STRUCTURE AND INVOLVEMENT IN A VOLUNTARY SPORT ORGANIZATION

by

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ABSTRACT

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An exploratory, descriptive study was undertaken of a provincial sport association in British Columbia, Canada--the British Columbia Volleyball Association. The investigation was directed at two of the major dimensions of this voluntary organization, structure and involvement, and utilized aspects of theories developed by Barnard (1938), Etzioni (1969), and Simon (1976). Communication, both formal and informal, was used to identify the structure of the Association and the behaviour and attitude of members were utilized as measures of involvement. In addition, hierarchical level and geographical location were used as moderating variables.

Sixty-three members of the Association were interviewed using a structured question-unstructured answer technique and chi-square was used as a statistical test of significance on the data collected. The descriptors "direction" and "media" were used with the data. The data were frequencies of regular communication behaviours occurring once a month or more frequently, and anecdotal records augmented the analysis.

The results showed that, (a) the informal structure

was used more frequently than the formal structure; (b) interaction occurred more frequently in a face-to-face medium; (c) the vertical downward direction was used more frequently; (d) there was no relationship between the predominant structure used and the involvement of members; (e) the geography of the province hindered the interaction of members; and, (f) there was a relationship between commitment and power position. The results were applied to Etzioni's (1969) typology of compliance relationships and it was concluded that there was congruency at the upper hierarchical levels and incongruency at the lowest hierarchical level. Further, a series of propositions were explicated which could form the basis of a grounded theory of sport organization.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study of formal and complex social organizations has long attracted the interests of sociologists. Indeed, Faris (1964) maintained that in the sense that all humans are mainly guided, regardless of environment, by formal institutional roles, they are organization men and "can be fully understood only to the extent that organizations are understood" (Faris, 1964:10).

Most writers on organizations have described the ubiquity of such social systems. For example, Wolin (1960: 354) has written:

> Everywhere there is organization, everywhere bureaucratization; like the world of feudalism, the modern world is broken up into areas dominated by castles, but not the castles of les chansons de geste, but the castles of Kafka.

Thus it is that a great part of our recreational, educational, philanthropic, political, and social activities are carried on within a variety of organized groups such as civic associations, social clubs, businessmen's organizations, trades unions, sports clubs, and many other types of organizations. In fact, the club and association are to non-economic life, what the corporation is to economic life (cf. Goldhamer, 1951).

Sport, as a social institution, has its hegemonic

organizations. There has been, however, a relative lack of interest in sport on the part of sociologists (Stone, 1971: 48), and, thus, the subsumptive neglect of sport organizations as objects of serious academic investigation, particularly in amateur sport (cf. Dunning, 1967; Hoyle, 1971; Snyder and Spreitzer, 1975). It was a concern with this omission that prompted the present study. Of concern, also was the stance taken by some prominent sociology of sport scholars who viewed sport organizations as similar in many respects. For example, Loy et al. (1978:130) stated:

> With respect to any given sport and organizational level (e.g. interscholastic, intercollegiate, and professional teams), sport organizations typically possess similar authority structures, are of the same size, have equal technological resources, share common goals, conform to mutual norms, and not only have the roles of each organizational position explicitly prescribed, but replicate positional interrelationships across all teams within an organizational set.

This is a generalization as yet unsubstantiated by empirical study.

Of the many sport organizations, the provincial sport associations in Canada have been of interest to several provincial governments in recent years (cf. Baka, 1978). The original role of sport associations was one of controlling and organizing competition (Broom, 1975:316), but, with the tremendous upsurge of a lifestyle which provides increasing discretionary time, there has been a rapid growth in participation in many sports and physical recréational activities. This has placed additional administrative demands on sport associations which have "rapidly

outgrown the capacity of voluntary officers" (Broom, 1975: 316). In addition, there has been a growing Government involvement, which must emphasize competitive and participatory programmes in sports, because public funds are being expended. In view of this orientation dichotomy, there is a need to analyse the structures and processes which occur in sport associations.

Athletes and clubs, within a sport, may join together in a geographic area, and the collectivity thus formed constitutes a sport association. Over a provincial, geographic area they are termed provincial sport associations, and, as voluntary organizations, their value was illustrated by Harrison (1960:237), when he commented on voluntary organizations in general:

> According to the ideology of voluntary associations, only in a local community of individuals gathered for a common cause can the voice of the people be spoken. But it is only in wider associations of these local groups which have been gathered to mobilize opinion of all the company, that the voice of the people will be heard. [Emphasis added.]

At the very heart of the concept of 'voluntary' lie the social forces which affect participation. As Palisi (1968:400) has noted:

> Any person who participates in any group does so because of some type of pressure. Sociologically, we have to assume that the social pressure was great enough to influence him to participate since he is, in fact, doing so.

Although Palisi's (1968) contention, that there are no such things as voluntary organizations, has been challenged by deLespinasse (1973:472-473) the point was made that to link

organization structure to society, community, and other groups, it is necessary to consider the forces affecting membership participation (Palisi, 1968:402). There is evidence to suggest that social forces affect the organizational structure of associations (cf. Simpson and Gulley, 1962; Schlagenhauf and Timm, 1976; Lipset et al., 1956).

Michels (1949:32), with his "Iron Law of Oligarchy", saw the structure of voluntary organizations as inevitable:

> Organization implies the tendency of oligarchy. In every association . . . the aristocratic tendency manifests itself very clearly. The mechanism of the organization, while conferring a solidarity of structure, induces serious changes in the organized mass, completely inverting the respective position of the leaders and the led. As a result of organization, every association becomes divided with a minority of directors and a majority of directed.

In their typology of organizations, Blau and Scott (1962) have pointed out that the crucial issue in voluntary associations is maintaining internal democracy. Barber (1950), in his study of mass apathy in associations, saw the structure of the organization contributing to non-participation and thus a breakdown of internal democracy or membership control. He stated:

> The internal structure of the voluntary organization itself, that is . . . its formal organization and division of functions among members makes it possible for a minority to achieve the interests of the association with the majority participating very little or not at all (Barber, 1950:487).

This applies, however, to the formal structure. The informal structure is ignored. As Barnard (1938:123) stated, the informal structure is a pre- and a present

condition of every organization. It is the contention here that, while sport associations possess a formal structure, they also operate informally. The importance of this can be understood in terms of the controls which each structure employs in determining the relationships between the people in the association. A formal structure implies a desire for rationality in the Weberian tradition and makes use of legitimated authority vested in the position. On the other hand, the informal structure uses persuasion and influence and vests the power in the individual as a person. The implications are reflected in the voluntary involvement of members and their continued participation: does formality alienate or does the informal structure compensate by providing social rewards of such strength that involvement is assured?

This study, then, was directed at the major dimensions of provincial sport associations; the structure of the organization and the involvement of voluntary members.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was three-fold: (a) to choose a voluntary sport association in British Columbia and examine it to discover to what extent a formal structure was employed, what informal procedures were manifest, and to describe the relationship between the two; (b) to determine the degree of involvement at the different levels of

membership; (c) to determine any relationship between the degree of involvement and the predominant structure at different levels of membership.

The British Columbia Volleyball Association, hereafter referred to as the B.C.V.A., was chosen as the subject of the investigation. There were two reasons for the choice: firstly, the author has been actively involved with the B.C.V.A. for a number of years and therefore had some knowledge of its operation and key personnel; secondly, it was deemed to be representative of provincial sport associations, in terms of size and the location of the executive members (personal communication with E. F. Broom).

The investigation was delimited to those persons who were members of the B.C.V.A. The dimension of communication, both formal and informal communication, was used as a variable to identify the structure of the association, and the behaviour and attitude of members were utilized as measures of involvement.

Theoretical Frame of Reference

This section develops a framework which facilitates an orderly analysis of the phenomena under investigation. The research perspective, independent, and dependent variables, and moderator variables are outlined conceptually.

In recent years there has been some controversy in the sociology of sport between two distinct pre-theoretical perspectives (Hoyle, 1977; Gruneau, 1978). On the one hand

there are researchers who identify with a "system" or scientific perspective, and on the other, there are those who are strongly in favour of an "action" perspective. The latter "action" perspective was taken up in this study. The view was expressedly critical and concerned with a social issue, or, as Weber (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947) put it, with Verstehen. Knowledge was thus viewed as unorganized and diffuse, as inchoate content which has to be given shape and form to be meaningful and can, in this, take its place among other items of knowledge. The result of the study is not, however, to be thought of as a discrete bit of knowledge, but as new knowledge, entering into a relationship with the knowledge already possessed. It must be transformed and make, in turn, its impact on present knowledge. The process of giving shape and form to the contents of the phenomena under investigation was supplied by experience (of the actor) and was made by the mind. This perspective dates back to Plato's ideal forms as the true objects of knowledge which only our faculty of reason is capable of apprehending. Otherwise expressed as the difference between appearance and reality. Kant's distinction followed Plato's as noumenal (as it is) and phenomenal (as we see it). This dialectic treats the actions of individuals as more significant than the "system". Individuals, then, act in accordance with their definitions of the situations or, their views of reality.

The role of the investigator was to enter into and

take the viewpoint of the actor whose behaviour was to be explained. With such a perspective, social reality, as the members of the provincial sport association viewed it, could be understood (Verstehen) and it could be demonstrated how their views shaped the actions which they took within that reality. The result was not only a possible explanation and clarification of, but a set of instructions for looking at, reality (Kuhn, 1970). It is believed that this perspective produced insights into sport associations, particularly because the nature of those phenomena, consisting as they do, of volunteers, inhibited a more quantitative "systems" analysis. However, the scientific method was not rejected outright, just the view of objectivity as expressed in a positivist attitude. The view of science taken, here, was reflected in T. H. Huxley's statement, "science can be regarded as refined common sense" (Abraham, 1973:16).

For dialectic purposes, an eclectic conceptual model is outlined below. Drawing on the extensive literature of organizations, two identifiable, although concomitant, dimensions of organizations were utilized in this investigation: communication and involvement.

Communication Structure

A provincial sport association, as a voluntary organization, has a structure in which a few members operationalize the organization for the benefit of the rank-and-file members. The rank-and-file do not play a role in administrating or managing the association. In

this respect, a sport association can be compared to a Government organization, which exists for the benefit of its clients. Provincial sport assocations, in fact, are commonly referred to, across Canada, as "sport governing bodies".

Research has supported the assumption that communication, as a dimension, can be used as a means of describing and understanding an organization. Blocker et al. (1964), in a study of communication in college staffs, have expressed the importance of communication as providing:

> . . . the major structure for representing the system. The dynamics of the system are personal interactions; thus, communication is the vehicle for activating the system. (Blocker et al., 1964:16.)

Conrath and Johnson (1972:4), in an analysis of organizational communication, stated:

> An organization is essentially a structured set of well defined binary relations among persons in that organization. The exercise of these relations can only be done through the process of communication.

The structure of a provincial sport association, then, can be defined as a set of members and their interrelations. When individuals within a sport association interact, their purpose for doing so is reflected in the content of the message being transmitted. Thus, organizational purpose is seen in communication which involves the role that an individual plays in the association, and may be termed official, or formal, communication. Communication which does not involve an individual's role, however, is termed unofficial, or

informal, communication. The purpose of informal communication is to create easier or more effective ways of working, and to foster human relationships on a personal level (Bavelas and Barrett, 1951; Gregg, 1957). Thus, official content is communicated in the formal structure, and unofficial content is communicated in the informal structure.

The relations between individuals in the association can be described in terms of the direction and frequency of communication. The strength of the structure is determined by the frequency of interaction, and the internal democracy by the direction. Between members flows the information that achieves an understanding to provide objectives, divide the work, develop morale, evaluate performance, and mobilize the resources of the association (Bormann et al., 1969). Influence, and therefore a potentiality for change, also flows between individuals (Blocker et al., 1964).

A sport association consists of sub-units that are formally differentiated along various lines. There is a vertical differentiation into hierarchical levels and a horizontal differentiation into functional divisions and sections within divisions, as well as a division of labour among positions. This is termed the formal, or task structure, and it can be analyzed according to expectations inherent in the patterned differentiation. Each position, within the structure, has duties and responsibilities which implicitly include statements of the nature, content, and

direction of the communication which is considered necessary for the performance of the association (Bavelas and Barrett, 1951).

However, the sport association, as an organization, is under a general restriction of communication among its members. To explain this, it is necessary to consider the association in its emergent state as an informal group; a group of persons who are unorganized (cf. Barnard, 1938). Let us take, for example, 60 people as comprising the group. The number of potential channels of communication of the group is n(n-1)/2 or 1770. If they are organized into a network of ten combinations of six, so that each person on a six-man team has one clearly defined role and is interdependent with five other people, the number of relations within the work group is reduced to 15, in a completely interdependent condition, or to five, in a serial dependent position. To move from an unorganized state to an organized state, requires that constraints and restrictions be introduced (Katz and Kahn, 1966).

The informal organization has been shown to be affected by proximity (Delbecq, 1977), and, since the sport association functions intermittently, the informal communication structure is patterned and differentiated in a manner similar to the formal task structure. Informal communication is thus influenced by the same constraints placed on formal communication.

Taking the three media of communication commonly

used in sport associations, each can be described in terms of the constraints it imposes on the communication structure.

1. Face-to-face contact requires members to be at the same location at the same time, thereby permitting full usage of the ptoential in the interaction; verbally and visually. Much information is transferred between individuals per unit time, and also between individuals and groups. However, the effort required to stage such an event increases as the number of participants increases, depending, of course, on the linear distance that the members have travelled.

2. The telephone has the advantage, like face-to-face contact, of operating in real time, but does not utilize visual aspects. It does allow immediate responses and a relatively large exchange of information in a short period of time, but it is limited by the degree to which members have access to a telephone. The so-called "conference call" allows group interaction and the effort required to interact is not so great as in face-to-face communication.

3. Written communication is considered the most restrictive medium of the three. To effect an exchange of information may require several days, depending on the efficiency of the mail service, and the amount of information which can be transmitted is relatively low. However, this medium does have one characteristic which the other two do not possess; storage and multiple copy capacity. It is possible for one person to communicate by mail with the whole

organization simultaneously.

The utilization of a particular medium entails the perceived value of the communication related to the effort involved in terms of time, memory, and cost. This influences the frequency with which each medium is used and thus the interaction between individuals and groups, and between individuals. How the media of communication are used is influenced by the content, or purpose, of the message to be transmitted. Conrath and Johnson (1972:9-10), have suggested that written communication follows the authority structure and that telephone communication follows the task structure. Thus, the formal structure utilizes all three media, with a primary focus on written communication, whereas the informal structure does not use written communication because of the long delay between possible responses and the limited capacity of the medium.

Involvement

Some scholars, studying the sociology of sport, have regarded all sport organizations as belonging to the same genus (cf. Loy et al., 1978). This is a mistaken view. Professional sport organizations are economic organizations whereas those in amateur sport are not. The difference is reflected in the term voluntary.

The concept of "voluntary" is important in sport associations. An individual's goals determine the strength of his contribution to the organization. Since he does not profit, financially, from his commitment, he might withdraw

from the association when his goals are not realized, or when his satisfaction is not commensurate with the effort he is expending. In addition, his commitment must become secondary to his need to earn a living. His contribution can, then, only be made in his leisure time, which restricts the functioning of the association to those times mutually convenient to himself and other members. The operation of the organization is also dependent on the administrative skills possessed by the member, bearing in mind that his primary activity, earning a living, might not involve such skills. These three aspects of the voluntary participation of members impose limitations on the functioning of the association.

Lying at the heart of the concept of a sport association, then, is the abstraction of involvement. Involvement refers to the "cathetic-evaluative orientation of an actor to an object" (Etzioni, 1969:64). It is characterized in terms of intensity (high to low) and direction (positive or negative). The relationship between intensity and direction is curvilinear. High positive involvement is referred to as commitment and high negative involvement as alienation. Each type is viewed as a dichotomous aspect, with low intensities of each at the mid-point of the continuum. This mid-range, or zone, is referred to as calculative involvement. It is reflected, for example, in an association member who is indifferent, in his feelings toward the association, but remains within

the organizational set.

Associated very closely with involvement is the concept of power. Power has been defined as "an actor's ability to induce or influence another actor to carry out his directives or any other norms he supports" (Etzioni, 1969:60). Power is held, in varying amounts, by any member of the association, since "A" has power over "B" to the extent that "A" has what "B" wants (French and Raven, 1962). It is usual, and in this case useful, to view organizations in terms of power positions.

A power position is a position whose incumbent regularly has access to means of power (Etzioni, 1969:61). This implies, of course, as does any statement about power, that there is a particular person, or group(s), subject to this power. Therefore, those who hold power positions are referred to as elites, or as organizational representatives, and those in subject positions as lower participants (Etzioni, 1969:61). It must not be assumed, however, that lower participants have no power. They have power, but less than the elites.

The affiliation of involvement and power constitute a compliance relationship (cf. Etzioni, 1969). A compliance relationship differs according to the power base employed to make the subjects comply. Etzioni (1969:61) has outlined three general means of power.

1. Coercive power rests on the application, or threat, of physical sanctions or forceful deprivation of basic needs.

2. Remunerative power rests on the rationalized exchange of compliance for material rewards.

3. Normative power rests on persuasion, promises, and the manipulation of symbolic rewards. Combining the three kinds of power with three types of involvement, nine types of compliance relations are produced (see Table I).

Table I

A Typology of Compliance Relations

Kinds of Power	Kinds of Involvement		
	Alienative	Calculative	Commitive
Coercive	1	2	3
Remunerative	4	5	6
Normative	7	8	9

Source:

Etzioni, A. "A Basis for Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations," in A. Etzioni (ed.), A Sociological Reader on Complex Organizations. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969 (2nd edition), p. 67.

When the kind of involvement of lower participants, determined by their personality set and social factors, is the same as the kind of involvement that is generated by the predominant kind of organizational power, the relationship is referred to as congruent (Etzioni, 1969:68). For example,

prisons alienate inmates, coercive power tends to alienate; hence this is a case of a congruent compliance relationship (Etzioni, 1969:68).

To link the two variables, communication structure and involvement, together, it is necessary to describe the concept of goal concensus. Decisions to pursue specific goals are arrived at through a process of negotiation, and re-negotiation, between the members of the association (Bratton, 1970:4). Sport association members have various backgrounds, motives, obligations, ideological orientations, and degrees of commitment to the association, which have considerable impact upon the decision-making process, and, ultimately, on the goals of the association. Because membership is voluntary, members use their own discretion in deciding which goals or directives, if any, they support. A certain minimum degree of consensus is therefore considered necessary for "the effective mobilization of effort and resources toward attaining specific goals" (Bratton, 1970:4).

Communication between members, then, reinforces attitudes towards certain goals or performance obligations to negotiate a consensus, and, by informing members of accomplishments, satisfaction is promoted. Sport associations are classified as normative organizations, according to Etzioni's (1961) typology, and member satisfaction, through the normative process, results in sustained or increased effort on behalf of the sport or association. However, if involvement is related to the use of norms, the

communication of norms, through influence for example, is only accomplished within the structure of the association. The structure, then, determines, to some degree, the commitment or alienation of an individual. A person who is frequently contacted perceives his contribution to the association as great, in addition to being influenced, himself, by the socialization potential inherent in the communication events. This is not limited to the already committed member, since, through communication, influence is transmitted within the structure and therefore there is a potentiality for change. An alienated or indifferent member, through frequent contact, becomes socialized by internalizing the norms of the association. The reverse, of course, is also true, that norms are not transmitted unless there is contact.

