclined to become more reliant on collaborative partners who can assist them with this – especially if they lack the skills to measure and report impact themselves or if they lack the human resources required to execute this.

The TCE framework highlights how organisations reduce the costs associated with production and transaction (Williamson, 1991). This includes direct expenses such as facility costs and payments to staff, and indirect costs such as the expenses linked to planning, implementing and monitoring activities (Williamson, 1985). In the current study, some of the organisations are clearly collaborating to reduce facility costs and, to a lesser extent, sharing human resources but there is also evidence of organisations collaborating for projects linked to one grant application and organisations working to offer their partners guidance and support, through knowledge sharing relating to grant applications. These activities can reduce costs associated with recruiting external expert bid-writing/tender companies or recruiting new staff that would need to manage impact research and reporting, especially with the outcome-based changes associated with *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) (see Chapter One). Thus, collaborative partnerships in this case are allowing respondent organisations to share process and production costs that might have been challenging to finance independently. They also create incentives that reduce opportunistic behaviour through a joint interest in shared resources such as joint grant funding.

6.2.3 Relationship processes.

It is important to identify the attributes and conditions that will contribute to relationship quality (Arino de la Torre, 2001) when trying to gain an understanding of the relationships between organisations. It is also important to understand whether a collaborative partnership will be successful before organisations invest resources into pursuing one and this can be done through understanding the relationship processes required (Huxham & Vangen, 2005). The relationship processes of communication, trust and authenticity have been addressed in the sub-sections that follow.

Communication and interaction. Communicating consistently with partner organisations is an important attribute for ensuring effective collaboration (Balser & McClusky, 2005). This includes involving partners in the entire collaborative process in order to create a sense of investment (Casey, Payne & Eime, 2009), ensuring regular and open communication (Shaw, 2003) and ensuring joint decision-making takes place (Shah et al., 2006). Doherty and colleagues (2014) highlighted the importance of community clubs being

actively engaged within their collaborative partnerships, where attentiveness and two-way communication is critical. Within this study, some organisations reported the importance of maintaining constant and stable interaction with collaborative partners.

> I don't ever assume I know what the community wants. Neighbourhood ward meetings are important... we meet with the police, counsellors and city council partners first to get their feedback. We then meet with them frequently to provide updates. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

Furthermore, almost all of the organisations interviewed confirmed that they either deliver collaborative workshops and forums for other organisations in their network, or they attend these events on a regular basis.

> I meet with the mayor quite regularly to go over strategy and we talk on an elite level but also from a volunteer and females in sport perspective. I mean you're invited to the table so it's good to meet and talk and also give some feedback… The football, cricket, rugby and basketball chief execs also all meet with me. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We have neighbourhood wards including the local council, police force, schools and us and we all have workshops together to see how we can make a difference in the community. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> We try to have regular meetings with regional networks... we also have an annual conference and many other workshop events. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C).

> I started a Sports Forum where we have third sector sports organisations like sports clubs, NGBs and even some disability organisations. So our conversations started out with very broad chats about how we integrate sport but that soon developed into how we can all collaborate and share opportunities. (Senior Partnership Manager, Active Partnership)

I attend CEO forums regarding safeguarding and events. (CEO, NGB).

These open forums and workshops provide organisational representatives with an opportunity to express their concerns and share knowledge and insight. They also act as a platform for organisations which seek networking and collaborative opportunities.

***Trust*.** Trust is an attribute which has received growing attention within non-profit literature. This is defined as an expectation that a collaborative partner will prioritise joint-interest over own interest and will fulfil agreed commitments (Arino et al., 2001; Belaya & Hanf, 2009). Trust can either be linked to competence (e.g. recognition of partner capacity, fair expectations) or can be a character-based attribute (e.g. reliability, honesty) (Brinkerhoff, 2002). In uncertain and changing environments, trust has been found to be particularly important in ensuring successful interorganisational interactions (Arino et al., 2001; Frisby et al., 2004; Garvey, 2006; Shah et al., 2006).

Within this study, one of the interviewees expressed the importance of developing trust with their organisation's collaborative partners and using this to enhance their reputation as being a trustworthy and authentic organisation to work with. Trust was also seen as a reciprocal requirement when collaborating with organisations.

> "We've got a lot more partners than we used to. It's great when people trust you as an organisation and believe in your approach and this spreads. We will only work with the right people and partners we trust." (Development Officer, TSSO A)

***Authenticity and being ethical*.** Another sub-theme to emerge was the importance of remaining authentic and ethical when collaborating with other organisations. Organisations found this to be important in order to avoid 'mission drift' (also see Chapter Four regarding 'mission drift' and financial capacity). This was expressed in the following quotes:

> People really like the approach we take, that we are ethical... funders and other partners we work with seem to really like the way we operate... we have turned down

work because of wanting to stick to our values and remain authentic as that is what is the most important thing to us. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

I think a lot of organisations prefer working with us because we are ethical and they find that out about us quickly. People like our values and ethics. There are a lot of unethical organisations out there who just want the money. We are the opposite. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

We have a model that we believe in and that's what we are going to deliver. We want to stay authentic and make sure the model is not compromised in any way. (CEO, TSSO B)

6.2.4 Barriers to Successful Collaboration.

Many hindrances to collaboration have been established in extant research including detrimental relationship behaviours (Misener & Doherty, 2013) lack of human resources (Wicker & Breuer, 2011) and imbalance of contribution (Misener & Doherty, 2013). These are discussed in further detail below.

Detrimental relationship behaviours. Many behaviours have been highlighted as detrimental when attempting to establish collaborative relationships. These include operating in a confrontational manner and power imbalances which arise (Babiak & Thibault, 2009; Belaya & Hanf, 2009; Brinkerhoff, 2002; Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010; Maclean, Cousens & Barnes, 2011). Breached commitments have also been found to increase mistrust between organisations (Marshall, 2004). Within this study, it was also established that unethical practice will increase mistrust and create a volatile interorganisational relationship as a result, which could have very negative consequences for collaborative partnerships. This is highlighted in the following quotes:

Recently we've actually had to lose a few partners because of how unethical they are actually. I just refuse to work with them. This is my area and I will not work with unethical people. That includes two football clubs that I have recently refused to work

> with because I do not want to be associated with poor work and bad standards. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

> (*Losing relationships*) costs us but it won't cost us our values and our principles which are a lot more dear to us. We've created enemies but we can hold our heads up high and say that we are authentic. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

Detrimental behaviour was only explicitly reported by two organisations within this study. This is potentially due to the fact that these particular participant organisations are young organisations (both under ten years). TSSO A was founded by individuals with previous experience in working for other TSSOs. Within the qualitative interviews, two of this organisations' founders expressed how unethical behaviour had resulted in the collapse of the previous organisation they had worked for and had led to them resigning before this collapse took place. Hence, they aimed to start a CIC which consistently followed ethical practices. While this is just one example of an organisation trying to avoid detrimental relationship behaviours, there is potential for this concept to be investigated further amongst other TSSOs in future.

Lack of human resources and impact on relationship and network capacity. Forming and managing relationships takes time and requires planning from paid staff and volunteers. Two sports club interviewees within this study revealed that they struggle to collaborate as much as they would like to due to a lack of staff. The community sports clubs in particular rely mostly on a voluntary work force, where many serving individuals may already have full-time jobs away from the clubs. The sports club representatives expressed the need to network more and form additional collaborative partnerships, but they realise this is a challenge with limited full-time staff and with such a reliance on volunteers.

> We don't have the staffing capacity to do some things including extensive networking, as much as we would like to do more. I look after links with sponsors and setting up partnership programmes... but it's just me doing that type of thing as a volunteer. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We would love to do more with more partners but it's finding the time – we are all mostly volunteers with our own paid jobs! (Vice-President, SC B)

Imbalance of contribution. Balancing contribution was another significant attribute that was discussed by a participant TSSO in this study. The organisation described this as two-way give-and-take within a collaborative partnership; a fairness in what each organisation was investing and gaining in return. Imbalanced relationships can lead to asymmetries of power and resource uncertainty (Misener & Doherty, 2013), which will impact upon the collaboration's potential (Allison, 2001). The participant TSSO highlighted this in the following quote:

> It's about making sure it's a win-win for all parties. We need to ensure everyone is getting something out of it and we also need to make clear the roles and responsibilities of organisations involved. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

6.2.5 Section Summary.

The other TSSO respondents in this study expressed that collaboration is critical for their organisations, with 55% of these organisations agreeing or strongly agreeing that increased collaboration is taking place in order to ensure survival of their organisations. The respondents expressed collaborating with different types of organisations and to varying degrees, but typically with financial capacity related goals of increasing revenue or reducing expenditure.

While the sports club interviewees confirmed that they collaborate with the local authority for venue provision, it is evident that reduced collaboration is taking place between TSSOs and local authorities as austerity measures have impacted upon the local authorities' ability to outsource sports provision and to work with external TSSOs. This has led to increased collaboration amongst TSSOs as these organisations choose to work together to bid for funding and to share human resources, in order to reduce expenditure. The significant role of larger TSSOs was also highlighted in these findings, as these types of organisations are able to facilitate the organisational practices of smaller TSSOs through providing funding

support through sub-grants and sharing expertise.

A lack of adequately trained bid-writing and impact staff can affect an organisation's ability to secure grant funding as it has become increasingly important for TSSOs to demonstrate impact, especially to secure state funding (DCMS, 2015). Hence, TSSOs have had to outsource grant funding bids to consultants or pay for staff to attend grant funding training courses which are costly (Hastings et al., 2015). Thus, collaboration is an important tool for providing mostly smaller organisations with support in applying for funding or sharing adequately qualified staff between partner organisations, to reduce the financial and human resource burden associated with grant funding applications.

The study findings also reveal that organisations which lack sufficient human resources will struggle to source, build and maintain relationships with collaborative partners, demonstrating how human resources capacity is key to successful collaboration. This once again highlights the strong links between organisational capacity dimensions. Authenticity, trust and consistent two-way communication between collaborative partners were also found to be important features of successful collaboration in this research. The results contribute to a growing body of literature on both the efficient use of partnerships (e.g., Babiak & Thibault, 2009; Misener & Doherty, 2012, 2013) and collaborative approaches to sport management and governance (O'Boyle & Shilbury, 2016; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2015).

6.3 Planning and Development Capacity

Planning and development capacity can be understood as the ability to develop and implement programmes and strategic plans (Hall et al., 2003). This is also linked to conducting appropriate research and planning and writing proposals (Hall et al., 2003).

While interviewees from all of the organisations that participated in the qualitative phase of the research expressed having a fairly clear strategy to drive their organisations forward, it is evident that there are some obstacles to planning ahead that they struggle with. Some examples of these obstacles include human resource capacity constraints and financial constraints associated with grant funding. The interviewees made it clear that their organisations do actively plan ahead but that these plans constantly need to be adapted due

to external changes, including changes due to policy and austerity, and capacity deficits. This is directly linked with capacity building, which is discussed further in Chapter Seven.

Examples of the plans these organisations have made for the future are shared in the following quotes, and the challenges they face are described in the sections that follow:

> The business plan I've got for us has ten-year projections and it's got everything from finances to accessibility and trying to get pockets of the community more active and playing hockey. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We are always planning at least a season ahead. Some things you can't plan for but we do our best. (Vice-President, SC B)

> We must change as things change around us. We don't have fixed plans. Our business plan is practically out of date as soon as we write it! That's why I'm currently writing up changes to the business as again it needs to be assessed and evaluated. It's like a rolling commentary for us. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> We do have a set strategy and it has always been about changing sport, changing lives and changing communities. That has stuck for 10 years but the campaigns and interventions we plan for and those change. That's fluid in terms of what happens on the ground but we plan for change. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

It is evident from the above quotes that both the sports clubs and the other TSSOs are aware of the effects of a changing environment and that they need to plan ahead where possible, but also need to be able to adapt should the external context change.

6.3.1 Impact of other capacity dimensions.

Impact of financial capacity constraints. There is a strong link between planning and development capacity and financial capacity as the former can be negatively affected by lack of finance. A lack of stable, long-term, core funding creates challenges for TSSOs who in turn struggle to strategically plan ahead as this lack of stability requires them to be flexible. This

can have an impact on programme development, infrastructure planning and future staff recruitment plans. Longer term funding allows organisations to devote resources to planning and development and minimises the need for organisations to keep revisiting and revising future plans (see Chapter Two). This means there is less strain on human resources to constantly source new funding opportunities and complete tedious bidding processes.

The following quote demonstrates the confusion and planning uncertainty that TSSOs face without stable, long-term funding:

> We are having those discussions at the moment about whether we just stick to our roughly 50 programmes and our new venue. Otherwise, it might be that we look to extend and do more work in primary schools... we might also seek further opportunities in secondary schools. This is happening in London but it might be that we look at other opportunities that exist outside of London. We may also look to expand through Academy chains. It's basically entirely dependent on funding and sustainability. It's also about quality. You can plan all you want but until you secure the funding you cannot do anything. (CEO, TSSO B)

However, even with the difficulties of financial planning barriers, two organisations mentioned how they are trying to find ways around future funding constraints:

> We have been able to get some grant money and sales money that we have saved up a bit so we can reinvest that later if we do struggle the next year. (Managing Director, TSSO A)

> We have to plan ahead. We try to keep some money in the kitty for a rainy day as you never know if your sponsors might not be there in future or if we need something big to be done. (Vice-President, SC B)

These examples demonstrate a prudent approach to financial planning, rather than simply following the approach of revenue diversification discussed in Chapter Four.

Impact of human resource capacity. Human resources capacity can also have an impact on the planning and development of an organisation. Planning becomes much easier for organisations that have sufficient access to volunteers, paid staff and boards/committees with an appropriate level of skill (Hall et al., 2003). This is also linked to the organisation's financial capacity.

Finding the time required to undertake strategic planning can be a challenge for organisations. Staff and volunteers are often required to concentrate on immediate service logistics and programming issues and this can lead to a lack of strategic planning taking place within organisations. This was highlighted by the community sports clubs in particular in the qualitative phase of the research:

> We have an annual development plan... sometimes I feel like it's just me pushing it forward though. It is hard to find the time for us all to discuss and revise this. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We do plan ahead and have various committee meetings but it is hard to get everyone together to do this sometimes. As I mentioned, it takes a lot of time commitment from everyone. (Vice-President, SC B)

These quotes both stem from the clubs' experience of insufficient human resource capacity and the implications for strategic planning. The other TSSOs did not highlight these concerns so perhaps this is more of a challenge for sports clubs, which often have a greater workforce of volunteers who work simultaneously, alongside serving their community clubs. Hence, finding time for sufficient planning with all staff present can be a challenge for these organisations.

6.3.2 Research for Strategic Planning.

Research can play a significant part in assisting TSSOs to plan ahead when developing new programmes, assessing the value and viability of current programmes and in developing organisational strategies such as theories of change, value propositions and resource

allocation. Research can be conducted both internally, through internal data collection and analysis, or externally, through research projects conducted by Universities or research organisations. This was highlighted in the qualitative interviews.

Insufficient research can have negative effects on organisations including reduced impact or even failed programmes. One of the TSSO participants shared an example of this within the following quote:

> Sometimes we have started in new areas though and it doesn't work. It is risky starting in new areas because it can be unfamiliar territory... we need to make sure programmes are sustainable first and do enough research. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

External research can be costly and hence is not seen as a priority for the majority of community sports clubs. However, other TSSOs are becoming more reliant on independent research to support funding bid applications and also to satisfy the reporting needs of funders. There is increasing emphasis on measurement and impact reporting and this is driven even further by the government's *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. Hence, it is somewhat surprising that according to the survey findings, 95.2% of sports clubs confirmed that they have not commissioned any research within the last five years (Table 24). This is a substantial difference to the other TSSO findings, where almost half of these organisations stated that they have commissioned research in the past five years. This large difference is possibly due to TSSOs' high reliance on grant funding where there is an expectation to demonstrate impact in identified funder outcomes. Furthermore, with 54.9% of TSSOs stating that they have not commissioned research, it is important to consider why this is the case. The survey demonstrated that the majority of organisations that have commissioned research have larger budgets or have done so to facilitate bids/grants. This highlights that organisations will only be able to pay for external research if they can afford to do so. As a result, smaller organisations will struggle to demonstrate impact through commissioned research and, as a result, might have diminished opportunities to secure evidence-based funding. Thus, external research can be considered resource dependent but can also be understood as a means for organisations to grow and obtain further funding through demonstrating impact.

Unfortunately, this means that smaller organisations become trapped with difficulties in proving impact and obtaining funding and thus might need to seek alternate ways to generate revenue (see Chapter Four).

Table 24

Percentage of sports clubs and other TSSOs that have commissioned research within the last five years

	Have commissioned research	**Have not commissioned research**
Sports Clubs	4.8%	95.2%
Other TSSOs	45.1%	54.9%
Charities	53.8%	46.2%
NGBs	33.3%	66.7%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	50.0%	50.0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	66.7%

However, the qualitative findings highlighted that the TSSOs recognise the importance of external research due to its ability to assess impact and provide insight from the perspective of an objective third party with relevant expertise. This can have positive effects for revenue generation through grants and fundraising after publicising research findings in reports and marketing campaigns. Example opinions relating to the importance of external research are presented in the following quotes:

> Most donors these days have their head in the impact space and they want to know why their money is better spent here than at another charity... we need to focus on what are our 'harder' measures and that's a very real question for us right now and we are thinking about what will shape large future longitudinal studies and external research we want done over the next few years. (Head of Fundraising, TSSO A)

> Our commissioned study has been hugely beneficial. From an internal perspective it has confirmed that a lot of what we think we are doing is right so it's given confidence to our programmes to say you're doing alright, you're doing well so carry on what you're doing. From the fundraising perspective, the rigor particularly around the quantitative side has helped in opening slightly more structured funding that requires

> rigor. The research is going to form part of our strategy and part of how we sell into schools, how we fundraise and how we report back, down to how we raise morale of coaches with the facts! (Head of Impact and Research, TSSO B)

> I'd say around two external studies per year. It definitely has been a help as an independent piece of research. It gives us opportunities to lobby for more funding and also to make relevant organisational changes if we need to. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

Some of the TSSOs also spoke of internal research they have conducted within their organisations and highlighted the importance of this.

> You need to find out what is happening on the ground before putting plans into place. Research is key really. You can't just assume what communities want. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

> Our research allows us to understand the lives of young people and then we are influenced to make a change and start a programme. (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

> Internally we will be sending out a questionnaire from April where we will measure the temperature of the organisation on a weekly basis. Staff will be sent five questions so we can assess the overall attitude within the organisation. (CEO, NGB)

On the other hand, it also became apparent that these organisations have growing frustrations relating to measurement and reporting. These include extensive pressure on delivery staff to complete additional measurement-related administration and a struggle to capture the full impact of programmes due to a lack of quantitative data. This is expressed in the quotes that follow:

What's frustrating is that they *(delivery staff)* will come into the office and tell us about an amazing case study with an individual and we will think that they are doing such great work but I mean how is that being captured? The Views system we use only really captures attendance and that kind of thing so the only thing they could really do is qualitative work to capture conversations, but of course that can't happen all the time. It also doesn't seem to be of as much value to funders as statistics are. (Senior Partnership Manager, Active Partnership)

We know what people do and we know they do it well but to find the information somewhere which has been reported in a strategic, professional way is like pulling teeth! It's crazy! People in sport on the ground just don't seem to record things like we do in our offices – it seems simple to us but it's not to them. In any other sector, if people recorded things the way we do in this sector I think they would be shot! They don't have the time to do it either! We are certainly battling with how much time we spend doing work and running programmes versus how much time we spend evaluating what we are doing. (Senior Partnership Manager, Active Partnership)

Getting buy-in is also tough. It's still quite new and it's hard to prove that it shouldn't be an afterthought. With insight it needs to be inbuilt to have the greatest effect. (Insight and Communications Officer, Active Partnership)

6.3.3 Section Summary.

According to the qualitative and quantitative findings, the participant organisations in this study seem to have clear strategies driving their organisations forward. They also seem to be aware of external changes to the environment but financial capacity constraints linked to austerity do have an impact on these organisations' ability to plan ahead. The external context has definitely had an impact on those seeking to build capacity in future, especially due to the financial constraints associated with short-term project funding in some grant cycles. Without stable, long-term funding these organisations are unable to plan far enough ahead. Furthermore, human resources constraints also have an impact on planning and development capacity, with sports club interviewees in particular expressing that their

volunteers do not have sufficient time to meet frequently enough in order for strategic planning to take place.

The role of research is also significant in the strategic planning process, with the other TSSOs in particular recognising the benefits of both internal and external research. A move to measure and report impact has taken place through the implementation of policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), where it is important for organisations to demonstrate impact in order to secure state funding. Although some of the interviewees expressed that research has been beneficial in helping their organisations strategically plan ahead, more than half of TSSOs, and almost all of the sports club survey respondents, expressed having commissioned no research in the past five years. It is challenging for smaller organisations with limited budgets and limited numbers of trained staff to conduct research as this can be costly and time-consuming. Hence, these organisations may not reap the benefits research has in supporting strategic planning. The TSSOs also expressed frustrations linked to research and impact, including practical difficulties associated with collecting data and the frequent tracking of changes in sports programmes requiring a lot of time from staff and volunteers.

