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Organizational Culture Beyond Consensus and Clarity: Narratives From Elite Sport

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24 **Abstract**

25 In sport psychology, organisational culture is usually depicted as shared, consistent, and clear
26 — the glue that holds people together so they can achieve success. There is, however, growing
27 discontent in sport psychology with this idea of culture and extensive critiques in other
28 academic domains that suggest this perspective is limited. Accordingly, we draw on narrative
29 interviews with participants (n=7) from different areas of sport and use Martin and Meyerson's
30 (1988, 1992) three perspective (integration, differentiation, fragmentation) approach to culture
31 alongside thematic analysis to reconstruct three 'ideal cases' that exemplify each perspective.
32 The findings emphasise a different pattern of meaning in each actors' narrative and suggest the
33 need to develop a broader, more inclusive concept of culture, so as not to minimise or dismiss
34 cultural content that is not obviously shared, clear or created by leadership; a course of action
35 that can enhance both research and practice in the area.

36 *Keywords: subculture, conflict, organisational culture, applied practice, interpretation*

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49 **Organisational Culture Beyond Consensus and Clarity: Narratives from Elite Sport**

50 An understanding of organisational culture (and other levels of analysis, such as team and
51 performance department culture) is now regularly outlined as an essential component to sport
52 psychology delivery in elite environments (e.g., Cruickshank & Collins, 2012; Cruickshank et
53 al., 2013, 2014, 2015; Eubank, Nesti, & Cruickshank, 2014; Fletcher & Arnold, 2011;
54 Henriksen, 2015; McDougall & Ronkainen, 2019; Nesti, 2010; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie,
55 2018, 2019). The value of obtaining expertise in culture is that, firstly, it can equip sport
56 psychologists to better understand the realities of complex organisational domains and
57 relationships that exist within them (Nesti, 2010; McDougall et al., 2019). Secondly, it is
58 argued that culture knowledge enables sport psychologists to work effectively in a broader
59 organisational capacity and contribute to culture change or optimisation, so that performance
60 excellence is achieved (Cruickshank & Collins, 2012; Eubank et al., 2014; Henriksen, 2015).
61 In a similar vein, Wagstaff and Burton-Wylie (2018) recently argued that given a convergence
62 of research and applied themes in sport psychology (e.g. UK Sport health checks across all
63 Olympic teams), sport psychologists ought to be compelled to further their understanding of
64 culture.

65 In spite of this recent growth of attention and debate, sport psychologists – especially
66 in comparison to other academic disciplines – have generally elided the academic study of
67 organisational culture (McDougall, Nesti, Richardson, & Littlewood, 2017; McDougall,
68 Ronkainen, Richardson, Littlewood, & Nesti, 2019; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018).
69 Consequently, “sport psychologists have some catching up to do in terms of understanding
70 organizational culture” (Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018, p. 49), and need to broaden their
71 cultural horizons to research and practice more effectively in this domain of expertise
72 (McDougall et al., 2019). For instance, interpretations of culture in sport psychology are almost
73 exclusively constructed through the lens of integration. In this presentation of culture, key

74 assumptions are that consistency, group-wide consensus and clarity exemplify culture so that
75 it is only really understood in terms of what is obviously shared among group members.
76 Consequently, culture is framed as an integrating mechanism or social ‘glue’ (Champ, Nesti,
77 Ronkainen, Tod, & Littlewood, 2018; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018) through which all
78 cultural members hold or come to share the same basic assumptions, values and practices (e.g.,
79 Cruickshank, et al., 2013, 2014, 2015; Henriksen, 2015). In other disciplines interested in
80 organisational culture (e.g., organisation and management studies, sport management) this
81 view of culture has also come to dominate the research landscape (Martin, 2002; Maitland,
82 Hills, & Rhind, 2015). In sport management, for example, in an influential review of
83 organisational culture literature, Maitland and colleagues (2015) reviewed 33 studies and found
84 23 of them used the integration perspective to understand and study culture; “viewing culture
85 as something that is clear, not ambiguous” (Maitland et al., 2015, p. 8) or “like a solid monolith
86 that is seen the same way by most people, no matter from which angle they view it” (Martin,
87 2002, p. 94, as cited in Maitland, et al., 2015).

88 The integration perspective has formed the foundation of organisational culture
89 scholarship in sport psychology even if it has been subject to severe critique on ontological,
90 epistemological, and empirical grounds across several other domains (e.g., anthropology,
91 sociology and organisational and management studies) (cf. Alvesson, 2002; Archer, 1985;
92 Martin, 1992, 2002; Maxwell, 1999; Meek, 1988; Ortner, 2005; Smircich & Calás, 1987).
93 Broadly, scholars from a range of academic traditions have argued that this position represents
94 a theoretical and methodological restriction of the culture concept, because it only includes (or
95 at least privileges) what is shared and consistently understood¹ (cf. Alvesson, 2002; Martin,
96 2002; Meek, 1988; Ortner, 2005). The integration perspective discounts and discredits what is

¹ It should be noted that the integration perspective is most commonly tied to what is shared among the group, but there are some exceptions to this common treatment; that is, not all integration scholars follow the idea that culture is only really defined and understood in terms of what is shared (cf. Martin, 2002).

97 not shared as not cultural or of less cultural importance, thus marginalising other worldviews,
98 value systems and cultural identities (Martin, 2002; Ortner, 2005). This tendency often results
99 in empirical studies capturing the more obvious, less remarkable and easier to detect (shared)
100 patterns of culture (Martin, 2002). Moreover – and in contrast to the arguments and implicit
101 suggestions of those who either expressly or implicitly hold the integration perspective – many
102 organisational culture scholars have asserted a lack of empirical support for any relationship
103 between the integration culture perspective and group performance (e.g., Alvesson, 2002;
104 Gregory, Harris, & Armenakis, & Shook, 2009; O’ Reilly III, Caldwell, Chatman, & Doerr,
105 2014; Siehl & Martin, 1990). For Martin (2004), what the integration position actually offers
106 is “a seductive promise of harmony and value homogeneity that is empirically unmerited and
107 unlikely to be fulfilled” (p. 7). Similarly, in sociology, Margaret Archer described the
108 problematic, all-pervasive ‘Myth of Cultural Integration’ and unflinchingly reiterated the claim
109 that the myth is “one of the most deep-seated fallacies in all social science” (Etzioni, cited in
110 Archer, 1985, p. 8).

111 There are also clear practical implications of adopting the integration position. Over-
112 adherence to the integration perspective can mean downplaying, dismissing or
113 misunderstanding other types and sources of sport culture content that are not shared, clear,
114 homogenised or coherent (McDougall et al., 2019; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018). Similarly,
115 it has already been noted in sport management literature that without a more inclusive, multi-
116 dimensional conceptualisation of culture, the complexity of day-to-day cultural life as
117 experienced by coaches, managers, and athletes with marginalised identities or lower status
118 and authority is potentially excluded (Girginov, 2006). In sum, it is clear that in order for sport
119 psychologists to make fuller use of the concept of culture, it cannot be restricted to only to a
120 set of shared concepts, symbols, beliefs, practices and community understandings.

