

MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES OF  
GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS

BY

HONG SUK (PAUL) CHOI

Bachelor of Arts  
Yon Sei University  
Seoul, Korea  
1992

Master of Science  
United States Sports Academy  
Daphne, Alabama  
1995

Submitted to the Faculty of the  
Graduate College of the  
Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for  
the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
December, 2005

COPYRIGHT

BY

Hong Suk (Paul) Choi

December, 2005

MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES OF  
GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS

Dissertation Approved:

Lowell Caneday

---

Dissertation Advisor

Chris Cashel

---

Deb Jordan

---

Debra Nelson

---

Gordon Emslie

---

Dean of the Graduate College

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A doctoral dissertation may have only one author, but anyone who has gone through the process understands that it is far from a solo work. Many people have touched my life and helped me through the journey of my doctoral program at Oklahoma State University. I would like to take the opportunity to acknowledge the people who have assisted me in completing this project.

First, I would like to thank to my doctoral dissertation chair, Dr. Lowell Caneday, who provided guidance, counseling, and the support I needed to complete this project. He took time out of his weekends and evenings to read and provide overnight feedback. Dr. Caneday is a true professional, and I only hope that one day, I can help a student, the way he has helped me.

I would also like to thank the members of my dissertation committee. Dr. Deb Jordan provided guidance and support through the doctoral course work as well as completion for this project. Her work in the area of academic and professional development in leisure was the inspiration for this dissertation. This dissertation was also made possible through the work of the other members of the dissertation committee: Dr. Chris Cashel, who has my respect and gratitude. She has encouraged me throughout the doctoral course work with endless support. I would also like to thank to Dr. Debra Nelson, who provided guidance and support throughout the study. I have great respect for each of these people and feel very fortunate that they were a part of this project.

Finally, I would like to thank to my family. Thanks to my parents, my brother Jun, my sister-in-law Sunny, my nephew Isaac, and niece Ivy. I would also like to thank to my friends. Thanks to Sarah Wilkey, Noh-Jin Park, Jane Nam, and Jung-Hwa Son. Without their support, love, and understanding, I never would have finished.

The completion of my dissertation culminates an incredible journey that has changed my life. Thanks to everyone that supported me during this time.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION .....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	4
Purpose of the Study.....	5
Significance of the Study.....	5
Delimitations .....	9
Limitations .....	10
Research Questions.....	11
Hypotheses .....	12
Assumptions.....	13
Definition of Terms .....	13
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE .....	18
The Golf Industry .....	19
Golf Course Directors.....	28
Management Concepts.....	30
Classical Perspectives .....	31
Scientific Management.....	31
Administrative Management.....	33
Bureaucratic Management.....	38
Transition from Classical to Behavioral Management .....	42
Behavioral Perspectives .....	43
Follett’s Dynamic Administration .....	43
Barnard’s Executive Functions and Theory of Authority .....	44
Mayo’s Hawthorne Studies.....	47
Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs .....	48
McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y.....	52
Management Science Perspectives .....	53
System Approach.....	56
Contemporary Perspectives .....	58
Contingency/Situational Theory .....	58
McClelland’s Theory of Needs.....	63
Likert’s System of Management.....	66
Total Quality Management .....	67
Management Competencies .....	68
Managerial Functions.....	69

Chapter	Page
Managerial Competencies .....	73
Technical Skills .....	74
Human Skills .....	75
Conceptual Skills .....	82
Negotiation Skills .....	83
Political Skills .....	84
Intuitive Skills .....	84
Recreation/Sport Management Overview .....	87
Competencies of Sport Managers (COSM) by Toh (1997) for Instrument Development .....	100
Golf Management Overview .....	103
Professional Preparation for Golf Course Director .....	109
Dillman’s Survey Methodology .....	112
Non-Response Bias .....	114
Validity and Reliability .....	119
Summary .....	120
 III. METHODOLOGY .....	 122
Research Methodology .....	122
Selection of the Instrument .....	123
Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval .....	127
Sample Size and Selection .....	128
Selection of Expert Jury .....	132
Pilot Test of the Instrument .....	133
Administration of the Instrument .....	135
Analysis of Data .....	136
Demographic Information .....	137
Assessing Golf Management Competencies .....	138
Summary .....	140
 IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA .....	 141
Response Rate .....	142
Demographic Data .....	146
Types of Golf Facilities .....	147
PGA Certification .....	148
Classification of PGA Membership .....	149
Age .....	150
Sex .....	152
Education Level .....	152
Annual Salary .....	154
Employment Experience in the Golf Industry .....	155
Yearly Rounds of Golf .....	156