6.4 Infrastructure and Process Capacity

According to Hall and colleagues (2003), infrastructure and process capacity entails the effective use of infrastructure, processes and organisational culture to aid organisations in achieving their goals. This includes physical infrastructure, technology and products relating to the day-to-day running of an organisation, such as policies and procedures. Within this study, the elements of facilities, technology and staff buy-in of mission and values were identified as significant to the capacity of both sports clubs and TSSOs.

6.4.1 Facilities.

Both the community sports clubs and other TSSOs require facilities in order to deliver their services. These can be in the form of sports delivery sites, administrative office spaces, or both. There were differences between clubs and TSSOs in terms of their facility requirements.

Previous research shows that many non-profit sports organisations do not own their operating facilities; they mainly use public community sports facilities or those of other providers (e.g. Allison, 2001; Breuer & Haase, 2007; Smith, 2000; Taks et al., 1999; Wicker & Breuer, 2011). In this research, the quantitative survey offered an insight into the types of delivery sites that the respondent organisations make use of. 61% of sports clubs confirmed that they deliver in a hired facility or a leased place, with only 20% of clubs owning their own delivery facilities. Just 6% of sports clubs reported using borrowed delivery facilities at no cost from schools, universities or other organisations.

Meanwhile, 47% of the other TSSOs confirmed that they deliver from a hired facility or leased place, just 12% own their own facilities and 18% make use of borrowed facilities at no cost. Furthermore, 21% stated that they make use of a public space such as a park or forest for their delivery.

Some of the sports clubs and TSSOs shared examples of the facilities that they utilise during the qualitative phase of the research:

> We are in the process of signing a new lease for a big new venue in the inner city. It's a project I've been working on for the last five years where the City Council is going to be handing over a multi-sport venue to us. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We own our own pitches and clubhouse which is great but we still need to maintain the venue of course. (Vice-President, SC B)

> We operate out of schools and luckily that means we get to use their facilities and there is no big cost there but we have our own new Centre now too. (Head of Finance, TSSO B)

> We get discounted rates on some of the venues. Some of our programmes run from children's centres and schools which rent out their facilities at discounted rates. (Community Projects Manager, Active Partnership)

Hence, it is evident that the organisations within the qualitative phase of the research use a broad range of venues to deliver from, however, the majority of these organisations have made it clear that they try to utilise these facilities at a reduced cost. As these organisations face financial uncertainty due to austerity cuts, it is to be expected that they would try to reduce fixed costs such as venue expenditure. Thus, operating from venues that are able to accommodate this would be more desirable.

The survey findings also confirmed other links that are to be expected between infrastructure capacity and financial capacity. The cost of future facility hire and maintenance is concerning for both the sports clubs and the other TSSOs. The survey findings highlighted these concerns. The majority of sports club respondents (79.4%) agreed or strongly agreed that future facility costs are a concern for their organisations. 52.9% of other TSSO respondents also agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. The fixed costs associated with facility hire have to be factored into organisations' budgets, meaning that they have expenses to cover before even being able to deliver their programmes. These fixed expenses can prove challenging for smaller organisations in particular, if funding sources dry up or bid applications fall through, so aiming to keep venue costs to a minimum is beneficial for smaller TSSOs and community sports clubs. Should facility costs rise, other TSSOs and sports clubs' delivery opportunities could be reduced as these fixed costs need to be paid before finances are distributed for other delivery requirements, such as equipment and staff recruitment.

Despite concerns relating to facility costs, the majority of the community sports club and TSSO respondents agree or strongly agree that their organisations have the physical infrastructure that they require to successfully fulfil their organisational mission (Table 25). However, the majority of NGB respondents (55.5%) stated that they do not believe that they have the physical infrastructure required to successfully fulfil their mission, which is concerning for these organisations – especially since they are the custodians of their respective sports.

Table 25

Extent to which organisations have the physical infrastructure that they require to successfully fulfil their mission

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Sports Clubs	17.5%	41.3%	9.5%	27.0%	4.8%
Other TSSOs	17.6%	41.2%	9.8%	29.4%	2.0%
Charities	23.1%	46.2%	3.8%	26.9%	0%
NGBs	0%	33.3%	11.1%	44.4%	11.1%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	0%	50.0%	20.0%	30.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	0%

6.4.2 Technological infrastructure.

While Hall and colleagues (2003) confirmed that the participants in their study cited information technology as the most significant infrastructure and process capacity issue, this was not entirely true within the present study. The survey findings did highlight that some organisations are struggling with technological infrastructure, however, a large proportion of sports clubs (36.5%) and other TSSOs (39.2%) agreed or strongly agreed that they have the correct level of technological infrastructure to operate at full potential.

In contrast with Hall and colleagues'(2003) findings, participant organisations reported no information technology problems during the qualitative phase of this study. These organisations shared that they make use of information technology not only for communicating with participants and for marketing purposes, but also for research, financial management and community networking. Some examples of this are presented in the following quotes:

> We've made progress and become a cashless club so you can make payment digitally instead of us taking cash for training fees, match fees and subs. Now there is a combined fee and it is all paid online via our new system. (Vice-President, SC A)

> We also use the mailing system to reach out to the community around us. (Vice-President, SC B)

> I have developed a shared drive which I keep tidied up and now make sure that staff can find research data and access it easily. Then I send out weekly insight emails regarding not only our data but also policy information. That's sent out internally but coincides with an insight blog I write for external public view on our website. (Insight and Communications Officer, Active Partnership)

> We do club surveys on Survey Monkey... we have also implemented a new CRM system to assist us in communication, updates and help automate things more for our membership. We have also done a club app now for clubs which helps them with money collection. They used to collect money in an ice cream tub but now they have a financial app they can use. (CEO, NGB)

One TSSO participant did, however, highlight a potential challenge for organisations that become too heavily focused on information technology and data capturing. An increased focus on capturing data may result in delivery staff losing time and focus on delivery outcomes, and this may ultimately affect the staff morale. This was highlighted in the following quote:

> We have good infrastructure in terms of information technology systems including programmes for capturing information, but if you have too much of that stuff we actually find that it can get in the way of the passion of the coaches. Balance is important and you need to allow the back office to handle some of the processing and doing the computer work so the coaches don't lose that passion. (CEO, TSSO B)

6.4.3 Staff awareness and acceptance of mission and values.

Another sub-theme to emerge from the present study was that of staff awareness relating to organisational mission and values, and the support thereof. During the quantitative phase of the research, participant organisations were asked to what extent they felt that they have a shared set of values that their staff members are aware of. Table 26 depicts that the majority of sports clubs and other TSSOs agree or strongly agree that this is the case.

Table 26

Extent to which organisations believe that they have a shared set of values that all staff members are aware of

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Sports Clubs	20.6%	46.0%	25.5%	6.3%	1.6%
Other TSSOs	43.1%	47.1%	9.8%	0%	0%
Charities	23.1%	46.2%	3.8%	26.9%	0%
NGBs	0%	33.3%	11.1%	44.4%	11.1%
Active Partnerships/Leisure Trusts	0%	50.0%	20.0%	30.0%	0%
Social Enterprises/CICs	33.3%	0%	33.3%	33.3%	0%

The qualitative findings highlighted the importance of staff accepting and supporting these values. One of the TSSOs in particular felt that staff support and adherence to the values and ethics of the organisation is critical:

> My staff need to stay focused on our values and ethics... I won't recruit people who are not prepared to support those. (Director of Social Change, TSSO A)

> Yeah we've got a staff code of values and ethics and we are constantly reminded about those. We don't want to work with unethical people so we need to make sure we aren't unethical ourselves. (Development Officer, TSSO A)

The quantitative survey also asked participants to confirm the extent to which their organisations believe that they have specific policies and guidelines in place, which have been disseminated to all staff. While 88.2% of the TSSOs agreed or strongly agreed that they have disseminated these to staff, it was surprising that only 65.1% of sports clubs felt the same. Perhaps this is due to the sometimes-unstructured nature of many community sports clubs. These reduced figures might be due to the level of human resources required to devise, implement and monitor these policies and guidelines. As sports clubs are heavily reliant on volunteer workforces, the necessary time commitment required by volunteers for these policies and guidelines might be a challenge. In the case of other TSSOs, should these

organisations not possess the financial resources required to employ individuals who manage human resources, these policies and guidelines might also not receive sufficient attention.

Furthermore, the participant organisations were also asked to what extent their staff and volunteers adhere to these policies developed and disseminated by their organisation. In this case, 87.3% of sports clubs and 94.1% of the other TSSOs agreed or strongly agreed that the staff and volunteers adhere to these policies most of the time.

6.4.4 Section Summary.

While the majority of sports clubs and TSSO survey respondents expressed that they believe their organisation to have the correct level of infrastructure to fulfil its mission, the majority of these organisations also expressed concerns relating to future facility costs in particular. The survey findings confirmed that majority of sports clubs and other TSSOs lease their delivery sites but try to do so at reduced rates in order to keep their fixed costs to a minimum. Should these costs rise, TSSOs and sports clubs' delivery opportunities could be impacted upon as these fixed costs need to be paid before finances are distributed for other delivery requirements, such as equipment and transport costs.

The community sports clubs and other TSSO respondents reported capacity strengths relating to technological infrastructure, with several examples of organisations implementing new technology to improve administrative processes, enhance research or better serve their target audiences. There were also positive findings associated with organisational processes and culture. The survey revealed that a high percentage of sports club and TSSO respondents believe their organisations to have a clear set of values which all staff members are aware of. The majority of both the other TSSOs and the sports club respondents confirmed that they have specific policies and guidelines in place, which have been disseminated to all staff. This is important in promoting shared ethics and delivery standards across an organisation but it takes human resources to devise these policies and guidelines and implement these, which some sports clubs and TSSOs with reduced staff numbers or a high proportion of volunteers might struggle with.

Chapter Seven:

Sporting Future Policy and Capacity Building Application

7.1 Introduction

Having provided a thorough account of the organisational capacity of the sports clubs and other TSSOs involved in this study, this chapter will focus specifically on *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) which forms part of the context that is emphasised throughout this research. The chapter begins by examining the knowledge and understanding of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) demonstrated the participants. It also explores attitudes towards the policy. This chapter then considers the implications of these findings for the implementation of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). The chapter introduces the concept of capacity building and draws upon a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) to further understand this implementation of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015). While the previous empirical chapters have indicated that TSSOs have capacity challenges which impact upon their ability to operate in a changing context, this chapter addresses why these organisations might struggle to respond to these changes and the consequences associated with this. The application of and reflections on Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) process model of capacity building is highlighted. The chapter culminates in suggestions for enhancing the utility of both Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) model and Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) model.

7.2 Sporting Future survey findings and implications

The Phase One survey set out to gain an understanding of sports clubs' and other TSSOs' understanding of the new *Sporting Future* policy (DCMS, 2015), in addition to their attitudes towards this and their current implementation of policy outcomes. While it is to be expected that charities, CICs, NGBs and Active Partnerships would benefit more from direct statutory financial support through this policy, sports clubs might wish to replicate the proposed delivery outcomes and reporting set out in *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) in order to prove impact to other potential funders or their respective NGBs. Thus, a basic awareness of the policy by sports clubs was expected as information should have been disseminated by Sport England and NGBs to their associated clubs. Thus, it is particularly concerning that high percentages of both the sports clubs and the other TSSO respondents reported that they are

not even aware of the new *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. According to the survey findings, 81% of sports clubs and 43.1% of the other TSSOs confirmed that they were unaware of the policy. This is concerning as the government is heavily reliant on these organisations to implement this policy. Similar findings were reported by Millar, Clutterbuck and Doherty (2020) who investigated the adoption of Long-Term Athlete Development frameworks in Canada through a single sports club case study. It was revealed that the club had limited awareness of the relevant policy, yet was undertaking initiatives on its own in response to the needs and conditions of the club and the community. This limited awareness was attributed to the reportedly fragmented communication between the levels of the Canadian sport system – particularly from the national and provincial bodies to the club. This is in line with research by Cousens, Barnes and MacLean (2012) and May, Harris & Collins (2013) which highlights that many sports clubs are unaware of policy objectives due to poor communication between the different levels of sports bodies (national, provincial and local). This lack of communication and limited awareness of the policy must be addressed in order for the Sporting Future policy to have any effect. As distribution of funding is the main leverage that the government uses to encourage TSSOs to implement the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy, questions must be raised about the implementation of this policy if these organisations are still unaware of its existence.

However, it was interesting to note that 21.6% of other TSSOs and 11.1% of sports club respondents in the present study indicated that the policy had provided a catalyst for them to make changes and actively seek to deliver the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) outcomes. This suggests that for a minority of TSSOs the policy has stimulated a change. In this case, the policy might act as a capacity building stimulus for these kinds of organisations as they might need to make changes and, if necessary, rectify gaps in capacity as a response to the new strategy.

7.3 Organisational capacity building

Capacity building can be understood as a natural extension of organisational capacity (Millar, 2015). It aims to alleviate gaps in organisational capacity and expand an organisation's ability to devise and achieve objectives (Aref, 2011) through improving the deployment of the various dimensions of capacity (Cairns, Harris, & Young, 2005). Furthermore, it is a process

which intends to assist organisations in responding to new or changing situations through a process of decision-making and execution (Bryson, 2011). Capacity building is particularly important to investigate further in the current climate of financial uncertainty and within a changing policy context as the responses of TSSOs and sports clubs to the changing context could have a big impact on their organisations.

Millar (2015) highlighted the lack of extant literature which focuses on capacity building as a strategic, decision-focused implementation process that is driven by organisational needs and whose success is likely dependent on critical environmental and organisational factors. Thus, a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) was developed and has been applied to the present study to provide a further understanding of the strategic processes the participant organisations have devised in order to address existing gaps in organisational capacity or to expand their delivery and enhance their capacity accordingly. Within this framework *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) and austerity, which are central to this study, would be seen as catalysts for capacity building as they both have implications for the ways in which TSSOs function.

7.3.1 Capacity building stimuli in the current context.

It is important to recognise that capacity building is stimulated as a result of an organisation choosing to respond to an environmental force (Millar & Doherty, 2016). The force represents an opportunity or threat in either the internal or external environment of the organisation, which then makes the decision to respond to this force (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Within the present study, the participating organisations highlighted several key capacity building stimuli that may lead to the decision to implement new, or change existing, capacity building strategies. The capacity building stimuli highlighted by participants in the qualitative phase of the research are summarised below.

Table 27:
Summary of various external and internal stimuli affecting organisations and responses to these stimuli

Stimulus	Response to stimulus	Examples of capacity building that might be required	Example quote from qualitative interviews

External forces			
Grant funding cuts (linked to austerity measures)	Diversification of revenue	More collaboration (network capacity); change in revenue (financial capacity); better planning (planning and development capacity)	"We developed a standard on apprenticeships that we would like to deliver. We are working now on delivering apprenticeship cohorts. It's pushing us as an organisation to act much more like a business and generate income through commercial activities, which is very different to what a charity normally does." (Chief Financial Officer, TSSO C, following a reduction in Sport England grant funding)
Re-internalisation of sports provision by local authorities (linked to austerity measures)	Diversification of revenue and securing new provision opportunities	More collaboration (network capacity); change in revenue strategy (financial capacity); change in provision strategy (planning and development);	"Local authorities want to support us but they just don't have the money to give us for projects anymore…. We have gotten better at sales. We made a conscious decision about 18 months ago that we need to become more sustainable… we had to look for other sources and we needed to make sure we were selling something." (Managing Director, TSSO A)
New venue opportunities	Operating from multiple delivery sites	More coaches/ volunteers (human resources capacity)	"We are in the process of signing a new lease for a big new venue in the inner city. It's a

			project I've been working on for the last five years where the City Council is going to be handing over a multi-sport venue to us. We will also stay at our current school venue so we are growing." (Vice-President, SC A)
Increasing participant demands	Creation of new teams and opportunities for participants	More coaches/ volunteers (human resources capacity and financial capacity)	"We have a men's team now and it's the first time we have had men involved. There was just such a demand for it. We also want to reach new groups. It is absolutely our strategy when we move venues. We will be targeting specific groups in the community then who need us most as our new venue will be vacant all day. We just need to find the funding streams to pay staff to coach more programmes." (Vice-President, SC A)
Policy directive – impact	Adapting programmes; developing measurement tools; reporting impact; diversifying revenue streams if unable to rely on state funding	Employing staff with research/grant application skills; commissioning external research; outsourcing grant applications; partnering with other organisations in bid applications (network capacity)	"Sport England want us to monitor and report in a specific way and sometimes it isn't always possible. We have had to adapt the way we report and ask specific questions they want." (Head of Knowledge and Insight, TSSO C)

	due to lack of measurement and reporting capabilities		
Internal forces			
Weak membership programme, inability to reach participants and limited internal funding opportunities	Development of new membership offering	Employing staff to manage new membership programme (human resources); seeking funding for new membership programme (financial capacity) and new technology (infrastructure	"We are developing a new membership offering at the moment. As part of this we implemented a great CRM system to assist us in membership communication. It sends emails out on birthdays and everything…" (CEO, NGB)
Lack of volunteers	Trying to retain committed volunteers	Designating human resources to managing volunteers better; finding training and development opportunities to keep these individuals engaged	"We get people to check in with them a lot more but we need to do more. We have no time for homophobia, sexism, racism… we are inclusive and welcoming. We need to shout about this more… do more for the good volunteers we do have." (Vice-President, SC A)

It is evident that the current financial uncertainty that TSSOs and sports clubs face, which is linked to austerity, and the implementation of the new *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy seem to be two of the most relevant examples of capacity building stimuli for these organisations. They have had to adapt by plugging gaps in financial capacity through revenue diversification and through adjusting impact and reporting strategies in order to continue to survive.

It is also clear from the above examples that some organisations are seeking to maintain their current delivery output and bolster their organisational capacity in order to

achieve their goals more effectively, while others are seeking to grow their delivery and extend this to additional venues or new target audiences. Hence, they would need to consider whether they have sufficient organisational capacity across all dimensions before making the decision to expand delivery output. This would need to take place through a capacity needs assessment.

7.3.2 Organisational Capacity Needs.

Effective capacity building requires organisations to conduct a thorough initial needs assessment rather than simply relying on what organisations presume they have in order to proceed (Millar & Doherty, 2016). If an organisation determines that it already has the capacity it requires to respond to an environmental force, then capacity building is not necessary (Millar & Doherty, 2016). However, if the organisation determines that it does not have the capacity to respond in one or more of the dimensions of organisational capacity then it will need to pursue capacity building. A good example of this in the present study would be the NGB participant, which has taken the decision to create a membership offering for participants, in order to boost revenue. The organisation does not need to grow capacity in terms of technology (infrastructure capacity) as it already has a website with the capabilities of hosting a membership area and has an information technology manager (human resources), however it would need to grow capacity by potentially looking to recruit a membership manager (human resources) and look to create a membership offering by strengthening relationships with current sponsors (relationship and network capacity) who might want to contribute to this offering. Where any of the five organisational capacity capabilities (Hall et al., 2003) are deficient, capacity building is necessary and strategic efforts should contribute to this process. According to Millar (2015), "one or more of the dimensions may need to be built (developed or strengthened) and any one or more may prove to be a critical asset in supporting that effort" (p. 38). Furthermore, where organisations are seeking to make changes in line with *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), or in response to austerity measures, the empirical findings of this research have illustrated that they may need to strengthen multiple areas of capacity, such as human resource capacity or relationship and network capacity, in order to plug gaps in other dimensions of capacity (i.e. through collaboration).

In both extant research focusing on community sport organisations (e.g. Misener & Doherty, 2009; Sharpe, 2006; Wicker & Breuer, 2013), and within the present study, financial capacity has been identified as a vulnerable dimension of organisational capacity. Thus, this dimension may be the primary focus of capacity building for many of these organisations.

7.3.3 Readiness for capacity building and policy implementation.

According to Millar & Doherty (2016), readiness factors are important to identify as they highlight whether appropriate personnel and processes are in place for organisations to facilitate capacity building, whether the capacity building objectives are in line with the organisation's systems and environment, and whether the capacity organisations plan to build is sustainable and long-term in nature. These factors differ across organisations. It can be expected that organisations will be more equipped to build capacity in their strongest capacity dimension(s) than in those dimensions that organisations are more vulnerable in (Millar & Doherty, 2016). In the present study, it is evident that the majority of participants have expressed financial capacity concerns with many of these organisations trying to find ways to address the gaps in their financial capacity. Unfortunately the readiness for capacity building phase is a challenge for many of these organisations in the current financial and policy context. Questions remain as to what the effects of not being able to build capacity will be for organisations – will these organisations have reduced delivery, dwindling resources and eventually cease to exist? If these organisations are not ready to respond to external stimuli in the form of state policy changes, which are aligned with financial resources, how will they continue to operate? Is it a case of 'adapt or die' for these organisations if they do not have the resources to adapt to state policy changes? Hence, it must be argued that policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) are important to devise but are of very little use if they are not able to be implemented by the relevant organisations. It is important to consider policy implementation theory in order to understand whether it is possible for the participant organisations to successfully execute *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), when this is a capacity building stimulus, or whether the policy is unsuitable for these organisations to implement due to the challenges it offers.