121 How then, can culture be conceptualised, studied, and operationalised if not through
122 the lens of integration? Recent reviews and commentary in sport management (Maitland et al.,
123 2015) and sport psychology (McDougall et al., 2017 Nesti, Richardson, & Littlewood, 2017;
124 McDougall et al. 2019; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018) have suggested Martin and
125 Meyerson's (Martin, 1992, 2002; Martin & Meyerson, 1988; Meyerson & Martin, 1987) three
126 perspective approach to culture as an alternative. The three perspective approach, in addition
127 to considering what is shared and integrated also includes attention to what is contested and
128 ambiguous. At the time of writing, however, no study in sport psychology (to our knowledge)
129 has utilised this framework in empirical research.

130 The aim of this study is, therefore, to use these three perspectives to explore the cultural
131 understanding of social actors in elite sport through complementary lenses of integration (what
132 is shared and consistent), differentiation (what is contested), and fragmentation (what is
133 ambiguous) (Meyerson & Martin 1987; Martin, 1992; Martin, 2002). Building upon our
134 previous critique of the integration perspective (1st author et al.), we aim to show how other
135 conceptual lenses can help uncover different phenomena of the cultural life in sport that have
136 important implications for sport psychologists working in sport organisations. The following
137 research questions guided our inquiry:

- 138 (1) What patterns of meaning are held by social actors in sport contexts, and
139 consequently, how can culture be conceptualised by sport psychologists?
- 140 (2) What are the research and applied implications of such theorisations of culture?

141 **Martin and Meyerson's Three Perspective Approach**

142 Organisational scholars Joanne Martin and Deborah Meyerson developed the three perspective
143 approach over a body of work to distinguish between researcher perspectives of integration
144 (what is shared), differentiation (what is contested), and fragmentation (what is unclear and
145 ambiguous) (e.g., Martin, 1992, 2002; Martin & Meyerson, 1988; Meyerson & Martin, 1987).

146 In addition to the integration perspective already discussed, they suggested that in the
147 differentiation perspective, rather than being a source of order and integration, culture is
148 characterised by a lack of consensus (Martin, 1992, 2002). Studies from this perspective “focus
149 on cultural manifestations that have inconsistent interpretations” (Martin, 2002, p. 101). In
150 comparison to the integration view, less influence is attributed to leaders and their assessment
151 of what the culture *is* (Martin, 2002, 2004). Instead, differentiation researchers often privilege
152 and report subcultural conflicts, issues of power, and differences between stated attitudes and
153 actual behaviours (Martin, 2002; Smerek, 2010). It therefore naturally challenges the premise
154 that culture is singular (i.e., there is only one culture per group) and monolithic (i.e., it looks
155 the same no matter the angle) and alternatively offers a more pluralistic view of culture (Martin,
156 2002; McDougall & Ronkainen, 2019; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018). For differentiation
157 researchers, culture, more accurately, is a collection, or nexus of overlapping subcultures.
158 These may be formed on the basis of any number of factors related to occupation, role or
159 hierarchy; demographics such as those relating to race, class, age, ethnicity, gender; or even
160 based on the amount of personal contact, friendships or beliefs about leadership actions and
161 decision-making (Martin, 2002; McDougall, et al., 2015).

162 The fragmentation perspective differs from both the integration and differentiation
163 orientations with regard to the way ambiguity is treated. Integration and differentiation
164 perspectives both minimise the experience of ambiguity, which in this sense includes “multiple,
165 contradictory meanings” and “paradoxes, ironies, and irreconcilable tensions” (Martin, 2002,
166 p.110). From a fragmentation perspective, both integration and differentiation perspectives are
167 oversimplifications that fail to capture the complexity of contemporary organisational or group
168 life (Martin, 2002). Fragmentation scholars, therefore, adopt what they feel is a more realistic
169 stance: proposing that culture is neither clearly consistent nor inconsistent, placing ambiguity
170 rather than clarity or conflict at the cultural core (Martin, 2002). With ambiguity centralised as

194 external force or entity that can be studied through the means of gathering ‘objective’ facts, but
195 refers more to cultural symbolic phenomena that people interpret and ascribe meaning to
196 (Alvesson, 2002; Geertz, 1973; Maxwell, 2012). Culture is thus a way to think about, interpret
197 and understand certain aspects of the social world (Geertz, 1973; Yanow & Ybema, 2009) and
198 as a network of meaning, ‘non-mechanically’ guides thinking, feeling and acting (Alvesson,
199 2002).

200 While interpretivism is usually equated with a relativist ontology (reality is multiple,
201 created and mind-dependent) and epistemological constructionism (knowledge is constructed
202 and subjective) (e.g., Smith & Sparkes, 2008), Packard (2017) pointed out that this common
203 portrayal is inaccurate since most interpretivists do not subscribe to a relativist ontology and
204 the view that “reality is merely in the eye of the beholder” (p. 540). Rather, interpretivists
205 wrestle with difficult issues of subject-object, celebrate the permanence of the real world, and
206 try to access it by centralising first-person experience and subjectivity (Schwandt, 1994). This
207 suggests the usefulness of obtaining accounts (interpretations) of culture from individuals in
208 culture research and that the aggregation of multiple points of view (cf. Wagstaff & Burton-
209 Wylie, 2018) (a practice that conceivably prejudices the researcher towards consensus anyway)
210 is not the only means of analysing or representing culture(s). Indeed, the use (often selectively)
211 of ‘insider’ informants who can comment on the social life and constructed meanings of a
212 particular group has long been standard practice in anthropology (cf. Geertz, 1973; Wright, as
213 cited in Schein et al., 2015). We are cognisant then, that while culture is a group process and
214 phenomenon, it is also experienced and understood personally. Moreover, the position outlined
215 here also maintains realist undertones, in that we assume that participant narratives are not
216 simply constructions of the mind but have the capacity to reflect the realities of their personal
217 experiences and that “there is a congruent relationship between talking about life . . . and
218 actually living that life” (Crossley, 2000, p. 155). Although agreeing with Martin that there is

219 no such thing as an “integrated culture” or a “fragmented culture” (2002, p. 156) per se, and all
220 cultures have features of each perspective, this realist view challenges Martin’s well-
221 documented assertion that the three perspectives outlined are *only* a means for the researcher
222 to view culture without any significant ontological implications.³

223 This study also draws extensively from narrative theory and methods as a way to
224 explore the meaning(s) of organisational experience (Rhodes & Brown, 2005). From a
225 narrative perspective, people *are* storied beings (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) and because
226 they can never be separated from the cultures and cultural influences that surround them
227 (Geertz, 1973), culture is inevitably interwoven into the fabric of the narratives that people and
228 groups create for themselves. Consequently, the “stories individuals tell of their lives offer
229 insights into the cultural settings in which they are immersed” (Carless & Douglas, 2013, p.
230 701). In line with such rationales and building on the premise that stories have ontological
231 significance within organisations (Smircich & Morgan, 1982), storied approaches have often
232 been used as a means to explore organisational experience (Rhodes & Brown, 2005). Because
233 stories contain and demonstrate subjective meaning-making, while at the same time claiming
234 to represent reality, they are far more than just mere chronologies or fictions (Gabriel, 2004).
235 Stories therefore uniquely illuminate organisational life from the point of view of thinking,
236 feeling, agentic social actors and allow for the experiential study of phenomena that together
237 constitute organisational life, including culture (cf. Gabriel, 1998; Rhodes & Brown, 2005).
238 Like other symbolic cultural forms, however, stories can mean different things to different
239 people. They require interpretation and deciphering, in part, because they convey deep and
240 layered meaning, and not only the mundane, the everyday and the obvious (Gabriel, 2000). For
241 instance, and importantly, for this study — which deals in culture beyond consensus and

³ Interested readership may find Taylor, Irvine, and Wieland (2006) helpful for considering some ontological issues and challenges attached to the three perspective approach, while Ronkainen and Wiltshire (2019) is useful for a more focused and thorough framing of realist positioning in relation to sport psychology research.