Chapter	Page
Membership Size .....	158
Findings.....	160
Assessment of Golf Management Competencies .....	161
The Importance of Management Competencies in Diverse Regions .....	162
The Importance of Management Competencies at Different Types of Golf Facilities.....	165
Evaluation of Golf Management Competencies among PGA Professionals .....	168
Exploration of Dimension of Management Competencies for Golf Course.....	169
Summary .....	180
 V. SUMMARY, DISSCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	 183
Summary .....	183
Discussion of Findings.....	185
Conclusions .....	193
Implications.....	195
Recommendations .....	197
 REFERENCES.....	 200
 APPENDIXES .....	 225
APPENDIX A: REQUESTING EMAILS TO EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR IN PGA SECTONS AND DIRECTOR OF MEMBERSHIP SERVICE IN PGA HEADQUARTER FOR THE SECTION DIRECTORIES .....	225
APPENDIX B: EMAILS TO PGM DIRECTORS AND DIRECTORS OF GOLF ASKING FOR JURY MEMBER .....	227
APPENDIX C: LIST OF JURY MEMBERS .....	230
APPENDIX D: INITIAL CGCD TO BE VALIDATED BY EXPERT JURY.....	231
APPENDIX E: FINAL CGCD.....	248
APPENDIX F: CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE SUBJECTS.....	253
APPENDIX G: MAP FOR SELECTED REGIONS.....	257
APPENDIX H: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL .....	258



## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Characteristics of Management and Leadership .....	78
2. Professional Golf Management (PGM) Program.....	106
3. Fourteen Districts .....	129
4. Total Number of Subject Surveyed .....	132
5. Respondents by Different Districts .....	144
6. Respondents Rates by Disparate Types of Golf Facilities in Different Districts.....	145
7. Respondents by Different Types of Golf Facilities.....	148
8. Professional Certification .....	148
9. Classification of PGA Membership .....	150
10. Age by Disparate Golf Courses.....	151
11. Sex .....	152
12. Education Level.....	153
13. Annual Salary.....	154
14. Employment Experience Compared by Type of Golf Clubs .....	155
15. Yearly Rounds of Golf by Private, Semi-Private, and Public Golf Courses .....	157
16. Yearly Rounds of Golf by Diverse Districts.....	158
17. Membership Size for Disparate Golf Facilities .....	159
18. The Results of Multivariate Test of District 2, 11, 12, and 13 to Management Competencies of PGA Golf Professionals .....	163

Table	Page
19. The Results of Analysis of Variance Test of District 2, 11, 12, and 13 to Management Competencies of PGA Golf Professional.....	163
20. The Results of Mean Comparison for District 2, 11, 12, and 13 .....	164
21. The Results of Multivariate Test of Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Course to Management Competencies of PGA Golf Professionals .....	166
22. The Results of Analysis of Variance Test of Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Courses to Management competencies of PGA Golf Professionals.....	166
23. The Results of Mean Comparison for Private and Semi-private Golf Courses .....	167
24. Factor Analysis of Golf Management Competencies.....	173
25. Golf Management Competencies Factor 1: Golf Operations.....	174
26. Golf Management Competencies Factor 2: Client Care Development .....	177
27. Golf Management Competencies Items with Factor Loading < 40 .....	179

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Scree Plot of Eigenvalues .....	172

## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

Leisure plays a prominent role in people's lives and provides individuals with a way to harmonize the various parts of life (Kleiber, 1999). While many researchers have shown that leisure activity preferences vary widely, a common outcome of these experiences is to enhance self-worth and provide social opportunities for immediate enjoyment, excitement, and pleasure (Kleiber). Leisure activities can improve health, increase opportunities for social interaction, improve morale and life satisfaction, provide higher self-awareness, improve body image, invoke greater feelings of usefulness, and improve skills and the ability to function independently (Thompson, Sierpina, & Sierpina, 2001-2002).