According to Gornitzka, Kyvik and Stensaker (2005), effective policy implementation relies on six variables: policy resources; policy standards and objectives; disposition of

implementers; economic, social and political conditions; inter-organisational communication and enforcement and; specific characteristics of implementing agencies. The variables applicable to the present study and directly linked to capacity are discussed below:

1. Policy standards and objectives

   Implementation is dependent on the nature of the policy and on specific factors that contribute to realisation of policy objectives. Implementation of policy cannot succeed unless there is a goal against which to judge it (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973) and thus it is important to have specific, unambiguous goals to implement. In the current context, *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) may have five specific outcomes that organisations are expected to meet yet it must be questioned as to whether these outcomes are easy to evaluate and report impact on, especially if limited training and support is offered and if organisations lack adequate human resources capacity (Chapter Five).

2. Policy resources

   Financial resources are needed for implementation but often these are unavailable or inadequate. This is the case in the current study amidst a backdrop of austerity and diminished financial resources. Unfortunately, not all TSSOs have readiness for capacity building as they lack the financial resources required to implement *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) and they struggle to build capacity in this area as they do not have adequately trained staff or the finances needed to employ additional staff, to measure and report impact. This lack of finance and difficulty rectifying this makes reaching policy objectives difficult.

3. Organisational communication and enforcement activities

   For successful policy implementation to take place, technical advice and assistance should be provided (Gornitzka, Kyvik and Stensaker, 2005). While the UK government has produced several digital resources for organisations to read, the organisations within the current study confirmed that they would like more assistance with regards to grant funding applications under the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy and

beyond as they have had limited support thus far. The state should look to offer free training courses or virtual workshops for staff from TSSOs and sports clubs, in order for them to have a greater understanding of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy and how they need to implement this as an organisation. Without this level of understanding and technical support, the participant organisations will not be ready to build capacity as they first need to upskill staff and cannot do this with limited financial resources.

4. Characteristics of implementing agencies

   The formal structures of an organisation and the informal attributes of staff members is also important (Gornitzka, Kyvik and Stensaker, 2005). For example, the competence and size of an organisation's staff must be considered. In the current context, many of the TSSOs and sports clubs are operating with paid staff and volunteers who are stretched to their limits with high work loads and insufficient support. The participant organisations in this study confirmed that they are operating with reduced staff and limited volunteers. Questions surrounding how the state expects organisations with such limited human resources to implement a policy that requires extensive time, and has practical implications for the delivery and administration workload of staff, currently exist. Furthermore, if these organisations do not have the budgets to send current staff on training courses or to employ new, adequately qualified staff to conduct research and report impact how will they rectify this gap in capacity?

The variables reviewed above demonstrate why organisations might struggle to implement the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. All of these are linked directly with readiness for capacity building, which these organisations might struggle with. While the government would like organisations to respond to the external force that is *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy change, these organisations are unable to do this if they lack the necessary capacity and do not have readiness for capacity building either. If the current system does not enable these organisations to have the necessary capacity to respond to policy changes, then some organisations will not progress, and the advantages of policy implementation will not be seen. It is evident from the present findings that the larger, more established organisations would

be able to respond to gaps in capacity more easily than the smaller organisations. Thus, the larger organisations are more able to adapt to policy fluctuations and implement *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) changes than smaller organisations. This means that the larger organisations who can prove impact and meet the outcomes asked of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) will reap the financial rewards, whereas the smaller TSSOs and sports clubs will not receive the state funding support they require – especially in a time of austerity. This highlights the complexities of readiness for capacity building and also demonstrates how the state has not necessarily considered the challenges associated with the implementation of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy for organisations operating on the ground. Sporting Future (DCMS, 2015) requires new ways of operating for these organisations, however this requires capacity changes and sustained financial capacity, which some TSSOs might not have.

The process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) will have even greater utility if it is able to highlight the potential consequences, should an organisation lack readiness for capacity building with limited viable solutions. This would help to demonstrate the above mentioned complexities and implementation challenges that organisations might face. This suggestion is discussed further in section 7.4.

7.3.4 Alternative strategies of capacity building.

Organisations may devise several different strategies as to how they will address their organisational capacity needs and fill any significant gaps in future. According to Chelladurai (2005), the development of strategies shows that organisations are open to different capacity building options that they may or may not have tried before. It can be expected that a combination of both internal and external strategies, aiming to address skill- and process-based problems, may be most effective in both the immediate future and long-term (Nu'Man et al., 2007). In the present study, the sports club interviewees mentioned that they have difficulties associated with recruiting and retaining volunteers (human resources capacity). Thus, alternative strategies for this issue might be offering reward incentives to keep volunteers motivated, finding online resources that might assist volunteers, partnering new volunteers with experienced volunteers who act as mentors, or outsourcing the entire volunteer recruitment and retention processes to a specialist volunteer organisation. It is important to note that the selection of a capacity building strategy is dependent on an

organisation's readiness for capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016). As a result, the participant organisations in the current context might struggle to select a capacity building strategy due to the financial uncertainty they are facing and due to difficulties associated with implementing *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015).

7.3.5 Capacity Building Outcomes.

The outcomes of capacity building can be expressed in terms of both the immediate impact on capacity and whether the capacity that has been built is able to be maintained (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Based on previous findings, organisational readiness for capacity building is understood to have the greatest impact on successful capacity building (Casey et al., 2012; Joffres et al., 2004; Kapuca et al., 2007; Sobeck & Agius, 2007). In order to assess whether capacity building outcomes have been met, a systematic assessment of intended outcomes must take place (Chelladurai, 2005). If it is established that an organisation has not achieved its intended outcomes of capacity building, the readiness factors should be reassessed and alternative capacity building strategies may be implemented to address the organisational needs (Millar & Doherty, 2016). Again, while larger organisations with greater resources might be able to reassess and make changes if they have not achieved intended outcomes, smaller organisations who do not have the same level of financial and/or human resources might struggle to do this. As an example, within the current economic and policy context, should organisations attempt to apply for statutory funding as an environmental response to a gap in financial capacity, they will need to invest a lot of resources (human resources, planning, collaboration) into doing so. If they then realise that they are still unable to meet the impact requirements set out by the current *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy, they would have wasted substantial resources and would then have to either find new ways to plug financial capacity gaps without applying for statutory funding (diversify revenue streams) or they would need to identify issues and reassess why they have failed to achieve this. This takes a large amount of time for organisations that are already short-staffed and over-burdened (see Chapter Five). This emphasises the difficulties these organisations have if they lack readiness for capacity building.

Programme and service delivery – an example of successful capacity building. Through effective capacity building, organisations can respond to the environmental changes that prompted capacity building and proceed with their service delivery in order to achieve organisational goals. While not all participant organisations within this study have found capacity building to be a straightforward task, a good example of an organisation who has managed to proceed with service delivery is TSSO C, who faced an environmental change of reduced state funding due to austerity cuts. The organisation's management took the decision to diversify revenue streams and have done so through extending corporate sponsorship and selling apprenticeship courses and other training opportunities. This required additional human resources in the form of fundraising staff and specialist training staff. The organisations rectified these capacity issues as they were able to successfully recruit qualified staff members or train existing staff for these roles. Through this process, TSSO C has been able to generate revenue that had been reduced due to decreased state provision. Hence, TSSO C not only rectified the gap in human resources capacity required to achieve its goal of diversifying revenue streams but, through this, it also rectified the gap in financial capacity that would have affected its delivery and provision of support to other organisations. TSSO C is considered a large organisation, with a turnover of approximately £5.5 million. The qualitative interviews revealed that this charity has financial reserves available. As a result, the organisation would have had the opportunity to tap into these reserves when needing to train or recruit staff members for these new apprenticeship roles. Furthermore, one must also consider that this organisation has confirmed the employment of a department of staff members that focus on research, impact and reporting. Hence, the organisation has alternative contingency strategies for funding through additional grant applications and sponsorships should their apprenticeship training sales strategy be unsuccessful. Unfortunately, not all of the organisations in this study have the same level of financial reserves or human resources capacity, making it more difficult for them to respond to environmental changes and implement strategies to plug gaps in capacity to deliver services. Thus, smaller TSSOs with limited reserves might be the organisations that struggle the most within the current context.

7.4 Effectiveness of organisational capacity and capacity building models; proposed changes to models

This study has employed a model of organisational capacity developed by Hall and colleagues (2003, p. 7) and a process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) in order to gain an understanding of organisational capacity amongst TSSOs in England and how these organisations might respond to changes in the external context, including a new policy direction and austerity measures. Both of these models have been beneficial in offering this insight as they contain appropriate elements and provide a comprehensive understanding of organisational capacity and the capacity building process, while recognising the interplay between the many concepts and factors involved in both of these concepts. The models were considered particularly useful because:

- They contained appropriate elements which helped guide the present research but did not restrict it
- They were developed specifically for the voluntary sector and this study confirmed that the various components included in both of these models are appropriate for the issues that voluntary organisations face

Furthermore, Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity was a useful framework to explore and understand the current experiences of TSSOs in England. The framework also facilitated comparison between England and Canada and therefore established the importance of understanding context. Meanwhile, Millar and Doherty's (2016) process model of capacity building helped to explain why organisations deficient in one dimension of capacity may look to build capacity within another dimension in order to remedy capacity gaps (i.e. through collaboration). The model also introduced the concept of readiness for capacity building, which has been overlooked by the United Kingdom government with regards to policy implementation. Incentivising TSSOs through funding is one approach that seems to be having limited effect. The model helped to demonstrate that enhancing organisations' readiness to build required capacity may be a better long-term strategy for the state.

However, having gained a detailed understanding of the major impact that context can have on organisational capacity and capacity building through the data collected in this study, the decision was taken to suggest new elements are added to these models, so as to

create dynamic models with greater utility. It is hoped that these additions will lead to a more dynamic approach to understanding change over time.

Both the Hall et al.'s (2003, p. 7) model of organisational capacity and the Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371) model of capacity building do not have an explicit time dimension. While this research was cross-sectional in nature, the reflections of participants subtly highlighted the changes that organisations experience over time (through both changes to the external context and through taking the decision to build capacity) and that organisations' capacity needs fluctuate at different periods. It also emphasised how some time-specific elements of organisational capacity (i.e. grant funding timescales within financial capacity) had a substantial impact on the overall capacity of the participant organisations. These insights suggest that it is important to explicitly refer to time in the models of Hall et al. (2003, p. 7) and Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371), that have both been used to analyse the data in this study. Furthermore, it is important to include this element as capacity and capacity building objectives should be long-term in order to enable organisations to manage change and successfully achieve goals (Stevens, 2018). Alley and Negretto (1999) agree that capacity development is a long-term process which seeks sustainable economic and social development. Furthermore, Mackay and Horton (2002) also emphasise that the aim of capacity development is to build organisations that are self-reliant and "capable of successfully responding to challenges in order to maintain their relevance and performance levels under changing circumstances" (p.1). While both Millar and Doherty (2016) and Hall et al. (2003) acknowledge that capacity needs to be sustainable and long-term, the models they have presented do not depict a time element and offer a snapshot in time. Thus, upon considering the extant literature and the findings of this study that subtly highlighted time-specific elements of capacity (i.e. grant funding timelines, changing context, capacity building, planning ahead) it is suggested that two timelines be added to these models of organisational capacity and capacity building. The first solid line should depict long-term capacity building and sustainability, while the second broken line should depict how many TSSOs are struggling with consistent and sustainable capacity maintenance due to the short-term nature of grant funding and their high dependence thereon. While it must be argued that in order for these organisations to successfully maintain and build capacity, they require more stable sources of funding and less reliance on short-term grants, this is a challenge for the organisations that

participated in this study and thus this needs to be depicted in the adapted model. The broken lines will depict the stop-start nature of achieving short-term organisational capacity for some of these organisations, before having to build capacity again when funding cycles change. Furthermore, it is suggested that the process model of capacity building (Millar & Doherty, 2016, p. 371) should be extended to give greater emphasis to the survival of organisations.

The inclusion of capacity failure and ultimately organisational failure should be considered in this model. According to (Sobeck, Agius, & Mayers, 2007), in practice, organisations must consider that capacity building is resource-intensive and may draw upon many dimensions of organisational capacity to provide outcomes and achieve organisational goals. Thus, an underlying paradox exists as at least some organisational capacity is required in order to implement and support capacity building initiatives (Horton et al., 2003; Millar & Doherty, 2016). In the TSSO context, organisations may face challenges relating to gaps in existing capacity and some of these organisations have been found to have reduced organisational capacity across several dimensions, as is highlighted by the present study and extant literature. This may present a major barrier to capacity building within the TSSO context, especially if these organisations cannot find alternate strategies to build capacity. Should organisations not have the readiness for capacity building or alternative strategies, and are unable to respond and adapt to a stimulus, then capacity building is unable to take place. As a consequence, there are further concerns that organisations that do not have the initial capacity required to start the capacity building process, will fail to build capacity and risk organisational failure in its entirety. Thus, the model requires additional components which represent the capacity building failure and risk to organisational survival.

It is also important to note that while this study has focused on the economic context of austerity and the political context of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy, other economic and policy changes will occur over time (e.g. Brexit) and in different regions. The suggested components have applicability to other contexts.

7.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter presented findings relating to the awareness of organisations of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy, highlighting that there is still a large percentage of organisations that are unaware of the policy and the implications for their organisations. The

implementation of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) was discussed in detail, in association with Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) process model of capacity building which helped demonstrate how some TSSOs do not possess the readiness for capacity building to respond to the new policy, which is considered a capacity building stimulus for some of these organisations who are aware of this policy and have chosen to respond to it. The model also helped to demonstrate that enhancing organisations' readiness to build required capacity may be a better long-term strategy for the government, instead of just incentivising TSSOs through funding.

The process of capacity building was also reviewed in this chapter, with Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) process model of capacity building applied to the present study. The stimuli that have prompted capacity building for the TSSOs in this study have been presented and their strategies to build capacity have been discussed. However, it has also been highlighted that a fundamental paradox exists as at least some organisational capacity is required in order to implement and support capacity building initiatives (Horton et al., 2003; Millar & Doherty, 2016). TSSOs have been shown to face challenges relating to gaps in existing capacity across several dimensions, which have been heightened due to austerity and which have the potential to limit their ability to implement *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) or respond to other external forces. Thus, question marks surrounding whether organisations that cannot build capacity are able to survive in the long-term, have arisen.

The effectiveness of the Hall et al. (2003, p. 7) framework of organisational capacity and the Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371) model of capacity building was also discussed in this chapter. The models were found to be useful in offering an understanding of the organisational capacity constraints and facilitators that the organisations in this study faced and contain relevant components which offered a clear conceptualisation of organisational capacity and capacity building. However, as highlighted above, the models do not address the possibility of TSSOs being unable to build capacity and ultimately risking organisational collapse. Hence, the researcher has suggested adding an unsuccessful capacity building/failure component to these models. It was also established that the models lack a time element. Stevens (2018) supports the inclusion of a time line in the Hall et al. (2003) model and Alley and Negretto (1999) highlight the importance of considering time, stating that capacity development is a long-term process which seeks sustainable economic and

social development. However, the TSSOs that participated in this study highlighted the difficulties associated with long-term planning, specifically discussing the short-term nature of grant funding and project funding which present major challenges. Thus, the researcher suggests adding two timelines to these models – a short-term line characterised by gaps in which organisational capacity needs to be rebuilt, and a solid line which depicts the importance of sustaining capacity in the long-term.

Chapter Eight:

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to understand the organisational capacity of TSSOs in England to deliver policy outcomes within a context of austerity. This aim has been achieved by undertaking a mixed-methods investigation of organisational capacity amongst TSSOs that serve young people in England as a main priority group. The sample of this study included incorporated or unincorporated charities, community interest companies, Active Partnerships, NGBs and sports clubs, and the research was conducted through a mixed methods design. This investigation took place specifically in the context of austerity and amidst a changing policy context to generate further understanding of how the external environment impacts organisational capacity and capacity building opportunities. A study of this kind has not been executed in England before and previous organisational capacity literature has not investigated contextual factors in sufficient detail. Thus, the current research has addressed this gap in the literature.

The purpose of this conclusion chapter is to present a summary of the key findings and conclusions drawn from each chapter, that directly address the aim and objectives of this study, specifically:

Aim

To further understand the organisational capacity of TSSOs in England to deliver policy outcomes within a context of austerity.

Research Questions

- How has austerity impacted upon the organisational capacity of TSSOs?
- To what extent do TSSOs have the organisational capacity required to respond to the *Sporting Future* policy?

Research Objectives

- To examine the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising existing capacity frameworks
- To reflect on ways in which TSSOs can successfully maintain or build their capacity in a changing economic and political context
- To explore the policy and strategic organisational implications of these findings

The research aims and objectives of this study were achieved and the research questions were answered, as is highlighted within the summary of chapters that follows. The present research has shown that some TSSOs are struggling to deliver the outcomes of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) within a context of austerity, due to gaps in financial and human resources capacity, but are using other capacity dimensions such as relationship and network capacity to drive their performance forward.

8.2 Chapter overview and conclusions

Chapter one of this thesis provided an introduction to the present study and presented the research aims and objectives shared above. The rationale for investigating organisational capacity amongst TSSOs in England was presented. Firstly, previous research has focused on sports clubs or other TSSOs in isolation, not comparing the findings between these different organisations as this study has successfully done through investigating both of these groups of TSSOs. Secondly, very limited research on organisational capacity amongst TSSOs has been conducted within England, with the majority of research conducted in Germany and Canada. Thirdly, limited research has focused on the external context and its impact on the organisational capacity of TSSOs. In the current context of austerity and in light of a new policy; *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), it was particularly important to gain a further understanding of the organisational capacity of sports clubs and TSSOs and understand how they are managing the effects of financial instability and new policy directives. This chapter also offered a brief history of policy in the United Kingdom and highlighted the importance of considering policy implementation as this affects many of the organisations in this study, as is evident in the findings chapters. The different approaches to policy implementation – including top-down and bottom-up approaches – were highlighted. Furthermore, austerity and its impact on sports provision in the United Kingdom was addressed, further highlighting

the increasingly important role that TSSOs are playing even amidst the challenges they are facing within a challenging financial context.

Chapter two presented an in-depth review of extant literature, which focused predominantly on organisational capacity and specifically on the theoretical frameworks drawn upon within this study, by Hall et al. (2003, p. 7) and Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371). Findings from previous organisational capacity-focused studies were presented. Furthermore, concepts such as resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), total cost economics (Williamson, 1985) and non-profit collectiveness indices (Weisbrod, 1988), which are all linked to organisational capacity, were discussed. The literature review highlighted the lack of academic research focusing on organisational capacity in sports clubs and other TSSOs within one study, comparing the distinct findings of these different types of organisations. It also highlighted the lack of research focusing on organisational capacity within England.

Chapter three focused on the methodology and research design of this study. This included an outline of the philosophical position that informed and guided the research. A detailed explanation of ontology and epistemology was provided and a justification for the adoption of the critical realist paradigm was offered. This explanation included discussions of how critical realism is linked with chosen data collection processes, including semi-structured interviews and thematic analysis in particular.

Rationales for the selected mixed methodology research design were provided. This mixed methodology design included a quantitative phase, which incorporated an online survey, and a qualitative phase, which entailed in-depth semi-structured interviews. Rationales for the sampling methods for each of these distinctive phases were provided. The first phase of the study involved a mapping exercise in which the researcher aimed to compile a list of the types of TSSOs that exist and try to develop a comprehensive sample of organisations. This presented challenges as there are currently no comprehensive databases of sports clubs and charities available within the United Kingdom. This is an area which evidently requires further work and investigation. Consequently, a purposive, representative sample of sports clubs (hockey, cricket, netball and rugby clubs) were selected from every local authority in England and a comprehensive list of sports charities, NGBs and Active Partnerships was also gathered.

The online survey comprised 129 questions which were guided by Hall and colleagues' (2003, p. 7) model of organisational capacity, previous studies that also investigated this model, sports club surveys in other countries, and gaps in previous literature that the researcher aimed to address. 114 responses from 63 sports clubs and 51 other TSSOs across England were received. Conclusions were drawn following descriptive analysis of the online survey responses. The survey results also informed the selection of organisations and interviewees for the second phase of the research, which entailed in-depth qualitative interviews. A rationale for the selection of seven organisations (including two sports clubs, one NGB, one Active Partnership and three other TSSOs) was offered in this chapter, alongside a rationale for the selection of semi-structured interviews and manual thematic analysis as an analysis technique. Detailed descriptions of the selected organisations were provided. The reliability and validity of both phases of the research was discussed and ways to address potential limitations, including data triangulation and precise documentation of the data, were presented. This chapter also demonstrated how the constituent parts of the research strategy logically linked together.