242 harmony — it has been argued that stories have an ability to reveal hidden aspects of culture,
243 such as the other side of rules, norms, and values that might be particularly valuable in cultural
244 research (Soin & Scheytt, 2006). Hence, the stories that are told by organisational members are
245 a vital means of exploring the complexity of sport organisational life. Stories can also
246 challenge, rather than perpetuate, the sometimes stale and privileged position that tales of
247 cultural consensus currently occupy in the performance enhancement literature of sport
248 psychology.

249 **Participants and procedure**

250 Following institutional ethical approval, the first author used personal-professional
251 connections to facilitate and conduct interviews with a range of sport personnel (e.g., strategic
252 leaders, coaches, athletes, support staff, administrators) from different areas of sport (n=7) (see
253 Table 1 below).

254 [Insert Table 1 here]

255 For this study, the main selection criterion was that participants were currently operating (or
256 had recently, within the last 2 years) in elite sport. While there is no precise agreement on
257 what constitutes *elite* in sport psychology research (Hanton, Fletcher, & Coughlan, 2005), we
258 followed guidance in previous research (Hanton et al., 2005; McDougall et al., 2015) and
259 defined elite sport environments as those that contain athletes who are current national squad
260 members and/or perform at the highest level in their sport.

261 All participants provided written informed consent prior to the interviews, which took
262 place over a 1-1 ½ year period. The interviews were low-structured (i.e., with some loose ideas,
263 themes and questions in mind) and focused on eliciting stories. After the opening questions,
264 which invited the participants to tell their stories and how they came to be in their current role,
265 I (the first author) asked participants to reflect on their initial impressions and experiences of
266 the culture(s) within their sport team/organisation (e.g., “can you tell me about the culture

267 here?”). Consistent with a narrative interviewing style, I attempted to “stay with” interviewee
268 responses, using probing questions to follow up and accrue further insight where necessary
269 (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). It is important to emphasise that I did not set out to uncover or
270 deduce themes of integration, differentiation and fragmentation during the interview process.
271 Rather, my understanding of the usefulness of Martin and Meyerson’s three perspective
272 approach (i.e., how it could guide later stages of analysis and be used to frame the wider study)
273 evolved organically. The interviews lasted for a mean of 65 minutes and were digitally recorded
274 and transcribed verbatim producing 210 double-spaced pages of data. Three of the interviews
275 occurred face-to-face, in an environment comfortable for the participant, while four interviews
276 were conducted over Skype.

277 **Data Analysis and representation**

278 After familiarisation with each participant’s data and immersion into participant
279 narratives (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009), we focused closely on the form and content of each
280 story told (cf. Spector-Mersel, 2010). We also considered each interview as unique and thus
281 focused on the internal working of the stories rather than on a cross data set analysis
282 (Ronkainen, Ryba, Tonge, & Tikkanen, 2019). In line with these principles, we paid close
283 attention to the general plot(s), structure(s) and storyline(s) of each participant’s narrative
284 (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). When reading the transcripts, we asked questions such as “What
285 did the story or storylines convey or seem to be about?” “What were the key events and in what
286 sequence did they occur?” “Who were the other key characters and what role did they play in
287 the events and storylines communicated?” Preliminary work on the content involved noting
288 initial ideas in relation to the meanings participants seemed to ascribe to events, stories,
289 practices, beliefs, rituals and values, and other cultural elements that together comprised and
290 informed the narrative resources for individual stories.

291 Subsequent phases of analysis were more expressly deductive and involved detecting
292 patterns in the data and coding them thematically in relation to Martin and Meyerson's three
293 perspectives of integration, differentiation and fragmentation. Consistent with Martin's (2002)
294 argument that all cultures inherently contain characteristics from each perspective (integration,
295 differentiation, fragmentation), initial thematic work confirmed the presence of patterns (to
296 varying degrees) of integration, differentiation and fragmentation within each participant's
297 data. However, we came to realise and agree with the theorisations of Martin (2002), that the
298 extent to which each perspective is emphasised in research is ultimately determined by a) the
299 degree to which perspective dominates a participant's narrative and b) the researcher's own
300 culture lens (framework for understanding culture) and the corresponding emphasis they place
301 on each perspective in the various stages of the design and analysis of the study.

302 Codes were further developed, combined and eventually grouped into categories under
303 the major themes of integration, differentiation and fragmentation, indicating which patterns
304 were most prevalent in each participant's data. To further flush out and determine the core
305 narrative (integration, differentiation, fragmentation), that each individual was communicating,
306 we paid particular attention to Frank's (1995) notion of narrative type in order to uncover the
307 most general storyline that could be recognised underlying the plot and tensions of particular
308 stories. We 'matched' each participant's data ' — based on story content and the dominant
309 narrative in each participant's data — with one of the three perspectives, and then began to
310 fashion a coherent narrative from the many events and stories spread throughout each interview
311 that centralised the voice of the participants as well representing each perspective. During this
312 process, we searched the transcript to find and consider units of text, passages and patterns of
313 meaning that supported or contradicted the core narrative's plausibility, and constantly checked
314 and compared themes against existing literature and theoretical material.

315 In the following representation, we use participants' stories as exemplars (cf. Carless
316 & Douglas, 2013) to illustrate Martin and Meyerson's three perspectives (integration,
317 differentiation, fragmentation) and to show how each can be used as an analytic lens by
318 researchers and practitioners to construct and represent participant experiences. The three cases
319 (the performance director, the academy sport scientist and the assistant coach; all Caucasian,
320 British, male and aged between 28 and 50) were selected because they offered the most
321 eloquent narratives depicting the three perspectives. They had worked/performed in their
322 current or most recent elite sport context for at least one year and therefore had a detailed
323 insight about its workings. Moreover, these participants' interviews had lasted longer than 60
324 minutes, offering rich material to reconstruct the stories. Direct quotes from the participants
325 were used extensively to form the basis of the narratives. Some minor information and parts of
326 the narrative were modified to enhance flow, feel and aesthetic of the stories and to help
327 anonymise participants (cf. Smith, 2013). Pseudonyms were also created for each participant
328 to protect their identity.