Kelly and Freysinger (2000) suggested that participating in sports is considered leisure when participation is based on the experience of engaging in the sport itself. Participation in sports presents an individual with an enriched quality of life by stimulating participation in a range of non-sport leisure activities (Gratton & Tice, 1989). Regardless of whether an individual is participating in sports for a competitive or leisurely purpose, the experience gained from participating in the sport provides health benefits, challenge, excitement, satisfaction, and community-building (Edginton, Jordan, DeGraaf, & Edginton, 2002). In addition, participants of physical leisure activities, such

as sports, seem to be healthier, lead healthier lifestyles, and have a more active attitude regarding other leisure pursuits than non-participants (Kleiber, 1999).

According to Larson (1994), sports and recreational activities can provide opportunities to interact with others and reflect on social aspects of the self. Moreover, sports and physical activity provide immense and diverse benefits such as unexpected sensations of joy, increased satisfaction, connection with nature, and a perception of power (Clarkson, 1999). Therefore, physical activities such as sports provide an important setting for participants to have fun and improve their physical fitness, learned skills, social interaction, and life satisfaction (Kelly, 1996; Kleiber, 1999). People who are physically active and fit have better resources to enjoy a richer life and reach their full potential than people who are physically inactive (Edginton et al., 2002).

In the United States, many people enjoy leisure activities, and they spend over \$600 billion a year in the pursuit of pleasure through leisure (Stynes, Godbey, & Kraus, 2005). The Department of Commerce (2005) accounts for leisure spending to include recreational spending on radio, television, music, entertainment, sporting goods, home gardening, toys, books and magazines, travel, tourism, and recreational equipment such as boats, motor homes, and bicycles. There have been expansions in the fields of traditional sports (e.g., football, baseball, and basketball, etc), the fitness industry, X-sports, and others. The sporting industry has recently been described as one of the 10 largest money makers in the United States, generating over \$190 billion dollars a year (King, 2002).

According to the Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association Sports Participation Trends Report 2005 edition, since 1999, trends indicated that revenue from individual

sports continued to increase rapidly, while only modest increases were evident for team sports such as basketball, baseball, and football (SGMA, 2005). For these reasons, in a period when sports and money have often been associated with one another, it is logical that insightful business people searching for new investment possibilities would find potential in the developing golf industry (Eberl, 1985).

As one of the most popular leisure sports, the game of golf has been booming for the last 40 years (Kelly, 1987). According to Kelly and Freysinger (2000), golf participation increased 75 percent since 1994. Between 1987 and 2002, more than 30 percent of the United States' currently existing golf courses were built, and consumers have spent almost three times as much money on equipment and fees than they did before 1987 (King, 2002). The National Golf Foundation (NGF) reported that in 2004, 30.3 million Americans ages five and above either played a round of golf or visited one of the United States' golf facilities. Additionally, golfers spent \$24.3 billion in 2002 on equipment and fees. Further, in addition to 16,057 existing golf facilities, a total of 220 new golf courses opened their doors across the U.S. in 2004 (NGF, 2005).

The rapid growth of the golf industry has created a strong demand for skilled golf course management. Further, this surge of golf as a leisure activity has led to a tremendous opportunity to explore the managerial and financial needs of this industry. Golf and leisure service managers must be aware of the potential for financial loss and learn to effectively manage the immense risk that exists in their professions. Therefore, there is an urgent need for the management of golf and leisure service organizations to increase professionalism through varied practices of management and formal educational preparation. In the golf industry it is recognized that there are distinctions in job titles,

however, in the present study the terms manager, director, head golf professional, and administrator are used interchangeably because a director/head golf professional/manager/administrator gets things done by working with people and physical resources in order to accomplish the objectives of the organization (Hertz, 1965).