Chapter four, the first of four empirical chapters, presented the findings related to financial capacity. This chapter provided evidence that austerity measures and policy changes have resulted in financial challenges for the organisations within this study, with both sports clubs and TSSOs reporting financial capacity to be their greatest concern in the quantitative survey. However, this was mostly apparent amongst TSSOs who reported that their present challenges include diminished state funding (through direct grants from Sport England and indirectly through local authority grants and contracts) and challenges associated with short-term grants and project funding. This type of funding seems to have unfavourable consequences for these organisations, including a strain on human resources through the frequent search for new funding sources, restricted autonomy and difficulties associated with long-term planning.

It was concerning to find that the majority of the sports club participants and a substantial percentage of the TSSO participants felt that they had received insufficient support in applying for state funding. With the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy outlining specific criteria that organisations need to demonstrate in order to secure state funding and specific procedures that need to be followed, it is concerning that the TSSOs and sports clubs

feel they have not received sufficient support in this regard. Without adequate support, these organisations could have funding bids rejected or could lack the expertise to complete funding applications from the outset.

Other financial capacity pressures stem from increased competition between organisations for funding, even though this has been reduced in some areas. This affected the TSSO participants in particular. This competition is reported to be arising from reductions in government funding, greater restrictions on the use of funds and a growth in the number of TSSOs operating in England. Some of the organisations in this study have responded to this pressure by focusing on boosting collaboration with other TSSOs, where they have used collaboration as a means to rectify gaps in financial capacity or to secure resources that are presently lacking. Through this collaboration, organisations are able to reduce costs by sharing resources and expertise or jointly bid for grant funding which puts less pressure on one organisation and allows for a greater pool of resources. This collaboration is a main capacity strength of these organisations and was further discussed in chapter five.

The participant organisations also confirmed that they have diversified their revenue streams and continue to seek ways to do so as certain funding, including grant funding, has become more difficult to secure. The TSSO participants have diversified their revenue streams by selling their services (such as training or apprenticeship schemes) or charging membership fees, while the sports clubs plan to diversify their revenue streams in the opposite way – by applying for grants that they have not yet needed to rely on before. However, without the adequate training and support this could be challenging for these sports clubs, as it has been for some other TSSOs.

Increasing pressure to prove impact to funders was also highlighted as a challenge by the TSSOs. *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) may have added to this pressure through increasingly complex funding criteria. This funding criteria requires extensive impact reporting and places a burden on human resources and financial resources, as organisations need to pay for additional impact staff or training, or need to pay for external impact and grant expertise. Thus, there is a concerning cycle of funding difficulties as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) cannot be successfully implemented if organisations have limited financial capacity with these organisations sometimes unable to afford to prove necessary impact and make necessary changes, however they will also not receive the additional funds they so

desperately require if they cannot prove this impact to the state. Thus, question marks surrounding the financial burden of an outcomes-based policy like *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) arose. It is evident from these findings that this chapter has successfully achieved the research objective of 'examining the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising existing capacity frameworks'.

Chapter five presented findings associated with human resources capacity and a discussion thereof. Human resources capacity was expressed as the second largest capacity concern faced by the sports club and other TSSO respondents in Phase One of this study. A variety of human resource issues were highlighted in more detail within the qualitative interviews. The interviewees expressed concerns relating to volunteers, including difficulties in finding committed volunteers who align with the values and vision, of the sports clubs in particular, and challenges in retaining competent volunteers. However, perhaps most surprisingly, the interviewees in the qualitative phase of the research expressed negative attitudes towards volunteers and admitted to evading volunteer recruitment within their organisations when possible. These negative attitudes are linked to the strain on paid staff associated with recruiting, training and managing a volunteer workforce. With TSSOs in this study already expressing a shortage in paid staff and the redundancy of staff due to financial constraints such as reduced state funding, it is clear that these organisations do not have the staffing capacity required to manage volunteers. This finding again highlights a *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy implementation hurdle as it is expected that volunteers are to play a key role in delivering the key outcomes of the policy, through the *Volunteering in an Active Nation* (Sport England, 2016) strategy. As some TSSOs do not necessarily have the financial resources required to recruit appropriate staff to manage and train their volunteer workforces, their capacity to deliver the new policy is reduced.

Other significant findings were linked to the qualifications of staff, with 46% of sports club respondents reporting that up to half of their coaching staff lack any formal coaching qualifications whatsoever. This is challenging for sports clubs as they do not always have the finances required to recruit qualified staff. It was also alarming that, despite the increased national focus on mental health in recent years and state requirements for sports organisations to prove impact on mental well-being in order to secure funding within the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy, almost all of the staff of the sports club and other TSSO

survey respondents have not undergone any mental health training. Again, this is linked with a lack of financial resources as these organisations would rather prioritise delivery and fixed costs over 'luxuries' such as mental health training. Hence, question marks surrounding organisations' ability to have an impact on participants' mental well-being, and measure and report this, without the relevant training themselves have arisen. It is evident from this summary that Chapter five has contributed to achieving the research objective of 'examining the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising existing capacity frameworks'.

Chapter six shared findings relating to structural capacity, which is sub-divided into findings on planning and development capacity; infrastructure and process capacity and relationship and network capacity. The findings relating to relationship and network capacity were perhaps the most surprising and offer an insight into how the organisations within this study are managing gaps in other organisational capacity dimensions and improving their capacity to deliver the outcomes of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. These findings were related to collaborative partnerships. The TSSO respondents in this study expressed that collaboration is critical for their organisations, with more than half of the survey respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing that their organisations are dependent on collaboration to ensure survival. The respondents expressed collaborating with different types of organisations and to varying degrees, but mostly with financial capacity-focused goals of increasing revenue or reducing expenditure. The sports club interviewees confirmed that they collaborate with local authorities for venue provision, however, it is apparent that reduced collaboration is taking place between the other TSSOs and local authorities as austerity measures have impacted upon the local authorities' ability to outsource sports provision and work with external TSSOs. As a result, increased collaboration is taking place amongst different TSSOs themselves as many of these organisations have taken the decision to bid for funding opportunities together and share human resources, in order to reduce expenditure. These findings are underpinned by RDT (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) and TCE (Williamson, 1985), which posit that interorganisational relationships are initiated primarily because organisations need to acquire resources that are scarce within their own set-up or because they are trying to manage costs associated with turning resources into products or services.

The significant role of larger TSSOs was also highlighted in this chapter, as these organisations shared evidence of assisting smaller TSSOs through providing funding support via sub-grants and sharing expertise relating to impact reporting, bid-writing and accessing funding streams. This is important as some of the smaller organisations lack the resources required to evidence impact and report this in line with the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. Competition for grant funding has also increased, as is discussed in Chapter Four, so assistance offered to smaller TSSOs can get in accessing this is beneficial. Through this finding, it is evident that smaller TSSOs who have access to support from larger TSSOs can use this level of support to build capacity in the areas that they are currently lacking vital resources.

Furthermore, this chapter also highlighted the finding that organisations which lack sufficient human resources will struggle to source, build and maintain relationships with collaborative partners, which can be problematic. Authenticity, trust and open reciprocal communication between collaborative partners were also found to be important features of successful collaboration. The results contribute to a growing body of literature on both the efficient use of partnerships (e.g., Babiak & Thibault, 2009; Misener & Doherty, 2012, 2013) and collaborative approaches to sport management and governance (O'Boyle & Shilbury, 2016; Shilbury & Ferkins, 2015).

Chapter six offered a discussion on the findings associated with infrastructure and process capacity. In this regard, both the sports clubs and other TSSOs reported positive findings relating to technological infrastructure. Several participants shared examples of their organisations implementing new technology to improve administrative processes, better serve their target audiences or to enhance impact data collection and reporting, which is in line with the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) requirements.

The majority of survey respondents expressed that they believe their organisation to have the correct level of infrastructure to fulfil its mission. However, these respondents also expressed concerns relating to future facility costs in particular. The survey findings confirmed that the majority of sports club and TSSOs lease their delivery sites but try to do so at reduced rates in order to keep their fixed costs to a minimum. Should these fixed costs rise, TSSOs and sports clubs' delivery opportunities could be affected.

There were also largely positive findings regarding organisational processes and culture. The survey revealed that a high percentage of TSSO and sports club respondents

believe their organisations to have a clear set of values that all staff members are aware of. The majority of TSSOs and sports clubs also confirmed that they have specific policies and guidelines in place, which have been disseminated to all staff. This is important in promoting shared ethics and delivery standards across an organisation, but it takes human resources to devise these policies and guidelines and implement these, which some sports clubs and TSSOs with reduced staff numbers, or a high proportion of volunteers, might struggle with.

Chapter six also shed light on planning and development capacity and offered a discussion thereof. These included findings that demonstrated how the majority of participant organisations seem to have fairly clear strategies driving their organisations forward. During the qualitative phase of the study, the participant interviewees expressed that financial uncertainty and the changing policy context have been taken into account to some extent when planning ahead. However, the external context has definitely had an impact on planning, especially due to the financial constraints associated with short-term project funding in some grant cycles. Without stable, long-term funding these organisations are unable to plan far enough ahead. Furthermore, human resources constraints also have an impact on planning and development capacity, with the sports club interviewees in particular expressing that their volunteers do not have sufficient time to meet frequently enough for strategic planning.

The role of research is also significant in the strategic planning process, with the TSSOs in particular recognising the benefits of both internal and external research. A move to measure and report impact has taken place through the implementation of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015), where it is increasingly important for organisations to demonstrate impact in order to secure state funding. Although some of the interviewees expressed that research has been beneficial in helping their organisations strategically plan ahead, more than half of TSSOs and almost all sports club survey respondents expressed having commissioned no research in the past five years. It is challenging for smaller organisations with limited budgets and inadequate numbers of trained staff to conduct research as this can be costly and time-consuming. Hence, these organisations may not reap the benefits of using research for strategic planning if they cannot afford to invest in this process. The TSSOs also expressed frustrations linked to research and impact, including practical difficulties associated with collecting data and frequently tracking change in sports programmes requiring a lot of time

from staff and volunteers. Again, this highlights that the implementation of outcome-based policies such as *Sporting Future* (2015) can be challenging for some TSSOs – especially those with smaller staff numbers or a high reliance on volunteers. Through these findings, it is evident that chapter six has contributed towards the research objective of 'examining the organisational capacity of different TSSOs in England utilising existing capacity frameworks'.
In chapter seven, the implementation concerns associated with *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) were further highlighted and discussed in association with Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) process model of capacity building, demonstrating how some TSSOs do not possess the readiness for capacity building to respond to the new policy. Research by Millar, Clutterbuck and Doherty (2020) previously highlighted that organisational capacity is key in responding to policy changes. Community sports clubs often lack capacity to respond to the demands of sport policies (Donaldson et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2009; Lusted & O'Gorman, 2010; May et al., 2013; Skille, 2015) – as was the case within Millar, Clutterbuck & Doherty's (2020) research where the sports club experienced constraints due to lack or revenue streams and an unsustainable funding model to support its long-term athlete development initiatives. The present study has specifically shown how readiness for capacity building is significant if TSSOs are required to respond to changes in context. This chapter also presented findings relating to the awareness of organisations of the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy, highlighting that there is still a large percentage of organisations that are unaware of the policy and the relevant implications for their organisations.

Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) model was applied to the present study findings and examples of capacity building stimuli and proposed responses were presented alongside quotes from participant organisations. The effectiveness of this model and the framework of organisational capacity (Hall et al., 2003, p. 7) was assessed. Both models were found to be useful and appropriate for offering an understanding of the organisational capacity constraints and facilitators that the organisations in this study faced. The models were also found to contain relevant components and offered a clear conceptualisation of organisational capacity and capacity building. However, having gained a detailed understanding of the major impact that context can have on organisational capacity and capacity building, through the data collected in this study, suggestions were made as to how these models may be improved. Both of the original frameworks lacked a timeline component and did not address the concept

of failure (i.e. inability to build capacity which could lead to organisational failure). As a result, the researcher suggested including these components, in order to create more dynamic models. The inclusion of a capacity building failure and organisational failure component in Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) model would also be beneficial and should be considered further in future.

It is evident through the summary of findings presented above that Chapter Seven of this thesis has contributed towards the research objectives of 'reflecting on ways in which TSSOs can successfully maintain or build their capacity in a changing economic and political context' and to 'exploring the policy and strategic organisational implications of these findings'. Thus, the thesis as a whole has successfully incorporated all three of the outcomes that this study set out to achieve. In summary, this thesis presented unique organisational capacity data and an analysis thereof, focusing specifically on the effects of the economic and policy context on TSSOs and community sports clubs. These findings were compared to extant literature and were analysed through the organisational capacity frameworks developed by Hall et al. (2003, p. 7) and Millar and Doherty (2016, p. 371). While these frameworks were beneficial as tools for developing a comprehensive understanding of organisational capacity and capacity building in the present context, the researcher has suggested adding several components in order to strengthen these models. It is hoped that the novel data and analysis presented in conjunction with this theoretical refinement will prove beneficial to researchers, policy-makers and TSSOs.

8.3 Study limitations and reflections on the research process

This study aimed to address a gap in extant literature by investigating the organisational capacity of TSSOs (including a sample of sports clubs, charities, CICs, NGBs and Active Partnerships), focusing on organisations based in England in specific, examining their ability to deliver policy outcomes within the context of austerity. However, the extensive population of TSSOs in England made this a challenge from the outset. This was difficult due to the scale of the population and also due to the limited sports club databases and incomplete charity lists available to the researcher. Thus, a limitation of the present study is that a fully comprehensive sample was not able to be surveyed and thus a representative sample had to be employed through a detailed and time-consuming selection process. The

sports club sample in particular was most challenging and was chosen based on specific criteria selected by the researcher. While these criteria were carefully considered and justified, a level of researcher interference has taken place. It would have been beneficial to have a larger sample of all community sports clubs and all charities in England, but this was not possible due to resource constraints. Thus, an indicative sample was selected in order to allow the researcher to explore organisational capacity within the specified context for the first time.

Furthermore, the two types of research employed in this study design have their own limitations. Quantitative research through an online survey involves structured questions that are closed questions. Thus, this leads to limited results which are guided by a research theme or question as respondents only have the choice of specific responses, based on the selection of the researcher. Furthermore, there is limited control of the environment as the respondents are answering the survey questions at their own time and in their own space, meaning that their answers might be time-specific or depend on different factors that might influence their response at that specific moment. If respondents do not know the answer to a particular question, they could fabricate their response. This means that some of the survey responses might be inaccurate. In the current survey, the researcher did not include an option of “unsure” so there is a greater chance that respondents provided false information if they did not know the answers to questions at the time of response.

Qualitative research does not allow for findings to be extended to wider populations with the same degree of certainty as quantitative analysis. This is due to the fact that the data cannot be confirmed as being statistically significant or due to chance. Furthermore, the present research was highly contextualised and thus the findings are not generalisable to all contexts. However, this research highlights the importance of considering the impact of context, which can be investigated in different settings and compared to the present findings.

Individual, semi-structured interviews were conducted in the qualitative phase of this study. These also have limitations including interviewer bias, where the personal views or qualities of the interviewer are determinants of the outcome of an interview. Biases introduced by the interviewer can have an impact on the reliability and validity of the study findings (Salazar, 1990). The interviewer attempted to reduce interviewer bias by avoiding leading questions, phrasing questions with no predisposition, avoiding facial expressions that

might demonstrate disapproval for responses and asking open-ended questions in a semi-structured format. However, interviewer bias cannot be completely avoided as the interviewer still has set beliefs and prior knowledge on the subject. The researcher developed interview guides based on previous theoretical frameworks and extant research, as well as organisations' responses to the phase one survey. Thus, a deductive approach to data collection was adopted and this does not encourage divergent thinking and openness to new theoretical perspectives at the same level as inductive reasoning might. Another limitation of all research but predominantly interviews is that of social desirability. In certain situations, interviewees might distort information in order to present what they believe to offer a more favourable impression (Salazar, 1990). This is potentially more prevalent in face-to-face interviews as the researcher is not removed from the participant in any way (as would be the case in a telephonic interview). Qualitative interviews are never fully anonymous and this might add to social desirability bias when participants do not feel completely unknown to the researcher. Furthermore, Walford (2007) argues that "interviews alone are an insufficient form of data to study social life" (p. 147) as both the interviewer and the interviewees may have incomplete knowledge or even loss of memory at the time of interview, which could lead to fabricated answers, as was a limitation of the online survey.

It can be argued that the implementation of more than one data collection instrument (survey and interviews) assists in obtaining richer data and further validating the research findings. However, adopting a mixed method approach, as in the case of this study, is also time consuming and the extensive time taken to complete this research must be considered.

8.4 Implications and direction for future research

This research is timely and offers a wide range of implications including delivery suggestions for TSSOs, policy and practice implications for the state, and theoretical implications. A key finding of this study has demonstrated the importance of collaboration as a tool for TSSOs to plug gaps and build their organisational capacity, often aiming to share resources for funding bids and also to reduce overall financial burden. Thus, the government should look to offer more resources for TSSOs who seek to form collaborative partnerships including information regarding collaborative opportunities in their region, formalisation advice and legal advice. Future research should look to focus on this area in more detail, seeking to understand the

formalisation of collaboration and the negative consequences that might occur if collaborative opportunities break down.

This study has highlighted that incentivising TSSOs to implement policies such as *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) through financial rewards (i.e. grants) seems to be having limited effect. Thus, enhancing organisations' readiness to build required capacity may be a better long-term strategy for the government. One example of a contribution that the government can make is to encourage further collaboration between TSSOs. As Lee and Nowell (2015) suggested, non-profit performance should no longer be conceptualised in terms of performance alone but "in terms of how that organisation has managed its relations with other stakeholders and established a reputation for trust-worthiness and excellence within the broader network" (p. 10). Thus, collaborative opportunities should be further encouraged by DCMS, Sport England and UK Sport as this can assist organisations who lack capacity across different capacity dimensions or who lack the readiness to build capacity on their own. The present research is timely as Sport England have recently highlighted at national sports conferences (Why Sports, 2019) that their next strategy, planned for dissemination in 2021, will incorporate collaboration and highlight the benefits thereof. Thus, this research can provide valuable insight into collaboration between TSSOs for Sport England, including how and why they form collaborative partnerships, how these partnerships are linked to other dimensions of capacity and how this collaboration can contribute to the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy. Research in this area should be advanced by Sport England as it can provide the strategic insight required to develop and disseminate the new 2021-2025 strategy and contribute to the development of new national policies. For example, future state funding criteria could take into account collaboration and the opportunities it offers, while policies could also protect organisations from the potential negative consequences linked with collaboration. Sport England should also consider developing digital resources that can assist organisations in finding and forming collaborative partnerships.

The findings of this research also highlighted the importance of more attention being placed on policy implementation, as there are several limitations associated with the *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) policy in this regard. Firstly, more support needs to be offered to a wider range of TSSOs in understanding the outcomes of *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) in more detail

through workshops and consultation opportunities. Detailed impact measurement resources should be offered digitally and free impact reporting events should be offered to TSSOs, in order to provide a better understanding of this process. The government should also look to offer affordable courses to TSSOs who cannot afford to recruit impact specialists or outsource this work, yet want to upskill their existing staff in impact reporting. Furthermore, additional support needs to be offered to organisations regarding the government grant funding processes as many respondents in this study confirmed that they have had limited support in this regard and would like more assistance. This was also highlighted by respondents with regards to mental health training as many organisations have not been able to offer training to their staff, yet *Sporting Future* (DCMS, 2015) encourages the enhancement of mental well-being. Thus, the government should offer financial support to organisations who wish to put staff through mental health training or should look to offer workshops at a reduced rate to third sector organisations.

The final government-focused implications that should be considered are those associated with short-term funding cycles. The participants in this study confirmed the negative effects associated with short-term funding including the inability to plan ahead, the loss of valuable staff once short-term project funding ceases, the extensive time and human resources required to reapply for new funding and, at worst, the closure of a project or activity. Thus, the government and other large funding bodies should consider these consequences and, where possible, develop strategies to provide support for extended periods of time.

This research also offers practical insights for TSSO managers as, while setting up collaborative partnerships is beneficial, in order to maximise the efficiency of these partnerships, sport managers must understand their organisation's capacity and ensure this collaboration will offer capacity benefits for all parties. Furthermore, understanding the relationship processes required when entering into a partnership is important for TSSOs to consider.

Finally, the theories investigated in this study have been beneficial and have provided a valuable lens through which to understand organisational capacity building and capacity building. However, there are still questions which remain with regards to how organisations continue to exist if they are unable to plug organisational capacity gaps and build capacity

and this should be researched further. Thus, components which highlight organisation's failure to build capacity and, in turn, their risk of organisational failure as a whole, should be included in Millar and Doherty's (2016, p. 371) model. Future empirical research should look to further understand this concept.