329 **Research Quality and Validity**

330 We addressed rigour from the realist understanding that validity is conferred through
331 the relationship between the researchers' account and those things it is supposed to be an
332 account of, rather than by following a standard set of procedures (Maxwell, 2012). In line with
333 this understanding, we sought to counter threats to descriptive, interpretive and theoretical
334 validity (cf. Maxwell, 2012; Ronkainen & Wiltshire, 2019). Most importantly, threats to
335 validity concern the ways that a researchers' understandings and conclusions may be wrong
336 (Maxwell, 2017). For instance, misinterpreting or misrepresenting what a participant has said,
337 arriving at implausible interpretations or neglecting to consider alternative explanations; and
338 subsequently, what (and how) threats to validity can be addressed to enhance the credibility of
339 the conclusions reached (Maxwell, 2017; Ronkainen & Wiltshire, 2019). Descriptive validity

340 (factual accuracy and accurate reporting of events, subjects, setting, time, and places within
341 participant accounts) was increased through careful transcription of audio recorded participant
342 interviews and substantial familiarisation with the data set. Interpretive validity – relating to
343 the meanings held by participants and involving inference from their words and actions in the
344 situation studied (Maxwell, 2012) – was increased by drawing on additional contextual
345 resources provided by co-researchers’ extensive experience of working in elite sport
346 environments. Both descriptive validity and interpretive validity were addressed by the
347 extensive use of participant quotes and own language in the representation of their narratives.
348 Finally, theoretical validity refers to the capacity of the theoretical explanation to describe or
349 interpret the phenomenon (Ronkainen & Wiltshire, 2019). We addressed this through the
350 research team’s critical scrutiny of the narratives crafted and by using an ‘outside’ critical
351 friend currently employed in elite sport as a sport psychologist to consider the plausibility and
352 the practical utility of the accounts.

353 **Results and Discussion**

354 For analytic purposes, the results are shaped to illustrate the three perspectives and emphasise
355 the features of each. Following the presentation of each narrative, an interpretation is provided
356 – while recognising other meanings may be evident or extracted by different readers – in order
357 to further explicate the meanings that participants identified and ascribed to their organisations’
358 cultures.

359 **Simon’s Narrative of Integration: From a game for players to a sport for athletes**

360 My mantra coming in [to golf] was that I needed to change it from being a game for players to
361 a sport for athletes. I’m about high-performance. That’s my background; as an athlete, as a
362 coach, as a performance director. I need athletes with the right mindset, the right physicality to
363 really push themselves onto the next level and that was massively alien to 99.9% of them. That
364 transition was huge really, and, probably naively, I thought some of it would have been easier

365 to do than it really is. For starters, we don't have a centralised programme, like cycling or canoe
366 might have, where their athletes go to one place and all meet up and train regularly. What we
367 have are a lot of regional bodies and clubs throughout the country and within that, you have to
368 try and develop a performance culture and a structure to feed players through into what is still
369 a very young national academy programme. That's extremely complex. The sport also has a
370 massive cultural heritage – upper middle class, real old school blazers, ties and badges...stuff
371 that's great for the history of the sport and its place in the nation, but that can be an utter
372 hindrance when it comes to performance and making changes. So it was critical to try and get
373 those doors open really quickly and not having come from the sport, you know with no strong
374 allegiances, actually made it a little easier for me to knock on doors and build rational plans
375 that key stakeholders could see make sense. You know, going away from some of the stuff that
376 happened in the past to where we wanted to go and getting people to buy into that relatively
377 quickly. I've got people who are far better than me to go out and negotiate with individuals
378 about coming on board with programs because I'm not an expert in the sport, I've never played
379 it and I don't really know the nuances of clubs and their structures, so once we've decided what
380 we need to do I rely on my team of experts who are really embedded in the sport to do all that.

381 One of the first big changes I made was to go abroad [for a training camp] for a month
382 before Christmas and then somewhere else again for six or seven weeks early in the new year
383 and just spend a lot of time with all the players and coaches and service providers. It enabled
384 us to start changing the way players perceived their support and training programs, you know,
385 making a difference to their habits, their attitudes, their expectations. When we go on training
386 camps now we have a skill acquisition expert, a bio-mechanist, a physiologist, a psychologist,
387 a physio, spending chunks of time with the squad, educating them, talking about the culture
388 you need to be high performing athletes. It's about creating the right environment to develop
389 that kind of understanding in young players. We developed the concept of development centres.

390 Getting the best players into centres and giving them the opportunity to get a good quality of
391 coaching and all the other things that come with that so there is standardisation. At first, a lot
392 of the players had come through the old system doing what they wanted to do, good players,
393 but never really bought into some of the support. They've left the program. They didn't want
394 to do all the things I wanted them to do. The majority we've got now are very young players,
395 and a lot of them have come through the new system and are more willing and able to buy into
396 what we're doing.

397 A lot of it is carrot and stick. We've got performance bonuses for people who do well.
398 If they win, we'll put some money in their expense account. The better they play the more
399 money they get. If they comply, they get additional access to things: resources, funding,
400 equipment... because as you move through you get access to what we have access to. If
401 someone isn't doing it, they get warnings. So if they don't respond to emails they'll get a
402 reprimand; if they don't turn up for a psychology booking, we'll take money out of their
403 expense account. Historically, it's been a relatively soft, passive sport. There are rules and
404 regulations but often they've never been applied. I've toughened them up and applied them.
405 We need to make examples of people who aren't really showing the right change in the right
406 direction and recently we just removed somebody from the squad for not fulfilling the
407 requirements in their athlete agreement. We have another one on a red warning and unless they
408 change their ways in the next month or so they'll be off the squad as well. Obviously, there is
409 a bit of give and take, but ultimately if you bend the rules too much you will get kicked out.
410 It's still nowhere near where I want to get to, but we've moved on a massive way and that is
411 your huge, big sport cultural shift right there.

412 *Discussion of the Integration Narrative*

413 Like many of the existing integration accounts in sport (e.g., Cruickshank et al., 2013), the tale
414 begins with the vision and planning activities of the leader set firmly against described disorder,

415 conflict and the lack of alignment between key stakeholders that are assumed to exemplify an
416 underperforming organisation. Culture is predictably depicted as malleable and the role of
417 leaders and those in authority in its creation, management and control is emphasised, thus
418 aligning with existing sport psychology culture change literature (e.g., Cruickshank et al. 2013,
419 2014, 2015; Henriksen, 2015). Simon has substantial creative, strategic, operational and
420 decision-making autonomy to shape the culture to his vision (“a sport for athletes”) which he
421 ultimately achieves through the deployment of a familiar array of culture change and
422 management tactics, for example: establishing a compelling vision and ensuring that people
423 ‘buy’ into it, building strong partnerships, managing upwards and downwards in the hierarchy,
424 seeking out cultural allies, knowledge experts and sport insiders to deliver and sell key
425 messages outside of the performance team (cf. Cruickshank et al., 2013, 2014, 2015;
426 Henriksen, 2015).