Role and Geography

Thus far the two main variables of the investigation have been conceptualized, and, while structure is treated as the independent variable and involvement, the dependent variable, other moderating factors are present.

Within the association there are various sub-groups. They are comprised of individuals who play a role for the benefit, it is presumed, of themselves, and at the same time, the association. Each role has certain expectations, some more than others, but each has, inherently, obligations or responsibilities. Either explicitly or implicitly there are obligations to the association in terms of a task to perform,

and responsibilities to communicate with other role-holders, so that they, in turn, may fulfil their obligations. The role-holders are seen in such positions as executive members, coaches, athletes, provincial representatives, and provincial team coaches. Each role set, then, can be listed according to a common dimension so that a hierarchy is outlined. In a voluntary association, this takes the form of a hierarchy based on responsibility; although status and power are related to the term, especially in a normative organization. Every level has different involvements as responsibilities increase with vertical mobility.

Another moderating variable is that of geographic location. The majority of the population of British Columbia is located in the south-west portion of the province, in an area known as the Lower Mainland and Southern Vancouver Island. The remainder of the population is scattered across the interior of the province in sheltered valleys, and, while modern technology has eased communication, the interior region suffers from a lack of proximity, both between individuals and to the Lower Mainland. In contrast, this is not the case in the Lower Mainland, and the majority of sport associations have a concentration of executive members in that area. Face-to-face interaction, for them, is thus facilitated by proximity and telephone usage is not charged at long-distance rates.

In this initial section of the study, it was stated that there was a need to analyze sport organizations in

terms of structure and process. Most research in this area has focussed on the formal structure, while omitting the informal dimension. This study was concerned with both elements as well as another major aspect of voluntary organizations--involvement. A frame of reference was presented, which was necessarily complex since a sport association is not a tangible object and therefore does not lend itself easily to explanation or clarification, even in abstract terms.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature dealing with organizations is very extensive, especially in the area of public and economic organizations. In contrast, voluntary organizations have been relatively neglected. This chapter presents related literature drawn from three sources: firstly, from organizational theory, which underlies all of the review; secondly, from studies of voluntary organizations, including sport organizations, which reveal findings specific to such organizations; and finally, from organizational communication theory. Further, in an attempt to build up a picture of the present extent of knowledge relating to the investigation in this study, the review is cumulative; that is, the different factors under consideration are combined in increasingly related complexity.

Sport Associations

Sport sociologists have concentrated their attention in two main areas: the impact of culture on sport and the processes of group interaction within a sporting context (cf. Whitson, 1978). Sport associations have been singularly neglected, not only by those sociologists interested in sport, but by others, resulting in a void

pertaining to sociological study of North American sport associations (Bratton, 1970:9). The lack of research on a larger, geographic scale was also noted by Schlagenhauf and Timm (1976), who found the scarcity incomprehensible, since sport organizations are so important to the social system.

Historical Aspect

Voluntary organizations, in the form of clubs and associations, have played an important part in the development of amateur sport. As Vanderzwaag (1972:79) noted:

> Of course, based on certain characteristics . . . it could be argued that sport is not sport until it is organized. In other words, the organization represents a major part of the transition from play to sport.

In an examination of sport within the context of social development in Canada, Jobling (1976) indicated that urbanization, transportation, and changing technology provided the pre-requisites for the growth and institutionalization of sport in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The urban areas created conditions where an active middle class could readily establish clubs and associations which could define the rules for participation.

Approaches to the Study of Sport Associations

The application of organizational theory to sport is a relatively new sub-discipline, with contributions in: the aspects of association goals and personal motives (cf. Bratton, 1970), government involvement (cf. Baka, 1978), sport development policy factors (cf. Greaves, 1976),

communication patterns within an administrative agency (cf. Chisholm, 1977), historical development of a national association (cf. Derling, 1976) and an analysis of central administrative agencies (cf. Broom, 1971). Hoyle (1971) suggested five theoretical approaches in studying sport organizations:

1) The use of general theories;
2) The use of comparative typologies;
3) The development of specific typologies of the sport organization;
4) The development of theories of the sport organization, starting with specific variables or special problems;
5) The development of theories through inductive generalizations of connections, found in the gathered data.

Voluntary Organizations

Drawing upon the classical work of de Tocqueville (1961), American social scientists have shown considerable interest in voluntary organizations as an integral part of contemporary social life (Harp and Gagan, 1971:477). The literature is thus extensive, but it has narrowly focussed on the extent of membership within a given population in an attempt to explain the processes by, and through which, such organizations emerge.

Approaches to the Study of Voluntary Organizations

In studying voluntary organizations, sociologists

have used three identifiable theoretical approaches. Firstly, an emphasis on the functions and pervasiveness of formal groups. Formal associations were seen as contributing to society by supporting the normative order, or by seeking to change it and implement important values (cf. Rose, 1954). Secondly, a social-psychological approach in which formal associations were seen as integrative for the personality systems of their members. At this level of analysis the association was hypothesized as providing the individual with affectual support, and other satisfaction, previously available to him from the family, neighbourhood, and church (cf. Lundberg et al., 1934; Chapin, 1957; Goldhamer, 1951, Freeman et al., 1957; Scott, 1957; Wright and Hyman, 1958). Lastly, a focus on the association as a unit, which examined it within the framework of organizational theory. This approach considered the structure of the association, processes of operation, the impact of the social setting, the pattern of relationships, and the interrelationships of various structural, organizational, and ideological features (cf. Clark, 1968; Young and Larson, 1965; Laskin and Phillet, 1965; Metz et al., 1965; Warriner and Prather, 1965; Harp and Gagan, 1971).

The literature of voluntary organizations, however, showed some inconsistency in the conceptual frameworks used. At the basis of the inconsistency was a conceptual differentiation over the term 'voluntary' (cf. Palisi, 1968). For example, classifying economic groups such as trades

unions, as voluntary, made the categorization somewhat arbitrary (cf. Palisi, 1968). A definitional division is critical to an understanding of the voluntary organization, since the definition affects the theories resulting from the studies. As Dance (1977:19) stated:

> Given that definitions are descriptions of concepts, definitional split reflects conceptual split and conceptual split alters the behavioral field to which the concepts direct us, thus substantively affecting the theories drawn from these conceptual beginnings.

Tomeh (1973:93) pointed out two further weaknesses; firstly, it was assumed that associations were like one another in a number of attributes, and secondly, that participation involved the same set of motivations.

Typologies

In view of the inconsistencies in conceptualizing the voluntary association, some researchers tried to attack the problem through a typology approach. Blau and Scott (1962), for example, classified organizations on the basis of cui-bono, or who benefits. In this typology, voluntary organizations were described as mutual-benefit associations in which the prime beneficiary is the membership. Other classifications were business concerns, service organizations and commonweal organizations. Sport associations could be classified as mutual-benefit organizations according to this typology were it not for the fact that many of the activities of the associations are for the benefit of non-members, such as school students. Because of this, sport associations have characteristics of mutual-

benefit and commonweal organizations.

Perhaps the most adequate typology, acknowledged by many critical sociologists (Palisi, 1968; Tomeh, 1973; Harp and Gagan, 1971), was that proposed by Gordon and Babchuk (1959). Associations were differentiated according to the function they perform for the individual, or the community, or both. Associations, then, could be:

1) Expressive groups which had programmes and activities designed exclusively for their own membership and thus provided immediate gratification, affectual support and implemented special interests for the individual;
2) Instrumental groups which developed programmes to achieve ends for a wider, more inclusive set of beneficiaries and were concerned with activities designed to maintain the normative order or sought to change it by achieving some condition affecting non-members outside of the organization;
3) Instrumental/Expressive groups which incorporated both instrumental and expressive functions.

The Gordon-Babchuk (1959) typology is extremely useful in classifying sport associations as a concept. It is useful because not all sport associations have the same orientation, but all fit into the typology. Further, the typology can also be applied to members of a sport association. Bratton (1970) for example, found that executive members had high instrumental and high expressive orientations, but the membership had high expressive and low

instrumental orientations. Most systems of classification have been found lacking in sociological theory, and the Gordon-Babchuk (1959) typology was seen as a significant way of classifying associations (Tomeh, 1973:95).

Participation

Within the three theoretical approaches to the study of voluntary organizations, outlined above, there have been two salient perspectives regarding research on affiliation. The first, and more extensively covered, has focussed on membership in terms of socioeconomic status (cf. Hagedorn and Labovitz, 1967; Hodge and Treiman, 1968), age and life-cycle stage (cf. Babchuk and Edwards, 1965), sex (cf. Palisi, 1965; Babchuk and Booth, 1969), race (cf. Babchuk and Thompson, 1962), religion (cf. Wright and Hyman, 1958), residential and occupational mobility (cf. Tomeh, 1969), and the size of community and place of residence (cf. Harp and Gagan, 1971). The second, and more germane, has focussed on participation (cf. Evan, 1957).

This latter view originated in the literature on social participation, and studies utilized the Social Participation scale, originally developed by Stuart F. Chapin (1928). The scale consisted of five items and their arbitrary weights: membership, 1 point; attendance, 2; contributions, 3; committee membership, 4; office held, 5. The scale items "office held" and "committee membership" pertained to the decision-making function of participation which was traditionally associated with leadership. The

item "membership" was merely a condition of participation and not, per se, indicative of an individual's behaviour in a voluntary organization. The item "contributions" was construed as any form of action implementing purposes and policies of an organization. The fifth scale item "attendance" did not have a single referent (Evan, 1957). Two dimensions of participation, then, emerged from the scale--decision-making and activity.

Evan (1957:149) has outlined a third dimension, namely, value commitment. He defined value commitment as "an affectively-involved acceptance of the principles, purposes or goals of an organization" (Evan, 1957:149). The implications of these three dimensions of participation are seen in their interrelatedness. As the rate of decision-making increases, the rate of value commitment increases, and as the latter increases so does the rate of activity (Evan, 1957:152).

The literature on voluntary associations pointed to a conclusion that, while the conceptual frameworks of the various researchers were divided, much is yet to be understood about the factors operating within the organizations. A study of these factors would contribute to a more precise concept. Several writers mentioned structure as one aspect of the need for further research: Evan (1957:152) asked what differences were there in the structure of various kinds of voluntary associations and Tomeh (1973:111) concluded that a comprehension was needed of the

relationships between various formal and informal structures, since research in this area was scarce.

Organizational Structure

To gain insights into the concept of organizations as functioning units within social systems, most students in this field referred to the two men who have been the "primary shapers of a sociological conception of organizations"; Max Weber and Chester Barnard (Scott, 1964: 486). Both men had their share of adherents and the approaches each set forth (Weber emphasizing power and Barnard, communication) have usually been viewed as conflicting. However, they appeared to be essentially complementary rather than contradictory (cf. Hopkins, 1961). Organizations are power and communication structures, and participants are motivated by self-interest as well as by shared values.

Underlying Weber's (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947) approach to organizations was the concept of 'rationality', which was defined as "the use of knowledge to relate various means to organizational ends in the best way possible" (Wieland and Ullrich, 1976:8). Weber began by defining the 'corporate group' as "a social relationship which is either closed or limits the admission of outsiders by rules" (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947:145). A corporate group was thus characterized by relatively fixed boundaries, a body of rules or social norms, and 'legality'

(as opposed to 'conventionality'). An organization was distinguished by two further characteristics; it was 'associative' rather than 'communal' in character and it was engaged in carrying out continuous purposive activity of a specified kind (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947:136-139, 151-152).

Barnard (1938) viewed organizations as cooperative systems which provided a means for overcoming certain limitations--biological, physical, social--which restricted the effectiveness of individual activity. The fundamental elements of organization were: 1) communication; 2) willingness to serve; and 3) common purpose (Barnard, 1938: 82). Communication was viewed, then, as the most important factor which determined structure.

Voluntary Organization Structure

One of the initial steps in the formation of a voluntary association was the election of an executive body (cf. Lipset et al., 1956), or as Sills (1957:9) put it, "delegation takes place in an upward direction". As the organization became established, the executive body was gradually given greater responsibility and authority in conducting the business of the association, and was not likely to encounter much resistance unless its decisions drastically affected the personal welfare of a number of members (Bratton, 1970:12; Schlagenhauf and Timm, 1976:19).

One of the few studies directed at the structure of

voluntary associations was that by Chapin and Tsouderos (1956). In studying the formalization process, they found that with an expansion of the membership the frequency of reporting declined, but with a further growth in membership, the frequency of reports to the membership began to rise. The increase in membership was postulated as causing a demand for broader communication and representation. With this change manifested, the form and frequency of reporting changed and increased respectively.

The organizational structure of a sport association was looked on by Hoyles (1977:65) as being the more important aspect, in addition to leadership, of "getting the job done". He maintained that:

> Once a group of people have come together with some objectives in mind, the question of structure comes up, 'How are we going to set up?' (p. 66)

The optimal structure was a decentralized one involving regional associations. In such a structure there were two advantages; by involving more people in the administrative tasks, volunteers were kept motivated and a reduced executive workload allowed time for decision-making (cf. Hoyles, 1977). Schlagenhauf and Timm (1976) studied sport clubs in Germany and maintained that there were variations in organizational structure which were explained by the following dimensions:

1) The degree of demand for instrumental objective services.
2) The degree of homogeneity of demands of the membership.
3) The degree of internal or external orientation.

4) The degree of orientation toward individuals on the part of the voluntary organization's management.
5) The degree of professionalization in the management.
6) The degree of the purposeful and rational aspect in the decision-making process (Schlagenhauf and Timm, 1976:21).

Formal Structure

Durkheim (trans. Simpson, 1933) postulated that the division of labour was inevitable due to society approaching modern industrialization, with each occupational group performing its specialized function for all others in society who wanted it (Jackson and Lowe, 1978). Transferring this to sport associations it can readily be seen that, as membership increases and requirements become complex, specialization must occur and thus a division of labour. This is observed in the formal structure of each association. Simon (1976:147) provided a description of the elements of the formal organization:

> Procedural coordination--the specification of the lines of authority, and the sphere of activity and authority of each organization member--creates a formal organization, a set of abstract, more or less permanent relations that govern the behaviour of each participant . . . [and] . . . the scheme of formal organization itself prescribes the lines of authority and division of work that shall be followed in carrying out the work of the organization.

Simon went on to say that in addition to allocating zones of activity and establishing authority relationships, the scheme of formal organization also established procedures, and lines of communication (Simon, 1976:148).

Discussing differentiation as the basis of structure, Galbraith (1977:3) noted that "organizations are composed of

people and groups of people in order to achieve some shared purpose through a division of labour integrated by information-based decision processes continually through time". Blau and Schoenherr (1971) recognized two dimensions of differentiation, as manifestations of many of the basic characteristics of formal structure:

> The subdivision of the total responsibilities to simplify individual tasks and permit the application of expert knowledge in the performance of specialized duties, on the one hand, and a hierarchy of official authority to effect the coordination needed as a result of this subdivision, on the other (Blau and Schoenherr, 1971:8).

Starbuck (1965:478) maintained that formal structure was expressive of the problems to be solved in that the structure provided the necessary framework within which labour was divided and specialized, responsibilities were delegated, routine communications were systematized and inducements were allocated.

Addressing formal structure as a pattern deliberately established, Scott (1964:491) stated that "formal structures are composed of sets of positions the relations among which are specified, at least in part, by explicit rules." The formal structure has two advantages, compared to those structures where relations develop over time as a function of the interaction of particular persons. Firstly, the smooth functioning of the organization is not primarily dependent on the sentiments which members hold toward one another. Secondly, the organization is less dependent on the participation of any particular person,

rather the position or office in the structure maintains the necessary stability. For, as Wolin (1960:383) stated, ". . . organization, by simplifying and routinizing procedures, eliminates the need for surpassing talent. It is predicated on 'average human beings'".

The difference between the formal and informal structure was one of intent, according to Porter et al. (1975:70), when they maintained that formal structure was "the differentiation of functions and positions in an attempt to deliberately, consciously, rationally and planfully coordinate and direct activities." However, the formal scheme of organization always differs from the organization as it actually operates, in that the actual organization exhibits many interpersonal relationships that are not specified in the formal scheme--the informal organization (Simon, 1976:148).

Informal Structure

The Hawthorne studies marked the beginning of the behavioural approach to management (cf. Luthans, 1977) with the observation of informal groups functioning in a formal organization, and a theoretical base was established which dented the classical theory of Weber (cf. Perrow, 1977). Blau (1963:2) noted that the behaviour of the members of an organization did not precisely correspond to the blueprint and Weber's analysis ignored such things as informal relations. The informal organization has been defined as the "aggregate of the personal contacts and interactions and

associated groups of people . . . when their relationships are not a part of or governed by any formal organization" (Barnard, 1938:114-115), and, although the number of persons involved may vary from two to a large crowd, "the basic characteristic of the contacts or interactions is that they occur or are repeated without any specific joint purpose" (Barnard, 1938:114).

Implicit in the concept of the informal organization was that, whereas the formal structure was man-made for an expressed purpose, this was not the case with the informal structure. The structure can be temporary or relatively permanent; it may have a multitude of purposes relating to the organization or it may simply exist for the gratification of personal goals. Barnard (1938:123) maintained that informal organization gave rise to formal organizations, formal organizations were necessary to any large informal or societal organization and that formal organizations, once established, in their turn also created informal organizations. In this, Gregg (1957) concurred with Barnard (1938). The informal organization was based on personal and social relationships of staff members rather than on authority and position. It was also geared to personal more than organizational goals. At its best, the informal organization resulted in greater organizational cohesion, protected the integrity of the individual, and served as a means of communication (Barnard, 1938:123). At its worst, the informal organization was used by members to withhold or

distort information of value to colleagues, promote personal aims, and foster the formation of cliques leading to rivalry and dissension among members of the organization (cf. Gregg, 1957; Selznick, 1952).

The relationship of the formal structure to the informal structure was stressed by Simon (1976:139). He maintained that the formal structure performed no function unless it actually set limits to the informal relations that developed within it. This prevented the development of a struggle for influence and authority to a point that would be deleterious to the functioning of the organization. In addition, it detected and eliminated unnecessary duplication and overlapping of work. According to Delbecq (1977:224), there were basically two factors which bore on the informal organization by affecting interpersonal choice. They were:

1) Proximity
2) Similarities or attractiveness in terms of:
   (a) work activities
   (b) interest or values shared
   (c) complementary personality profiles
   (d) individual social characteristics (class, status, and rank).

There have been two well-known studies of informal organizations. Blau (1963) conducted a study of the informal organization in two government agencies; a state employment agency and a federal law enforcement agency. Basing his research on Barnard's (1938) concept of informal organizations, he observed that group norms were established through interpersonal contact and that competent persons received more contacts than noncompetent persons. The

competent individuals thus tended to assume a dominant role in group situations, since the frequency of the contacts a person received helped to determine his status in the group. Berkowitz and Bennis (1961) conducted a study of interaction within, and across, hierarchical lines, using data from nurses working in out-patient departments. They corroborated Blau's (1963) findings that the extent of the respondents' self-initiation was inversely related to the status of the other party.

Structural Characteristics

Goal specificity. As a structural characteristic, goal specificity was seen as fundamental to the conception of the organization as a rational system. Indeed, Parsons (1951) used this characteristic as his primary criterion for differentiating organizations from other types of social structures. Many writers have noted variations in goal orientation, not only between organizations, but within organizations (Clark, 1968; March and Simon, 1958; Etzioni, 1961). In a study of 211 voluntary associations, Simpson and Gulley (1962) found that organizations pursuing specific objectives possessed a more centralized authority structure, were less concerned with the involvement of members, and put less emphasis on maintaining channels of internal communication, than organizations pursuing diffuse goals.