### *Statement of the Problem*

Because of chaotic and rapid changes in the business environment, technological advancements, and business strategies in the new millennium, the environment that golf course managers face is different from the one directors faced a decade ago. Today's golf course directors must incorporate new tools, technologies, and techniques as well as a variety of business strategies into golf management. Since golf course operation is complex and has many different aspects, the golf profession requires expertise in a variety of areas such as turf grass management, retail operations and merchandising, food and beverage management, personnel management, accounting, risk management, marketing, golf teaching skills, and customer services (PGA, 2005). This suggests that golf course directors need to constantly evolve to cope with changes as well as possess a variety of skills in golf itself, human resources, technical aspects, and business operations such as financial management, marketing, and budgeting.

Golf has a worldwide following (Kelly & Freysinger, 2000) and many researchers have described management competencies in a variety of sport contexts; however there have been no research efforts to specify and clarify contemporary management competencies that reflect the requirements of golf directors. In addition, there has been a

lack of concern about management theories in the golf industry. Thus, identifying competencies in golf management for private, semi-private, and public golf courses will provide a needed foundation for management research and help modify current education in the PGA and the effective training of future golf directors.

### *Purpose of the Study*

The purpose of this study was: (1) to identify differences in response toward the importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions of the United States; (2) to identify the differences in the perceived importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in the United States; (3) to determine if there was consistency among PGA golf professionals as to preferred competencies for golf course directors; and (4) to discover the importance of needed competencies identified in the PGA professionals' analysis for golf course directors in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in the United States.

### *Significance of the Study*

After looking at predictions for expected trends for sports businesses in the next decade, Mahny and Howard (2001) reported that the business dimension involves acquiring resources; promoting the course and its activities; and managing the resources to provide benefits to owners, players, employees, and the community. In addition, the



best practices in the golf industry relate to outstanding quality of service, efficiency, and customer satisfaction (Whetten & Cameron, 2002). The main purpose of a golf course is, naturally, the playing of golf and the enjoyment that participants derive from it. Without golfers, there is no need for a course or course director. In order to satisfy customers and advance the golf industry, golf professionals need to challenge many aspects of golf operations. For instance, golf course directors need to prepare golf course staff to accept the need for change, to help them understand new techniques, and to obtain their commitment to implement the suggestions received through the golf course's communication, evaluation, and reward systems.

In the United States, recreation/sports managers were once selected from coaching positions or were individuals who had superb careers as athletes in college or professional sports (Branch, 1985). The tendency of these former coaches- or players-turned administrators was to use coaching methods when dealing with their subordinates (Branch). This has been no exception in the golfing industry. Even though the industry has experienced a dramatic rise in popularity and facilities during the last 40 years (Kelly, 1987), there appears to be a lack of professional management. Though there are currently 28,000 Professional Golfers' Association of America (PGA) members (PGA, 2005), Klug (2001) pointed out that there is a shortage of qualified golf professionals in the industry. Klug remarked that only about 15 percent of golf courses were professionally managed by management firms, and the golf industry sought directors who are college-educated and possess business skills.

Although those filling the position of golf director need a strong background in management and golf skills, there are only a few directors who have diverse preparatory

and educational backgrounds in this field. Most directors or head professionals have been laypersons with little formal training or no educational background in management or sport administration (PGA, 2005). Traditionally, aspiring golf professionals finished high school and then entered the PGA apprenticeship program while apprenticing at golf courses; few of them completed a college degree (PGA). This may indicate a lack of awareness of management theories in the field of golf management. It is assumed that golf directors were not usually trained and prepared in areas of management skills such as budgeting, communication, administration, public relations, decision-making, or skills unique to directors of golf operations.