427 Early in the narrative, Simon also alludes to the importance of *cultural fit*. Ideals and
428 images of high performance are embedded in his own identity and self-descriptions as a former
429 athlete and coach at the elite level, so he understands the precise fit (“athletes with the right
430 mentality”) required and is subsequently able to set the terms and conditions that make an
431 athlete successful (or not) within a high-performance culture. As in other sport psychology
432 integration accounts (e.g., Cruickshank et al., 2013, 2014, 2015; Henriksen, 2015), athletes are
433 moulded (socialised) through education, role modelling, incentivising, punishment and even
434 expulsion; so that they either transition out of the programme or come to exemplify and display
435 the culturally desirable behaviours demanded within the new system. This array of tactics is
436 consistent with advice in seminal organisational culture texts (e.g., Schein, 2010) and are used
437 to minimise resistance to change and increase compliance to the new system. Over time,
438 alternative meanings attached to the old way of doing things are simply replaced with the ideals
439 of high performance that Simon values most of all.

440 Simon's narrative is typical of culture change in sport (e.g., Cruickshank et al., 2014,
441 2015) and organisational management (e.g., Schein, 2010) in that there is an awareness of
442 resistance, but it is a relentless march toward progress that dominates the account. The new
443 system – of which Simon, as the leader, is a standard bearer - is symbolic of modern
444 performance sport: consistent, scientific, rigorous, standardised and clinically efficient, while
445 established ways of doing things, that embody tradition and the history of the sport are
446 perceived as unhelpful and outdated. In this regard – and consistent with the integration
447 perspective – resistance is constructed as a temporary obstacle and an old consensus is simply
448 replaced by a new, more effective one.

449 **Oliver's Narrative of Differentiation: There's Trouble Abroad**

450 If I looked back to that team, that tournament, it's an absolute fallacy to say that we had a
451 culture of x or y. It was quite clear from that journey, from when we first got together, that the
452 culture of the group ebbed and flowed and there was a variety of subcultures at play at times.
453 There was a culture within the coaching team. There were various sorts of cultures within the
454 player groups. Looking back, it's almost impossible to identify that there was one set of values
455 or one culture or thread that ran through the whole group.

456 I mean at the national team level, the make-up of the player groups are potentially quite
457 distinct anyway. Individuals are coming from different backgrounds both socially, culturally
458 and even their sport development and experience of coaching has been different.
459 Geographically, I mean, there would be players from the east, west and from up north, and
460 down south. There are some quite definitive splits in terms of how the sport organised and
461 played in those different geographical areas. So their club cultures are probably quite different.
462 Then you bring them together as a group and it can take a long time to bring along that mentality
463 of "this is how the national team are going to do it."

464 Before we went off to the championship, the governing body allowed us to have about
465 25 hours of contact time before we went off, which is nothing. The time is so short that the
466 focus has to be on the tactical, technical side of the game, the game critical stuff. We did do a
467 few exercises... I wouldn't call them cultural exercises exactly but perhaps team group
468 exercises to try and break down some of the barriers in the group to try and bring the team
469 together. We developed documents with team standards, core values, what we believed, that
470 sort of thing. We probably thought prior to the tournament that we had been successful in
471 developing a culture, our way of doing things.

472 So we get to the tournament, right? We felt that with the talent we had we were capable
473 of going and winning the tournament. Like we really thought we could do well and in the first
474 game we ended up losing late on and it was probably the first sense we had that all wasn't well.
475 We picked up on some disharmony among the players about how various people were
476 performing. One player, in particular, didn't seem to be playing at the level we were
477 accustomed to and we were aware that there were conversations going on between players that
478 weren't overly favourable about team selection, tactics, who was playing and so on. We
479 managed to regroup though, actually got to the semis and if we lost that game we'd be playing
480 for the bronze. Basically, in the semis, they scored quick and our heads dropped. It was a
481 blowout. Quite a few words were exchanged after that game. There were a number of
482 comments about players from different clubs not doing their job properly and you know, "that's
483 how he always plays when he's playing for his club and why should we expect anything
484 different when he is playing for us now?!"

485 A number of players and one player in particular, who had had quite a distinguished
486 domestic playing career, just kind of called out the head coach in front of the group, said that
487 he felt he had made the wrong decisions. This was going to be his last tournament, his last
488 opportunity to play for us so no doubt he wanted to go out on a high. Some of the criticism, I

489 agreed with. There were valid points but that's easy to say when you're not the one totally
490 accountable. So yeah, some of those resentments and deeper feelings definitely did carry over
491 even after we had created this model for performance and expected behaviour, and I would say
492 those became more evident when we lost. Maybe on reflection, resentments were always
493 bubbling under the surface and sometimes you know, they kinda came over the surface and
494 went too far. There was a whole lot of tension in the group in the aftermath of that game, and
495 we still had to play for third place!

496 And you know what, the player that that wasn't playing to the level we thought he was
497 capable of. . . after the bronze medal game, he turns around to us and shows us his foot and it
498 was all swollen. It was purple at which point he tells us that he thought he had actually broken
499 it just prior to the tournament. "Well, why did you not say anything?" And he said "well I knew
500 if I said anything, I wouldn't get to play". So we were starting this guy, a star player, in every
501 game and we're thinking "why's he not playing properly? Why is his head going down?" Well,
502 he's playing with a serious injury and he didn't feel he could tell the coaches before the
503 tournament. I think that's quite insightful that he didn't feel he could tell someone. Or at least
504 tell us, the coaches, because there were a group of players who certainly knew how bad his
505 injury was. He hadn't told all the players, but the players from his club knew, the ones he was
506 close to and no one felt they could tell the coaches! And I was blown away by this. It was the
507 exact opposite of our espoused values, being a team, competing for each other. But when I said
508 something, the other coaches almost. . . almost kind of laughed it off, like "well I might have
509 done the same."

510 Personally, I got on quite well with the other coaches, but there's been a slow change
511 in the sport, in terms of embracing modern coaching. They probably aren't overly professional
512 from a coaching standpoint because everything is done on an absolute shoestring. They're all
513 volunteers, nobody gets paid. You get to go out to tournaments and there's a feeling among the

514 traditional ones that it's a bit of a holiday and all that, sort of "well they're almost kind of lucky
515 to have me so you know if I'm coming out here, well yeah, I'm going to have a beer after the
516 game and I'm going to relax and enjoy myself." I suppose my criticism is that they didn't
517 approach the whole incident with as much professionalism as they could have and in a way,
518 they endorsed the behaviour of an athlete who had covered up his injury and let everyone down.

519 *Discussion of the Differentiation Narrative*

520 Oliver, an assistant coach of an international men's Basketball team, described a number of
521 subcultures and the tensions between them. Prior to the tournament, subcultures formed on the
522 basis of club affiliations, the geographic locations of those clubs, and intense
523 competition/rivalry for places, reinforcing recent assertions (Wagstaff, Martin, & Thelwell,
524 2017) in sport psychology literature that subgroup formation can originate from a broad array
525 of sources. Selected players brought with them other styles of play, methods of training, and
526 expectations of coaching and behaving, as well as previously existing feelings towards other
527 members of the team. Such understandings derived from personal as well as 'other' cultural
528 resources (cf. Girginov, 2010) and did not simply dissipate upon national team selection and
529 in the face of other cultural standards and values that the coaching team tried to inculcate.
530 Rather, they remained dormant in the face of attempts to manage them out and achieve unity.
531 The narrative is aligned with other sport psychology research that has suggested the presence
532 and influence of subcultures in elite sport and that suggests tensions and conflicts manifest,
533 even intensify during the stress and high stakes of an important tournament or in the aftermath
534 of an unexpected loss or poor performance (McDougall et al., 2015). Even more broadly,
535 Oliver's narrative reaffirms suggestions within sport psychology research that conflict between
536 team-mates and between athletes and coaches is an inherent but underestimated part of sport
537 team life (Wachsmuth, Jowett, & Harwood, 2017).