Goal implementation. Goal implementation, a major concern of Herbert Simon (1976) depended on the building of "means-ends chains" in which a given decision was viewed as a means to some end which in turn was considered a means to some further objective. Organizations, then, enhanced the rationality of action in two ways: firstly, they saw to it that the aims which governed the contributions of each member and sub-unit functioned as means for the attainment of the larger organizational purpose, by establishing a hierarchy of goals; and secondly, organizations permitted stable expectations to be formed by each member of the group as to the behaviour of the other members under specified conditions by allowing a given member to predict, with some degree of accuracy, the consequences of selecting one or another alternative course of action.

Division of labour. "Work division is the foundation of organization" (Gulick and Urwick, 1937:3). Obvious advantages were to be gained from dividing up the tasks of an organization so that any one individual did not perform all the necessary work for the accomplishment of the purposes of the organization. Particular skills possessed by members could be utilized and it fostered the development of such skills through repetition and practice (Scott, 1964:495).

Rewards. In order to induce members to continue their participation, and hence, assure organizational

survival, rewards must be allocated among members in some fashion in return for their participation in the organization. According to Udy (1959:101), reward systems fulfilled four general functions:

1) the assurance of adequate recruitment of personnel;
2) the maintenance of an acceptable level of performance on the part of the participants;
3) the integration of the authority structure;
4) the assurance of adequate role differentiation.

Authority structure. The primary structural feature of organizations in Weber's thesis (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947), according to many writers (cf. Blau and Schoenherr, 1971; Blau and Scott, 1962; Scott, 1964) was the presence of a hierarchy of authority. Weber was particularly concerned with differentiating between authority and other types of control, such as power or influence. Authority was distinguished from power in that under authority orders were voluntarily obeyed. Authority also implied the a priori acceptance of a directive which differentiated it from influence in which one person controlled another only to the extent that he was able to persuade him to change his own action premises. In addition, authority was present only to the extent that there existed a value orientation among persons subject to the control that defined the exercise of that control as legitimate (Scott, 1964:497). Weber (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947) thus classified control in organizations according to the base, i.e. authority, power, and influence, as legal, charismatic, and traditional.

Organizational Communication

During recent years communication has come to be recognized as a crucial component of the administrative process (Gregg, 1957:234), indeed, Barnard (1938) based his concept of organizations on communication. Commenting on the importance of communication in organizations, Barnard (1938:106) noted:

> Fundamentally, communication is necessary to translate purpose into terms of the concrete actions required to effect it--what to do and when and where to do it.

Many other writers have attested to the importance of organizational communication as a central phenomenon (Bavelas, 1950; Borman et al., 1969; Guetzkow, 1965; Simon, 1976).

Approaches to Organizational Communication

Classical structural approaches. Classical theorists viewed organizations as formal, and static systems. They emphasized work efficiency and stressed structural relationships between organizational units (cf. Gulick and Urwick, 1937; Taylor, 1911). Communication was thus limited to specific channels for the purpose of coordinating parts of the organization. The well known network studies (Bavelas, 1950; Guetzkow and Simon, 1955; Leavitt, 1951; Shaw, 1954) emerged from the classical approach.

Human relations approaches. This approach brought into focus the importance of informal groups and individual effect as determinants of satisfaction and productivity (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1939; McGregor, 1960; Argyris, 1957; Tannenbaum, 1966), but communication received little attention.

Behavioural decision theorists. The behavioural decision theorists stood somewhere between the classical and humanist groups. They were concerned with the way internal organizational units were coordinated. Simon (1976), March and Simon (1958), and Cyert and March (1963) considered communication as a part of decision-making. As information passed through organizations, successive editing took place and inferences were transmitted instead of evidence. Attention was focussed, then, on how communication channels were used and how uncertainty was absorbed in organizations.

Process and systems approaches. The differences between this approach and the others was somewhat artificial, but was exemplified by the works of Katz and Kahn (1966). They attempted to integrate the organizational context and small group dynamics work, through open system theory. Thus every organization was dependent on its environment for inputs necessary to keep it viable and information was viewed as an exchange commodity.

Dimensions of Communication

While numerous organizational problems were

frequently blamed on 'communication failures', there was little agreement about what comprised communication. In reviewing 95 definitions of communication, Dance (1977:19) described three points of conceptual cleavage: 1) the level of observation; 2) the presence or absence of intent on the part of the sender; and 3) the normative judgement of the act. He stated that:

> A variety of approaches and methodologies is often beneficial when dealing with a concept as complex as communication and we should beware of seeking or, worse, of finding a single, rigid, exclusive definition (Dance, 1977:19).

Thus, a concept means what its definition says it means.

As people interacted in an organizational setting it was often difficult to determine the direction of communication, since the process was ubiquitous. As Jackson (1977:86) noted:

> Communication is like a piece of driftwood on a sea of conflicting currents. Sometimes the shore will be littered with debris; again it will be bare. The amount and direction of movement is not aimless or unidirectional, but is a response to all the forces--winds, tides, and currents--which come into play.

Berlo (1970:2-3) stated that "communication is a process involving the transfer of matter-energy that carries symbolic information." It is important to note, however, that such a transfer did not necessarily imply communication, for as Miller (1955:514) stated:

> Inputs and outputs may be coded or uncoded. Coding is the linkage within sub-systems whereby process A_1 is coupled with process A_2 so that either will elicit the other in the future . . . [and] . . . any action is uncoded unless . . . it has some added significance. . . . It then conveys information.

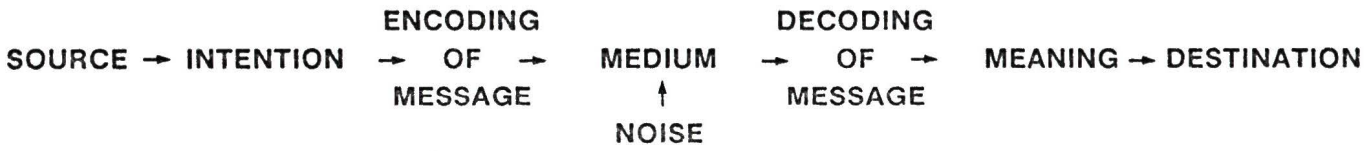

Figure 1

The Communication Process

Source: J. Kelly, Organizational Behavior, (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin Dorsey, 1969), p. 473

The matter-energy which was uncoded or not patterned was labelled 'noise' (Farace and MacDonald, 1977:138). Kelly (1969:473) has elaborated on the communication process (see Figure 1).

It can readily be seen, from Figure 1, that the communication process involved a chain with at least three links; the sender, the medium, and the receiver. The sender encoded his message, transmitted it through the chosen medium, and it was then decoded by the receiver. The chain as just described constituted a channel of information, either as a single chain or in a series, and the arrangement of the channels formed a communication net. In such a manner could the relationships between senders and receivers be represented, building up a diagrammatic model of the organizational structure, both formal and informal (cf. Meier, 1963). Importance has been attached to the spatial characteristics of the structure within which the communication channels were embedded. For example, Festinger et al. (1963) found an inverse relationship between the physical distance separating persons and the likelihood of communications between them, with interaction increasing as distance decreased.

"Organizational communication appears to be mired in an identity crisis" (Roberts et al., 1977:96). This ranges from a multitude of definitions to the levels of analysis, and three approaches to this problem were suggested (Roberts et al., 1977:106):

1) Specific definitions of various facets of organizational communication which can be operationalized and investigated across levels.
2) Integration of the implications of the various organizational theoretical positions in terms of communication.
3) Research to describe organizational communication and to predict the relationships of various facets to other organizational variables.

Formal Communication Structure

Generally, the organization structure included the specification of a formal system of communication which included channels for oral and written communications, paperflow, records, reports, and manuals (Simon, 1976:171). The formal communication structure, then, consisted of those networks and media of communication which were consciously and deliberately established in the organizational system (Case, 1975:232). The main advantage of the formal structure of communication was that it imposed order and 'rationality' in the pursuit of organizational goals (Kelly, 1969:453).

When communication was completely adequate, organizational purposes were likely to be commonly understood and the members tended to act in a cooperative and coordinated manner toward the accomplishment of the purposes for which the structure was established initially (Gregg, 1957:294). Barnard (1938:175-180) noted several characteristics of the formal communication structure which controlled effectiveness; first, channels of communication should be definitely known, and used, by every member of the organization, and second, objective authority requires a definite formal channel of communication to every member,

which should be as short as possible. Gregg (1957:296) suggested that communication, to be effective, should occur vertically and horizontally.

The formal communication structure was organized in terms of the purposes it is to serve (Gregg, 1957:298). Kelly (1969:452-453) noted that it was necessary to "spell out who can communicate with whom, who can initiate contacts, who can sanction what, and what information is to be limited in circulation and so on". Thus, the formal communication structure paralleled the structure of authority designated by the organizational design.

Ultimately, however, the formal communication structure was only successful if the administrative styles of the executives were appropriate to the situation. Case (1976:233) noted that:

> The democratic style of administration can promote the utilization of the formal structure. The organization will survive only if opportunity exists for the development and exchange of ideas.

He went on to state that committees have proved to be an effective means of facilitating the formal communication structure (Case, 1976:233). However, the formal communication structure did not constitute the whole concept of organizational communication, for the formal structure was inevitably supplemented by the informal structure (cf. Barnard, 1938; Simon, 1976; Gregg, 1957).

Informal Communication Structure

Within formal organizations, there exists an informal

organization. This informal system emerged as alternate channels of communication were created for easier and more effective ways of working, or, perhaps, not working (Bavelas and Barrett, 1951). It passed on important information and ideas, fostered associations and friendships that were conducive to good human relationships, and made for unity among members (Gregg, 1957:300). While the formal structure was designed to accomplish organizational goals, the informal structure was recognized as meeting the personal and social needs of the group (Case, 1976), and it was based on social relations (Simon, 1976:157). In the pursuit of work goals, people have forces acting on them to communicate with those who will help them achieve their aims, and forces against communicating with those who will not assist, or may retard their accomplishment (cf. Jackson, 1977; Blau, 1963). In this way, the informal structure was of great importance to the effectiveness of the organization (Gregg, 1957:300). Indeed, Davis (1953) studied 'the grapevine' so that executives could influence and control it.

Larson and Hill (1958:497) suggested that as the informal organization develops stabilized structures, the channels or networks become increasingly predictable in terms of reciprocal relationships of members. Case (1976: 234) reported that McCleary, L. G. (1962) provided theoretical assumptions on the informal structure of organizations:

1. Person-to-person relationships established in the

process of accomplishing organizational tasks constitute the real structure of the organization.
2. These relationships take on a regularity (in time) and a consistency (resistance to changes of patterns) which provide stability to the organization and are the basis of members' ability to predict the behaviour of other members.
3. These relationships represent the major work-oriented relationships, but in addition, they are the channels of communication through which attitudes, opinions, and norms are developed relating to the organization, to individual members, to outsiders, and the other organizations.

Comparison of Formal and Informal Communication Structures

The modern organization has been likened to a message-processing system. Borman et al. (1969:24) explained:

> A table of organization is an anatomical drawing that indicates the formal channel through which flow official and unofficial messages. Around the formal structure is an ever-changing and complicated network of informal communication channels.

Whether the two systems of communication were consistent depended upon the extent to which the organizational goals were in harmony with the personal goals and attitudes of members (Gregg, 1957). Miller (1952:6) provided a comparison of the formal and informal communication variables:

Informal Systems	Formal Systems
1. Individuals view one another in interaction as persons in the full sense;	Individuals view one another in interaction as performers of function;
2. Activities are ends in themselves;	Activities are means to ends;
3. Expression of reason and emotion is relatively free and spontaneous;	Reason and emotion are channeled in the interest of achieving calculated or pre-determined joint purposes;

4. Cooperation is implicit and activity is for the most part spontaneously coordinated;	Cooperation is explicit and activity is always consciously coordinated;
5. Cooperation restricts the individual's liberty relatively little;	Cooperation restricts the individual's liberty to a high degree;
6. Systems are covert and private.	Systems are overt and public.

Communication in Voluntary Organizations

Etzioni (1961:138) suggested two types of organizational communication: instrumental communication, which distributed information and knowledge, and expressive communication, which changed or reinforced attitudes, norms, and values. Voluntary associations, and specifically sports associations, were classified as normative in Etzioni's (1961) typology (cf. Bratton, 1970:18). In the main, communication should be expressive in a downward direction for the effective performance of a normative organization (Etzioni, 1961:140). Smith and Brown (1964) studied the communication structure of a voluntary association. The association, the League of Women Voters, was itself the unit of analysis, and the results indicated that the communication structure was important in achieving high membership loyalty rather than organizational effectiveness, which was affected by the structure of control. Smith and Brown (1964:465) suggested that communication which was multi-directional promoted a free exchange of ideas which allowed the members to be better informed by officers who respected their interests and

encouraged their contributions.

Alienation

At this point, the reader might wonder why alienation, rather than involvement as a generality, is being discussed. In the theoretical frame of reference it was stated that involvement had three variances; commitive, calculative or indifferent, and alienative. All are degrees of alienation. To outline the present extent of knowledge concerning the concept, however, it is necessary to depart from the organizational literature, momentarily, and review general sociological works. The reason for this was expressed by Robert Nisbet (1953:15):

> . . . in all the social sciences, the various synonyms of alienation have a foremost place in studies of human relations. Investigations of the 'unattached', the 'marginal', the 'obsessive', the 'normless', and the 'isolated' individual all testify to the central place occupied by the hypothesis of alienation in contemporary social science.

With such a pervasive concept, so ladened with value implications, it is essential, here, to be selective and overly brief.

The Meaning of Alienation

The concept of alienation rested on the view of Man as 'separated', indeed, in the theological sense, it could be argued that Man has always been alienated.

Powerlessness. This notion originated in the Marxian view of the workers' condition in capitalist society.

The worker, as a commodity, was alienated to the extent that the prerogative and means of decisions were expropriated by the ruling entrepreneurs (cf. Marx, 1888). This was a view of an industrial context and the notion was extended beyond that sphere by Weber (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947). He emphasized the wage worker as being separated from the means of production and this was further illustrated by Gerth and Mills (1946:50):

> The modern soldier is equally separated from the means of violence; the scientist from the means of enquiry and the civil servant from the means of administration.

This variant of alienation, then, was defined as "the expectancy or probability held by an individual, that his own behaviour cannot determine the occurrence of the outcomes, or reinforcement, he seeks" (Seeman, 1959:784).

Meaninglessness. This notion of alienation involved choice, for an individual, made impossible by functional rationality. Karl Mannheim (1940) argued that as society increasingly organized its members, with reference to the most efficient realization of ends, there was a parallel decline in the capacity to act intelligently in a given situation, on the basis of one's own insight into the interrelations of events. Alienation, in this sense, was defined as "when an individual is unclear as to what he ought to believe--when the individual's minimal standards for clarity in decision-making are not met" (Seeman, 1959: 786).

Normlessness. This variant of alienation derived from Durkheim's (trans. Simpson, 1933) description of 'anomie'. In traditional usage, it denoted a situation in which social norms regulating individual conduct have broken down, or were no longer effective as rules of behaviour. This was reflected in Merton's (1946:143) work:

> The emphasis on this theme reflects a social disorder--'anomie' is the sociological term--in which common values have been submerged in the welter of private interests seeking satisfaction by virtue of any means which are effective.

The anomic situation was defined as when there existed "a high expectancy that socially unapproved behaviours are required to achieve given goals" (Seeman, 1959:788).

Isolation. This term was commonly used in descriptions of the intellectual role, where writers referred to the detachment of the intellectual from popular cultural standards, but not as a lack of social adjustment (cf. Nettler, 1957). Alienation, in this sense, meant the assigning of "low reward value to goals or beliefs that are typically highly valued in the given society" (Seeman, 1959:789).

Self-Estrangement. This, final, variant of alienation was open to much interpretation, especially in deciding from what a person is alienated. Writers discussed 'alienation from Self' (cf. Fromm, 1955; Mills, 1951), but the phrase was merely a metaphor. Rather, it is probable that it was some ideal human condition from which

the individual was estranged (cf. Seeman, 1959). To be self-alienated, then, came to mean to be something less than one might ideally be if the circumstances in society were otherwise. Put another way, there is a discrepancy between one's ideal self and one's actual self image.

These five variations of one central theme in sociology have all taken the individual as a level of analysis and are, thus, social-psychologically oriented. Of the five, the Marxist powerlessness has held sway, especially in the literature of organizations.

Alienation in Organizations

Returning to organizations, the popular usages of the term, alienation, underly most, if not all, of the research, since the Hawthorne studies. In studies of organizations, alienation, or some variant, was identified implicitly in the terms job satisfaction, motivation, leadership, performance, and functional position (cf. Davis, 1953; Herzberg et al., 1957; Porter and Lawler, 1964; Rice and Mitchell, 1973). There was widespread usage of the term, but with two frequent variances; powerlessness and self-estrangement (cf. Price, 1972). The former received wider usage, and Litwin and Stringer's (1968) study was widely cited. They identified nine dimensions of organizational climate:

> 1) structure, the feeling employees have about the constraints of the group; 2) responsibility, the feeling of being one's own boss; 3) reward, the feeling of being rewarded for a job well done; 4) risk, the

> sense of challenge in the job and in the organization; 5) warmth, the feeling of general good fellowship that prevails in the work group atmosphere; 6) support, the perceived helpfulness of the managers and other employees in the group; 7) standards, the perceived importance of implicit and explicit goals and performance standards; 8) conflict, the feeling that managers and other workers want to hear different opinions; 9) identity, the feeling that one belongs to a company and is a valuable member of a team (Price, 1972:27).

Alienation in Voluntary Organizations

The literature concerning alienation in organizations was worthy of note, but it has, however, limited applicability to voluntary organizations. This was due, mainly, to the compliance relationship inherent in utilitarianism (cf. Etzioni, 1969). The concept, as it was used in studies of organizations, although founded on the term 'separated', was not transferable *in toto*. Some semantic adjustment was necessary to make the concept useable with voluntarism.

In voluntary organizations, then, it was reflected in the term 'apathy'. In principle, voluntary organizations were supposed to be democratic; that is, formal authority resided in the whole membership. In practice, no association conformed to the ideal because of mass apathy among the membership (cf. Barber, 1950). It was realistic to view apathy and democracy as concomitant variables with an inverse relationship, and considered as a continuum. At both extremities lay the ideal types; pure democratic at one, and pure oligarchical or authoritarian at the other. This conformed closely to Evan's (1957) typology, although

apathy was used as a state of mind and not as a behaviour. The ideal, democratic association was characterized by the distribution of responsibility and control among all of the members, so that each individual felt committed to the organization. His behaviour reflected his commitment, as he participated in the formulation and realization of policy.

The ideal authoritarian association, in contrast, was oligarchical. The elites, in a formal sense, were given the responsibility to formulate and realize policy, by the membership. This created a representative democracy, in which the membership relinquished formal authority to its representatives, the elites. In this manner the compliance relationship rested on the belief, of the membership, that the elites operated the organization for the benefit of all. As Barber (1950) found, associations with an apathetic membership were oligarchical, based precisely on the relinquishing of formal authority, from the many to the few. It was in this situation that authority was abused and the democratic ideal became unrealistic. The elites controlled communication and could, if they desired, operate the organization for their own benefit, and not for the benefit of the membership (cf. Barber, 1950). In fact, by controlling communication, the elites allowed the membership to know only what they, the elites, wished them to know. Barber (1950) found further that circumstances created apathy, in a continuous cycle; the more oligarchical an association became, the more apathetic the membership,

and the more apathetic the membership, the more oligarchical the association became, ad infinitum.