A similar argument has been made with respect to the qualifications of golf professionals performing a number of tasks in the golf facility, including golf course maintenance, club house administration, food and beverage operation, and other recreational activities at the facility (PGA, 2005). The popularity of golf as a leisure pursuit has created a demand for competent golf professionals capable of designing and delivering golf events, programs, and services (Dorn & Perrone, 1995). Rapid developments in technology and educational programs from the PGA have increased the importance and accountability for golf course directors in the golf market. Most golf course staff use modern technology to complete tasks from taking tee times to budgeting. Moreover, PGA and college educators have realized the importance of competent management and have established Professional Golf Management (PGM) programs in higher education. As of 2005, 16 universities were accredited by the PGA of America for their PGA/PGM programs (PGA, 2005).

Since 1992, the PGA of America has devoted a significant amount of energy and resources to providing professional training and continuing education opportunities for golf professionals (PGA, 2005). Furthermore, the PGA and other professional organizations, including the National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA) and the United States Golf Association (USGA), have a partnership agreement to promote the game of golf and increase playing at municipal golf courses for ethnic minorities, children, and family members (NRPA, 2005; PGA, 2005). Expanding the game of golf to reach additional populations increases the complexity of golf directors' duties and requires directors to develop an understanding of diverse contexts. For instance, directors need to plan new golf programs and services to meet the needs of those who play the game.

In addition to the complex job duties of golf directors, it is necessary to understand and anticipate essential qualities in a potential golf course director. Directors of golf operations must take into consideration that every golf course is different with respect to size; the number and level of full-time staff devoted to providing golf programs and services varies, as well. Thus, corporation owners or city superintendents seek competent golf professionals capable of planning and delivering a variety of golf programs in increasingly complex and diverse contexts. Golf professionals need to be competent in the areas of golf skills, event programming, communications, business, budgeting, governance, technology, and risk management in order to make golf operations successful (Barcelona, 2001; Toh, 1997).

This study identifies a profile of preferred and actual competencies of golf course directors. This information may be of interest to golf course operators and

superintendents when seeking to hire or promote a golf course director or head professional. The results indicate how golf course directors in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in selected regions were similar or different with regard to preferred competencies, as well as how management competencies differ among the four Districts. This information contributes to the body of knowledge necessary for golf course directors to possess within the recreation management discipline.

### *Delimitations*

According to Locke, Spirduso, and Silverman (1993), delimitations represent the populations to which generalizations may be safely made. The generalizability of the study includes “a function of the subject sample and the analysis employed. Literally, delimit indicates to define the limits inherent in the use of a particular construct or population” (p. 17). This study has the following delimitations:

1. The respondents were delimited to key golf professionals who operate golf courses, including golf course directors, head professionals, or general managers in four districts in the United States as identified by the PGA.

2. The golf course directors/ head professionals who participated in this study held mid or upper-management positions.

## *Limitations*

Locke and his colleagues (1993) denote limitations as confining situations or restrictive weaknesses. When a researcher cannot control all variables as a part of study design, or a researcher cannot make the optimal number of observations due to problems including “ethics or feasibility,” limitations occur (p. 18). This study has several limitations that warrant consideration. Limitations that may affect the interpretation of the results of this study are as follows:

1. The research is limited to willing respondents and may be biased by non-respondents.
2. This study utilized a self-reported electronic mail-survey instrument. Since the questionnaire was answered by respondents who agreed to participate in the study, the quality of responses relied on subjects’ motivation, honesty, and ability to respond. Although efforts were made to reduce response error, respondents may have misunderstood questions and may have given incomplete and/or inappropriate responses.
3. The usage of an electronic mail survey is not suited for older subjects as well as individuals who have limited understanding of the use of such technology. There is a likelihood that some may have a limited ability to access the Internet. Though email and Internet surveys are the fastest method of distributing a survey, approximately 45 PGA recognized golf facilities in the selected regions do not have an email address.
4. The lack of control over how questionnaires were completed by the respondents was also a limitation. The researcher had no control over the environment in

which the survey was administered. While the questionnaire is the least expensive survey method, it is also the most vulnerable to outside interference.

5. It is possible that a single participant could have submitted more than one completed questionnaire. Thus, this study is limited by the possibility of multiple responses from a single individual.

6. Individuals other than the intended participant may have completed the survey.

### *Research Questions*

1. Were there significant differences in the perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States?

2. Were there significant differences in the perceived importance of each competency among PGA golf professionals at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public)?