538 Typical of differentiation studies (e.g., Ogbonna & Harris, 2015), Oliver’s narrative
539 shows a multiplicity of understood and ascribed meanings through which players and coaches
540 resisted and challenged the ‘official’ culture and the espoused team ideals and values set forth
541 by leadership. Similarly, in Oliver’s narrative, there is tension between individual needs and
542 organisational requirements. Players demonstrated that they held individually oriented
543 meanings and that playing in the tournament (even if in poor form or injured) was personally
544 significant even if it was to the detriment of the team. Consequently, contentious issues of de-
545 selection and loss provided the grounds for conflict, assignment of blame and the means for
546 players to challenge hierarchy and authority.

547 Oliver also identifies and labels subcultures in dichotomous terms — a hallmark of a
548 differentiation perspective (Martin, 2002) — such as (east/west/north/south, players/coaches,
549 selected/de-selected, professional coaching/unprofessional coaching). While consensus is
550 typically described as contained within these boundaries (e.g., players uniting against coaching
551 decisions or failing to tell coaches about an injured ‘club’ team-mate), sometimes consensus is
552 also informal and transcends boundaries (cf. Gilmore, 2013) or occurs in response to arising
553 issues and events. For instance, Oliver finds himself in agreement with players regarding some
554 criticism towards the head coach, while later in the narrative, a coach appears to informally
555 support the actions of the injured player. For Oliver, the incident confirmed the fractured and
556 opaque relationship between coaches and players and the ultimate failure of the coaching team
557 to instil ideals of unity, togetherness and a single way of operating. The incident also spoke to
558 latent differences within the coaching team, and more broadly, to tensions that have been
559 observed in wider sport literature between the voluntary coaches and an emerging younger,
560 more professionalised generation of coaches (Grix, 2009; authors names removed for review
561 purposes, under review). Oliver, a progressive, young coach identifies with a more professional
562 approach to coaching and is in internal disagreement with the sometimes casual and somewhat

563 ambivalent views of the ‘voluntary coach generation’ where tournaments abroad are interpreted
564 as a “holiday” and not only as a benchmark of performance and something to be won. This is
565 a strong example of the described frictions inherent and centralised in differentiation studies
566 (Martin, 2002; Ogbonna & Harris, 2015), and specifically points to tensions between espoused
567 values and (in Schein’s terms) ‘basic underlying assumptions’ or taken for granted values and
568 values (Schein, 2010, p. 24), highlighting again that inconsistency and not the consistency of
569 the integration perspective exemplifies culture.

570 **Mark’s Narrative of Ambiguity: Into the Unknown**

571 It was slow going initially because I started the role towards the end of the season when
572 everything was winding down. Moving into football, I’d prepared for a whirlwind, because
573 that’s what you hear in your education and training, and actually it was the end of the season
574 coma. People were in and out, some were having time off and it was perhaps one or two weeks
575 until I actually even met some key people in the academy. It was just a case of being told by
576 one or two people who were still around that “This is it”, having a little bit of a tour, “here are
577 the buildings, here are the facilities, here’s the people” and then being left to just figure quite a
578 lot out. You know, have at it really.

579 I joined under the premise of doing a very particular role and being responsible for a
580 very particular thing, and within six months I was doing stuff that other people were doing or
581 supposed to be doing. I was chipping in everywhere, gaining an understanding of different
582 facets of the organisation, which was great for me because I was able to learn what was really
583 valuable, and you get to see the perspectives of lots of different people in different roles. So
584 my role has changed considerably in the last three or four months, yet my “official” role, job
585 description and job title hasn’t. And it’s not just me. . . [long pause] it’s flipping baffling. You
586 can’t work it out. I mean if you had to look at an organisational chart of how a sport organisation
587 runs, and then you look at our organisational chart, there would be questions galore: “Who

588 controls this aspect of the academy? Who controls or who is accountable for ensuring this takes
589 place?” And it’s kinda like “oh well, he also does that” “oh right ok...well what about this side
590 of things?” yeah well he’s picking this up at the minute”. In terms of role clarity, you know
591 role clarity in terms of perceived versus actual roles, it’s messy. Really messy. You can’t make
592 sense of it.

593 Some of that’s because we, support staff I mean, we basically get on our hands and
594 knees and run about doing whatever the coaches say. You’ve got people within the academy
595 management team doing jobs where [laughs heartily] where they could quite easily turn around
596 and say “I shouldn’t be doing this, this isn’t my job whatsoever”. It’s been like that since I
597 joined. The coach is the teacher and you’re support network, so you provide the coach whatever
598 it is they need at a particular moment in time. Whatever that might be, who knows? They have
599 this power over other employees who technically on the organisation chart are on the same
600 level, or even above them, because they almost see themselves as the experts of everything,
601 whereas and you’re merely there to offer a suggestion. So even though the line manager is
602 above an age group coach, according to the unofficial organisational chart, or how things really
603 are, culturally, he’s below them.

604 Take communication, or lack of it. I’ll give coaches a feedback report or an
605 observational report and not hear back from them. “Did you get my report? I sent it over to
606 you, you want to grab a coffee and talk? Make sure we’re on the same page?” “Nah, it was
607 good mate, some good points in it”. Essentially that’s all you get. So you don’t know where
608 you stand on anything really and the communication and the cohesion, goes completely
609 downhill. Because coaches, they’re ‘football people’ they think they know how to develop
610 players, develop teams but when it comes to it, do they know how to communicate? Or produce
611 cohesive teams of staff and a cohesive organisational model? And that’s important because
612 they’re the unofficial decision makers. We’ve got demands as an academy. We’re a category

613 1 academy, so the expectations, the blueprint that we're trying to aspire to, I don't know how
614 we are able to maintain the category that we are. We're not doing successful multi-disciplinary
615 work because no-one communicates. The demands are much greater than the ability of some
616 people. No one challenges the coaches. We've got a ridiculously low budget for what we expect
617 to achieve. I don't know how we're going to achieve what we're supposed to. No one seems to
618 know. We just sort of plough on.

619 To make matters worse, the shit has hit the fan this week. The Academy Director is
620 gone. Just gone. No idea what happened there yet. No one's said. Now he's gone, we can't
621 really even make small decisions. There are people as part of the management team, who are
622 there to make decisions, and I suppose could, but it's like they've been programmed not to
623 make them because, in all the other matters, the coaches have been the unofficial decision-
624 makers. So now, there's no one to give the final thumbs-up. It's like "yeah we might have to
625 park that idea until the new guy comes in". So essentially, we're functioning without someone
626 to make the final decision on many, many things because that's the way the culture works. And
627 there's been no communication about it from club leadership. There is a total lack of
628 communication, a real gap there. We've got a CEO who is overseeing everything just now and
629 the academy is probably in the middle of his list of things to do and be responsible for. We're
630 in the total unknown here and there are decisions that need to be made and things that need to
631 get done right now.