Summary

This review began by noting the neglect of the sport association as a unit of analysis, by sociologists. The importance of provincial associations, as voluntary organizations, in the development of sport was stressed and some possible approaches to their study were outlined.

The conceptual split in the theory of voluntary organizations was emphasized, and the usefulness of the Gordon-Babchuk (1959) typology was propounded. The weaknesses in the literature and the need for further research of the factors operating within voluntary organizations was pointed out; the relationship between formal and informal structures among them (Tomeh, 1973). In addition, three dimensions of participation were outlined.

The rationality of formal structure and the importance of communication in organizations were stated, but contrasted with their existence in voluntary associations; formal structure in particular. Oligarchy was seen as inevitable, occurring naturally and not by explicit design, leading to a breakdown in internal democracy (cf. Barber, 1950; Michels, 1949). When this was manifested in the voluntary organization, it was theorized, there was a swing toward a more authoritarian structure (cf. Evan,

1957).

The division of labour, it was suggested, formed the basis of formal structure, differentiating among tasks according to an increase in size, and the requirement complexity, of the membership. However, as it was tritely pointed out, the organization always operated in a different manner than the formal scheme, with the emergence of the informal organization, based on social relationships. The effectiveness of the organization was seen as dependent upon the harmony between the goals of the formal and informal organizations (cf. Gregg, 1957).

In task situations, important factors bearing on the structure of the informal organization were proximity, similarities in personal characteristics and task, and the competence of the individual. Several structural characteristics were examined as independent variables, among them goal specificity and implementation, division of labour, rewards, authority, and the structural variable under consideration in this study was examined in greater depth.

Communication was recognized as a major structural characteristic of organizations, and while many theorists have put forth different conceptual schemes of the process of communication, there were some commonalities. There must be a sender, a medium, and a receiver, all of which constitute a chain in the total network. The spatial characteristics of the network have a bearing on the degree

of interaction and thus on the informal aspect of organizational structure. The formal structure, through a variety of media, was characterized by its rationality and differed from the informal structure in intent. Many formal communication procedures and structural complexities were expressly designed to be functional in achieving the organizational goals. Patterns were observed according to contact, both formal and informal.

Communication in voluntary associations has been linked to internal democracy and organizational orientation. Centralized structures did not put much emphasis on maintaining internal communication channels since specific objectives were pursued. Decentralized structures on the other hand, while maintaining internal democracy, put much emphasis on internal channels because organizational goals, reflecting members' goals, were more diffuse. The orientation of the association was thus viewed as an important variable in the structural characteristics of communication. Its implication for this study can be seen in the relative geographic dispersement of elites and lower participants, since such a spatial arrangement makes effective communication a necessity.

Alienation, as a concept, was introduced in a review of the general sociological literature. The limited applicability of the concept and empirical results of studies of organizations, for voluntary associations, was pointed out. Alienation was examined as apathy, in

voluntary organizations, and its prevalence, it was suggested, was due to oligarchy.

The sociological literature was vast and to resolve the problem of this study, it was necessary to take an eclectic approach: to discover the effects of a relationship (communication) on the elements which comprise the collectivity (involvement) in the organizational setting of a provincial sport association. At the heart of the problem lies a profound question which was recurrent in classical literature: as Society becomes more Gesellschaft, more impersonal, and more bureaucratic, can the individual retain Gemeinschaft relationships? Philosophically, is man rational or irrational? Sport is professed to be personal, participants are encouraged to exhibit sportsmanship and esprit de corps. Can the egality of sport, by which an athlete is supposed to find self, exist in formal rationality?

Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the study answers some of the questions which are inevitably raised when a fledgling discipline, such as the sociology of sport, attempts to gain academic respectability. In particular, whether it is appropriate to apply general theories of organizations to sport organizations. Of equal concern is a need for theory construction in the field of sport organizations and it is hoped that this study stimulates researchers to further

investigation into the phenomena.

From a pragmatic perspective, it is hoped that the study can give voluntary administrators insights into their associations. An understanding of the structures and processes could lead to better use of limited associational resources.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This section describes the procedures which were used in gathering and analyzing data. For the sake of clarity, the procedures are presented in chronological order.

Selection of the Sport Association

In British Columbia, Canada, there were 55 organizations recognized as provincial sport associations in 1979 (see Appendix A). The term, provincial association, referred to the authoritative organization which was representative of a sport, in British Columbia (Williams, 1978:2). The term, sport, was denoted as a physical recreational activity engaged in for pleasure or a prize; it was a "discipline with a competitive component that can promote and develop athletic potential, physical fitness, and social and emotional maturation" (Williams, 1978:2). Provincial sport associations, in British Columbia, had certain characteristics:

1. They were legally incorporated, non-profit organizations.
2. They co-ordinated their sport on a province-wide basis.
3. They had programmes designed to develop their sport, provincially.

4. They submitted an annual, audited, financial statement to the government of the province of British Columbia.
5. They received monetary grants from the British Columbia Physical Fitness and Amateur Sport Fund; a fund administered by the Sports and Fitness Division of the Recreation and Fitness Branch, in the Ministry of Recreation and Conservation of the British Columbia provincial government.

The British Columbia Volleyball Association was chosen, from those listed in Appendix A, as the subject of this investigation. There were two reasons for the choice. Firstly, the investigator had been active in the organization for some years as a coach and teacher. He knew several of the people in key positions and had had many of the same experiences in volleyball as prospective respondents. This enabled the investigator to approach respondents as an empathetic volleyball person and this was congruent with the research perspective undertaken in the study. In retrospect, it was advantageous to have taken such an approach. All respondents treated the investigator with kindness and warm hospitality, even in those instances when the two had never met, and information was imparted willingly. The second reason for the choice was that the B.C.V.A. was deemed to be representative of provincial sport associations in British Columbia (personal communication with E. F. Broom). It was theorized that the B.C.V.A. would manifest problems

inherent in most or all provincial sport associations and, further, that a possible remedy for volleyball association problems may be equally useful to the other organizations.

Selection of Respondents

Initially the investigator made himself familiar with information on the B.C.V.A. which was contained in public documents on file with the government of the province of British Columbia. This information formed the basis of the formal structure of the B.C.V.A. and was analogous to a Charter. The formal procedures contained therein were implicitly accepted by all members of the Association; e.g., that executive officers be elected at an annual general meeting.

Formal contact with the President of the B.C.V.A. was made by letter and, later, a meeting was held. The details of the study were presented to the President and again at a meeting of the Association's executive officers. The study was endorsed by the Association. The Technical Development Co-ordinator of the B.C.V.A. was interviewed and the investigator's interpretation of the formal structure was confirmed (see Figure 2). An arbitrary vertical segment of the B.C.V.A. was selected as appropriate for the drawing of respondents from four hierarchical levels (see Figure 3). The number and identity of each member at each level was determined from a membership list on file with the B.C.V.A. Respondents were selected with the use of a table of random

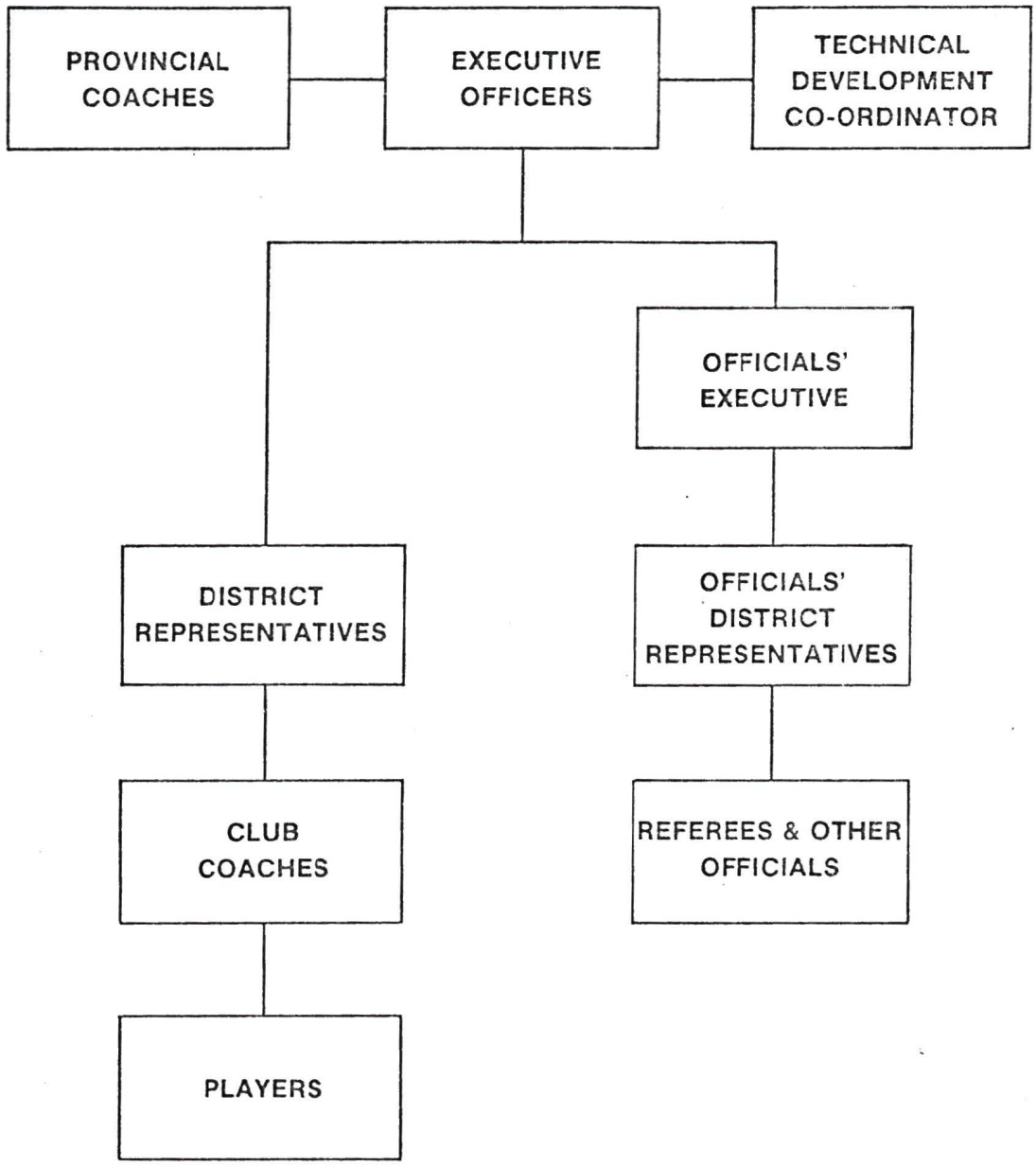

Figure 2
The Formal Structure of the B.C.V.A.

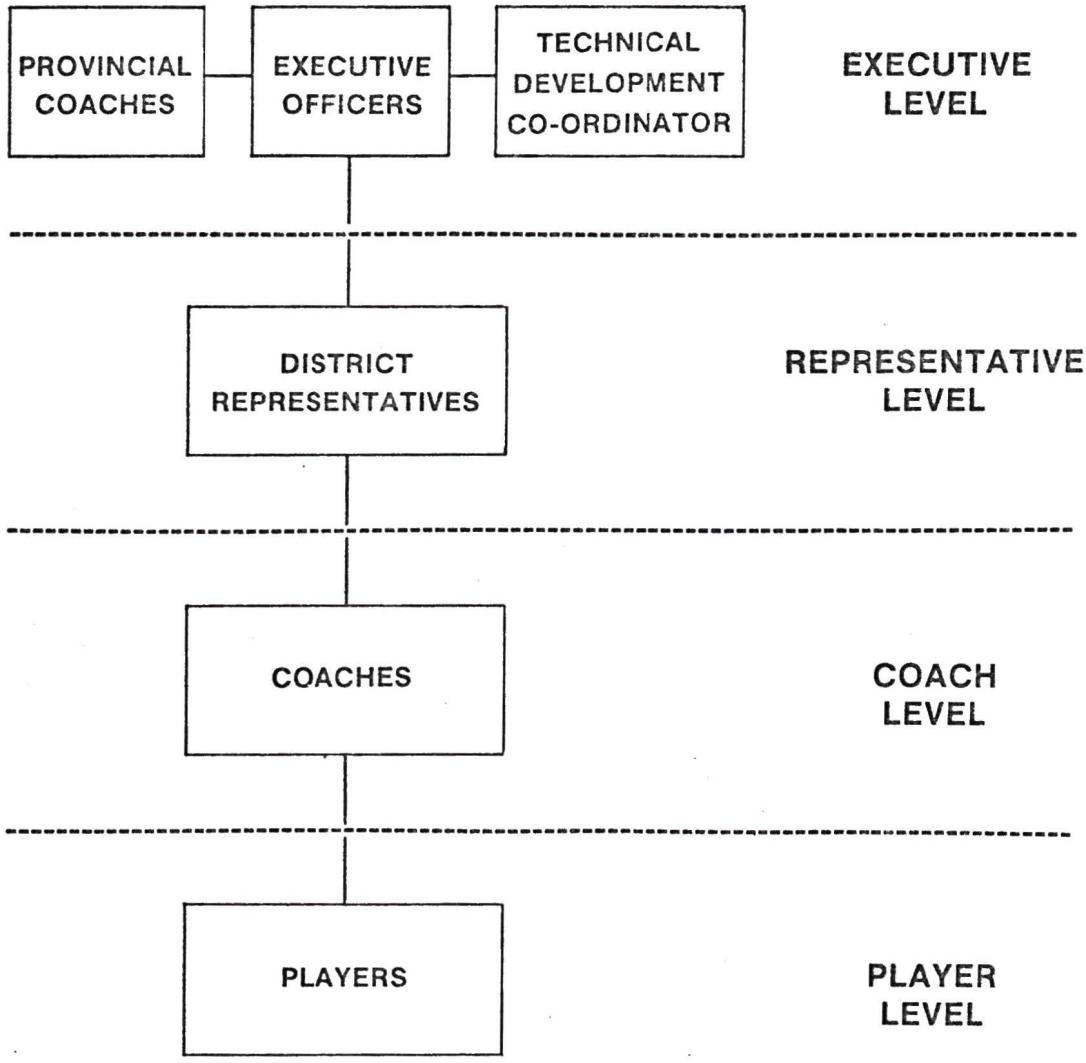

Figure 3
The Hierarchical Differentiation of the B.C.V.A.

numbers and where possible, half of each sub-group were located in the Lower Mainland and Southern Vancouver Island area, and half in the remainder of the province. The Lower Mainland and Southern Vancouver Island area was delimited to the cities of Vancouver and Victoria; their suburbs; the Fraser Valley, upstream to the town of Hope; and Vancouver Island south of the city of Nanaimo. Twenty respondents per hierarchical level were chosen, except in those levels which contained fewer than twenty. Where this did occur, for example in the executive and representative levels, all members in those sub-groups were chosen (see Table II).

Table II

Respondents in Each Hierarchical Level

Hierarchical Level	Number of Respondents Chosen	Total Possible Respondents
Executive	17	17
Representative	6	6
Coach	20	160
Player	20	1,599
Total	63	1,782

The Technical Development Co-ordinator sent a letter to all respondents to establish the credibility of the investigator and inform them that the investigator would contact them to arrange an interview. Each respondent

was telephoned and a time, and location, for an interview was arranged. Participation in the study was voluntary. When each interview was arranged, care was taken that the respondent was not unduly inconvenienced, and that the location was familiar to the respondent. This ensured that he or she felt comfortable and willing to impart information. The interviews, which lasted from one to three hours, took place at the respondents' residences or places of work and the return rate was 100 percent.

Gathering the Data

A typical interview was conducted as described below.

1. The investigator met the respondent at the appropriate time and location, introduced himself, and they adjourned to a quiet room.
2. The investigator began the conversation in a general vein; concerned with the location, mutual friends, or working conditions. Rapport was established, usually because of the mutual interests held by both parties. It was often the case that both were teachers and interested in volleyball.
3. The investigator then began asking structured questions (see Appendix B), and the respondent was encouraged to answer in an unstructured fashion. This allowed the respondent to control his answers, and they were more likely to be his own rather than those of the interviewer.

The investigator controlled the interview by asking salient questions when pertinent information was not forthcoming. The respondent was asked: "with whom did you communicate, regularly, during the 1978-79 volleyball season?"; "how frequently was each contact?"; "why was contact initiated?"; "what was the content of the communication?"; and "which medium was used?". In addition, he was asked to calculate the number of hours per month he was involved in activity directed toward volleyball, and to express his satisfaction with the operation of the B.C.V.A.

4. Once the pertinent information was collected, the conversation would usually turn to other volleyball issues. Eventually, the interview ended with the interviewer expressing his gratitude to the respondent.

The investigator took anecdotal notes during all of the interviews, as well as recording post-interview impressions. Quantitative data on communication and involvement were extracted from the anecdotal records and transcribed onto individual data cards (see Appendix C).

Communication structure

The communication structure was seen as existing in the pattern of contacts which occurred between individual members and in the patterns of contacts between sub-groups. While the B.C.V.A. was conceptualized in communication terms, it could have been similarly treated in terms of specific communication events. However, it seemed neither necessary, nor feasible, to attempt to deal with such specific

isolated events. Rather, the regularity and consistency in communication (cf. Case, 1975; Jacobson and Seashore, 1957; McCleary, 1962), permitted the description of the structure and its frequency of use in relatively simple terms. Therefore, information was converted into data in terms of the communication events which were seen as most characteristic of contacts which occurred once a month or more frequently, during the 1978-79 volleyball season (October to April). All respondents were interviewed in May and June of 1979.

The formal structure was determined by those contacts which were of an official nature; that is, the official function of the hierarchical level in which each respondent was placed in the selection process. The formal function of the executive level was to organize and co-ordinate volleyball development in British Columbia; to co-ordinate competition; and to make policy decisions affecting the administration of the Association. The district representatives' function was to act as the executives' local contact persons and they were charged with the responsibility of developing volleyball within their particular geographical area. The coaches' formal functions involved directing the activity of players, in their club or team, toward competition or volleyball development, and the players' functions involved playing volleyball. All other behaviour directed toward volleyball at any hierarchical level which was not formal was considered informal. Each event was primarily described in terms of usage (number of

contacts per month) and secondarily described in terms of media (face-to-face, telephone, mail) and direction (vertically upward, vertically downward, horizontally). Both formal and informal communication was described in this manner (see Appendix B).

Involvement

Behaviourally, involvement was treated in terms of the contribution an individual made to the Association and was measured by the number of hours, per month, that were spent in activity which was directed toward volleyball. Attitudinally, involvement was measured in terms of the degree of satisfaction, perceived by a respondent, with the operation of the Association and a seven-point semantic differential scale was used as an instrument (see Figure 4, Appendix B). The semantic differential utilized the adjectives satisfied and dissatisfied.

Analysis of Data

Before describing how the data were analyzed it is important to reiterate the research perspective of the study. The problem had not been studied previously (personal communication with A. Bavelas and E. F. Broom) and this investigation was therefore descriptive and exploratory. The emphasis was on understanding behaviour within a provincial sport association using the respondents' views of reality, and thus the analysis was concerned with elucidation,

rather than providing proof. The data were used to indicate that certain behaviours were manifested between and within various sub-groups so that anecdotal records and insights gained by the investigator during the data collection could explicate a series of propositions.