There are also gaps in extant literature linked to what the main challenges of TSSO collaboration are and what the consequences are when collaboration breaks down, especially if this collaboration was used as a means of building capacity. Future research should also investigate what factors TSSOs require for successful collaboration.

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Appendix I: Full list of TSSOs compiled by the researcher
(contact details have been removed to uphold data protection)

CHARITIES			
1.	Access Sport	Aims to enhance life prospects of disadvantaged children by providing opportunities to participate in sport. Build thriving community sports clubs, led by volunteers, in the most disadvantaged urban areas. Ages 5-25.	www.accesssport.org.uk
2.	Access to Sport and Recreation Limited	To provide and assist in the provision of facilities in the interests of social welfare for sport, healthy recreation and other leisure time occupation of individuals who have need of such facilities by reason of their youth, age, infirmity or disability, financial hardship or social circumstances, in order to improve their condition of life.	
3.	Activate Sport Foundation	To provide sporting opportunity to children of all ages and social backgrounds across the UK. Delivering a curriculum of sport and coaching to over 200 schools. The programme is delivered by independent coaches in each school, and the charity also provides professional athletes to each venue to help inspire the children.	www.activatesport.co.uk/foundation
4.	Afobe Foundation	Aims to support young orphaned boys and girls between the ages of 7-18 years in Kinshasa, providing easier access to sanitation, nutrition, education, clothing, social care, health care, protection and a loving shelter.	www.theafobefoundation.org
5.	African Culture, Arts and Sport Network	Our aim is to promote social cohesion, integration and opportunity by working with excluded groups mainly African refugees community to change their lives and overcome exclusion through provision of different services such as training opportunity, recreational activities, employment opportunity, advise on welfare benefit, interpreting and translation services and youth counselling service.	www.acasn.com
6.	All Aboard! Water Sport and Water Recreational Activity	The charity provides the equipment, facilities and personnel to enable disabled, underprivileged people in Bristol and adjoining areas, to participate in various forms of water sports and water recreational activities. It also provides the opportunity for the community in general to take part in water sport activity for the purpose of their health and welfare.	www.allaboardwatersports.co.uk
7.	Ambassadors Football Limited	Ambassadors football runs and facilitates football projects that build bridges across cultural, faith, ethnic and postcode divides, providing support, resources and training in order to invest in communities and empower volunteers, interns, staff and churches to start new initiatives that lead to tangible social change.	www.ambassadorsfootball/gb
8.	Basketball Foundation	Our aim is to be the leading national basketball charity and contribute to a reverse in the decline in participation in basketball and to maximise the social impact of the sport.	www.basketballfoundation.org.uk
9.	Birmingham Sport and Physical Activity Trust	Advancing the mental & physical health & well being of young people in particular, but not exclusively, by providing and assisting in providing facilities for sport and physical activity, recreation, art and culture or other leisure time occupation; advancing education (including education, training and development in the area of leadership); promoting volunteering	www.sportbirmingham.org
10.	Cambridgeshire Sport and Education Partnership	The charity has worked with schools across Cambridgeshire schools to run a number of programmes to engage young people in physical activity, to lead healthier lifestyles, develop confidence and self esteem in young people as well as addressing behaviour issues. The charity has linked with local key partners, including health, community clubs and parents to roll out these programmes.	www.cambsSEP.com

11.	Chance to Shine	Mission to spread the power of cricket throughout schools and communities nationally. We take cricket to new places and use it to ignite new passions, teach vital skills, unite diverse groups, and educate young people.	www.chancetoshine.org
12.	Chelmsford Association for Disabled Sport	Introducing sport to physically disabled youngsters.	
13.	Craig Bellamy Foundation (CBF)	Educates young people – both girls and boys – in Sierra Leone through their love of football. Founded by Craig Bellamy in 2008, Craig wanted to make a difference after he saw the devastating social and economic conditions in which Sierra Leone children grew up.	www.craigbellamyfoundation.org
14.	Cricket United	Umbrella for Cricket United Day, which supports three charities: Chance to Shine, Lord's Taverners and PCA Benevolent Fund	www.cricketunited.co.uk
15.	CP Sport	Cerebral palsy sport is the country's leading national sport disability sport organisation supporting people with cerebral palsy to reach their sporting potential. Our vision is to support people with cerebral palsy to reach their life potential through sport and active recreation. Our mission is to improve quality of life for people with cerebral palsy and other physical disabilities.	www.cpsport.org
16.	Dame Kelly Holmes Trust	We support young people between the ages of 14-25 who are facing disadvantage. We do this through our transformational partnership programmes, which develop the key attitudes and capabilities young people need to empower them to achieve sustainable positive life outcomes. Programmes are delivered by world class athletes.	www.damekellyholmestrust.org
17.	Disability Sport for Development	Promotion of social inclusion among people with disabilities. Educating local and international communities to fight the stigma associated with disability; Encouraging international community to respond better to the needs of those with disabilities, especially in the developing world; Promoting access to services and facilities to improve the lives of those with disabilities.	www.haitidream.org/
18.	Disability Sport Worcester	Aims to encourage active participation in sport and leisure activities to bring sporting opportunities to those people with a disability. To encourage the provision of quality sporting activities. To raise the profile of disability sport in Worcester. To provide support in club/coach education and volunteering opportunities.	www.disabilitysportworcester.org.uk
19.	England Footballers Foundation	The players are committed to using their profile to supporting causes close to their hearts in a variety of different ways. Foundation has supported many charities including The Bobby Moore Fund for Cancer Research UK, UNICEF, OnSide, Rays of Sunshine,WellChild, Together for Short Lives, Cancer Research UK, Help for Heroes, The British Forces Foundation, The PFA's charitable initiatives and Help Harry Help Others.	www.englandfootballersfoundation.com
20.	Everybody Sport and Recreation	The promotion and preservation of good health, provision of facilities for recreation in the interest of social welfare, these facilities are provided to the public at large. Special facilities may be provided to persons who by reason of their youth, age, infirmity or disability, poverty or social or economic circumstances may have need of special facilities and services.	www.everybody.org.uk
21.	Football Aid	The concept of Football Aid is simple - to allow fans, who have only been able to dream about it, the chance to experience the thrill of match day.	www.footballaid.com
22.	Football Foundation	The Football Foundation is the largest sports charity in the UK funded by the Premier League, The FA and Government. It funds the development of new and refurbished grassroots sports facilities improving the quality and experience of	www.footballfoundation.org.uk

		playing sport at the grassroots level to sustain and increase participation and improve general skills levels.	
23.	Foundation for Leadership through Sport	The principal activity of the charity is that of sports activities. The purpose is to advance the education of the public, in particular young people participating in sport, in their knowledge and understanding of effective leadership and management.	www.sportsleadershipfoundation.co.uk
24.	Greenhouse Sports	Aims to develop the social, thinking, emotional and physical (STEP) skills of young people in London's inner-city communities through high-quality, intensive sports programmes delivered by inspirational coaches. Working full time in schools and in the community, Greenhouse Sports coaches develop strong relationships with our young people using our STEP Framework.	www.greenhousesports.org/
25.	Herts Sport and Wellbeing Foundation	Providing opportunities through involvement in sport and physical activity for all ages, whether it be through participation, volunteering, coaching or education opportunities.	
26.	Hockley Sport Foundation	Hockley sport foundation is a charity that aims for community development with hand on attitude and progress through unified approach. We work across the city of Birmingham, delivering projects in disadvantaged areas. We engage many participants every year in various sporting field including disable adult, children, young people, people with learning disability, underprivileged families/ adults.	www.hockleysportf.com
27.	Intergration By Sport	To promote youth sporting activities for all youth in Birmingham especially the Somali youth. To encourage cultural and music activities among the Somali youth in different areas in Birmingham. To help Somali youth and adults integrate into the main stream British society.	
28.	International Inspiration	Uses the power of sport to involve, inspire and positively impact upon the lives of children, young people and marginalised groups around the world – providing them with rights and opportunities that they may not otherwise have had. Tool to tackle some of the most pressing development issues.	www.internationalinspiration.org
29.	James Milner Foundation	he James Milner Foundation (JMF) is a charity to promote healthy recreation for the benefit of young people in the United Kingdom by the development, improvement and provision of opportunities in sports, in particular football, rugby and cricket.	www.thejamesmilnerfoundation.com/
30.	Jason Roberts Foundation	Provide a more holistic programme of support including mentoring, life skills, education and training projects within its wider sports activities and has worked with young people at risk of offending, those excluded from school or struggling in the school curriculum, and young people with physical and learning difficulties. Throughout this process, JRF works across boundaries to support young people regardless of background or circumstance.	www.jasonrobertsfoundation.com
31.	Journeys Through Sport Limited	Educating and assisting young people and underprivileged in the sports world.	
32.	Kids of Bolton	KiDs of Bolton is aimed at KiDs under the age of 18 that live in and around the Bolton area. Our aim is to help KiDs develop skills, confidence, self-esteem, discipline and create opportunities that otherwise would not be available to them. Whatever circumstances these KiDs find themselves in whether it be poverty, disability, or social and economic circumstances.	
33.	Kick it Out	Primarily a campaigning organisation which enables, facilitates and works with the football authorities, professional clubs, players, fans and communities to tackle all forms of discrimination. Our Vision is that Football will be	www.kickitout.org/

		a sport where people flourish in a supportive community, and where fairness is openly and transparently practiced and enforced for the good of all participants.	
34.	Leadership through Sport and Business	The charity works with other organisations to provide coaching in sports and business so as to enable young people to development leadership skills that can be applied in their communities and in their own lives.	www.leadershipthroughsport.org/
35.	Life and Change Experienced through Sport (LACES)	Advancement of amateur sport through the development of sports leagues and infrastructure within disadvantaged communities in the UK and Africa and the provision of sports mentoring, coaching and equipment. Advancement of religion through introducing children and communities in the UK and Africa to a Christian discipleship and mentorship, teaching Christian ethics through the medium of sport.	www.laces.org
36.	Lincoln City Sports and Education Trust	LCFC Sport & education trust delivers in five key areas which are: health, disability, education, social inclusion & sports participation. Our core activity programme includes, but is not limited to, schools coaching, holiday courses, after school clubs and educational programmes throughout Lincolnshire, by using the game of football and other sporting activities, to promote healthier lifestyles.	www.lcfcset.com
37.	Lord's Taverners	We enable young people from disadvantaged backgrounds and those with disabilities to enjoy sport. In addition to the young people we support, we measure our impact by the 'sporting chances' we create. Our mission is to enhance the lives of disadvantaged and disabled young people through sport and recreation	www.lordstaverners.org/
38.	Luol Deng Foundation	Uses basketball as tool to give hope to those in Africa, USA and the UK. Our work in the three different countries follows the life journey of founder Luol Deng, with each region having helped him in a different but significant way to his path as becoming an NBA superstar. Our work in the UK focuses on providing opportunities for participation in basketball for all sections of the community whilst also helping with coaching and club development.	www.luoldeng.org/
39.	Matt Hampson Foundation	To inspire and support young people seriously injured through sport. To create a support network of people seriously injured through sport and their families to help each other by sharing knowledge and experiences.	www.matthampsonfoundation.org
40.	Multi-Sports Club	Provides opportunities for young people with learning/physical disabilities to try a variety of different sporting and social activities in a safe and secure environment, at a level appropriate to individual needs.	www.multisportsclub.org.uk
41.	Muslim Women's Youth, Sport and Education Forum, Merseyside	Muslim womens centre runs activities for women, children & young people: leisure, health & education: taking into account cultural, religious and other barriers preventing them using other facilities. We organise trips & cultural events and provide a setting for esol & basic skills; we offer study support & advocacy over educational matters, youth activities & health and healthy-living activities.	
42.	Northumbria Sport Foundation	The objects of the charity are, in the interests of social welfare and in order to improve the conditions of life of such persons in the north east who by reason of their social and economic circumstances shall have need of them, the provision of facilities and activities for recreation and leisure time occupation including but not limited to the provision of training and coaching in sports.	www.sportnorthumbriafoundation.com
43.	OM Group	Organise festive celebrations, regular excursions, participation in various youth sporting competitions. Host weekly football training sessions for male, female & children, organise an annual sports weekend, organise an annual dinner and dance, organised a variety show in 2009,	www.om-unity.com

		participate in Luton international carnival, host a show on a diverse fm, sewa, self-less work & educational workshops.	
44.	Pilgrim's Sport and Recreation Youth Trust	Support of youth participation in sport.	
45.	Rockets Sport and Education Foundation	Activities for young people: Education and development, Health and well-being, Volunteering, Social inclusion.	
46.	Rugby Sport for the Disabled Association	Providing and promoting sport for the disabled, both competitively and socially.	www.rugbysda.org.uk
47.	Saracens Sport Foundation	The Saracens sport foundation uses the Saracens brand, our professional players and high quality staff to inspire and challenge over 70,000 children every year to live an active and healthy lifestyle.	www.saracens.com/foundation
48.	Shape UK Limited	The relief of persons in need through sport and education programmes. In particular those in need by reason of age social or economic circumstances. The promotion of racial harmony for the benefit of public by: creating awareness of common ground in culture and religion to promote good relations. Knowledge and mutual understanding.	www.shape-uk.com
49.	Sikh Sport UK	The provision or assistance in the provision of Sikh community facilities in the interests of social welfare for recreation or leisure time occupation of such persons who have need of such facilities by reason of their youth, age, infirmity or disablement, poverty or social and economic circumstances or for the public at large with the object of improving their conditions of life.	www.sikhsport.co.uk
50.	Social Training Activities and Recreational Sport Limited	Provision of sport and education opportunities to young people in deprived areas or in areas of poor social cohesion.	www.thestars.org.uk
51.	Solidarity Sport	Set up to give disadvantaged children the chance to play sport together because it's fun, and a great way to learn valuable life skills. Since 2007 we have worked with many children and families across central London.	www.solidaritysports.org/
52.	Sport4Life	Sport for employment charity across Birmingham. We believe in a level playing field where every young person has the opportunity to create a better future for themselves. Sports-themed personal development programmes are designed to help bring out the best in the young people we work with, whilst providing them with high-quality sessions, mentoring, and guidance.	www.sport4life.org.uk/
53.	Sport 4 Socialisation	S4s aims to improve the lives of children with all types of disabilities (0-25 years) and their families in Zimbabwe through a holistic approach. We work towards physical, social and economic rehabilitation of child and family. Activities include; education, healthcare, adapted physical activity, parent support and livelihood development.	www.S4S-UK.co.uk
54.	Sport and Arts In The Community (Sparc) South West Shropshire		
55.	Sport at The Heart	Our aim is to make sport and physical activity fun, inclusive and easy to incorporate into everyday routines. In doing so, we are able to bring people from different backgrounds together through shared activities, improve physical and emotional well-being, and create opportunities for volunteering, employment and training through the creation of new local opportunities.	

56.	Sport In Mind	Berkshire mental health charity founded to provide people experiencing mental health problems with the opportunity to play sport and physical activity in a supported environment. Our aim is to use sport and physical activity to promote mental well-being, help aid recovery, improve physical health, encourage social inclusion and empower people experiencing mental health problems to build a positive future for themselves.	www.sportinmind.org/
57.	Sport Without Boundaries	Based in West Sussex that helps develop sporting opportunities for children with disabilities. It challenges the perception that a disability presents a limitation. Since its inception 10 years ago, the objective of Sport Without Boundaries, previously SADG has been: "to inspire, motivate and support young disabled people to follow their dreams and aspirations within sport."	www.sportwithoutboundaries.co.uk
58.	Sportability	To provide a greater range of sports (indoor and out) in the existing regions; and to offer programmes in more regions. We want people with paralysis to have access to sport throughout the UK.	www.sportability.org.uk
59.	Sport-Ed	In response to the high levels of anti-social behaviour, knife related crime, substance misuse & large groups of local young people/adults having a lack of positive activities to take part in. We are currently providing week in/week out sports, educational healthy lifestyle and life skill activities for nearly 400 children/youth from all parts of the community.	
60.	Sported	Supports community sport clubs and groups across the UK that deliver Sport for Development. These amazing groups are using the power of sport to tackle the root causes of some of society's biggest problems - crime, anti-social behaviour and obesity, to name but a few. More than that, they are giving disadvantaged young people the opportunities, confidence and support to overcome their personal hurdles and succeed in life.	www.sported.org.uk/
61.	Sporting87 FC	Christian club dedicated to playing football to the highest possible standards of competition, ability, and good conduct. Three key themes of provision: Providing opportunity, playing with integrity, caring about everyone. Suffolk FA Charter Club of the Year Award, prestigious FA national awards for its Young Leaders Programme, and FA National Awards for services to grassroots football	www.sporting87.co.uk/
62.	Sporting Challenge	To Provide or assist in the provision of opportunities and facilities in the interest of social welfare for the physical recreation or other leisure time occupation for individuals who need of such facilities by reason of their youth, age, infirmity or disability, financial hardship or social circumstances, in particular people with learning difficulties with the object of improving their conditions of life	www.sporting-challenge.org.uk/
63.	Sporting Equals	Sporting Equals exists to actively promote greater involvement in sport and physical activity by disadvantaged communities particularly the Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) population.	www.sportingequals.org.uk/
64.	Sporting Family Change	Sporting Family Change works closely with young people, especially those with learning disabilities, families, agencies and employers to support and train the individual into employment, whether in a volunteer capacity or paid employment.	www.sportingfamilychange.co.uk/
65.	Sporting Futures	Sporting Futures purpose is to improve the lives of young people through sport. We do this by engaging young people in four key themes: Sport Participation, Volunteering, Education, training and employment, health inititiatives.	www.sporting-futures.org.uk
66.	Sporting Hearts	Devoted to giving disadvantaged young people a better chance in life. Our mission is to encourage and empower	www.sportinghearts.org.uk/

		youngsters to aim high, seize their opportunities and act as an inspiration to others. We do this primarily through sports-based projects in schools and communities. In this way we make a positive change, providing education and physical activity away from the streets.	
67.	Sport Inspired	SportInspired's vision is of communities connected with energy and passion, where people enjoy being active. Our mission is to achieve this through fun and inclusive community programmes which bring together local businesses, sports clubs, schools and councils, inspiring new connections, lifeskills and opportunities.	www.sportinspired.org
68.	Sports Connections	To advance education and amateur sport, to inspire, bring hope and relieve suffering of underprivileged children through sporting achievement, providing visits by retired professional sportspersons especially footballers to schools and other organisations to provide training in order to pass on their sporting and life skills.	www.scfoundation.org.uk/
69.	Sports, Education, Welfare Organisation – Rurka Kalan-UK	To encourage the youth of Rurka Kalan village and the surrounding areas of Punjab, India to participate in the sport of football to obtain the positive benefits of physical exercise and health and to improve the village infrastructure and facilities through community and social projects.	
70.	Sports Junction	Dedicated to helping more children and young adults fulfil their ambitions and realise their potential through sport. Our vision is to help increase the numbers of young people in sport by inspiring, motivating and ultimately engaging them.	www.sportsjunction.org
71.	Sports Pursuits	Our aim is to bring quality coaching, in both soccer and other sports, to people of all ages, both sexes and from all backgrounds. Much of Sports Pursuits work is at the leading edge of combining sports coaching with social action. It reflects present Government initiatives in health, sport, citizenship and regeneration.	www.sportspursuits.org/
72.	Sports Traider	Sports Traider is a youth-focused charity offering youngsters the kit and support they need to discover and fulfill their sporting ambition and potential, whatever their background, ability or disability. The aim is to make clothing and sport equipment affordable to all, and at the same time generate a sustainable source of funding to help disadvantaged young people participate in sport.	www.sportstraider.org.uk/
73.	Sportsability	Sports coaching and delivery consultants are where our expertise lie. That's why the fundamental mission of the company is to provide an inclusive form of sport which is both physically fulfilling as well as educational. By differentiating what we do, and helping others to create their own facilities and programmes, we help others achieve their ambitions along the way.	www.sportsability.org.uk/
74.	Sportsgo	SportsGo's objective is to create sustainable programmes for sport in schools, and for young people and adults. Sporting opportunities are proved equally for males and females. SportsGo was as a community project by the staff from the University of Westminster who were creating three Polytechnics and a College of Education in Delta State, Nigeria	www.sportsgo.co.uk/
75.	Sportsreach	Building on an already established football league, under the leadership of Graham Stamford. Soccer schools and international tours were the next major developments and later (2004) SportsReach branched into netball. The work has grown locally, nationally and internationally. SportsReach is based in the town of Carnforth, Lancashire, with much of its work concentrated in schools and churches in the UK. However, the international side of the work has grown	