632 *Discussion of the Fragmentation Narrative*

633 In the fragmentation perspective, ambiguity is at the core of the narrative (Martin, 2002). Like
634 many neophytes in a new and unfamiliar position (e.g., Lindsay, Breckon, Thomas, &
635 Maynard, 2007; Thompson, Potrac, & Jones, 2015), Mark describes feelings of immediate
636 uncertainty due to his new role (his first in sport and in the world of football) and a tokenistic
637 induction that provided little guidance or clarity as to what he should be doing on a day-to-day

638 basis. Instead of this uncertainty lessening as the nuances of the role are learned, Mark's
639 confusion was maintained as he finds himself doing a variety of tasks that lie outside the sphere
640 of his job description and his expectations of what he is responsible for, muddying his ideas of
641 what his job actually *is*.

642 Somewhat paradoxically, the lack of existing structure provides Mark with the
643 opportunity to learn more about other people's roles and the unknown facets of the
644 organisation. He is able to gain knowledge that might have otherwise remained hidden to him
645 in an organisation with a more rigid, bureaucratic structure, with well-defined roles and
646 responsibilities that are enforced. Such mobility, resulting from a lack of bureaucracy, has also
647 been found in organisational literature and can lead to benefits such as a fluid, more agile
648 organisation, broader competency (as opposed to entrenched capability) and the opportunity to
649 recombine knowledge in novel and valuable ways (e.g., Ravasi & Verona, 2001).

650 A further layer of paradox and irony, which are also recurrent features of fragmentation
651 studies (Martin, 2002) and organisational life more broadly (Hatch, 1997), is woven into
652 Mark's narrative as this broader perspective and increased knowledge reveal to Mark not
653 clarity, but a complex, layered relationship between coaches and other staff. The formal
654 organisation – depicted by organisational charts and stated structures of hierarchy – is
655 juxtaposed with the informal organisation (cf. Gulati & Puranam, 2009), whereby coaches
656 maintain a historical power and sway over others in the environment. On the one hand, this
657 provides a common framework of meaning to better understand unwritten rules and 'how
658 things really are'. On the other hand, it brings disorder, disorganisation, ineffective multi-
659 disciplinary work and further obscurity to Mark's role; not least because Mark and other staff
660 are subservient and their job outlines are dependent on the fluctuating needs and whims of
661 coaches. He, therefore, experiences ambiguity due to a lack of control over what he does day-
662 to-day and because of the opaqueness of internal decision-making.

663 The unpredictability and constant flux of academy organisational life described by
664 Mark may be typical of organisational life in a football academy (cf. Gibson & Groom, 2018).
665 It is also indicative of the micro-political power struggles that permeate football and coaching
666 environments (Cushion & Jones, 2006) in general, rendering such contexts as chaotic,
667 confusing and unpredictable (cf. Thompson et al., 2015). The narrative concludes with the
668 sudden and unexpected departure of the Academy Director. The informal culture has
669 undermined and eroded the legitimacy and competency of those in positions of authority and
670 in the aftermath, there is a decision-making vacuum; with no one seemingly able or willing to
671 sign off on important decisions that must be made. The narrative ends with the academy in
672 stasis and uncertainty, leaving Mark unsure of what is happening, how stated academy goals
673 and plans will be achieved and if, when and how important issues will be resolved. In
674 organisational literature, this discrepancy, or gap between formal organisational goals and what
675 can actually be achieved on the ground is a source of both ambiguity and anxiety for employees
676 (Hoyle & Wallace, 2008).

677 **Conclusions and Recommendations for Research and Practice**

678 The three narratives depict (in order) the three culture perspectives of integration,
679 differentiation and fragmentation (Martin, 1992; Martin & Meyerson, 1988; Meyerson &
680 Martin, 1987) and highlight how the different lenses can be applied by sport psychologists
681 (researchers and practitioners) to view and understand culture. The narratives support and
682 extend recent reviews in sport psychology (McDougall et al., 2019; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie,
683 2018) and sport management (Maitland et al., 2015) that have critiqued the integration
684 perspective and pointed out how this position is theoretically and operationally restrictive.
685 Plainly, the integration perspective can simplify cultural life. Moreover, it is a position that
686 often (explicitly or implicitly) serves managerialist agendas by de-emphasising and
687 diminishing the cultural meanings ascribed by other actors in sport environments.

688 Aligning with the aforementioned nascent reviews and critical organisational
689 management literature (e.g., Alvesson, 2002), the current study suggests that sport
690 psychologists should therefore, adopt a questioning and sceptical approach to the discovery
691 and development of value sets and messages that appear homogeneously and uniformly
692 understood. Hence, it is important that sport psychologists attend to multiple culture patterns
693 (i.e., beyond those of integration) so that they can more accurately capture the complex reality
694 of organisational sport life in their research and applied practices (McDougall & Ronkainen,
695 2019; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018).

696 As highlighted in Oliver's narrative, the differentiation approach, for instance, can be
697 used as a means to examine themes of conflict, resistance to authority, as well as ideational
698 inconsistencies between different cultural values or between espoused values and actual
699 behaviour (Martin, 1992, 2002; Ogbonna & Harris, 2015; Smerek, 2010). Though rarely
700 acknowledged in organisational sport psychology culture research to date, these themes and
701 the significant (sometimes destructive) influence of subcultures were problematised in a recent
702 longitudinal study of cultural processes within a UK Olympic sport (Feddersen, Morris,
703 Littlewood, & Richardson, 2019). The present study supports the findings of Feddersen and
704 colleagues by reinforcing the need to acknowledge subcultures, conflict, and contestation as
705 important aspects in cultural analysis of organisational sport life. Indeed, cultural research that
706 can tackle the other side of consensus is now particularly valuable in light of recent sport
707 scandals and reminders that sport psychologists have a duty of care to support the development
708 of ethical cultures, not only performance ones (Wagstaff, 2019a; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie,
709 2018).

710 Mark's narrative of fragmentation can also be usefully contextualised by recent
711 research of organisational practices in sport. Although understudied, there is growing empirical
712 support for the idea that ambiguity is endemic in sport organisations and that the everyday

713 realities that sport personnel face primarily involve the management of complex social
714 situations that are ambiguous (Gibson & Groom, 2018; Santos, Jones, & Mesquita, 2013). As
715 Gibson and Groom noted, however, the salience of ambiguity in sport is not yet reflected in the
716 way sport personnel are educated or trained to practice within sport. The present study,
717 therefore, has value in that it shows how a fragmentation approach can be used to examine
718 unclear organisational goals, ill-defined roles and objectives, layered and contradictory cultural
719 meanings, and individual sensemaking in complex environments. Such tracks of future
720 research are likely to be fruitful in elite sport contexts, where ambiguity perhaps naturally
721 coalesces with the fast-paced, volatile, short-termist, unpredictable nature of these
722 environments (e.g., Nesti, 2010). Per Gibson and Groom's (2018) conclusion, we therefore
723 also recommend that ambiguity must be researched and made sense of (rather than omitted
724 from cultural analysis) if applied practitioners are to be better prepared for the deeply
725 challenging and uncertain contexts of high-level sport.