Initially, all individual data were arranged by hierarchical level, aggregated, and transcribed onto sub-group cards. The sub-group cards were headed as follows: structure (communication); involvement; structure (communication) and involvement. Using these data, the three parts of the problem of the study were resolved. Because of the exploratory nature of the study, it was necessary to set a significance level of .05 so that the analysis could identify any effects that might have been present.

Structure

Communication frequencies at the four hierarchical levels and within the formal and informal structures were arranged with the descriptors direction and media. With each descriptor the variable of geographical location was introduced to determine its influence. The following relationships were tested using chi-square:

1. Structure (formal and informal) and geographical location (Vancouver and Interior) at each hierarchical level.
2. Structure (formal and informal) and geographical location (Vancouver and Interior) with horizontal and vertical direction at each hierarchical level.

3. Structure (formal and informal) and geographical location (Vancouver and Interior) with face-to-face, telephone, and mail media at each hierarchical level.

Involvement

Behavioural and attitudinal involvement data were arranged by hierarchical level on sub-group cards, and the following relationships were tested using chi-square:

1. Involvement (behaviour) and geographical location for each hierarchical level.
2. Involvement (attitude) and geographical location for each hierarchical level.
3. Involvement (attitude) and power positions.

Structure and Involvement

Data on the two major variables of the study were arranged in tabular form, and the following relationships were tested using chi-square:

1. Involvement (behaviour) and structure with geographical location for each hierarchical level.
2. Involvement (attitude) and structure with geographical location for each hierarchical level.

This section described the methods used to select an association, choose respondents, and collect and analyze the data. The design of the study was concerned with explanation and clarification through an analysis which indicated that certain effects and behaviours were manifested. Chi-square was the only statistic used to test for

significance. Descriptive statistics were applied to data collected by an interview technique and the analysis was augmented by anecdotal records in addition to the insights of the investigator gained during the collection of data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter the results and the analysis of data are presented. It is structured in terms of the parts of the problem to be resolved, and the data are presented in their basic form. The results of the application of chi-square tests are briefly stated in this section in terms of the level of significance. For a more detailed presentation of the chi-square analysis see Appendix D.

Problem (Part a)

As stated in Chapter I (supra, p. 5), the first part of the problem was: to discover to what extent a formal structure was employed, what informal procedures were manifest, and to describe the relationship between the two.

Structure Usage

Communication events, or behaviours, which occurred regularly each month during the 1978-79 volleyball season, were used to identify the formal and informal structure usage. Table III shows this monthly structure usage for each hierarchical level differentiated by geographical location. Initially, the null hypothesis, that there were

no differences between groups in structure usage, was tested with chi-square. The value of chi-square was highly significant at the .001 level (chi-square = 5,315.3, df = 7, see Table XIII, Appendix D, infra, p. 150). There were differences between the groups which could not have occurred by chance alone, and the null hypothesis was rejected. However, there were different numbers of respondents in each geographical location, within any hierarchical level. A question was then raised by the apparent differences between groups as a result of the significant chi-squared value; were the differences between groups accounted for by the different numbers of respondents in geographical locations? Accordingly, another, different, null hypothesis was tested with chi-square; that when the usages were equalized to account for the numbers in each geographical location, there were no differences between them in structure usage (see Table XIV, Appendix D, infra, p. 151). The value of chi-square was 2,797.1, for seven degrees of freedom ($p < .001$). Consequently, the second null hypothesis was rejected; there were differences between groups which were not accounted for by the different numbers of respondents, or chance.

At the executive level, Table III indicated that the informal structure was used more than the formal structure by the Vancouver group (2,574 formal/6,342 informal, a ratio of 1:2.5.) and the Interior group (40

formal/759 informal, a ratio of 1:19.). In both groups the formal use was lower than expected and the informal use was higher than expected. Further, by using the mean values for each cell at the executive level, (see Table XV, Appendix D, infra, p. 152), the Vancouver group used the formal structure per person more frequently than the Interior group, and similarly the informal structure, but by a margin which was not as great.

At the representative level the primary use of the informal structure was evidenced again for both Vancouver (140 formal/1,076 informal, a ratio of 1:7.7.) and the Interior (60 formal/1,315 informal, a ratio of 1:22.). In addition, the Vancouver group used the formal and informal structure more frequently than the Interior group at this level. At the coach level, however, the pattern changed and only the Vancouver group used the informal structure more than the formal structure (2,700 formal/3,141 informal, a ratio of 1:1.2.). The Interior group actually used the formal structure more than the informal structure (2,460 formal/801 informal, a ratio of 3:1.), and when comparing the relative use of each structure between Vancouver and the Interior group, the difference was the relatively higher informal structure use by the Vancouver group, since the formal structure use was approximately the same. The player level in Table III shows a pattern almost identical to the Interior coach level, with the formal structure used more frequently, by both groups (Vancouver 1,414/Interior

Table III

Monthly Structure Usage by Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure	Informal Structure	Totals
Executive	Vancouver	2,574	6,342	8,916
	Interior	40	759	799
Representative	Vancouver	140	1,076	1,216
	Interior	60	1,315	1,375
Coach	Vancouver	2,700	3,141	5,841
	Interior	2,460	801	3,261
Player	Vancouver	1,414	1,301	2,715
	Interior	1,876	496	2,372
Totals		11,264	15,231	26,495

chi-square = 5,315.30, df = 7, $p < .001$

1,876), than the informal structure (Vancouver 1,301/ Interior 496). The differences between the groups were also, as at the coach level, accounted for by the relatively higher informal structure use by the Vancouver group.

The sub-totals of the structure usages in Table III show that, overall, there was more informal structure use than formal structure use (11,264 formal/15,231 informal) per month, with a total observed behaviour frequency of 26,495 events per month. However, as shown above, this was not the case at all hierarchical levels nor in each geographical location. The executive and representative levels, in addition to the Vancouver group at the coach level, used the informal structure more than the formal structure. The reverse was true of the other groups.

Structure Usage and Direction

Using the same data differentiated after each interview by direction, a more detailed analysis of the formal and informal structure uses was obtained. Table IV shows the monthly structure usage by direction, hierarchical level, and geographical location (chi-square = 23,454.2, df = 21, see Table XVI, Appendix D, infra, p. 153). The value of chi-square ($p < .001$) indicated that there was a difference between hierarchical levels and geographical groups in structure usages which was not due to chance, and thus the null hypothesis was rejected. To determine whether such a difference was due to the different numbers of

respondents in each geographical group, a chi-square test was applied again, using the null hypothesis that there were no differences between groups after the frequencies had been equalized to account for the differences in the number of respondents (see Table XVII, Appendix D, infra, p. 154). This null hypothesis was rejected (chi-square = 3,130.6, df = 21, $p < .001$). However, while the total chi-square value was significant, at some hierarchical levels the equal and low contributions to the total chi-square indicated that there were no differences between geographical groups and the frequencies could have occurred by chance or as a result of the varied numbers of respondents.

At the executive level the use of both the formal and informal structures was mainly vertical. The Vancouver group's use of the formal structure was 2,159 vertical/415 horizontal and the informal structure use was 5,985 vertical/357 horizontal, indicating a very prominent informal and vertical use. The same result was obtained with the Interior group but only in informal structure usage (703 vertical/56 horizontal). The Interior group's use of the formal structure (22 vertical/18 horizontal), indicated equal vertical and horizontal use, and the large value of chi-square (342.1, see Table XVII, Appendix D, infra, p. 154) showed that the observed frequency of formal vertical use was much lower than was expected. The Interior group's use, then, was mainly in the informal

structure and vertically; a result which was very similar to the Vancouver group at the same level. The differences between the geographical groups was in the relatively less frequent use of the formal structure, both vertical and horizontal, and informal vertical. However, both geographical groups showed no significant differences in their use of the informal structure horizontally (see Tables XVI, and XVII, Appendix D, infra, p. 154).

The representative level usage was patterned in a manner similar to the executive level, with informal vertical use achieving a dominance. However, there were differences between geographic groups and structure usages which were not similar in proportions. An anomaly was found in the formal structure horizontal use; the representative level did not use this structure and direction regularly (0 Vancouver/0 Interior), although there was use of the formal structure vertical direction by both groups (140 Vancouver/60 Interior). The difference between the geographic groups was not due to the difference in numbers of respondents, so it was evident that in the use of the formal structure, the Vancouver group dominated, vertically. In the informal structure the Interior group used the horizontal direction more than the Vancouver group (48 Interior/6 Vancouver) and appeared to have been more frequent users of the vertical direction (1,267 Interior/ 1,070 Vancouver). However, after taking into consideration the different numbers in each geographical group, this was

Table IV

Monthly Structure Usage by Direction, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure		Informal Structure		Totals
		Vertical	Horizontal	Vertical	Horizontal	
Executive	Vancouver	2,159	415	5,985	357	8,916
	Interior	22	18	703	56	799
Representative	Vancouver	140	0	1,070	6	1,216
	Interior	60	0	1,267	48	1,375
Coach	Vancouver	2,499	201	2,151	990	5,841
	Interior	2,365	95	249	552	3,261
Player	Vancouver	164	1,250	54	1,247	2,715
	Interior	160	1,716	50	446	2,372
Totals		7,569	3,695	11,529	3,702	26,495

chi-square = 23,454.2, df = 21, $p < .001$

not the case; more informal vertical use was made by the Vancouver group.

At the coach level there was no significant difference between geographical groups in their use of the formal structure, vertical direction (2,499 Vancouver/2,365 Interior), although there was in horizontal usage (201 Vancouver/95 Interior). In addition, the use of the vertical direction in the formal structure was dominant in both geographical groups. In the informal structure the Vancouver group had more vertical use, when compared to the horizontal use (2,151 vertical/990 horizontal) and to the Interior vertical use (2,151 Vancouver/249 Interior). The Interior horizontal use, however, was greater than the vertical, in the informal structure (249 vertical/552 horizontal).

At the player level there was a primary horizontal use, in both structures and by both geographical groups. In addition, at this hierarchical level there were more similarities between geographical groups than at any other level. There was no significant difference between the Vancouver and Interior groups in their use of the formal structure, vertical (164 Vancouver/160 Interior), nor in their use of the informal structure, vertical (54 Vancouver/ 50 Interior). However, the Interior group used the formal structure, horizontal, more than the Vancouver group (1,250 Vancouver/1,716 Interior) and the reverse occurred in the use of the informal structure, horizontal (1,247 Vancouver/

446 Interior).

In terms of the total uses in each structure, there was more vertical use in both the formal (7,569 vertical/ 3,695 horizontal) and informal (11,529 vertical/3,702 horizontal) structures.

Structure and Media

Respondents' use of media was recorded as a part of the interview process. Table V shows the monthly structure use by media, hierarchical level, and geographical location (chi-square = 11,925.1, df = 35, $p < .001$, see Table XIX, Appendix D, infra, p. 156). The null hypothesis tested was rejected, indicating that there were differences between hierarchical levels in their media usages in each structure. Equalization of the numbers of respondents in each geographical location indicated that, except for a very few pairs of cells, there were differences which were not due to the numbers of respondents in each geographical group, or chance (chi-square = 3,503.9, df = 35, $p < .001$, see Table XX, Appendix D, infra, p. 157).

At the executive level the use of the formal structure was mainly through face-to-face (990) and mail (1,096) media by the Vancouver group, with some telephone use (488). The Interior group, however, had very little face-to-face (4) and mail (9) use in the formal structure. Their primary medium for formal contact was via the telephone (27). In the informal structure, both

geographical groups relied on face-to-face contact (5,639 Vancouver/748 Interior) and the difference between the groups was significant. The Vancouver group also used the telephone significantly more frequently in the informal structure than the Interior group (688 Vancouver/11 Interior), and the mail medium was used infrequently (15 Vancouver/0 Interior) by both groups.

At the representative level the Vancouver group used all three media more than the Interior group, especially face-to-face (68) and telephone (50), in the formal structure. The Interior group was significantly different in face-to-face contacts (0). In the informal structure the Vancouver group again used face-to-face (787) and telephone (244) media more frequently than the Interior group, taking account of the numbers of respondents (787 face/244 telephone, Vancouver, and 1,055 face/159 telephone, Interior). However, their use of the mail in the informal structure was similar (45 Vancouver/101 Interior), and mail was also used more frequently than the executive level in the same structure.

At the coach level, the most use of the formal structure was through face-to-face contacts (2,256 Vancouver/ 2,354 Interior). There were no differences between geographical groups in the face-to-face formal medium, nor in their use of the mail (42 Vancouver/32 Interior) which was negligible compared with face-to-face. The Vancouver group did, however, use the telephone more frequently than the

Table V

Monthly Structure Usage by Media, Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure			Informal Structure			Totals
		Face	Telephone	Mail	Face	Telephone	Mail	
Executive	Vancouver	990	488	1,096	5,639	688	15	8,916
	Interior	4	27	9	748	11	0	799
Representative	Vancouver	68	50	22	787	244	45	1,216
	Interior	0	43	17	1,055	159	101	1,375
Coach	Vancouver	2,256	402	42	1,950	580	611	5,841
	Interior	2,354	74	32	745	25	31	3,261
Player	Vancouver	1,276	138	0	1,069	230	2	2,715
	Interior	1,844	32	0	476	20	0	2,372
Totals		8,792	1,254	1,218	12,469	1,957	805	26,495

chi-square = 11,925.1, df = 35, $p < .001$

Interior group (402 Vancouver/74 Interior). In the informal structure, the Vancouver group used all three media more than the Interior group with face-to-face (1,950 Vancouver/745 Interior) used more than telephone (580 Vancouver/25 Interior), and telephone used more than mail (61 Vancouver/31 Interior).

The player level was primarily dominated by face-to-face interaction in both structures and in both geographical locations. In the formal structure the Interior group used face-to-face more than the Vancouver group (1,276 Vancouver/ 1,844 Interior) and the reverse was obtained in the informal structure with the same medium (1,069 Vancouver/476 Interior). The Vancouver group used the telephone, in both structures, more frequently than the Interior group (138 Vancouver/32 Interior, formal and 230 Vancouver/20 Interior, informal), and neither group used the mail, except very rarely (no times formally, and only two times informally).

The sub-total media frequencies indicated an overwhelming use of face-to-face interaction in both the formal and informal structures, in fact more than twice the sum of the other two media. In the formal structure the use of the telephone and mail was very similar, but in the informal structure the telephone was used twice as frequently as the mail. The equality of telephone and mail use, however, has to be tempered with the contribution to the mail sub-total of the Vancouver executive group (1,096 frequencies out of a sub-total of 1,218). If those 1,096 mail frequencies were

omitted, then the mail medium would have been used relatively infrequently.

Problem (Part b)

The second part of the problem was: to determine the degree of involvement at the different levels of membership (supra, p. 5). Two dimensions of involvement were measured in the investigation: behaviour and attitude (supra, p. 70).

Behavioural Involvement

Members' behavioural involvement was measured by the number of hours a month they were involved in activity directed toward volleyball during the 1978-79 season. To facilitate the analysis and to use the frame of reference of the study, behavioural involvement data were converted using the nominal categories of "not committed" and "committed". The mean number of hours per month of all 63 respondents, was the demarcation point for the categories. Those members whose monthly behaviours were below the mean of 78.2 hours, were considered to be "not committed". Those members with above mean behaviours were considered "committed". Thus, the involvement of members, measured by behaviour, was relative.

Table VI shows behavioural involvement, hierarchical level, and geographical location (chi-square = 8.1, df = 7, $p > .05$). The null hypothesis tested was that there were no

Table VI

Monthly Behavioural Involvement, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Behavioural Involvement: Not Committed	Behavioural Involvement: Committed	Totals
Executive	Vancouver	6	8	14
	Interior	2	1	3
Representative	Vancouver	1	1	2
	Interior	2	2	4
Coach	Vancouver	5	5	10
	Interior	7	3	10
Player	Vancouver	6	4	10
	Interior	8	2	10
Totals		37	26	63

chi-square = 8.1, df = 7, $p > .05$

differences between the hierarchical levels, and geographical locations, in the commitment of members. Since the value of chi-square was not within the .05 significant level set for the analysis, the null hypothesis was accepted: either there were no differences or the cell values could have occurred by chance. This acceptance of the null hypothesis was adjudged to have been influenced by the low observed frequencies in many of the cells in the contingency table, even though Yates' correction for continuity was applied (see Table XXII, Appendix D, infra, p. 159). Accordingly, and on the assumption that it was the differentiation by geographical location which caused the low values. Table VII was collapsed into a 2 x 4 contingency table, but this procedure made no change in the acceptance of the null hypothesis. It was evident that the hierarchical level and geographical location variables did not influence the commitment of members. There were "committed" and "not committed" members in each geographical location and at each hierarchical level; enough of both to indicate the acceptance of the fact that there were no differences between the populations.

Attitudinal Involvement

Attitude was measured by a seven-point semantic differential, and the mid-point of the scale, 4, indicated indifference. Respondents who scored themselves as indifferent or dissatisfied on the scale were considered to

be "not committed". Those who scored themselves as satisfied were considered to be "committed". Table VII shows attitudinal involvement, using the "not committed"-"committed" categories, by hierarchical level and geographical location (chi-square = 15.5, df = 7, $p < .05$, see Table XXIII, Appendix D, infra, p. 160).

At the executive level, geographical location did not influence commitment and there were only two executive members who were not committed (two "not committed"/12 "committed", Vancouver, and none "not committed"/three "committed", Interior). At the representative level, the Vancouver group were equally distributed about the demarcation point with one "not committed" and one "committed", whereas all of the Interior group (four) were "committed". Among the coaches, four were "not committed" and six were "committed" in the Vancouver group, and three were "not committed" and seven were "committed" in the Interior group, indicating that geographical location made no difference. At the player level, five were "not committed" and five were "committed" in Vancouver, but in the Interior, seven were "not committed" and only three were "committed", evidence that at this level geographical location made a difference.

Overall, there were more "committed" respondents (41) than "not committed" (22) and all but three of the "not committed" respondents were either coaches or players. Thus, the greater proportions of "committed" respondents were at the upper levels and vice versa. In addition,

Table VII

Attitudinal Involvement, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Attitudinal Involvement: Not Committed	Attitudinal Involvement: Committed	Totals
Executive	Vancouver	2	12	14
	Interior	0	3	3
Representative	Vancouver	1	1	2
	Interior	0	4	4
Coach	Vancouver	4	6	10
	Interior	3	7	10
Player	Vancouver	5	5	10
	Interior	7	3	10
Totals		22	41	63

chi-square = 15.5, df = 7, $p < .05$

geographical location influenced commitment only at the representative and player levels.

Attitude and Power Positions

Power positions were defined in the frame of reference as those positions whose incumbents regularly had access to means of power, (supra, p. 15) and the term is relative. Hierarchical levels were adjusted to reflect these power positions, and in the B.C.V.A. the executive, representative and coach levels were categorized as elites, and the player level as lower participants. Table VIII shows power positions and attitudinal involvement, differentiated in an identical manner as that above: "not committed" and "committed". Behavioural involvement was not used because of its omission from the concept of congruent relationships (cf. Ftzioni, 1961). Using Table VIII, the value of chi-square was 8.1 ($df = 1$, $p < .01$, see Table XXIV, Appendix D, infra, p. 161) and the null hypothesis was rejected. Of the elites, 33 were "committed" and ten were "not committed" and of the lower participants, twelve were "not committed" and eight were "committed", indicating that more of the elites were "committed" and more of the lower participants were "not committed". There was, then, a relationship between power position and attitudinal involvement.