76.	The Sporting Chance	To provide funds to children and young adults from underprivileged backgrounds, in order to give them a 'Sporting Chance' in academics, sport and health.	www.sportingchance.org.uk
77.	The Sport for Streets Initiative	The Sport for Streets Initiative is a new charity which operates street outreach youth sport provisions in target areas across the country. Our projects expose young people to non mainstream sports such as Skateboarding and Street Hockey.	www.sportforstreets.com/
78.	The Sports Foundation	Operates from the sports premises known as The Sports Village (located in Rose Hill Park, Sutton, SM1 3HH). The proposed Charity has responsibility for the premises and for community and sports development projects.	www.thesportsfoundation.org.uk/
79.	St Katherine's Trust	Skt delivers projects for all including those with physical or sensory disabilities to - educate and encourage the improvement of health, fitness physical well being and nutrition - provide essential skills and awareness for the improvement and attainment of employment opportunities such as it and soft skills - encourage greater citizenship, participation in society and in group contexts.	
80.	Street Games	StreetGames promotes Doorstep Sport – that is sport in disadvantaged communities that takes place at the right time, at the right place, in the right style and at the right price. All around UK.	www.streetgames.org/
81.	Street League (Football and Dance Fit)	Our vision is to see an end to youth unemployment. Street League operates in 14 regions across the UK with our sport for employment programmes running in 36 local communities. Our 10-12 week long programmes support unemployed 16-24 year olds to learn the key skills, gain the necessary qualifications and work experience to move into a sustainable job or further training.	www.streetleague.co.uk
82.	Swimathon	The charity behind the world's biggest fundraising swimming event, Swimathon. Every year, Swimathon brings together swimmers in over 600 local pools across the nation to challenge their swimming abilities and raise funds for charity.	
83.	Tackle Africa	TackleAfrica uses the power and popularity of football to deliver HIV education to young people on football pitches across the continent. Specifically, we train African coaches to use fun, interactive football drills with the young people in their clubs and communities.	www.tackleafrica.org/
84.	Tantobie Association for Sport and the Community	The charity provides a wide variety of services and activities:- social events and educational courses. Sporting and leisure pursuits. Healthy lifestyle initiatives. Community garden. Mainstream sporting and physical activities, all designed to improve the health, wellbeing and self-sufficiency of the people of Tantobie and the surrounding area.	
85.	The Bristol Sport Foundation	Bsf will raise the standard of coaching and teaching of physical education and school sport through high quality sport-based delivery across greater bristol through participation, education, health & well being and inclusion, disability and equality programming.	
86.	Tennis Foundation	Our mission is to open tennis up to anyone and everyone. We take tennis into places it's never been before, into all kinds of communities and neighbourhoods. Diversity and inclusion aren't just token words for us. They are at the heart of everything we do. For us, there's no barrier stopping anyone from enjoying tennis. We know this is true because we've helped people with a wide range of disabilities play – and love – the sport.	www.tennisfoundation.org.uk/
87.	The Jane Bubear Sport Foundation	The charity furthers sporting causes, principally by providing sports kit, equipment and opportunities to young people in	www.janebubearsport.co.uk

		communities under challenge due to poverty, war, disaster or other causes, such as Zimbabwe and Sri Lanka.	
88.	The Sport Community	To assist in the provision of facilities in the interests of social welfare for recreation or other leisure time occupation of individuals who have need of such facilities by reason of their youth, age infirmity or disability, financial hardship or social circumstances with the object of improving their conditions of life. To advance the education of pupils in full-time education across the north west by providing and assisting in the provision of literacy and communication skills which support pupils, particularly those who are not responding to mainstream education.	www.thesportcommunity.co.uk
89.	The Wheelchair Dance Sport Association	The provision of wheelchair dancing and wheelchair dance sport by means of workshops, demonstrations, competitions and training.	www.wdsauk.co.uk
90.	Tigers Sport and Education Trust	The trust works with children of all ages delivering various sports and multi-skills activities covering health and well being(imagine your goals, fit 2 play, tigers fc).we also work with the prince's trust on various projects whilst also delivering social inclusion projects such as Kickz. We also provide educational programmes for young adults through a partnership with Selby college.	www.tigerstrust.co.uk
91.	Tower Hamlets Youth Sport Foundation	Providing outstanding opportunities and support for young people in tower hamlets to reach their potential, realise their ambitions and develop personally through sport. This is achieved through the management of a range of school and community youth sport schemes, and direct services to 4-21 year olds that include the delivery of over 400 hours of additional sport and physical activity per week.	www.thysf.org
92.	Trust in Sport	Provide community led sport and recreational activities that:- Support development in grass roots projects. Share community resources to ensure sustainability Work with sporting national governing bodies to develop training and coaching opportunities. Allow opportunities and relief to vulnerable groups, those facing financial hardship and that promote personal health and well being	www.trustinsport.com
93.	United through Sport	United Through Sport is focussed on working with kids from disadvantaged backgrounds using the power of sport to improve education, raise health awareness and build life-skills.	www.unitedthroughsport.org/
94.	Verite Sport	Promoting a Christian presence in the world of sport, encouraging sportspeople to believe in Jesus Christ and applying the teaching of the bible to sport. Providing resources and equipment to enable people in the UK and overseas to participate in sport.	www.veritesport.org
95.	Warrington Wolves Charitable Foundation	We aim to provide quality, accessible, sporting and physical opportunities by using the wolves brand to develop lifelong interest in sport. We aim to enhance our local community by improving the health education of young people, families and neighbours through our projects. We aim to use the power of sport as a mechanism for learning and building confidence.	www.wolvesfoundation.com
96.	Westward Inner City Sport and Education Youth Trust	Our activities include sport, health & well being; creative & digital media; music & fashion ,Aba boxing Awards, Asdan accredited awards and employment training all designed to be outcome based, achieved Through vocational industry-led employment pathways and delivered within an educational framework	www.wiseyouthtrust.com
97.	Women in Sport	Dedicated to improving and promoting opportunities for women and girls in sport and physical activity - in all roles and at all levels - through advocacy, information, education, research and training. We campaign for change at all levels of sport through raising awareness and influencing policy.	www.womeninsport.org

98.	Yellowball Foundation	The principal activity of the charity is to promote, for the public benefit, the health of children in necessitous circumstances nationally through the participation in healthy recreation, sports and nutrition.	www.yellowballfoundation.co.uk
99.	Yorebridge Sports Development Association	To provide or assist in the provision of facilities in the interests of social welfare for recreation or other leisure time, occupation of individuals who have need to such facilities by reason of their youth, age, infirmity or disability, financial hardship or social circumstances with the objective of improving their conditions of life.	www.yorebridge -sport.co.uk
100.	Youth Charter for Sport	Youth charter tackles educational non-attainment, health inequality, anti-social behaviour and the negative effects of crime, drugs, gang related activity and racism by applying the ethics of sporting and artistic excellence. These can be translated to provide social and economic benefits of citizenship, rights and responsibilities, with improved education, health, social order and environment.	www.youthcharter.co.uk
101.	Youth Experience in Sport	Promotion of sporting activities for youth.	
102.	Youth Sport Trust	We are a charity that believes every child has a right to be physically active through quality PE and school sport. We have developed unique solutions to maximise the power of sport to grow young people, impacting on their wellbeing through physical literacy and character.	www.youthsporttrust.org

ACTIVE PARTNERSHIPS		
103.	Bedfordshire and Luton – Team Beds and Luton	www.teambedsandluton.co.uk
104.	Berkshire – Get Berkshire Active	www.getberkshireactive.org
105.	Birmingham – Sport Birmingham	www.sportbirmingham.org
106.	Black Country – Active Black Country	www.activeblackcountry.co.uk
107.	Buckinghamshire and Milton Keynes – LEAP	www.leapwithus.org.uk
108.	Cambridgeshire and Peterborough – Living Sport	www.livingsport.co.uk
109.	Cheshire – Active Cheshire	www.activecheshire.org
110.	Cornwall – Cornwall Sports Partnership	www.cornwallsportspartnership.co.uk
111.	Durham – County Durham Sport	www.countydurhamsport.com
112.	Coventry, Solihull and Warwickshire – Coventry, Solihull & Warwickshire Sport	www.cswsport.org.uk
113.	Cumbria – Active Cumbria	www.activecumbria.org
114.	Derbyshire – Derbyshire Sport	www.derbyshiresport.co.uk
115.	Devon – Active Devon	www.activedevon.org
116.	Dorset –	www.activedorset.org

	Active Dorset	
117.	Essex – Active Essex	www.activeessex.org
118.	Gloucestershire – Active Gloucestershire	www.activegloucestershire.org
119.	Greater London – London Sport	www.londonsport.org
120.	Greater Manchester – Greater Sport	www.greatersport.co.uk
121.	Hampshire and Isle of Wight – Energise Me	www.energiseme.org
122.	Herefordshire and Worcestershire – Sport Partnership Herefordshire & Worcestershire	www.sportspartnershiphw.co.uk
123.	Hertfordshire – Herts Sports Partnerships	www.sportinherts.org.uk
124.	Humber – Active Humber	www.activehumber.co.uk
125.	Kent – Kent Sport	www.kentsport.org
126.	Lancashire – Lancashire Sport Partnership	www.lancashiresport.org.uk
127.	Leicestershire and Rutland – Leicester-Shire & Rutland Sport (LRS)	www.lrsport.org
128.	Lincolnshire – Lincolnshire Sport	www.lincolnshiresport.com
129.	Merseyside – Merseyside Sports Partnership	www.merseysidesport.com
130.	Norfolk – Active Norfolk	www.activenorfolk.org
131.	North Yorkshire – North Yorkshire Sport	www.northyorkshiresport.co.uk
132.	Northamptonshire – Northamptonshire Sport	www.northamptonshiresport.org
133.	Northumberland – Northumberland Sport	www.northumberlandsport.co.uk
134.	Nottinghamshire – Sport Nottinghamshire	www.sportnottinghamshire.co.uk
135.	Oxfordshire – Oxfordshire Sport and Physical Activity	www.oxfordshiresport.org
136.	Shropshire, Telford & Wrekin – Energize Shropshire, Telford & Wrekin	www.energizestw.org.uk
137.	Somerset – Somerset Activity & Sports Partnership	www.sasp.co.uk
138.	South Yorkshire – Yorkshire Sport Foundation	www.yorkshiresport.org
139.	Staffordshire and Stoke-on-Trent – Sport Across Staffordshire & Stoke on Trent	www. sportacrossstaffordshire.co.uk
140.	Suffolk – Suffolk Sport	www.suffolksport.com

141.	Surrey – Active Surrey	www.activesurrey.com
142.	Sussex – Active Sussex	www.activesussex.org
143.	Tees Valley – Tees Valley Sport	www.teesvalleysport.co.uk
144.	Tyne and Wear – Tyne & Wear Sport	www.tynewearsport.org
145.	West Yorkshire – Yorkshire Sport Foundation	www.yorkshiresport.org
146.	West of England – Wesport	www.wesport.org.uk
147.	Wiltshire and Swindon – Wiltshire & Swindon Sport	www.wiltssport.org

NGBs		
148.	Amateur Boxing Association of England/England Boxing	www.abae.co.uk
149.	British Swimming	www.swimming.org
150.	British Taekwondo Council	www.britishtaekwondo.org.uk
151.	The Angling Trust	www.anglingtrust.net
152.	Archery Great Britain	www.archerygb.org
153.	Auto-Cycle Union	www.acu.org.uk
154.	Badminton England	www.badmintonengland.co.uk
155.	Baseball Softball Federation	www.baseballsoftballuk.com
156.	Boccia England	www.bocciaengland.org.uk
157.	Bowls England	www.bowlsengland.com
158.	British Aikido Board	www.aikido-baa.org.uk
159.	British American Football	www.britishamericanfootball.org
160.	British Bobsleigh and Skeleton Association	www.thebbsa.co.uk
161.	British Caving Association	www.british-caving.org.uk
162.	British Council of Chinese Martial Arts	www.bccma.com
163.	British Cycling	www.britishcycling.org.uk
164.	British Dragon Boat Racing Association	www.dragonboat.org.uk
165.	British Equestrian Federation	www.bef.co.uk
166.	British Fencing Association	www.britishfencing.com
167.	British Gymnastics	www.british-gymnastics.org
168.	British Judo Association	www.britishjudo.org.uk
169.	British Ju-jitsu Association Governing Body	www.bjjagb.com
170.	British Karate Association	www.thebka.co.uk
171.	British Kendo Association	www.britishkendoassociation.com
172.	British Kite Sports Association	www.britishkitesports.org
173.	British Mountaineering Council	www.thebmc.co.uk
174.	British Orienteering	www.britishorienteering.org.uk
175.	British Roller Sports Federation	www.brsf.co.uk
176.	British Rowing	www.britishrowing.org
177.	British Shooting	www.britishshooting.org.uk/
178.	British Sombo Federation	www.britishsombo.co.uk/
179.	British Sub-aqua Club	www.bsac.com
180.	British Tenpin Bowling Association	www.wp.btba.org.uk
181.	British Canoe Union	www.britishcanoeing.org.uk
182.	British Water Ski	www.bwsw.org.uk
183.	British Weightlifting	www.britishweightlifting.org
184.	British Wrestling Association	www.britishwrestling.org
185.	British Wheel of Yoga	www.bwy.org.uk

186.	English Amateur Dance Sport Association	
187.	English Association of Snooker and Billiards	www.easb.co.uk
188.	England Basketball	www.basketballengland.co.uk
189.	England Cricket Board	www.ecb.co.uk
190.	English Curling Association	www.curlingengland.com
191.	England Handball	www.englandhandball.com
192.	England Hockey	www.englandhockey.co.uk
193.	English Ice Hockey Association	www.eiha.co.uk
194.	English Korfball Association	www.englandkorfball.co.uk
195.	England Netball	www.englandnetball.co.uk
196.	English Petanque Association	www.englishpetanque.org.uk
197.	England Squash and Racketball	www.englandsquash.com
198.	English Lacrosse Association	www.englishlacrosse.co.uk
199.	English Pool Association	www.epa.org.uk
200.	Exercise, Movement and Dance Partnership	www.emduk.org
201.	Football Association	www.thefa.com
202.	Goalball	www.goalballuk.com
203.	Golf Foundation	www.golf-foundation.org
204.	Great British Kurling Association	www.gbkurling.co.uk
205.	Great Britain Luge Association	www.gbla.co.uk
206.	Great Britain Wheelchair Basketball Association	www.gbwba.org.uk
207.	Great Britain Wheelchair Rugby	www.gbwr.org.uk
208.	Hurlingham Polo Association	www.hpa-polo.co.uk
209.	Motor Sports Association	www.msauk.org
210.	National Ice Skating Association of UK	www.iceskating.org.uk/
211.	Royal Life Saving Society UK	www.rlss.org.uk/
212.	Royal Yachting Association	www.rya.org.uk
213.	Parkour UK	www.parkour.uk
214.	Pentathlon GB	www.pentathlongb.org
215.	Rounders England	www.roundersengland.co.uk
216.	Rugby Football League	www.rugby-league.com
217.	Rugby Football Union	www.englandrugby.com
218.	Snowsport England	www.snowsportengland.org.uk
219.	Stoolball England	www.stoolball.org.uk
220.	Surf Life saving Association of Great Britain Limited	www.slsgb.org.uk
221.	Table Tennis England	www.tabletennisengland.co.uk
222.	Lawn Tennis Association	www.lta.org.uk
223.	The Croquet Association	www.croquet.org.uk
224.	Triathlon England	www.triathlonengland.org
225.	Tug-of-War Association	www.tugofwar.co.uk
226.	England Athletics	www.englandathletics.org
227.	UK Dodgeball Association	www.ukdba.org
228.	United Kingdom Tang Soo Do Federation	www.uktsdf.org.uk
229.	Volleyball England	www.volleyballengland.org
230.	Wheelchair Basketball	www.gbwba.org.uk

Appendix II: Ranking of Active People (2016) data and list of sports with highest percentages of club participants

Highlighted sports are those with the highest percentages of members of club and with young people as participants (see sampling discussion)

Sport	**14-25 Participation(%) (Ranked highest to lowest)**	**Participants that are members of club (%)**
Football	15.36%	18.64%
Athletics	7.25%	6.11%
Swimming	5.65%	3.88%
Cycling	4.50%	2.75%
Rugby Union	2.20%	70.22%
Basketball	2.19%	14.57%
Netball	2.07%	48.81%
Badminton	1.86%	16.80%
Tennis	1.61%	30.71%
Cricket	1.38%	50.21%
Hockey	1.27%	63.12%
Equestrian	1.12%	8.23%
Boxing	1.10%	19.08%
Exercise, Movement and Dance	0.99%	2.99%
Golf	0.79%	46.01%
Gymnastics	0.67%	Insufficient sample size
Mountaineering	0.66%	8.71%
Rugby League	0.63%	Insufficient sample size
Rowing	0.53%	18.00%
Squash and racket ball	0.49%	17.32%

Appendix III: List of sports clubs per local authority compiled by the researcher (contact details have been removed to uphold data protection)

SPORTS CLUBS				
Name of local authority	**Cricket club contact**	**Hockey club contact**	**Netball club contact**	**Rugby club contact**
Barnsley Borough Council	*This information has been removed to uphold data protection laws	*This information has been removed to uphold data protection laws	*This information has been removed to uphold data protection laws	*This information has been removed to uphold data protection laws
Birmingham City Council				
Bolton Borough Council				
Bradford City Council				
Bury Borough Council				
Calderdale Borough Council				
Coventry City Council				
Doncaster Borough Council				
Dudley Borough Council				
Gateshead Borough Council				
Kirklees Borough Council				
Knowsley Borough Council				
Leeds City Council				
Liverpool City Council				
Manchester City Council				
North Tyneside Borough Council				
Newcastle Upon Tyne City Council				
Oldham Borough Council				
Rochdale Borough Council				
Rotherham Borough Council				
South Tyneside Borough Council				
Salford City Council				
Sandwell Borough Council				
Sefton Borough Council				
Sheffield City Council				
Solihull Borough Council				
St Helens Borough Council				
Stockport Borough Council				
Sunderland City Council				
Tameside Borough Council				
Trafford Borough Council				
Wakefield City Council				
Walsall Borough Council				
Wigan Borough Council				
Wirral Borough Council				
Wolverhampton City Council				
London Boroughs				

Barking and Dagenham				
Barnet				
Bexley				
Brent				
Bromley				
Camden				
Croydon				
Ealing				
Enfield				
Greenwich				
Hackney				
Hammersmith and Fulham				
Haringey				
Harrow				
Havering				
Hillingdon				
Hounslow				
Islington				
Kensington and Chelsea				
Kingston upon Thames				
Lambeth				
Lewisham				
Merton				
Newham				
Redbridge				
Richmond upon Thames				
Southwark				
Sutton				
Tower Hamlets				
Waltham Forest				
Wandsworth				
Westminster				
Unitary authorities				
Bath and North East Somerset Council				
Bedford Borough Council				
Blackburn with Darwen Borough Council				
Blackpool Council				
Bournemouth Borough Council				
Bracknell Forest Borough Council				
Brighton and Hove City Council				
Bristol City Council				
Central Bedfordshire Council				
Cheshire East Council				

Cheshire West and Chester Council				
Cornwall Council				
Durham County Council				
Darlington Borough Council				
Derby City Council				
East Riding of Yorkshire Council				
Halton Borough Council				
Hartlepool Borough Council				
Herefordshire Council				
Isle of Wight Council				
Hull City Council				
Leicester City Council				
Luton Borough Council				
Medway Council				
Middlesbrough Borough Council				
Milton Keynes Council				
North East Lincolnshire Council				
North Lincolnshire Council				
North Somerset Council				
Northumberland County Council				
Nottingham City Council				
Peterborough City Council				
Plymouth City Council				
Poole Borough Council				
Portsmouth City Council				
Reading Borough Council				
Redcar and Cleveland Borough Council				
Rutland County Council				
Shropshire Council				
Slough Borough Council				
Southampton City Council				
Southend-on-Sea Borough Council				
South Gloucestershire Council				
Stockton-on-Tees Borough Council				
Stoke-on-Trent City Council				
Swindon Borough Council				
Telford and Wrekin Borough Council				
Thurrock Council				
Torbay Council				
Warrington Borough Council				
West Berkshire Council				
Wiltshire Council				
Windsor and Maidenhead Borough Council				
Wokingham Borough Council				

City of York Council				
County councils				
Buckinghamshire County Council				
Cambridgeshire County Council				
Cumbria County Council				
Derbyshire County Council				
Devon County Council				
Dorset County Council				
East Sussex County Council				
Essex County Council				
Gloucestershire County Council				
Hampshire County Council				
Hertfordshire County Council				
Kent County Council				
Lancashire County Council				
Leicestershire County Council				
Lincolnshire County Council				
North Yorkshire County Council				
Northamptonshire County Council				
Nottinghamshire County Council				
Oxfordshire County Council				
Somerset County Council				
Staffordshire County Council				
Suffolk County Council				
Surrey County Council				
Warwickshire County Council				
West Sussex County Council				
Worcestershire County Council				
District councils				
Adur District Council				
Allerdale District Council				
Amber Valley Borough Council				
Arun District Council				
Ashfield District Council				
Ashford Borough Council				
Aylesbury Vale District Council				
Babergh District Council				
Barrow-in-Furness Borough Council				
Basildon Borough Council				
Basingstoke & Deane Borough Council				
Bassetlaw District Council				
Blaby District Council				
Bolsover District Council				