726 There is extreme practical value in revealing the differentiated and uncertain aspects of
727 organisational life. Envisaging culture beyond consensus and clarity can help prevent people
728 with the authority to dictate courses of actions, from failing to see events and issues from the
729 perspectives of others. For example, assuming consensus and harmony and "buy-in" to
730 managerial programs of change, where in fact there might be little, or even none. A failure to
731 detect resistance or to overestimate support for planned changes is likely to decrease the
732 chances of successful change (Alvesson, 2002). Furthermore, understanding how people
733 negotiate and re-produce culture in patterns that are differentiated and fragmented can help to
734 re-configure the very idea of resistance to leader-led change (and practices that focus squarely
735 on its identification and suppression). If conceived of as a cultural form – as opposed to being
736 labelled as evidence of a lack of culture, or of a weak one, such as in the view of Schein (2010)
737 – resistance can be reconceptualised from something to be overcome to something that must

738 be culturally understood (Ortner, 1999). That is, resistance can be reformulated as evidence
739 that planned change may be wrongheaded or that alternative cultural meanings are in play.
740 Thus, the possibility for cultural preservation or renewal as opposed to radical change based
741 on the erosion and expulsion of existing cultural meanings may be an entirely sensible option
742 for leaders to weigh. In this regard, sport psychologists can have value, not only as social
743 ‘allies’ of leadership, who champion the desired culture and socialise others to it or as ‘cultural
744 architects’ who are involved in the design and execution of culture *change* (Cruickshank et al.,
745 2014, 2015; Eubank et al., 2014; Henriksen, 2015; Molan, Kelly, Arnold, & Matthews, 2019),
746 but as preservers and protectors of culture. In this role, sport psychologists can act less as
747 managers of meaning (cf. Girginov, 2010) and more as skilled and culturally sensitive
748 professionals who can help people to have meaningful conversations within and across cultural
749 lines. Indeed, because sport psychologists increasingly have opportunities to work in a broader
750 organisational role with different groups and personnel from across the sport organisation
751 (Cruickshank et al., 2015; Eubank et al., 2014; McDougall et al., 2015; Wagstaff, 2019b), they
752 may be ideally positioned to encourage a more collaborative approach to planned change
753 efforts by helping to ensure that alternative and marginalised viewpoints are heard and
754 considered by leaders in the decision-making process. Developing competencies in this area of
755 service provision may be one way sport psychologists may be able to “break free of the shackles
756 of the science and medicine team, and . . . offer their services across the organizational
757 hierarchy.” (Wagstaff, 2019b, p. 135).

758 Nevertheless, while it can be useful to look at culture through a ‘single’ perspective,
759 sport psychologists should bear in mind that each perspective and the corresponding
760 analysis/representation that is derived from it is incomplete (Martin, 2002). To adopt a single
761 perspective – even when couched within the precise aims of a particular study – invites an
762 unavoidable tautology: the culturally informed researcher or practitioner defines and

763 conceptualises culture in specific and narrow terms and then seeks out the ascribed cultural
764 meanings and interpretations that support those views while reducing or omitting what does
765 not fit (Martin, 2002). Accordingly, although each single perspective offers heuristic value
766 when making sense of culture, it should not be used to promote categorical thinking (i.e., “this
767 is an integrated culture”, “team X has a fragmented culture”). The narratives presented here are
768 therefore meant as illustrative examples of each outlined perspective rather than intended as
769 typologies and models of culture.

770 In relation to this potential pitfall, Martin (1992, 2002) advocated for a fourth
771 possibility: each perspective can be held simultaneously. When adopted, this position enables
772 sport psychologists to attend to a wider range of cultural meaning and subjective interpretation.
773 That is, sport psychologists can capture aspects of culture that are integrated, differentiated and
774 fragmented, demonstrating that multiple and competing cultural meanings and patterns can be
775 in play at any one time within a team or organisation (Martin, 2002). Using the three
776 perspectives together could, therefore, be a way to examine layered and complex cultural
777 meaning ascribed to any number of significant events, practices, and issues that occur in elite
778 sport (e.g., major tournaments, de-selection, coach behaviour, organisational change). It could
779 also provide a means to explore how culture is understood at different levels of hierarchy or
780 between various groups that make up the sport environment (e.g., experienced athletes/junior
781 athletes, athlete/support staff, coaches/sport science/administration) or among demographic
782 groups (e.g., older/younger, male/female). As we have already outlined, sport psychologists
783 increasingly work more broadly across the sport organisation with an array of athletes and
784 personnel. Consequently, the adoption of a more nuanced, expansive concept of culture (i.e.,
785 one that exists beyond leadership ideals of integration and homogeneity) is logically and
786 inherently valuable to sport psychologist endeavours in this still new and evolving frontier of
787 service delivery.

788 Finally, and with a view to further shaping the future of applied practices in the area,
789 greater awareness of the three perspective approach can challenge the pervasive idea that
790 culture is a totalising, monolithic whole. This assumption has deep practical implications for
791 sport psychology delivery because it encourages practices that imply culture can be identified
792 and moved in extreme, wholesale and mechanistic ways, through leader or sport psychologist
793 design and intervention (Cruickshank et al., 2014, 2015; Henriksen, 2015; Molan et al., 2019).
794 Culture, according to the three perspective approach, is not unitary but is always differentiated
795 and fragmented. At a practice level, this perhaps suggests the need for the sport psychology
796 community to be more modest about what our applied culture work entails and can reasonably
797 achieve. It also suggests the opportunity for research and practice directed toward smaller scale
798 culture intervention such as work with different groups and subcultures in an organisation, and
799 in or across silos of hierarchy, role, and specialism to effect realistic, incremental, yet still
800 meaningful culture change (Alvesson & Sveninngsson, 2015; Harris & Ogbonna, 1998).

801 There are some limitations in the study that future research could address to enhance
802 associated applied practices. First, the selected narratives all showcase a white male
803 perspective, and as such, do not reflect the diversity that exists in elite sport environments.
804 Further, the differentiation and fragmentation narratives constructed arguably do not show
805 subcultures or ambiguity in a particularly positive light. Indeed, both accounts could be read
806 as cautionary tales for what happens when integration fails or is not implemented correctly. To
807 address this critique, future research from a critical stance could deliberately seek out more
808 positive accounts of conflict and ambiguity, such as how they might foster creativity (such as
809 ‘play’ at work or in sport performance), positive disruption, or the acceptance of alternative
810 and dissenting viewpoints. Such accounts exist in wider organisational literature and provide
811 counsel as to how a non-consensus approach to culture and organisation can act to support
812 organisational effectiveness and morale. These limitations notwithstanding, it is hoped that this

813 study shows how different patterns of meaning, such as demonstrated in the three perspective
814 approach, can be used to enhance analyses of culture that tease out the diversity and contextual
815 richness of organisational sport life.

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