Table VIII

Attitudinal Involvement and Power Positions

Power Positions	Attitudinal Involvement		Totals
	Not Committed	Committed	
Elites	10	33	43
Lower Participants	12	8	20
Totals	22	41	63

chi-square = 8.1, df = 1, $p < .01$

Problem (Part c)

The final part of the problem was: to determine any relationship between the degree of involvement and the predominant structure at different levels of membership (supra, p. 6). In doing so, the two major dimensions of provincial sport associations were coupled together. Predominant structure was determined by the results of Table III, in which structure usage was either more formal than informal, or more informal than formal, at the different hierarchical levels and geographical locations. Table III indicated that both geographical groups at the executive and representative levels, in addition to the Vancouver group at the coach level, used the informal structure more than the formal structure (a total of 33 respondents), and the Interior group at the coach level and both geographical groups at the player level (total of 30 respondents) used a predominantly formal structure.

Behavioural Involvement and Predominant Structure

Table IX shows behavioural involvement ("not committed" and "committed", categorized as above), predominant structure (formal or informal), and geographical location. There were no significant differences between the two structures, nor geographical locations, in behavioural involvement (chi-square = 4.2, df = 3, $p > .05$, see Table XXV, Appendix D, infra, p. 162). Thus, behavioural involvement was similar in Vancouver and the Interior, and

Table IX

Monthly Behavioural Involvement, Predominant Structure, and Geographical Location

Predominant Structure	Geographical Location	Behavioural Involvement		Totals
		Not Committed	Committed	
Informal	Vancouver	12	14	26
	Interior	4	3	7
Formal	Vancouver	6	4	10
	Interior	15	5	20
Totals		37	26	63

chi-square = 4.2, df = 3, $p > .05$

similar whether the formal or informal structure was used predominantly.

Attitudinal Involvement and Predominant Structure

Table X shows attitudinal involvement ("not committed" and "committed", categorized as above), predominant structure (formal or informal), and geographical location. The null hypothesis was rejected when a chi-square value of 8.7 was obtained ($df = 3$, $p < .05$, see Table XXVI, Appendix D, infra, p. 163): there were differences between the two structures, and geographical location, in attitudinal involvement. Of those using a predominantly informal structure, seven were "not committed" and 19 were "committed" in the Vancouver group, and none were "not committed" and seven were "committed" in the Interior group. In the Vancouver location, however, the differences did not depart significantly from the expected, but those of the Interior location did; evidence that geographical location had some influence on attitudinal involvement, but that the informal structure predominancy had none.

With a predominantly formal structure, the Vancouver and Interior groups were split equally between "not committed" and "committed" (five "not committed"/five "committed", Vancouver, and ten "not committed"/ten "committed", Interior). This indicated that neither geographical location nor the use of a predominantly formal structure influenced attitudinal involvement.

Table X

Attitudinal Involvement, Predominant Structure, and Geographical Location

Predominant Structure	Geographical Location	Attitudinal Involvement: Not Committed	Attitudinal Involvement: Committed	Totals
Informal	Vancouver	7	19	26
	Interior	0	7	7
Formal	Vancouver	5	5	10
	Interior	10	10	20
Totals		22	41	63

chi-square = 8.7, df = 3, $p < .05$

This chapter presented the results of the study and the analysis of data, and it was structured in terms of the three parts of the problem under investigation: structure, involvement, and structure and involvement. The results of the applications of chi-square tests were given, but the reader was directed to Appendix D for a more detailed analysis. The data which were presented served as indicators to manifested behaviours present during the 1978-79 volleyball season and were seen as empirical translations of the abstract concepts used in the frame of reference.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this, the final, chapter, the results of the investigation are discussed. The frame of reference and the review of related literature are utilized in the discussion, and the insights of the investigator gained during the collection of data were used to interpret the results. The discussion is presented under the headings of structure, media, impediments, direction, power positions, and conclusion. Within each one propositions are formulated.

Structure

The B.C.V.A. was conceptualized as possessing two structures: a formal structure which was based on the division of labour and designed to implement the objectives of the Association; and an informal structure which was based on interpersonal relationships and which, further, complemented the formal structure. Communication was used as a tool in the investigation to identify the two structures, since the B.C.V.A., or any organization, is essentially a set of binary relations (cf. Blocker, et al., 1964; Conrath and Johnson, 1972). However, the method used

to identify the structures could not describe them, mathematically nor pictorially, but could describe their use, purpose, and strength. Structure is an abstraction which defies an easy representation, although some studies have achieved limited success through the use of techniques such as network analysis (cf. Bavelas and Barrett, 1951). With an organization of the size of the B.C.V.A. this is an unrealistic technique, especially if the geographic dispersement of members is considered.

Within the B.C.V.A. the two structures were used by different hierarchical levels in different ways. The informal structure was used more frequently by the executive and representative levels, and the formal structure more frequently by the coach and player levels, with an overall more frequent use of the informal structure. The B.C.V.A. was not an economic organization, and as such, did not rely on many of the modern management techniques which emphasize efficiency or effectiveness. The use of the informal structure at the "administrative" levels of the Association implied, firstly, that the managing of the organization was of secondary importance since it did not function according to the expressed design, and secondly, that the B.C.V.A. was not really in the business of producing highly skilled, competitive athletes. This latter point is a crucial one for the Association's future. The individual member is treated as a person at present, and, should the B.C.V.A. wish to become more efficient and

effective through its existing formal structure, the membership must decide whether treating each other in such a manner is more advantageous than treating each other as functionaries. There is a danger that a "business mentality", so prevalent in many of the major sports in North America, could change the spirit of the B.C.V.A. and result in members becoming disillusioned. At present, skilled athletes are produced in spite of the administration level's non-business-like approach, and are more the product of dedicated coaches.

The use of the informal structure at the upper hierarchical levels and the use of the formal structure at the lower levels has a third facet. It was evident that all of the respondents were highly motivated individuals who were extremely enthusiastic about the game of volleyball. However, their energies were utilized only in rare instances for the administration of the B.C.V.A. and its programmes of development and competition. Two situations were manifested. The vast majority of volleyball in British Columbia was played by club or school teams and coaches contributed their efforts to their teams or locales. They had complete autonomy in their own situations and the volleyball scene at the player and coach levels was characterized by small "pockets" of high volleyball interest scattered about the province. It was in these "pockets" that the formal structure was used most frequently, as coaches and players interacted. The B.C.V.A. did not

interfere or have any control over the behaviours in the "pockets" except when teams competed in B.C.V.A. sanctioned tournaments.

In addition there was manifested a general level which transcended the autonomous "pockets". At this level, which included the district representatives, executive officers, and provincial coaches, the emphasis was on provincial obligations. The B.C.V.A. provided an opportunity for highly skilled players from the "pockets" to compete nationally and internationally, and did so on a formal basis, i.e., as the design expressed. However, it was in the co-ordinating and organizing of development and competition, internally, that the use of the informal structure was more frequent than the formal structure. Further, it was the interaction between and within "pockets" and between the transcended provincial level and the "pockets" which actually constituted the structure of the B.C.V.A. It operated as a "grass-roots" organization, using informal interaction. It was a <u>community</u> of like-minded individuals, whose interaction within a "pocket" was formal and informal, and whose interaction between "pockets" was informal (see Appendix B).

<u>Propositions (Structure)</u>

1.0 Voluntary sport organizations, such as the B.C.V.A., primarily use an informal organization structure.

1.1 The primary emphasis in the administration of a provincial sport association is the sport of the

association; management is of secondary importance.

1.1.1 Provincial sport associations treat their members as individuals and not as functionaries.

1.2 Provincial sport associations are comprised of two levels: a base level, made up of players and coaches; and a co-ordinating level, made up of base level members who serve as administrators.

Media

The strength of the formal and informal structures was implicit in the media used to communicate and the frequency of that use. For example, face-to-face and telephone media allowed interpersonal contact and a large exchange of information per unit time, whereas the mail medium was relatively impersonal, required several days for an exchange of information, and took a long time to prepare the communication. Thus, a relationship which was based on face-to-face interaction was stronger than one which relied on the mail. Similarly, a relationship in which the two parties communicated once a week was stronger than one in which interaction occurred only once a month.

Conrath and Johnson (1972) stated that the formal structure utilized all three media, with an emphasis on mail, while the informal structure utilized face-to-face and telephone media, with no utilization of the mail medium. Their statement concerning the formal structure was only confirmed at the executive level, and that concerning the informal structure was confirmed for face-to-face and

telephone media but not for the mail medium. In this investigation the primary medium used in the formal structure was face-to-face, at all hierarchical levels except the executive, in which the mail medium was used as frequently as face-to-face. In contrast, the telephone was used far less frequently at all levels, and, disregarding the executive level use, a similar situation existed for the mail medium. In the informal structure, face-to-face was again the primary medium used, with a secondary, but far less frequent, use of the telephone. The mail medium was used in the informal structure, but relatively infrequently. It was concluded, therefore, that the face-to-face medium was very important in the operationalization of the B.C.V.A. The implications of this will become evident.

It has already been stated that most of the behaviour in the B.C.V.A. occurred within scattered "pockets". Let us consider a coach in one of these "pockets" and attempt to build a profile of typical media use. The coach is a teacher in a medium-sized town situated in the interior of British Columbia. He has a girls' team which practises for two hours every night and he takes them to one two-day tournament every other weekend. He never communicates with his players by mail, because he sees them so often; and only telephones them infrequently, whenever there is a change of practice time or venue, again because he sees them so often. He does use the telephone, however, to communicate with other coaches in his "pocket";

for the purpose of arranging a game for example. He will also meet the other coaches, either at school events or at games. They usually have much in common and often spend time, whenever they meet, talking about volleyball. Within the "pocket", then, the structures are very strong, predicated as they are on frequent face-to-face interaction. However, communicating outside of the "pocket" requires an effort on the part of the coach. If he is lucky, the school telephone, which he was allowed to use for local calls, can also be used for long-distance calls (all calls outside of the "pocket" are long-distance). If this is not the case, he has to use his home telephone and try to have the bills paid by his club. Usually, he only uses the telephone for outside communication when he needs a very quick response to a question he cannot answer himself. Otherwise he would use the postal service; it takes longer, but it is cheaper.

He meets other members of the B.C.V.A. from outside of the "pocket" either when his team competes in another "pocket", or when other teams come to his. Teams compete in tournaments, the primary competitive form in the B.C.V.A., and the coach spends a great deal of time away from home, travelling to and from one of the tournaments, competing in games, and waiting for his games to begin. His time waiting is not wasted, however, since he knows many other coaches, executive officers, district representatives, players, and referees, present at the same tournament, and he talks to

them about volleyball. It is, in fact, at the many tournaments that the various members have an opportunity, through face-to-face, personal interaction, to influence each other. This, then, is how the coach uses the media available to him: regularly face-to-face, telephone for a quick solution to a problem, and mail when he has the time to wait for a reply. Within his "pocket" the structures are strong, but between his "pocket" and others they are relatively weak.

The executive level had three aspects of media use which differed from the typical profile. Firstly, the executive level met once a month as a hierarchical level to make decisions concerning the administration of the B.C.V.A., i.e., the transcended provincial level. Not all executive officers attended since some were hindered by distance and others may have had work commitments, but a quorum was usually present. In theory, all executive officers were invited to attend and this made it a media use peculiar to the executive level. Secondly, the executive communicated with the remainder of the membership, regularly, through the mail. As a hierarchical level, they used a newsletter to inform members of activity which had occurred in the immediate past or which was scheduled in the immediate future, at the provincial, national, or international level. This use was also peculiar to the executive level, although other levels could contribute to the newsletter; in practice this occurred very infrequently. Lastly, the executive

level often communicated with other levels to enlist aid for a programme or project in need of volunteers. This was almost always done with face-to-face or telephone media: the mail medium was rarely used. The rationale for this was the product of many disappointing experiences and provided an insight into the predominant use of the face-to-face medium. The mail was not used because it was too impersonal and was usually thrown away; telephone and face-to-face contact made it very difficult for the person being asked, to say "no", especially when facial expressions could be seen; and the only way to raise enthusiasm was through interpersonal contact. This facet of media use, however, was not peculiar to the executive level, but was used in the other levels as effectively.

Propositions (Media)

2.0 In a voluntary sport organization, face-to-face is the most important medium for the operationalization of the organization.

2.1 In a voluntary sport organization, face-to-face interaction is preferred to telephone interaction, and telephone interaction is preferred to mail interaction.

2.1.1 In a voluntary sport organization, the telephone is only used when time is of the essence and the individuals concerned cannot meet.

2.2 Local structures are stronger than provincial ones because of more frequent face-to-face interaction.

Impediments

According to Delbecq (1977), proximity and

similarities of personality, were factors which affected interpersonal choice in communication. This was confirmed by this investigation, although the converse was more visible; the lack of proximity and the dissimilarities of personality and work hindered interpersonal choice in communication. Other restrictions, not as evident as proximity, were imposed by the division of labour and the leisure-time operation of the organization. None, however, were as restrictive as proximity.

Proximity

Proximity was used as a moderating variable in the study, termed "geographical location". As the results have indicated, it influenced the frequency of communication and one characteristic of each geographical location was responsible--density. In the Interior geographical location the members were scattered over a very large area of the province. The density was very low. To compete, many teams spent up to 15 hours travelling to tournaments, or two hours by aeroplane if they could afford it. For many members, this hindered face-to-face interaction in both the formal and informal structures, and similarly hindered the frequent use of the telephone. The investigator travelled to most of the "pockets" in the Interior region and experienced the isolation felt by many members: to visit all respondents involved travelling 4,500 miles. For the isolated members, then, there was a temptation, and often a

necessity, to remain within their "pocket", or to travel to only those tournaments which were realistically accessible. Often, time and money outweighed the desire to compete.

In direct contrast, the Vancouver geographical location was a densely populated area. There were, consequently, more opportunities for interaction because teams resided in such close proximity. The density of each area, then, was relative. Teams in neither geographical location, however, showed a propensity for extended travel. While the problem of financial resources was common to teams in both locations, they viewed travelling time with different perspectives. Interior teams were accustomed to travelling, and they were aware of its necessity in order to compete, but there were limits beyond which they were not prepared to go. For the Vancouver teams, it was the inconvenience of travel and the time it consumed. They could compete more easily within their own area and often omitted Interior tournaments from their schedules.

The effects of proximity showed very clearly in the predominant use of the informal structure by the Vancouver group at the coach level. In terms of the functions and activities there were no differences between coaches in the Interior and those in Vancouver, and it would have been expected that both groups would have used the same primary structure. They did not. The Interior group used the formal structure more frequently and the Vancouver group the informal structure more frequently. The

difference was due to the density of each geographical location. Informal interaction was facilitated in the Vancouver location by the proximity of members, and hindered by the lack of proximity in the Interior location. Thus, proximity contributed to the use of the informal structure.

A post-hoc analysis of the data revealed that at all hierarchical levels the communication within a geographical location was significantly greater than the communication without. Table XI shows this data (chi-square = 2,819.8, df = 3, $p < .001$, see Table XXVII, Appendix D, infra, p. 164). The executive and coach levels communicated without their geographical locations to a greater extent than the other two levels, indicating that the executive level (3,787 without/5,928 within) were the key communicators for co-ordinating and administrating the organization at the transcended provincial level and that the second most important communicators, province-wide, were the coaches (1,521 without/7,581 within). Table XI also highlighted the positions of representatives, in that they interacted more within their location than without (88 without/2,503 within), indicating that they were relatively autonomous in their responsibilities. However, the very low frequency of without communication implied that the representatives did not act as a link between the members and the executive; this is an important point and will be discussed later in the chapter. The player level frequencies (445 without/4,642 within)

Table XI

Communication Within and Without Geographical Locations by Hierarchical Level

Hierarchical Level	Without Communication	Within Communication	Totals
Executive	3,787	5,928	9,715
Representative	88	2,503	2,591
Coach	1,521	7,581	9,102
Player	445	4,642	5,087
Totals	5,841	20,654	26,495

chi-square = 2,819.8, df = 3, $p < .001$

reinforce the point made above concerning the tendency to restrict competition to a team's own location.

Personality

Delbecq (1977) suggested that personality influenced interpersonal choice but in this study the personality of members, often revealed during the post-collection-of-data conversations, had little influence on interpersonal choice. This was based on impressions and not on quantitative data, and would bear further investigation. However, there was only one respondent interviewed, about whom it could have been said that the personality of the member influenced the frequency of communication. That respondent was contacted very infrequently by peers and other hierarchical levels. All of the other respondents had attractive qualities which precluded ostracism by other members, although the investigator may have only glimpsed the best facet of each.

Division of Labour

Katz and Kahn (1966) suggested that the division of labour restricted communication within an organized social group. This was confirmed by this study, although it was difficult to determine when the influence of proximity ended and the influence of the division of labour began. Generally, however, members interacted in the formal structure with those whose functions were closely related to their own. For example, a coach would interact with his players, other coaches, and with his district representative.

A similar pattern was also evident in the informal structure, since informal interaction was often a result of previous formal interaction. This facilitated the use of the informal structure on the one hand, but restricted interaction to only those members who were known previously on the other. Thus, a coach would rarely interact informally with players, coaches, district representatives, and executive officers if they were not known to him through previous formal contact. In addition, the effort required to communicate in the formal and informal structures over long distances was often so great that interaction occurred only between those members who were very closely linked in the formal structure and who had to interact as a matter of the organizational design. For example, a provincial coach never communicated with his players unless he was forced to by circumstances, such as a forthcoming development camp. The division of labour, then, restricted interaction in the formal structure and this in turn facilitated, through familiarity, interaction in the informal structure.

Intermittency

The impediments discussed above limited the interactions of members and, thus, the functioning of the organization. When the impediments were considered with the fact that most respondents only engaged in organizational activity during their leisure hours (i.e., none-work hours), the resultant intermittency in the functioning of the

organization restricted the efficiency of the B.C.V.A. All respondents except one, the Technical Development Co-ordinator, were volunteers and when a comparison of their behaviours with those of the non-volunteer was made, it was evident that the non-volunteer was a vital communicator and administrator. He was able to accomplish more, in less elapsed time, than the volunteers. His position, then, was crucial to the B.C.V.A. in terms of the efficiency of the activity since he facilitated the functioning of the organization. In fact, at the time of the investigation his position was adjudged to be indispensable to the B.C.V.A.

Another factor resulting in the intermittent functioning of the organization was the cyclical nature of competitive volleyball. Not only were there periods of intense and less intense activity within the volleyball season, but also throughout the calendar year. Pre-tournament exhibition periods, tournament periods, and championship periods involved different intensities of behaviour during the season, and development camps and various tours by foreign teams contributed intense activity during the out-of-season period. All of these cyclical behaviours influenced the frequency of interaction--the more intense the behaviour, the more frequent the interactions--and the intermittency of the functioning of the organization; the more cyclical the activity, the more intermittent the functioning of the organization.

Propositions (Impediments)

3.0 In a voluntary sport organization, the restriction of interaction results in the intermittent functioning of the organization.

3.1 Proximity facilitates interaction.

3.1.1 Geography is the most restrictive factor in interaction in a provincial sport association.

3.2 The division of labour restricts interaction in the formal structure and both facilitates and restricts interaction in the informal structure.