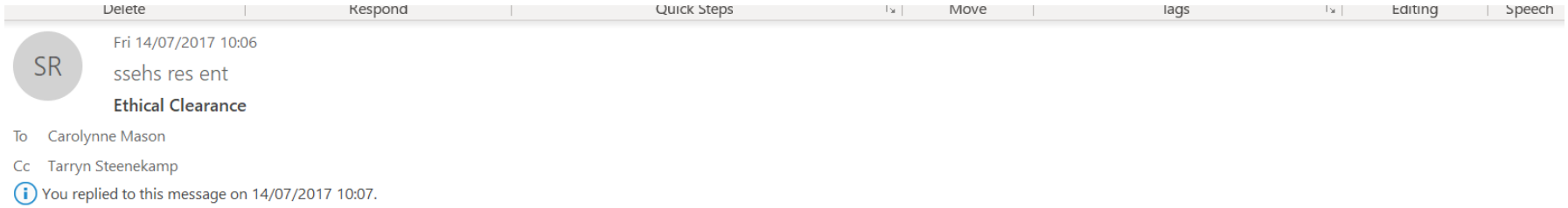
Boston Borough Council				
Braintree District Council				
Breckland District Council				
Brentwood Borough Council				
Broadland District Council				
Bromsgrove District Council				
Broxbourne Borough Council				
Broxtowe Borough Council				
Burnley Borough Council				
Cambridge City Council				
Cannock Chase District Council				
Canterbury City Council				
Carlisle City Council				
Castle Point District Council				
Charnwood Borough Council				
Chelmsford City Council				
Cheltenham Borough Council				
Cherwell District Council				
Chesterfield Borough Council				
Chichester District Council				
Chiltern District Council				
Chorley Borough Council				
Christchurch Borough Council				
Colchester Borough Council				
Copeland Borough Council				
Corby Borough Council				
Cotswold District Council				
Craven District Council				
Crawley Borough Council				
Dacorum Borough Council				
Dartford Borough Council				
Daventry District Council				
Derbyshire Dales District Council				
Dover District Council				
East Cambridgeshire District Council				
East Devon District Council				
East Dorset District Council				
East Hampshire District Council				
East Hertfordshire District Council				
East Lindsey District Council				
East Northamptonshire District Council				
East Staffordshire Borough Council				
Eastbourne Borough Council				
Eastleigh Borough Council				

Eden District Council				
Elmbridge Borough Council				
Epping Forest District Council				
Epsom & Ewell Borough Council				
Erewash Borough Council				
Exeter City Council				
Fareham Borough Council				
Fenland District Council				
Forest Heath District Council				
Forest of Dean District Council				
Fylde Borough Council				
Gedling Borough Council				
Gloucester City Council				
Gosport Borough Council				
Gravesham Borough Council				
Great Yarmouth Borough Council				
Guildford Borough Council				
Hambleton District Council				
Harborough District Council				
Harlow District Council				
Harrogate Borough Council				
Hart District Council				
Hastings Borough Council				
Havant Borough Council				
Hertsmere Borough Council				
High Peak Borough Council				
Hinckley and Bosworth Borough Council				
Horsham District Council				
Huntingdonshire District Council				
Hyndburn Borough Council				
Ipswich Borough Council				
Kettering Borough Council				
Kings Lynn & West Norfolk Borough Council				
Lancaster City Council				
Lewes District Council				
Lichfield City Council				
Lincoln City Council				
Maidstone Borough Council				
Maldon District Council				
Malvern Hills District Council				
Mansfield District Council				
Melton Borough Council				
Mendip District Council				
Mid Devon District Council				

Mid Suffolk District Council				
Mid Sussex District Council				
Mole Valley District Council				
North Devon District Council				
North Dorset District Council				
North East Derbyshire District Council				
North Hertfordshire District Council				
North Kesteven District Council				
North Norfolk District Council				
North West Leicestershire District Council				
North Warwickshire Borough Council				
New Forest District Council				
Newark & Sherwood District Council				
Newcastle-Under-Lyme Borough Council				
Northampton Borough Council				
Norwich City Council				
Nuneaton & Bedworth Borough Council				
Oadby & Wigston Borough Council				
Oxford City Council				
Pendle Borough Council				
Preston City Council				
Purbeck District Council				
Redditch Borough Council				
Reigate & Banstead Borough Council				
Ribble Valley Borough Council				
Richmondshire District Council				
Rochford District Council				
Rossendale Borough Council				
Rother District Council				
Rugby Borough Council				
Runnymede Borough Council				
Rushcliffe Borough Council				
Rushmoor Borough Council				
Ryedale District Council				
South Buckinghamshire District Council				
South Cambridgeshire District Council				
South Derbyshire District Council				
South Hams District Council				
South Holland District Council				
South Kesteven District Council				

South Lakeland District Council				
South Norfolk District Council				
South Northamptonshire District Council				
South Oxfordshire District Council				
South Ribble Borough Council				
South Somerset District Council				
South Staffordshire District Council				
Scarborough Borough Council				
Sedgemoor District Council				
Selby District Council				
Sevenoaks District Council				
Shepway District Council				
Spelthorne Borough Council				
St Albans City Council				
St Edmundsbury Borough Council				
Stafford Borough Council				
Staffordshire Moorlands District Council				
Stevenage Borough Council				
Stratford on Avon District Council				
Stroud District Council				
Suffolk Coastal District Council				
Surrey Heath Borough Council				
Swale Borough Council				
Tamworth Borough Council				
Tandridge District Council				
Taunton Deane Borough Council				
Teignbridge District Council				
Tendring District Council				
Test Valley Borough Council				
Tewkesbury Borough Council				
Thanet District Council				
Three Rivers District Council				
Tonbridge & Malling Borough Council				
Torridge District Council				
Tunbridge Wells Borough Council				
Uttlesford District Council				
Vale of White Horse District Council				
West Devon Borough Council				
West Dorset District Council				
West Lancashire District Council				
West Lindsey District Council				
West Oxfordshire District Council				
West Somerset District Council				

Watford Borough Council				
Waveney District Council				
Wealden District Council				
Wellingborough Borough Council				
Welwyn Hatfield Borough Council				
Weymouth & Portland Borough Council				
Winchester City Council				
Woking Borough Council				
Worcester City Council				
Worthing Borough Council				
Wychavon District Council				
Wycombe District Council				
Wyre Borough Council				
Wyre Forest District Council				



Dear Dr Mason,

Reference number SSEHS-2192

I can confirm that your ethics checklist:

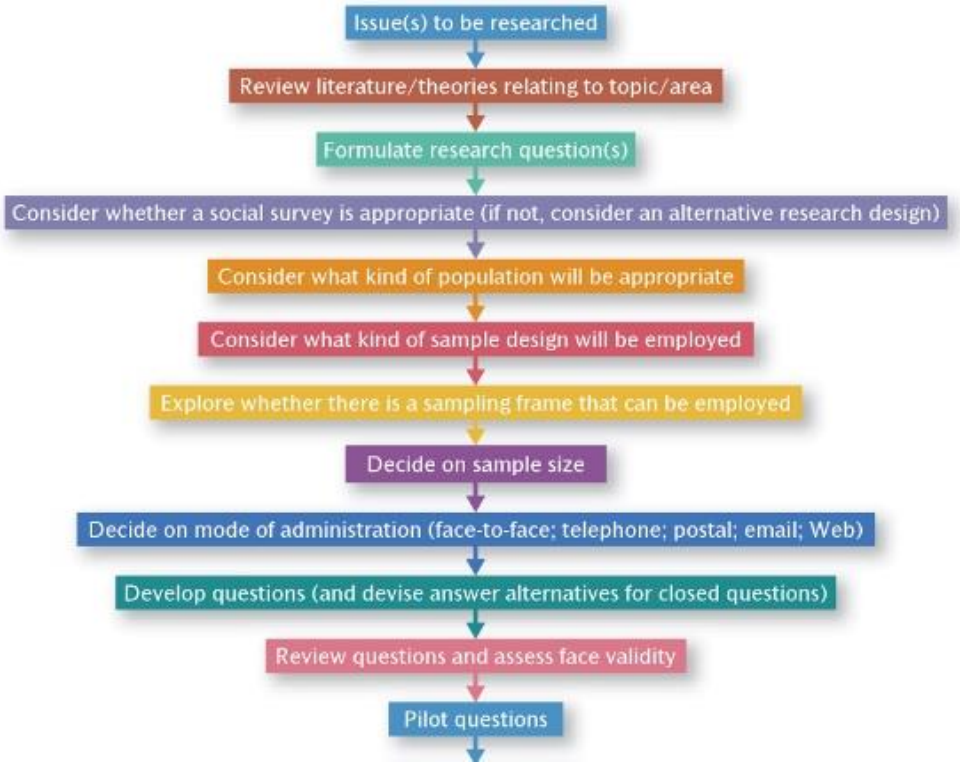
Delivering positive health outcomes for young people in disadvantaged communities: A performance management approach within Non-profit organisations

Has been approved. The reference number is SSEHS-2192

Kind regards

Charlotte Barradell
School Office and Compliance Support Administrator
Finance and Research Office, JB0.16
School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences
Loughborough University
Loughborough
Leicestershire LE11 3TU
Tel: +44 (0) 1509 226416

Appendix V: Plan for conducting a social survey (Bryman, 2015)



Appendix VI: Participant information sheet

Organisational Capacity and Third Sector Sports Organisations

Adult Participant Information Sheet

Investigators Details:
Tarryn Steenekamp, Loughborough University
T.F.Steenekamp@lboro.ac.uk
Dr Carolynne Mason, Loughborough University
C.L.J.Mason@lboro.ac.uk
Professor Paul Downward
P.Downward@lboro.ac.uk

We would like to invite you to take part in our study. Before you decide we would like you to understand why the research is being undertaken and what it would involve for you. Please read the information below and feel free to contact us should you have any further questions.

What is the purpose of the study?
This study aims to gain a further understanding of performance management and capacity building within non-profit sports organisations in England. This survey constitutes part one of the research, where the researchers aim to gain a greater understanding of the non-profit sports landscape.

Who is doing this research and why?
This study is part of a student research project supported by Loughborough University. The research aims to examine how non-profit sports organisations operating within disadvantaged communities in England manage their performance in a changing economic and policy context. It is important to understand the issues that NPSOs are currently experiencing, which hamper their ability to successfully operate in disadvantaged communities, in order for new models and practices to be suggested in future.

Are there any exclusion criteria?
Only organisations which are considered to be non-profit in nature and serve young people in disadvantaged communities will be included in this research.

What will I be asked to do?
You will be asked to complete a set of online questions. Most of these questions will be closed-ended but some will ask for open-ended answers.

Once I take part, can I change my mind?
Yes. After you have read this information, and have decided that you are happy to participate, you will be asked to accept the conditions of an online Informed Consent Form. However if at any time, before, during or after completing the online questions, you decide you no longer want to participate, you will be free to withdraw at any stage. You will not be asked to explain your reasons for withdrawing. Once the results of the study are aggregated/published, it will not be possible to withdraw your individual data from the research.

Will I be required to attend any sessions and where will these be?
No, this initial survey will only be conducted online.

How long will it take?

This survey should take approximately twenty minutes to complete.

What personal information will be required from me?
No personal information will be required but information relating to the resources of the non-profit organisation you work for will be needed in order to complete the survey.

Are there any disadvantages or risks in participating?
No, potential risks have been assessed and eliminated as all data will be kept securely to avoid any data protection issues.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?
Data will be stored anonymously and all findings will be aggregated within reports so no individual will be identifiable. The survey responses will be stored anonymously on a University computer and will be destroyed after 10 years. Any data files will be downloaded into password protected folders.

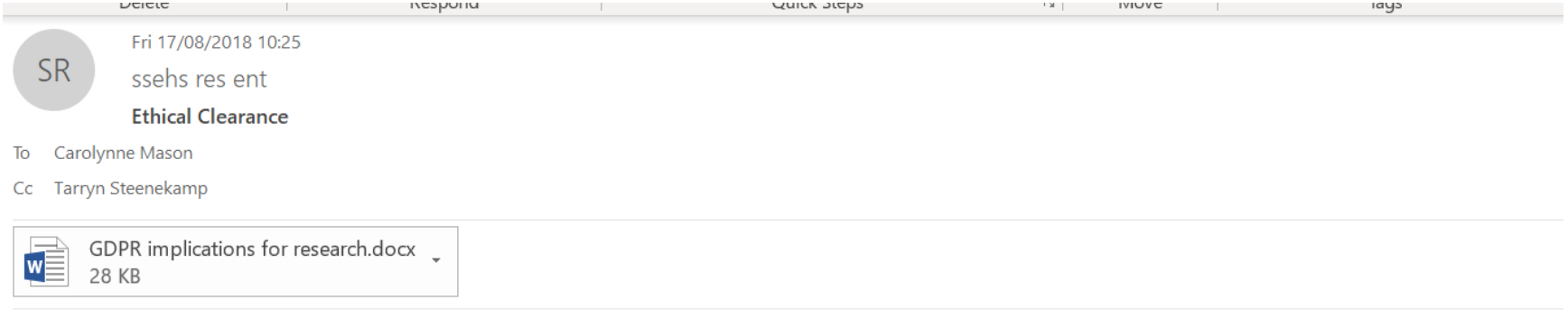
I have some more questions; who should I contact?
Please contact Tarryn Steenekamp should you have any further questions.

What will happen to the results of the study?
These will be analysed and discussed in a PhD thesis but may also be published, however, your confidentiality and anonymity will be upheld at all times.

What if I am not happy with how the research was conducted?
If you are not happy with how the research was conducted, please contact Ms Jackie Green, the Secretary for the University's Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee:

Ms J Green, Research Office, Hazlerigg Building, Loughborough University, Epinal Way, Loughborough, LE11 3TU. Tel: 01509 222423. Email: J.A.Green@lboro.ac.uk

The University also has a policy relating to Research Misconduct and Whistle Blowing which is available online at http://www.lboro.ac.uk/committees/ethics-approvals-human-participants/additionalinformation/codesofpractice/ .



Dear Carolynne,

Reference number SSEHS-2385

I can confirm that your ethics checklist:

An investigation of organisational capacity within Third Sector Sports Organisations across England

Has been approved. The reference number is SSEHS-2385

Also attached are the GDPR implications for research as a guidance.

Kind regards

Charlotte Barradell
School Office and Compliance Support Administrator
Finance and Research Office, JB0.16

Appendix VIII: Informed consent form

Organisational capacity and Third Sector Sports Organisations

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Taking Part (Please initial box)

The purpose and details of this study have been explained to me. I understand that this study is designed to further scientific knowledge and that all procedures have been approved by the Loughborough University Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee. ☐

I have read and understood the information sheet and this consent form. ☐

I have had an opportunity to ask questions about my participation. ☐

I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in the study, have the right to withdraw from this study at any stage for any reason, and will not be required to explain my reasons for withdrawing. ☐

I agree to take part in this study. Taking part will require me to fill out an online survey. ☐

Use of Information

I understand that all the personal information I provide will be treated in strict confidence and will be kept anonymous and confidential to the researchers unless (under the statutory obligations of the agencies which the researchers are working with), it is judged that confidentiality will have to be breached for the safety of the participant or others or for audit by regulatory authorities. ☐

I understand that anonymised quotes may be used in publications, reports and other research outputs. ☐

I agree for the data I provide to be securely archived at the end of the project. ☐

_____	_____	_____
Name of participant [printed]	Signature	Date
_____	_____	_____
Researcher [printed]	Signature	Date

Appendix IX: Example interview transcript

Interview: TSSO A
Director of Social Change

Tarryn: Thanks for agreeing to chat to me!

Director of Social Change (DoSC): Yeah, no problem. I think it's a really interesting question regarding how people are functioning and surviving in the states of austerity that we have at the moment and within the politicisation taking place within organisations regarding who gets what money and why… and the third sector organisations are desperately trying to plug the gaps that have been left by the state pulling away and the consequences of that. I feel that central government are often giving the money to the wrong people. They give it to people that talk the talk but don't necessarily produce the goods. We are on the outside get the crumbs to do the developmental work and have to deal with the issues left by these bad funding decisions. We are dealing with very difficult community issues that have come out of austerity and who need more resources. We have an issue with that as we are not getting the money but we are left holding the baby and it's suddenly our problem. I am the safeguarding lead in this organisation and I am constantly getting phone calls with issues that need urgent referrals. What we are doing now is exactly what statutory providers used to do and should still be doing. We seem to be dumped with the issues that they won't deal with and we've had enough and have now decided that no, we are going to dump the issues straight back up. We have become antagonistic because we have to protect children because the organisations that are supposed to be doing that just are not fulfilling their roles anymore. In terms of capacity, we are under strain because of all of these issues are now things we have to deal with before we can even get to our own work in the organisation. At the moment we are trying to meet with government organisations to try and get rid of this hierarchical structure and now even out the playing field so we can use money together in the best way possible for the best outcomes. We've got this hierarchical structure of commissioners at the moment who sit there and tell us what targets to hit but actually they themselves have no clue how to hit them. I feel that they need to be listening to us more.

Tarryn: Do you find it quite challenging then actually follow your initial mission or do you ever find mission drift within your organisation?

DoSC: No, because for the children we work with that is the only thing that matters. So yes, there is a lot of shit that comes flying in my direction but it there is a child at the centre of this. My drive and motivation is that child smiling. All of the politics and other issues are just noise. If I am true to who I am and what I believe in then I will continue to make a difference to the lives of children. I have to have that child in my near vision.

Tarryn: In terms of the tick boxes that come with statutory funding, have you ever been pushed into skewing data? Or pushed into an avenue you didn't necessarily want to go down in terms of delivery?

DoSC: Yes, we've been asked to plug gaps but it's almost been mission drift on their side rather than ours. We know we want to go in and run a programme but because we are the delivery organisation, the organisations funding us are often quick to say 'ah well can you also do this or have a look at that?' and then it becomes ridiculous. We've actually said to them before that they can have their money back because we are not going to go down that route. We aren't going to solve their problems with a quick fix that we don't believe in. All they are interested in is ticking their boxes and we are actually interested in making a change. Yeah, I mean we have statutory organisations helping us but often they are just too focused on hitting their own targets. We have the moral duty to say that we need to stop chasing targets and start making an actual difference. We aren't interested in targets. We are interested in forming relationships and making a difference. The targets will come but because they have removed themselves from delivery they don't actually understand how to get to that point. Sometimes they set the most unachievable ridiculous targets. It's interesting because change doesn't happen within a timeframe that is simply dictated by funding. Change happens inline with what the community wants and how it brings about change. That could take ten years when you only have two years of funding! So it's always going to fail and fall short. Again, we need to be informing funders and drill down and do pre-research in those communities before we just tick the boxes of funders. We can't chuck money at

communities that we know nothing about and expect change. The problems are so deep-rooted in some of these areas that they go back generations. We have cultural issues so how can you give us £5000 and think that is going to change a generational cultural issue? Yet the funders believe that's the case and they don't listen to us.

All I can say is that we believe in honesty and the truth. We need to change the funders' perceptions. It's not just about throwing money around. Sometimes we make enemies and it's like biting the hand that feeds us because we have to challenge the way that funders think. We know what is needed and wanted but we aren't really asked for our opinion often. I purposefully attend large authority funding gatherings because I want my voice to be heard about this. I want them to start listening. I'm a socialist by heart but because they've dismantled local authorities it seems like we still have these people holding on to their jobs when they are old school thinkers. We need to get rid of them and have a clean sweep so we can start to think about how to use the money we have more effectively. There is no use having somebody at the top who won't change the way we operate. I believe we need a consortium of funding where groups come together through a democratic process and decide where is best to put money and decide how it should be spent. Local authorities shouldn't be doing that. It's kind of the death of the local authorities but to be honest the ridiculous hurdles you have to jump for so little with them is ridiculous. They are risk averse and they don't trust organisations.

It's challenging but that is why I need to stay focused on the child I am helping and not be embroiled in the politics. That will always exist and it is chaotic out there but as long as we stay true to our mission and goals that is what matters.

Tarryn: Do you think that attitude is shared acDoSC your organisation?

DoSC: I think everyone is developing at different stages and we all have different experiences and different backgrounds. I'm trying not to be cynical about the whole thing and I try to stay positive and passionate with my staff. I think they all have this ability to be who they are and the shared passion we have is that we want to help and make a difference. I want my staff to have their own story and their own way of telling it when they work with children.

Tarryn: Can you maybe tell me a bit about your current role?

DoSC: We started Sporting Communities because we feel that communities matter and that children matter. We want to stay in the game as long as we can. We are fighting for survival like many other organisations but what I have found is that people like our values and ethics. There are a lot of unethical organisations out there who just want the money. We are the opposite. We have turned down funding because we refuse to work in a certain way. It's cost us but it won't cost us our values and our principles which are a lot more dear to us. We've created enemies bit we can hold our heads up and say that we are authentic. You can come to us and pick us apart but the truth and goodness will remain.