3.3 Voluntarism restricts organizational behaviour.

Direction

The direction of structure use was seen as a crucial element in the involvement of members and the functioning of the organization. The results of the investigation showed that the use of both the formal and informal structures was primarily vertical at the executive, representative, and coach levels, and primarily horizontal at the player level. Furthermore, a post-hoc analysis of the data revealed that with vertical use, the primary direction was downward. Table XII shows this data with vertical use differentiated by upward and downward direction (chi-square = 14,858.5, df = 6, $p < .001$, see Table XXVIII, Appendix D, infra, p. 165). This result confirmed Etzioni's (1961) statement that for the effective performance of a normative organization, communication should be downward in the main. His suggestion that it should also be expressive was confirmed by the primary use of the informal structure

Table XII

Communication by Vertical Upward, Vertical Downward, and Horizontal Direction by Hierarchical Level

Hierarchical Level	Vertical Upward	Vertical Downward	Horizontal	Totals
Executive	0	8,869	846	9,715
Representative	85	2,452	54	2,591
Coach	231	7,033	1,838	9,102
Player	428	0	4,659	5,087
Totals	744	18,354	7,397	26,495

chi-square = 14,858.5, df = 6, $p < .001$

at the upper hierarchical levels in conjunction with the data shown in Table XII. Etzioni's (1961) reasoning for the use of the downward direction and type of communication was that norms and organizational goals were better transmitted in that direction using controls compatible with voluntarism. However, this conflicts with Barber's (1950) thesis, that voluntary organizations inevitably became oligarchical, since a corollary of Etzioni's (1961) statement was that downward expressive communication made no provision for internal democracy. The membership delegated authority to the executive on the understanding that the membership's wishes would be enacted, and to preclude any reciprocal communication invited the destruction of internal democracy. However, both Etzioni (1961) and Barber (1950) did not consider the use made by the informal structure in the controls exerted by the membership.

It has been stated above that the majority of the interactions which were reported in this investigation were informal and face-to-face, and, while the results of Table XII indicated that the organization was oligarchical, the nature of the primary interactions (informal and face-to-face) gave an opportunity for those in a subordinate hierarchical level to influence those in a superordinate hierarchical level. The subordinate level, then, transmitted its norms, expectations, and goals unconsciously to those members whose decisions affected the functioning of

organization. This was particularly true of lower hierarchical level members who were given status by the exhibition of their competence. They were heard with great respect and were often sought for advice, in the informal structure. Such transmissions, however, were not unilateral but multi-lateral and resulted in the negotiation and renegotiation of goal consensus found by Bratton (1970) in his study of national and provincial volleyball associations.

In the B.C.V.A., then, the informal structure augmented, and often supplanted, the formal structure, and in the process unified the organization, rewarded participants, and contributed to the internal democracy. This refuted Barber's (1950) contention that oligarchy was inevitable in a voluntary organization, and further evidence was provided by the interactions of Vancouver members. The aspect of predominantly vertical and downward use of both structures was essentially a question of whether such oligarchy by the executive level in general, and the 14 Vancouver executive officers (of a provincial total of 17 executive officers) in particular, was due to the geography of British Columbia? The fact that <u>all</u> Vancouver respondents at <u>all</u> hierarchical levels showed more interaction among themselves added weight to the conclusion that if the geography factor was eliminated the organization would not appear as oligarchical. It was also evident, that in the formal design someone, or a few, should be given authority to administer the organization

for the benefit of the many and it was this delegation of authority which was oligarchical. However, the autonomy of the various "pockets" and the use of the informal structure to transmit influence upward rendered the oligarchy label inconsequential.

This refutation was also reflected in the behavioural and attitudinal involvement results. There were no significant differences in the number of hours per month of activity directed toward volleyball for the various hierarchical levels and, in terms of attitude, only the Interior location players showed any significant differences in commitment. This latter finding confirmed the importance of geography and was, further, explained by the inability of many players in the Interior to finance their own travel, since all were of school age. Similarly, when comparing involvement and the predominant structure used at any hierarchical level, the influences of neither structure showed any significant differences, but geographical location did contribute in the use of a predominantly informal structure use. None of the Interior group were "not committed" when the informal structure was used more frequently.

The abstraction of involvement was treated as "apathy" in this investigation, but the results indicated that apathetic behaviour and apathetic attitude (i.e., "not committed") were inconsistent with each other. A member could have been very apathetic in his attitude yet contribute

many hours to activity directed toward volleyball, and vice versa. It was evident from the interviews that the differences between behaviour and attitude were reflected in the two-tier composition of the B.C.V.A.: a base level and a transcended provincial level. Respondents who were "not committed" in attitude were apathetic toward the transcended provincial level, but not toward the base level as was shown by their behaviour at that level. This orientation accounted for the inconsistencies between attitude and behaviour and was a result of geography, lack of financial resources, and the failure of district representatives to act as links between the membership at the base level and the transcended provincial level. This latter point, referred to earlier in the chapter, reflected a fundamental dilemma for the district representatives. They were usually very dynamic individuals, highly competent coaches, and extremely busy people. They did not have time to interact frequently on a regular basis with the executive level and, further, had no mechanism, apart from informal interaction, within their districts to determine the wishes of their "charges". In every case, the districts were so large that to spend the time canvassing their "charges" would have resulted in less time available for their other activities. Essentially, they acted as transmittors of information, from the executive level to the coach and player levels: they were the representatives of the executive level, not the general membership level. They

would have been more effective had they been pure administrators instead of being coaches, administrators, contact persons and, often, players. Their time was divided between too many functions.

A common phrase heard during the investigation was "burned out". This referred to a member, usually at the levels higher than player, who had contributed intense behaviour to the sport and who had, literally, over-extended his energies. When a member became "burned out", his activity within the B.C.V.A. decreased dramatically and he was "on his way out". The cause of "burned out" was often the neglect in his personal life of non-volleyball activity and his family. The rewards he received from volleyball were not as great as the effort he had expended, and pressure from non-volleyball influences caused him to withdraw from the B.C.V.A. However, after several interviews with several "burned out" members, it was determined that their contributions could have been continued if they had not taken so much on themselves.

Propositions (Direction)

4.0 In a voluntary sport organization the formal structure is oligarchical, but internal democracy is maintained through the use of the informal structure.

4.1 In a provincial sport association, geography hinders involvement at higher hierarchical levels more than does apathy.

4.1.1 A member of a provincial sport association is committed to the sport of the organization.

Power Positions

To this point in the chapter, the various behaviours which were manifested in the informal and formal structures, as well as the involvement of respondents, have been discussed. It is now necessary to bring that discussion into sharp focus by using the concept of power positions and its application within Etzioni's (1969) typology of compliance relationships (supra, p. 16).

In this study, it was shown that when respondents interacted, socialization and other phenomena, such as goal consensus, occurred. In terms of power, this was the manipulation of symbolic rewards as control was effected, consciously or otherwise, in the normative B.C.V.A. These symbolic rewards are termed the power-means (cf. Etzioni, 1969:60) and their allocation forms one half of a compliance relationship. Usually, such use of power-means was covert within the Association since tradition and the rules of the organization were implicitly accepted by all respondents when they assumed membership. There were, then, two types of normative power exhibited in the B.C.V.A.: one, termed pure normative power, was based on the allocation of esteem and prestige, and was manifested in vertical relationships; the other, termed social power, was based on acceptance and positive responses, and occurred in horizontal relationships. As the results have indicated, vertical relationships were prominent at the executive, representative, and coach levels

and it must, therefore, be concluded that pure normative power was exhibited in those relationships. In addition, the results indicated that horizontal relationships were prominent at the player level and it is concluded that the power exhibited at that level was social. Furthermore, the top three hierarchical levels, exhibiting pure normative power, were classified in the analysis as elites, and the bottom hierarchical level, exhibiting social power, was classified as lower participants.

In a normative organization such as the B.C.V.A., there is a congruent compliance relationship when normative power is used and committed [cf. also Etzioni's "moral" involvement] involvement is exhibited (the diagonal cases 1, 5, and 9 of Etzioni's typology of compliance relationships are congruent, see Table I, supra, p. 16). As the results showed, there was a relationship between commitment and power position: elites were more committed and lower participants were less committed. These involvement results, the other half of a compliance relationship, combined with the type of power used, produced both congruent and incongruent relationships. Firstly, elites were committed and they exhibited normative power, which logically leads to a congruent compliance relationship. This could have been due to the socialization potential inherent and utilized in informal, face-to-face interaction, but this was not determined with a high degree of surety. Secondly, it was expected that lower participants would have also been

committed since they exhibited social power, another dimension of normative power. However, this did not occur; the lower participants were not committed and many were, in fact, indifferent or alienated. At this level, then, there was an incongruent compliance relationship.

The corollary of these congruent and incongruent compliance relationships is that, since congruence produces effectiveness, the B.C.V.A. had the correct conditions at the executive, representative, and coach levels for the effective functioning of the organization, and, that conditions were not correct at the player level. The question raised, now, is what was causing the incongruence at the player level? A review of the data, both quantitative and anecdotal, revealed that the most likely causes were geography, the lack of pure normative power (vertical communication), or the position in the hierarchy. All can be translated into "few rewards", but it was determined that the three likely causes could not be differentiated in terms of which contributed the most to the incongruence. Given that these were the only causes, the implication for the future is that the B.C.V.A. should obtain a congruent compliance relationship at the player level, but which likely cause can be changed? Geography will always be a factor in hindering interaction, so that cannot be changed. The position in the hierarchy is similarly unchangeable for, although a player may become a coach, there must always be players. The only cause remaining is the lack of

pure normative power, which can be changed. In the investigation, socialization was occurring at the player level, by peers more than superordinates. Goals, norms, and other phenomena were transmitted, but not those of the organization. To effect a congruent compliance relationship, pure normative power must be utilized; manipulated by superordinates instead of peers. Communication must be more vertical at the player level.

Conclusion

This study confirmed Hopkins' (1961) thesis that both Weber (trans. Henderson and Parsons, 1947) and Barnard (1938) were correct--organizations are power and communication structures. It, further, refuted Barber's (1950) contention that oligarchy was inevitable in a voluntary organization, since the informal structure supplanted the formal structure and maintained internal democracy.

It was appropriate to apply and test general theories of organizations in a sport organization context and the theories of Barnard (1938), Simon (1976), and Etzioni (1969) were particularly useful. The approach to the study of sport organizations taken in this investigation was "the development of theories through inductive generalizations of connections found in the gathered data" (Hoyle, 1971:91), and, while this thesis is not a theory, the propositions explicated can be used to formulate one.

Finally, a profound question, recurrent in classical literature, was posed in Chapter II (supra, p. 59): as Society becomes more Gesellschaft, more impersonal, and more bureaucratic, can the individual retain Gemeinschaft relationships? This question can, now, be answered. The B.C.V.A., representative of provincial sport associations in British Columbia, exhibited an esprit-de-corps and was a true community of like-minded individuals. Contrasted with the Kafka-like organizations in the modern world, and particularly with sport organizations which treat individuals as functionaries, the members of the B.C.V.A. maintained their integrity and participated in their sport for sport's sake. The individual can retain Gemeinschaft relationships.

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APPENDIX A

PROVINCIAL SPORT ASSOCIATIONS OF BRITISH COLUMBIA, 1979.

PROVINCIAL SPORT ASSOCIATIONS IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

Archery
Badminton
Baseball
Basketball
Bicycling
Bowling
Canoeing
Cricket
Curling
Diving
Fencing
Field Hockey
Figure Skating
Football
Golf
Gymnastics
Handball
Hang Gliding
Hockey
Horse Owners
Horseshoe Pitchers
Judo
Karate
Kendo
Lacrosse
Lawn Bowling
Lawn Tennis
Modern Pentathlon
Mountaineering
Netball
Orienteering
Parachuting
Racquetball
Ringette
Rowing
Rugby
Sailing
Shooting Sports
Skiing
Soccer
Softball
Speed Skating
Squash
Summer Swimming
Swimming
Synchronized Swimming
Table Tennis
Team Handball
Track and Field
Underwater Hockey
Volleyball
Waterpolo
Water Skiing
Weightlifting
Wrestling

Source: The Government of the Province of British Columbia, Sports and Fitness Branch of the Recreation and Fitness Division, 1979.

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

ATTITUDE INSTRUMENT

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

A. Introduction

Begin with general conversation to put the respondent at ease. Try to get him talking about himself, especially his positions with the B.C.V.A. Explain the purpose of the study in general terms.

B. Communication

1. In your capacity as _____, who did you contact on a regular basis during the 1978-79 volleyball season?
2. Let us now take each of the people whom you have just named. Will you describe each contact?
   a) which media did you use (face-to-face, telephone, mail)?
   b) how often (per week, per month, per year) did you contact these people using each medium?
   c) why did you initiate contact?
   d) what was the content of the communication?
3. These contacts are official or formal. Will you, now, name the people whom you contacted unofficially or informally on a regular basis during the same time period (explain in more detail if necessary, and give examples of activities which would be considered informal at his hierarchical level)?
4. Will you describe each of these informal contacts in the same manner as the formal ones (remind him of the questions if necessary)?

C. Involvement

1. How many hours (per week, per month) are you involved in volleyball? Can you divide that time into hours per week or month for each activity (e.g., participating, coaching, travelling, or tournaments for example)?
2. Here is a scale (show semantic differential). How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the operation of the B.C.V.A. with your overall perspective as _____ (name positions of respondent)?

The respondent will, more than likely, expand on his reasons for choosing the score. If he does not, ask him to explain his reasons.

Turn the conversation to the future, or to experiences, and gain an impression of the respondent's personality, status, and feelings.

Thank the respondent, reassure him of his anonymity in the study, and tell him that he will receive a copy of the final results.

The interview should proceed naturally, and the schedule outlined here serves as a guide. In this manner, the flow of conversation is not inhibited. It is recommended that the interviewer know his questions comprehensively so that they may be asked at a time when to do so would not disturb the pattern established. Indeed, to fit the pattern it might even be necessary to alter the wording of a question to suit the situation.

An expansion of the terms "formal" and "informal" (supra, p. 69), here, will aid in the coding of the collected data. The respondent does not have to be informed of the difference between "formal" and "informal", rather, he should be allowed to describe his relationships in communication terms. The two kinds of communication can be differentiated by the researcher, after the interview. An operational example of formal and informal communication, using a coach, will help. A coach interacts formally when he arranges games, practices, trips, or accommodation for his players; when he competes with other teams; when he practises with his players; and when he contacts any other member in his position as a coach. He interacts informally when he meets other members at a non-volleyball event; when he attends a social event with other members; and when he interacts as a person and not in his position as a coach.

A communication event occurs when a relationship between two or more members is activated by one of the members initiating communication via face-to-face, telephone, or mail media. The duration of the event may be of any time period, and a regular communication event occurs once a month or more frequently. In this manner, regular communication events were used to describe typical relationships existing between two or more members.

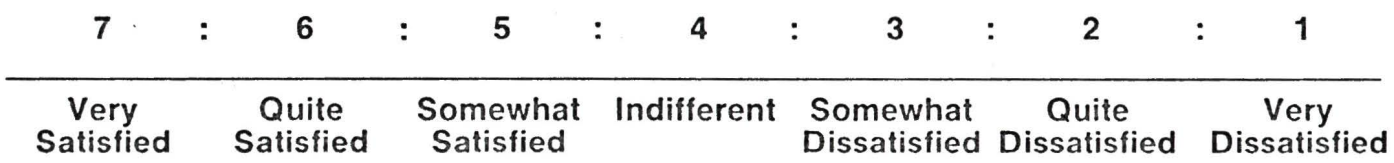

Figure 4

Attitude: Degree of satisfaction with the operation of the B.C.V.A.

APPENDIX C

INDIVIDUAL QUANTITATIVE DATA CARDS

INDIVIDUAL QUANTITATIVE DATA CARDS

Hierarchical level:_____ Name:_____

Geographical group:_____ Position(s):_____

	Face-to -Face	Telephone	Mail	Total
Formal				
Informal				
Formal up				
Formal down				
Formal horizontal				
Informal up				
Informal down				
Informal horizontal				

Behaviour _____ hours per month

Attitude 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (circle one)

APPENDIX D

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This Appendix contains a detailed analysis of the data collected during the investigation. The contingency tables in the application of chi-square tests are presented and, in the case of those tables involving structure usage data, a brief explanation of the two hypotheses tested is given below.

1. Null hypothesis #1 (H_o) was that there were no differences between hierarchical levels and geographical groups in their use of the formal and informal structures for actual usage, direction, and media. The expected frequencies were calculated using the observed sub-totals ([column sub-total frequency x row sub-total frequency] ÷ total frequency). The calculation of chi-square, therefore, used the proportions of the sub-totals to the total as a method of calculating the expected frequencies. All tables in this Appendix contain the observed frequencies (fo), the expected frequencies (fe), and the contribution of chi-square (χ^2) for each cell. Where $p < .05$ the null hypothesis was rejected and it was thus determined that the total frequency apportioned as it was in each cell, could not have occurred by chance alone: some other factor must have been causing the effect. The question was--was it the differences in the numbers of respondents in each geographical location at each hierarchical level which was causing the significant value of chi-square? If it was, then that was an effect worth noting, and its cause could be determined from similarities in the anecdotal and quantitative data. If it was not, the

effect was also noteworthy and perhaps the data could have revealed the actual cause of the differences.

2. To determine the influence of the different numbers of respondents in each geographical location at each hierarchical level the expected frequencies were changed to reflect a new null hypothesis (H_{01}): there were no differences between the geographical locations at each hierarchical level. The expected frequencies were under the constraints of the actual data in each cell and were calculated by adding the two cells comprising a hierarchical level in each column, dividing the sum by the number of respondents in each geographical location. Simply put, the expected frequencies were the observed frequencies summed and divided into the same proportions as the numbers of respondents in each geographical location. If the contributions of pairs of cells differentiated by geographical location were equal and low, then H_{01} was accepted in those cases, and the differences in those cells using H_0 was due to the numbers of respondents, or chance.

The reader is directed to the mean monthly usage tables which contain essentially the same information as the H_{01} tables, in simpler form. However, chi-square was not applied to the mean monthly usage tables and only apparent and not statistical significant differences or similarities can be discerned.

The occurrence of "0's" in some of the tables of this Appendix tended to confound the results. Yates'

correction for continuity (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285) was applied in those instances, in addition to those observed frequencies which were fewer than five. Further chi-square tests were applied after a frequency of five had been added to each cell in those tables which had "0's" or frequencies fewer than five. The rationale for this latter technique was that only the differences were of interest to the investigator, not the frequencies, in the use of chi-square.

Table XIII

The Analysis of the Monthly Structure Usage by Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure fo	Formal Structure fe	Formal Structure χ^2	Informal Structure fo	Informal Structure fe	Informal Structure χ^2
Executive	Vancouver	2,574	3,790.5	390.4	6,342	5,125.4	288.7
	Interior	40	339.7	264.4	759	459.3	195.5
Representative	Vancouver	140	516.9	274.9	1,076	699.0	203.3
	Interior	60	584.6	470.7	1,315	790.4	348.1
Coach	Vancouver	2,700	2,483.2	18.9	3,141	3,357.8	14.0
	Interior	2,460	1,386.4	831.4	801	1,874.6	614.9
Player	Vancouver	1,414	1,154.2	58.5	1,301	1,560.8	43.2
	Interior	1,876	1,008.4	746.4	496	1,363.6	552.0

chi-square = 5,315.3, df = 7, $p < .001$

Table XIV

The Analysis of the Monthly Structure Usage by Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location: Equalized for the Numbers of Respondents in Each Geographical Group

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure fo	Formal Structure fe	Formal Structure χ^2	Informal Structure fo	Informal Structure fe	Informal Structure χ^2
Executive	Vancouver	2,574	2,152.7	82.5	6,342	5,847.9	41.7
	Interior	40	461.3	384.8	759	1,253.1	194.8
Representative	Vancouver	140	66.6	80.9	1,076	797.0	97.7
	Interior	60	133.3	40.3	1,315	1,594.0	48.8
Coach	Vancouver	2,700	2,580.0	5.6	3,141	1,971.0	694.5
	Interior	2,460	2,580.0	5.6	801	1,971.0	694.5
Player	Vancouver	1,414	1,645.0	32.4	1,301	898.5	180.3
	Interior	1,876	1,645.0	32.4	496	898.5	180.3

chi-square = 2,797.1, df = 7, $p < .001$

Table XV

Mean Monthly Structure Usage by Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure	Informal Structure
Executive	Vancouver	183.8	453.0
	Interior	13.3	253.0
Representative	Vancouver	70.0	538.0
	Interior	10.0	328.7
Coach	Vancouver	270.0	314.1
	Interior	246.0	80.1
Player	Vancouver	141.4	130.1
	Interior	187.6	49.6

Table XVI

The Analysis of Monthly Structure Usage by Direction, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure						Informal Structure					
		Vertical			Horizontal			Vertical			Horizontal		
		fo	fe	χ^2	fo	fe	χ^2	fo	fe	χ^2	fo	fe	χ^2
Executive	Vancouver	2,159	2,547.0	59.1	415	1,243.4	552.0	5,985	3,879.7	1,142.4	357	1,245.8	634.1
	Interior	22	228.3	186.4	18	111.4	78.3	703	347.7	363.1	56	111.6	27.7
Representative	Vancouver	140	347.4	123.8	0	169.6	170.6[1]	1,070	529.1	552.9	6	169.9	158.1
	Interior	60	392.8	282.0	0	191.8	192.8[1]	1,267	598.3	747.3	48	192.1	108.1
Coach	Vancouver	2,499	1,668.6	413.2	201	814.6	462.2	2,151	2,541.6	60.0	990	816.1	947.3
	Interior	2,365	931.6	2,205.5	95	454.8	284.6	249	1,419.0	964.7	552	455.6	20.4
Player	Vancouver	164	775.6	482.3	1,250	378.6	2,005.3	54	1,181.4	1,075.9	1,247	379.4	1,984.5
	Interior	160	677.6	395.4	1,716	330.8	5,800.4	50	1,032.1	934.6	446	331.4	39.6

[1]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

= 23,454.2, df = 21, $p < .001$

Table XVII

The Analysis of Monthly Structure Usage by Direction, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Location: Equalized for the Numbers of Respondents in Each Geographical Group

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure						Informal Structure					
		Vertical			Horizontal			Vertical			Horizontal		
		fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2
Executive	Vancouver	2,159	1,796.1	73.3	415	356.6	9.6	5,985	5,507.8	41.3	357	340.1	.8
	Interior	22	384.9	342.1	18	76.4	44.7	703	1,180.2	193.0	56	72.9	3.9
Representative	Vancouver	140	66.6	80.9	0	0.0	0.0[1]	1,070	779.0	108.7	6	18.0	8.0
	Interior	60	133.3	40.3	0	0.0	0.0[1]	1,267	1,558.0	54.4	48	36.0	4.0
Coach	Vancouver	2,499	2,432.0	1.8	201	148.0	19.0	2,151	1,200.0	753.7	990	771.0	62.2
	Interior	2,365	2,432.0	1.8	95	148.0	19.0	249	1,200.0	753.7	552	771.0	62.2
Player	Vancouver	164	162.0	0.0	1,250	1,483.0	36.6	54	52.0	0.0	1,247	846.5	189.5
	Interior	160	162.0	0.0	1,716	1,483.0	36.6	50	52.0	0.0	446	846.5	189.5

chi-square = 3,130.6, df = 21, $p < .001$

[1]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285). The constraint of using the actual data to calculate the expected frequencies resulted in the "0" chi-square values.

Table XVIII

Mean Monthly Structure Usage by Direction, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Direction

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure		Informal Structure	
		Vertical	Horizontal	Vertical	Horizontal
Executive	Vancouver	154.2	29.6	427.5	25.5
	Interior	7.3	6.0	234.3	18.6
Representative	Vancouver	70.0	0.0	535.0	3.0
	Interior	15.0	0.0	316.7	12.0
Coach	Vancouver	249.9	20.1	215.1	99.0
	Interior	236.5	9.5	24.9	55.2
Player	Vancouver	16.4	125.0	5.4	124.7
	Interior	16.0	171.6	5.0	44.6

Table XIX

The Analysis of the Monthly Structure Usage by Media, Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure									Informal Structure								
		Face			Telephone			Mail			Face			Telephone			Mail		
		fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2
Executive	Vancouver	990	2,958.7	1,309.9	488	422.0	10.3	1,096	409.9	1,148.4	5,639	4,196.0	496.2	688	658.6	1.3	15	270.9	241.7
	Interior	4	265.1	257.2	27	37.8	3.0	9	36.7	20.9	748	376.0	368.0	11	59.0	39.1	0	24.3	25.3[1]
Representative	Vancouver	68	403.5	279.0	50	57.6	1.0	22	55.9	20.6	787	572.3	80.6	244	89.8	264.7	45	36.9	1.8
	Interior	0	456.3	457.2[1]	43	65.0	7.5	17	63.2	33.8	1,055	647.1	257.1	159	101.6	32.9	101	41.8	84.0
Coach	Vancouver	2,256	1,938.3	52.1	402	276.5	57.0	42	268.5	191.1	1,950	2,748.9	232.2	580	431.4	51.2	611	177.5	1,059.1
	Interior	2,354	1,082.1	1,494.9	74	154.3	41.8	32	149.9	92.7	745	1,534.7	406.3	25	240.9	193.5	31	99.1	46.8
Player	Vancouver	1,276	900.9	156.1	138	128.5	.7	0	124.8	125.8[1]	1,069	1,277.7	34.1	230	200.5	4.3	2	82.5	79.5[1]
	Interior	1,844	787.1	1,419.1	32	112.3	57.4	0	109.0	110.0[1]	476	1,116.3	367.3	20	175.2	137.5	0	72.1	73.1

chi-square = 11,925.1, df = 35, $p < .001$

[1]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

Table XX

The Analysis of the Monthly Structure Usage by Media, Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location: Equalized for the Number of Respondents in Each Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure									Informal Structure								
		Face			Telephone			Mail			Face			Telephone			Mail		
		fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2	fo	fe	x^2
Executive	Vancouver	990	818.6	35.9	488	424.1	9.6	1,096	910.0	38.0	5,639	5,259.9	27.3	688	575.6	21.9	15	12.4	.5
	Interior	4	175.4	167.5	27	90.8	44.9	9	195.0	177.4	748	1,127.1	127.5	11	123.4	102.3	0	2.6	3.6[1]
Representative	Vancouver	68	22.6	91.2	50	31.0	11.6	22	13.0	6.2	787	614.0	48.7	244	134.3	89.6	45	48.7	.3
	Interior	0	45.3	46.3[1]	43	62.0	5.8	17	26.0	3.1	1,055	1,228.0	24.4	159	268.7	44.8	101	97.3	.1
Coach	Vancouver	2,256	2,305.0	1.0	402	238.0	113.0	42	37.0	.7	1,950	1,347.5	269.4	580	302.5	254.6	611	321.0	262.0
	Interior	2,354	2,305.0	1.0	74	238.0	113.0	32	37.0	.7	745	1,347.5	269.4	25	302.5	254.6	31	321.0	262.0
Player	Vancouver	1,276	1,560.0	51.7	138	85.0	33.0	0	0.0	0.0[2]	1,069	772.5	113.8	230	125.0	88.2	2	1.0	.3[1]
	Interior	1,844	1,560.0	51.7	32	85.0	33.0	0	0.0	0.0[2]	476	772.5	113.8	20	125.0	88.2	0	1.0	.3[1]

chi-square = 3,503.9, df = 35, p <.001

[1]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

[2]Yates' correction for continuity applied but the constraints of using the actual data to calculate the expected frequencies resulted in the "0" chi-square values.

Table XXI

Mean Monthly Structure Usage by Media, Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Formal Structure			Informal Structure		
		Face	Telephone	Mail	Face	Telephone	Mail
Executive	Vancouver	70.7	34.8	78.3	402.8	49.1	1.1
	Interior	1.3	9.0	3.0	249.3	3.7	0.0
Representative	Vancouver	34.0	25.0	11.0	393.5	122.0	22.5
	Interior	0.0	10.8	4.3	263.8	39.8	25.3
Coach	Vancouver	225.6	40.2	4.2	195.0	58.0	61.1
	Interior	235.4	7.4	3.2	74.5	25.0	3.1
Player	Vancouver	127.6	13.8	0.0	106.9	23.0	.2
	Interior	184.4	3.2	0.0	47.6	2.0	0.0

Table XXII

The Analysis of Monthly Behavioural Involvement, Hierarchical Level, and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Behavioural Involvement[1] Not Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Totals
Executive	Vancouver	6	8.2	.6	8	5.7	.9	14
	Interior	2	1.8	.0[2]	1	1.2	2.3[2]	3
Representative	Vancouver	1	1.2	.4[2]	1	.8	.1[2]	2
	Interior	2	2.3	.3[2]	2	1.7	.0[2]	4
Coach	Vancouver	5	5.9	.1	5	4.1	.2	10
	Interior	7	5.9	.2	3	4.1	.6[2]	10
Player	Vancouver	6	5.9	.0	4	4.1	.1[2]	10
	Interior	8	5.9	.7	2	4.1	1.6[2]	10
Totals (fo)		37			26			63

chi-square = 8.1, df = 7, $p > .05$

[1]Not commited = below mean of 78.2, committed = above mean of 78.2.

[2]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

Table XXIII

The Analysis of Attitudinal Involvement, Hierarchical Level and Geographical Location

Hierarchical Level	Geographical Location	Attitudinal Involvement[1] Not Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Totals
Executive	Vancouver	2	4.9	2.4[2]	12	9.1	.9	14
	Interior	0	1.0	2.2[2]	3	2.0	.1[2]	3
Representative	Vancouver	1	.7	.0[2]	1	1.3	.4[2]	2
	Interior	0	1.4	2.6[2]	4	2.6	.3[2]	4
Coach	Vancouver	4	3.5	.0[2]	6	6.5	.0	10
	Interior	3	3.5	.3[2]	7	6.5	.0	10
Player	Vancouver	5	3.5	.6	5	6.5	.3	10
	Interior	7	3.5	3.5	3	6.5	1.9[2]	10
Totals (fo)		22			41			63

chi-square = 15.5, df = 7, $p < .05$

[1]Not committed = indifferent or dissatisfied (score of 4 or fewer on semantic differential), committed = satisfied (score of 5 or more on semantic differential).

[2]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

Table XXIV

The Analysis of Attitudinal Involvement and Power Positions

Power Positions	Attitudinal Involvement: Not Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Totals (fo)
Elites	10	15.0	1.7	33	28.0	.9	43
Lower Participants	12	7.0	3.6	8	13.0	1.9	20
Totals (fo)	22			41			63

chi-square = 8.1, df = 1, $p < .01$

Table XXV

The Analysis of Monthly Behavioural Involvement
Predominant Structure, and
Geographical Location

Predominant Structure	Geographical Location	Behavioural Involvement[1] Not Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Committed fo	fe	χ^2	Totals (fo)
Informal	Vancouver	12	15.2	.7	14	10.7	1.0	26
	Interior	4	4.1	.1[2]	3	2.9	.1[2]	7
Formal	Vancouver	6	5.9	.0	4	4.1	.1[2]	10
	Interior	15	11.7	.9	5	8.3	1.3	20
Totals		37			26			63

chi-square = 4.2, df = 3, $p > .05$

[1]Not committed = below mean of 78.2, committed = above mean of 78.2.

[2]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

Table XXVI

The Analysis of Attitudinal Involvement, Predominant Structure, and Geographical Location

Predominant Structure	Geographical Location	Attitudinal Involvement[1] Not Committed fo	fe	x^2	Committed fo	fe	x^2	Totals (fo)
Informal	Vancouver	7	9.1	.5	19	16.9	.3	26
	Interior	0	2.4	3.5[2]	7	4.5	1.3	7
Formal	Vancouver	5	3.5	.7	5	6.5	.4	10
	Interior	10	7.0	1.3	10	13.0	.7	20
Totals (fo)		22			41			63

chi-square = 8.7, df = 3, $p < .05$

[1]Not committed = indifferent or dissatisfied (score of 4 or fewer on semantic differential), committed = satisfied (score of 5 or more on semantic differential).

[2]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

Table XXVII

The Analysis of Communication Within and Without Geographical Location by Hierarchical Level

Hierarchical Level	Without Communication			Within Communication			Totals (fo)
	fo	fe	χ^2	fo	fe	χ^2	
Executive	3,787	2,141.7	1,263.9	5,928	7,573.3	357.4	9,715
Representative	88	571.2	408.8	2,503	2,019.8	115.6	2,591
Coach	1,521	2,006.6	117.5	7,581	7,095.4	33.2	9,102
Player	445	1,121.4	408.0	4,642	3,965.5	115.4	5,087
Totals (fo)	5,841			20,654			26,495

chi-square = 2,819.8, df = 3, $p < .001$

Table XXVIII

The Analysis of Communication by Vertical Upward, Vertical Downward, and Horizontal Direction by Hierarchical Level

Hierarchical Level	Vertical Upward			Vertical Downward			Horizontal			Totals (fo)
	fo	fe	χ^2	fo	fe	χ^2	fo	fe	χ^2	
Executive	0	272.8	273.8[1]	8,869	6,729.9	680.0	846	2,713.0	1,284.8	9,715
Representative	85	72.8	2.0	2,452	1,794.9	240.6	54	723.6	619.6	2,591
Coach	231	255.6	2.4	7,033	6,305.3	84.0	1,838	2,541.8	194.9	9,102
Player	428	142.8	569.2	0	3,523.9	3,524.9[1]	4,659	1,420.6	7,382.3	5,087
Totals (fo)	744			18,354			7,399			26,495

chi-square = 14,858.5, df = 6, $p < .001$

[1]Yates' correction for continuity applied (Popham and Sirotnik, 1967:285).

APPENDIX E

RAW DATA

RAW DATA

The raw data are arranged as media and direction frequencies for formal and informal structure usage, behaviour, and attitude. Each hierarchical level data are presented and the Interior group respondents are indicated by an asterisk. Structure usage data are arranged as: formal/informal.

Executive Level

Subject	Face	Telephone	Mail	Vertical Up	Vertical Down	Horizontal	Behaviour	Attitude
1	20/734	64/192	234/0	0/0	313/924	5/7	151	5
2	38/380	27/53	7/0	0/0	58/406	14/27	180	6
3	15/80	21/0	0/0	0/0	0/80	36/0	40	6
4	779/40	156/0	9/0	0/0	824/0	120/40	252	7
5	13/240	5/0	803/0	0/0	792/240	29/0	39	6
6	34/1077	104/73	9/0	0/0	62/1094	85/56	336	5
7	8/740	8/192	0/0	0/0	0/896	16/36	166	5
8	16/27	17/4	0/0	0/0	0/26	33/5	40	6
9	0/304	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/304	0/0	28	5
10	14/625	20/56	0/0	0/0	0/651	34/30	132	5
11	12/256	13/28	34/0	0/0	55/195	4/89	84	3
12	20/382	16/57	0/10	0/0	26/422	10/27	70	6
13	13/268	37/31	0/0	0/0	29/291	21/8	118	5
14	8/486	0/2	0/0	0/0	0/456	5/32	47	3
15*	0/278	0/5	0/0	0/0	0/255	0/28	38	6
16*	1/41	17/0	3/0	0/0	11/40	10/1	92	5
17*	3/429	10/6	6/0	0/0	11/408	8/27	33	5

Representative Level

Subject	Face	Telephone	Mail	Vertical Up	Vertical Down	Horizontal	Behaviour	Attitude
18	66/408	50/237	20/45	32/28	104/662	0/0	96	5
19	2/379	0/7	2/0	4/3	0/377	0/6	48	2
20*	0/448	36/154	16/101	4/8	48/695	0/0	102	5
21*	0/19	5/2	0/0	1/0	4/21	0/0	4	5
22*	0/304	1/0	1/0	2/0	0/276	0/28	80	6
23*	0/284	1/3	0/0	0/3	1/264	0/20	60	5

Coach Level

Subject	Face	Telephone	Mail	Vertical Up	Vertical Down	Horizontal	Behaviour	Attitude
24	125/37	17/12	9/0	1/24	119/20	31/5	32	5
25	100/4	0/0	0/0	0/0	100/0	0/4	24	6
26	612/422	257/309	29/609	4/20	868/818	26/502	436	6
27	44/312	3/63	0/0	7/0	40/312	0/63	44	7
28	167/195	0/0	0/0	0/0	105/145	62/50	100	4
29	100/42	0/2	0/0	0/4	100/0	0/40	12	3
30	179/367	95/7	1/2	3/36	264/218	8/122	103	3
31	144/139	0/180	1/0	1/5	144/200	0/114	100	3
32	717/384	26/4	2/0	7/58	668/260	70/70	180	6
33	68/48	4/3	0/0	0/3	68/28	4/20	20	5
34*	168/12	5/2	0/0	0/4	168/0	5/10	40	6
35*	192/10	0/0	0/0	0/0	192/0	0/10	32	5
36*	264/43	0/0	0/0	0/20	264/0	0/23	62	3
37*	150/150	16/0	0/0	0/0	150/150	16/0	40	2
38*	240/404	0/15	0/26	0/12	240/0	0/433	61	1
39*	340/24	2/1	1/0	2/1	340/0	1/24	80	5
40*	252/61	0/5	0/5	0/13	252/38	0/20	178	6
41*	144/2	2/0	0/0	0/0	144/0	2/2	34	7
42*	364/19	42/2	30/0	5/0	367/11	64/10	72	6
43*	240/20	7/9	1/0	1/0	240/0	7/20	80	6

Player Level

Subject	Face	Telephone	Mail	Vertical Up	Vertical Down	Horizontal	Behaviour	Attitude
44	136/164	20/8	0/2	60/24	0/0	96/150	52	6
45	524/102	8/120	0/0	52/8	0/0	480/214	175	4
46	88/16	14/0	0/0	12/0	0/0	90/16	20	6
47	88/35	96/0	0/0	24/0	0/0	160/35	28	4
48	128/120	0/40	0/0	8/0	0/0	120/160	80	5
49	128/120	0/40	0/0	8/0	0/0	120/160	80	5
50	32/78	0/16	0/0	0/12	0/0	32/82	92	6
51	28/80	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	28/80	12	3
52	36/264	0/0	0/0	0/0	0/0	36/264	12	4
53	88/90	0/6	0/0	0/10	0/0	88/86	32	3
54*	64/8	28/0	0/0	8/8	0/0	84/0	10	7
55*	240/80	0/0	0/0	20/0	0/0	220/80	30	3
56*	208/10	0/0	0/0	16/0	0/0	192/10	32	4
57*	240/35	0/0	0/0	20/0	0/0	220/35	80	4
58*	240/20	0/0	0/0	20/0	0/0	220/20	80	5
59*	286/5	0/0	0/0	22/0	0/0	264/5	40	4
60*	64/16	0/0	0/0	8/0	0/0	56/16	10	6
61*	240/96	0/0	0/0	20/0	0/0	220/96	21	4
62*	110/54	0/20	0/0	10/42	0/0	100/32	36	3
63*	152/152	4/0	0/0	16/0	0/0	140/152	40	2

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STRUCTURE AND INVOLVEMENT IN A VOLUNTARY SPORT ORGANIZATION

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