People that want money will go off and get money but the staff that want to make a difference will stay with us.

Tarryn: Does Sporting Communities have a clear strategy for the future and can you go into a bit more detail for me if it does?

DoSC: Yeah we've got a second business plan which we are implementing. We have four thematic areas that we build our business from underneath. We have our own funding team that dedicates time to higher quality bids and we have to think strategically about those and plan for those as funding is so competitive. We are focusing on the four key strands of our business at different levels as there are different pots of funding that we rely on under each of those if that makes sense. We want to make sure we plan to make a legacy.

Tarryn: Do you have any close connections you work with?

DoSC: At the moment I am working closely with our local MP. From that linkage she has nominated us to go to Westminster and display our work in the House of Commons. We are getting in there in terms of upper

echelons of the state. She talks to Theresa May about what is happening in our local patch and celebrates what's good. We worked on a project with her called My Voice which encourages young people to engage more with political change. We use sport to get young people talking. We form forums in each of the areas we operate in and bypass the local authorities to go straight to government office. We're also working with UK Youth and the Youth Sports Trust. We are getting those linkages with those organisations. My job is almost like a soothsayer - I predict the future of where it's going to go and adapt our services to meet that need in the future. Last year we went down to Number 10 and spoke to the special advisor to the Prime Minister. That happened just through me emailing and saying that we have some ideas and want to talk to them. It's about being proactive and sharing.

I think you've got to be passive aggressive. I don't ask for permission anymore - I rather ask for forgiveness! I knock on doors and I won't tiptoe around anybody anymore. I'm on this earth with a set amount of time to make a difference. If you don't like us then fine but I will push until people know us and buy into our work. My job is about drawing people closer to us. Once they see what we are doing they realise that it definitely needs replicating. I'm trying to live up to my job title!

I've been really surprised that often people actually want to talk to us. We don't always have to jump through hoops and doors do seem to open for us. I sometimes just have to throw something out there and see if it sticks!

The beauty of working as a social enterprise is that we can change as things change around us. We don't have a fixed plan. Our business plan is practically out of date as soon as we write it! That's why I'm currently writing up changes to the business as it constantly needs to be assessed and evaluated. It's like a rolling commentary for us. We don't want to have a fixed plan.

Capacity in third sector sports organisations

Welcome

Thank you for your interest in this research survey conducted by Loughborough University. Please read through the information below before completing this survey. Should you have any further questions regarding this research, please get in touch with Tarryn Steenekamp (t.f.steenekamp@lboro.ac.uk) at any stage.

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: I agree that the purpose and details of this study have been explained to me via email. I understand that this study is designed to further scientific knowledge and that all procedures have been approved by the Loughborough University Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee. I have had an opportunity to ask questions about my participation by making contact with the researcher. I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in the study, have the right to withdraw from this study at any stage for any reason, and will not be required to explain my reasons for withdrawing. I agree to take part in this study. Taking part will require me to fill out an online survey. I have read and understood the information sheet and this consent form. I understand that all the personal information I provide will be treated in strict confidence and will be kept anonymous and confidential to the researchers unless (under the statutory obligations of the agencies which the researchers are working with), it is judged that confidentiality will have to be breached for the safety of the participant or others or for audit by regulatory authorities. I understand that anonymised quotes may be used in publications, reports and other research outputs. I agree for the data I provide to be securely archived at the end of the project.

Introduction

Please enter the name of your organisation (this will remain completely anonymous but is required should we need to contact you to participate in future research)

What is your role within this organisation?

How long have you held this position?

- Less than 1 year
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16 years+

Where does your organisation operate? Please provide the town/city and the county (e.g. Loughborough, Leicestershire) or state 'UK-wide' if this is applicable.

Approximately how old is your organisation?

- Less than one year
- 1 - 5 years
- 6 - 10 years
- 11 - 15 years
- More than 15 years

Introduction continued

Which of the following best describes your organisation?

- ○ Charitable company/charitable incorporated organisation
- ○ NGB
- ○ Social Enterprise/Community Interest Company
- ○ CSP
- ○ Sports club (incorporated as a limited company)
- ○ Sports club (non-profit)
- ○ Leisure Trust
- ○ Industrial and Provident Society
- ○ Other

If you selected other, please specify:

Please state to what extent your organisation works with the groups listed below:

	Never work with this group	Sometimes work with this group	Priority group	Main focus of our work
Young people	☐	☐	☐	☐
Young people from disadvantaged communities	☐	☐	☐	☐
People with disabilities	☐	☐	☐	☐
Women and girls	☐	☐	☐	☐
Older people	☐	☐	☐	☐

Which of the following ethnic groups are represented amongst your organisation's beneficiaries?

- ☐ White British
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ White Other
- ☐ Mixed
- ☐ South Asian
- ☐ Black
- ☐ Other
- ☐ Other

If you selected Other, please specify:

Please select the main sports/physical activities your organisation focuses on:

- [ ] Aikido
- [ ] Air sports
- [ ] American football
- [ ] Angling
- [ ] Aquathlon
- [ ] Archery
- [ ] Arm wrestling
- [ ] Artistic skating (roller)
- [ ] Athletics
- [ ] Australian rules football
- [ ] Badminton
- [ ] Ballooning
- [ ] Ballroom dancing
- [ ] Basketball
- [ ] Baseball
- [ ] Baton twirling
- [ ] Biathlon
- [ ] Bicycle polo
- [ ] Billiards and snooker
- [ ] BMX
- [ ] Bobsleigh
- [ ] Boccia
- [ ] Bowls
- [ ] Boxing
- [ ] Camogie
- [ ] Canoeing
- [ ] Caving
- [ ] Chinese martial arts
- [ ] Clay pigeon shooting
- [ ] Climbing
- [ ] Cricket
- [ ] Croquet
- [ ] Curling
- [ ] Cycling
- [ ] Dance sport
- [ ] Darts
- [ ] Disability sport
- [ ] Diving
- [ ] Dodgeball
- [ ] Dragon boat racing
- [ ] Duathlon
- [ ] Equestrian
- [ ] Exercise, movement and dance
- [ ] Fencing
- [ ] Fives
- [ ] Floorball
- [ ] Folk dancing
- [ ] Football
- [ ] Futsal
- [ ] Gaelic football
- [ ] Gliding
- [ ] Goalball
- [ ] Golf
- [ ] Gymnastics
- [ ] Handball
- [ ] Hang gliding and paragliding
- [ ] Harness racing
- [ ] Health and beauty exercise
- [ ] Highland games
- [ ] Hockey
- [ ] Horse Racing
- [ ] Horse Riding
- [ ] Hovering
- [ ] Hurling
- [ ] Ice hockey
- [ ] Ice skating
- [ ] Jet skiing
- [ ] Judo
- [ ] Ju jitsu
- [ ] Kabaddi
- [ ] Karate
- [ ] Keep fit
- [ ] Kendo
- [ ] Kite Surfing
- [ ] Kneeboarding
- [ ] Korfball
- [ ] Lacrosse
- [ ] Land-sailing/yachting
- [ ] Life saving
- [ ] Luge
- [ ] Model aircraft flying
- [ ] Modern pentathlon
- [ ] Motor cycling
- [ ] Motor sports
- [ ] Motor cruising
- [ ] Mountain biking
- [ ] Mountaineering
- [ ] Movement and dance
- [ ] Netball
- [ ] Octopush
- [ ] Orienteering
- [ ] Parachuting
- [ ] Parkour
- [ ] Petanque
- [ ] Polo
- [ ] Polocrosse
- [ ] Pool
- [ ] Powerboating
- [ ] Powerlifting

- [ ] Puck hockey (roller)
- [ ] Quoits
- [ ] Rafting
- [ ] Rackets
- [ ] Racketball
- [ ] Rambling
- [ ] Real tennis
- [ ] Roller derby
- [ ] Roller sports
- [ ] Rounders
- [ ] Rowing
- [ ] Rugby league
- [ ] Rugby union
- [ ] Sailing and yachting
- [ ] Sand and land yachting
- [ ] Shinty
- [ ] Shooting
- [ ] Show jumping
- [ ] Skateboarding
- [ ] Skater hockey
- [ ] Skiing
- [ ] Skipping
- [ ] Snooker
- [ ] Snowboarding
- [ ] Softball
- [ ] Sombo
- [ ] Speedway
- [ ] Speed skating
- [ ] Squash
- [ ] Stoolball
- [ ] Sub-aqua
- [ ] Surf life-saving
- [ ] Surfing
- [ ] Swimming and diving
- [ ] Table tennis
- [ ] Taekwondo
- [ ] Tang Soo Do
- [ ] Tennis
- [ ] Tenpin bowling
- [ ] Trampolining
- [ ] Triathlon
- [ ] Tug of war
- [ ] Ultimate frisbee
- [ ] Volleyball
- [ ] Walking
- [ ] Wakeboarding
- [ ] Water polo
- [ ] Water skiing
- [ ] Weightlifting
- [ ] Wheelchair basketball
- [ ] Wheelchair rugby
- [ ] Windsurfing
- [ ] Wrestling
- [ ] Yoga
- [ ] Other

If you selected other, please specify:

Beneficiaries

How many individuals are currently engaged/participating in the work your organisation carries out?

- ○ Under 100 participants
- ○ 101-500 participants
- ○ 501-2500 participants
- ○ 2501-10 000 participants
- ○ 10 000-20 000 participants
- ○ 20 000-50 000 participants
- ○ 50 001+ particpants

Approximately what percentage of these participants:

	0-10%	11-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	Don't know
Are women and/or girls?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are refugees?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have disabilities?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are young people?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Are elderly?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Live in disadvantaged communities?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Human resources capacity

Approximately how many **paid staff** does your organisation employ?

- ○ 1 - 5
- ○ 6 - 10
- ○ 11 - 50
- ○ 51 - 100
- ○ 100+

Approximately how many **volunteers** are currently assisting your organisation?

- ○ 1 - 50
- ○ 51 - 100
- ○ 101 - 250
- ○ 251 - 500
- ○ 501 - 1000
- ○ 1001+

What percentage of volunteers and paid staff undertake the following roles in your organisation?

	Paid staff (%)	Volunteers (%)
Management roles		
Delivery roles		
Administration roles		

Approximately what percentage of the **delivery staff** have **formal coaching qualifications**?

- ○ 0%
- ○ 1 - 10%
- ○ 11 - 25%
- ○ 26 - 50%
- ○ 51 - 75%
- ○ 76% - 100%

Approximately what percentage of the staff within your organisation have **mental health training/qualifications**?

- ○ 0%
- ○ 1 - 10%
- ○ 11 - 25%
- ○ 26 - 50%
- ○ 51 - 75%
- ○ 76% - 100%

Human resources capacity continued

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Paid staff recruitment is challenging at present	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Volunteer recruitment is a concern for our organisation at present	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Retaining paid staff is problematic due to funding constraints	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Retaining volunteers is a concern for our organisation at present	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
A lack of volunteers currently threatens the existence of our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation has invested significant resources into training staff	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Volunteers typically stay with our organisation for 6 months or longer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Volunteers are usually recruited from the areas where our services are delivered	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The recruitment of appropriate board members has been easy for our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Since the start of the last financial year, the number of paid employees has increased within our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Since the start of the last financial year, the number of volunteers has increased within our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Financial resources capacity

What is the approximate annual turnover of your organisation?

- ○ Under £10 000
- ○ £10 000 - £25 000
- ○ £26 000 - £50 000
- ○ £51 000 - £100 000
- ○ £101 000 - £500 000
- ○ £500 000 - £1 million
- ○ £1 million+

What are your organisation's main sources of income? Please select an approximate percentage for each of these categories:

	0-10%	11-20%	21%-40%	41%-60%	61%-80%	81%-100%
Grants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Membership fees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Private donations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sales of goods	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Corporate donations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other fundraising activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (please specify below)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you selected 'other', please specify:

What are your organisation's main areas of expenditure? Please complete the table below.

	0-10%	11-20%	21%-40%	41%-60%	61%-80%	81%-100%
Staff salaries	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Property costs (office and facility rental/mortgage)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Resources required for delivery of services	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Monitoring and evaluation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Training/accreditation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

External independent research	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel/transport	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (please specify)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you selected 'other', please specify:

Financial resources capacity continued

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Meeting the needs of funders has taken precedence over our core mission at times	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Demonstrating impact to funders is increasingly complex	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation is currently facing financial uncertainty	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation is confident it will secure sufficient funding for the next financial period	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation is concerned about accessing funding in the upcoming two years	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation is concerned about accessing funding after 2020	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The consequences of austerity policy are creating substantial challenges for our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Has your organisation undertaken any of the following activities during the last year? Select all options that are appropriate.

- ☐ Applying for additional funding
- ☐ Securing further corporate sponsorship
- ☐ Increasing online fundraising
- ☐ Hiring out your facilities
- ☐ Holding more events to raise funds
- ☐ Developing a new way to make money for the organisation

- [ ] Carrying out less maintenance on training/playing/equipment facilities
- [ ] Making paid staff redundant
- [ ] Changing utility providers
- [ ] Changing facilities provider
- [ ] Increasing charges for any services provided
- [ ] Sharing services with another organisation
- [ ] Stopped paying expenses to volunteers
- [ ] Other measures to increase income
- [ ] Other measures to reduce expenditure
- [ ] No measures taken

Network resources capacity

Please describe the level of collaboration between your organisation and other types of organisations

	No Collaboration	Ad-hoc collaboration	Increasing collaboration	Established strategic partner
Local authority	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other third sector organisations	☐	☐	☐	☐
Commercial organisations	☐	☐	☐	☐

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
We are currently collaborating with an increasing number of organisations in order to help ensure the survival of our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The main driver for collaboration is to access additional financial resources	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We collaborate through sharing delivery resources in order to deliver to more beneficiaries	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We collaborate in order to share data and information which might assist us in acquiring funding	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Infrastructure and processes capacity

How many delivery sites/branches does your organisation have? If there are member organisations which deliver programmes for you instead, please select how many of these you have links with.

- ○ 1
- ○ 2 - 5
- ○ 6 - 10
- ○ 11 - 20
- ○ 21 - 30
- ○ 31 - 50
- ○ 50+

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Our organisation has the physical infrastructure it requires to successfully fulfil its mission	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation feels that increasing facility costs are a future challenge	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation has the correct level of technological infrastructure to enable it to operate to its full potential	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation has a shared set of values which the staff are aware of	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our organisation has specific policies which have been disseminated to all staff	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The staff and volunteers involved with our organisation adhere to the policies we have developed most of the time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The staff and volunteers involved with our organisation are aware of the consequences if they do not adhere to our organisational policies	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Infrastructure and processes capacity continued

Where do the activities/services your organisation offers take place? Select all that apply.

- ☐ In a facility that we own
- ☐ In a facility that we partially own
- ☐ In a hired facility
- ☐ In a leased place
- ☐ In a public space (e.g. river, forest, beach, park)
- ☐ In a borrowed facility that we do not pay for (e.g. borrowed from a school or another club)

Please state from who you organisation hires, borrows or leases facilities if applicable.

- ☐ The local authority
- ☐ A private operator
- ☐ A sports club
- ☐ A trust or charity
- ☐ A school/university
- ☐ Other

Over the past two years, has your organisation

	Yes	No
Taken the decision to reduce any office space it requires?	☐	☐
Taken the decision to reduce any sports facilities/delivery sites it requires?	☐	☐
Expand the office space it requires?	☐	☐
Expand the sports facilities/delivery sites it requires?	☐	☐
Invested in any new technology which supports organisational missions?	☐	☐

If you answered 'yes' to any of the above, please provide an explanation as to why your organisation did this.

Planning and development capacity

To what extent do you agree with the following statements about your organisation?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
We have a clear strategy driving the organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
We are proactive in planning for the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Investing in staff and volunteer development is a high priority for securing our future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Planning for the future is challenging under austerity	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please respond to the questions below

	Yes	No
Does your organisation plan to extend its offering of sports or activities within the next 2 years?	☐	☐
Does your organisation plan to extend its geographic reach within the next 2 years?	☐	☐
Has your organisation commissioned any research within the last 5 years?	☐	☐

Sporting Future

Are you aware of the UK government's new Sporting Future strategy?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No

If yes, do you feel this is relevant to your organisation?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Not Applicable

How well placed do you feel your organisation is to meet the aims of the Sporting Future strategy?

- ○ Very well placed
- ○ Well placed
- ○ Not well placed enough
- ○ Not well placed at all
- ○ Not applicable
- ○ Unsure

Does your organisation plan to make any changes in order to meet the requirements set out in the new strategy?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Not Applicable

If yes to the above, what are these changes?

Our organisation:

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not applicable

Aims to improve mental well-being amongst beneficiaries	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses tools to measure subjective well-being amongst participants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Focuses on increasing physical activity amongst participants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses tools to measure whether participants are active for 150 minutes or more per week	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Focuses on improving levels of confidence, self-esteem and self-efficacy in participants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses tools to measure levels of participants' subjective self-efficacy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Focuses on encouraging community cohesion and improved social links among participants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Uses tools to measure levels of participants' social trust	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Contributes significantly to the local economy through promoting growth, creating jobs or volunteering opportunities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Contributes significantly to the national economy through promoting growth, creating jobs or volunteering opportunities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Sporting Future continued

Our organisation

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Not applicable
... is greatly dependent on government funding	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
... has received sufficient training and support in applying for government funding	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
... wishes to receive further training and support in applying for government funding	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
... believes the Sporting Future strategy will benefit our organisation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
... believes the Sporting Future plans are appropriate for third sector sports organisations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

General

From the list below, please tick which areas are of greatest concern within your organisation at present.

- [ ] Financial concerns (e.g.: expenditure/fundraising/funding)
- [ ] Human resources concerns (e.g.: lack of volunteers/staffing issues)
- [ ] Infrastructure concerns (e.g.: facility concerns, technology issues, insufficient or inappropriate equipment)
- [ ] Network concerns (e.g.: lack of collaboration, lack of engagement from communities)
- [ ] Planning and development concerns (e.g.: training issues, strategic concerns)

Do you currently evaluate the performance of your organisation with specific measures or indicators? Please provide a basic description of these.

Social media

Which social media platforms does your organisation use?

- [ ] Facebook
- [ ] Twitter
- [ ] Instagram
- [ ] Youtube
- [ ] LinkedIn
- [ ] Whatsapp
- [ ] Wechat
- [ ] Tumblr
- [ ] Google+
- [ ] Snapchat
- [ ] Pinterest
- [ ] Reddit
- [ ] Meetup
- [ ] Flickr
- [ ] MySpace
- [ ] Skype
- [ ] Other

If you selected Other, please specify:

How often do you update your accounts?

- ○ Daily
- ○ Weekly
- ○ Monthly
- ○ Other

Who manages these accounts?

- ○ A full-time member of staff
- ○ A part-time member of staff
- ○ An outsourced agency
- ○ A volunteer
- ○ An intern
- ○ Other

If you selected Other, please specify:

What do you post on social media?

- [ ] Sport related news
- [ ] Other news items
- [ ] Organisation related news
- [ ] Media reports on current issues
- [ ] Photographs
- [ ] Other

How important is social media for your organisation?

- ○ Very important
- ○ Quite important
- ○ Not at all

Who is your social media audience?

- ☐ Funders
- ☐ Local community
- ☐ Beneficiaries
- ☐ Policy-makers
- ☐ Other

Do you use social media in order to attract more funding?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Not sure

Conclusion

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Following the analysis of this survey, in-depth case studies will be undertaken with a small number of organisations in order to better understand the opportunities and challenges that the organisations are currently experiencing.

	Yes please	No thanks
Would you be interested in participating in follow-up research?	☐	☐
Would you like a copy of the findings of this survey once they are collated or published?	☐	☐

If you answered yes to the above, please supply a contact email address:

Thank you!

Key for selection options

1 - INFORMED CONSENT FORM: I agree that the purpose and details of this study have been explained to me via email. I understand that this study is designed to further scientific knowledge and that all procedures have been approved by the Loughborough University Ethics Approvals (Human Participants) Sub-Committee. I have had an opportunity to ask questions about my participation by making contact with the researcher. I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in the study, have the right to withdraw from this study at any stage for any reason, and will not be required to explain my reasons for withdrawing. I agree to take part in this study. Taking part will require me to fill out an online survey. I have read and understood the information sheet and this consent form. I understand that all the personal information I provide will be treated in strict confidence and will be kept anonymous and confidential to the researchers unless (under the statutory obligations of the agencies which the researchers are working with), it is judged that confidentiality will have to be breached for the safety of the participant or others or for audit by regulatory authorities. I understand that anonymised quotes may be used in publications, reports and other research outputs. I agree for the data I provide to be securely archived at the end of the project.

I agree with the above statements and wish to participate

I disagree with the above statements and therefore will not participate