3. Was there consistency in the perceived importance of each competency among members of the PGA?

4. What competencies were considered by PGA golf professionals (director of golf operation, head professional, and manager) to be important to possess at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities in the United States?

## *Hypotheses*

It is hypothesized that:

1.  $H_0$ : There were no significant differences in the perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States.

$H_A$ : There were significant differences in the perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States.

2.  $H_0$ : There were no significant differences in the perceived importance of each competency among PGA golf professionals at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public).

$H_A$ : There were significant differences in the perceived importance of each competency among PGA golf professionals at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public).

3.  $H_0$ : There was no consistency in the perceived importance of each management competency among members of the PGA.

$H_A$ : There was consistency in the perceived importance of each management competency among members of the PGA.

4.  $H_0$ : Competency factors identified in the golf course directors' analysis were not considered by PGA golf professionals (director of golf operation, head professional, and manager) to be important at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities in the United States.

H<sub>A</sub>: Competency factors identified in the golf course directors' analysis were considered by PGA golf professionals (director of golf operation, head professional, and manager) to be important at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities in the United States.

### *Assumptions*

The study is based on the following assumptions:

1. The selected districts are representative of the PGA.
2. The respondents were truthful and possessed the necessary knowledge to comprehend all the statements in the questionnaire.
3. The golf management competencies were similar among all types of golf courses that make up the research sample.

### *Definition of Terms*

The following terms are defined to clarify their use in this study:

*Assistant Golf Professional.* An individual who is primarily employed at a PGA Recognized Golf Facility and spends at least 50% of time working on club repair, merchandising, handicapping records, inventory control, bookkeeping, and tournament operation under the direction of a Head Golf Professional, Director of Golf, General Manager, or Director of Instruction (PGA, 2005).



*Apprentices.* Registrants in the PGA Professional Golf Management (PGM) program are referred to as Apprentices (PGA, 2005).

*Class A Member.* An individual who holds membership privileges after completing the PGM program from the PGA of America. Class A members are divided into classifications that range from A-1 to A-24 depending on their employment classification. For instance, PGA members who are employed as a Head Golf Professional hold an A-1 membership whereas a Director of Golf holds an A-4 membership (PGA, 2005).

*Competency.* The ability that an individual brings to a situation. This may be a specific capability, aptitude, or knowledge that is relevant to meeting the requirements of successful performance in a specific setting (Boyatzis, 1982). It may concern a person's more generalized intelligence, which is of consequence to a broad spectrum of situations, or it may concern a person's understanding of how to realign an entire organizational culture (Tichy & Ulrich, 1983).

*District.* PGA Sections are organized into 14 Districts. Each district includes three sections (PGA, 2005).

*Director of Golf.* An individual who directs the total golf operation of a PGA recognized golf facility, including the golf shop, golf range, golf car operations (if applicable), and supervision of the Head Golf Professional and staff (PGA, 2005).

*Expert Jury.* Group of five individuals who voluntarily participated in this study to test instrument validity prior to its distribution to subjects. These individuals worked as golf course directors/head professionals at PGA-recognized facilities. They were

nationally prominent in the golf management field and had at least ten years of practical experience in golf course operation.

*General Management.* General Managers and/or Directors of Club Operation manage the entire golf facility including golf operations, golf course maintenance, club house administration, food and beverage operation, supervision of staff, and other recreational activities at the facility (PGA, 2005).

*Golf Course Maintenance Staff.* This refers to an individual primarily employed in the management of all activities in relation to maintenance, operation, and management of a golf course. Such individuals are required to satisfy the criteria of either a Golf Course superintendent or Assistant Golf Course Superintendent as defined by the Golf Course Superintendent's Association of America (PGA, 2005).

*Golf Profession.* Line of work that includes fields related to the game of golf. Such fields include facility operations, turf grass management, equipment rental/sale, private lessons, food and beverage management, and merchandising (PGA, 2005). Golf professionals in fields such as tour professionals, golf retail, and directors in colleges were not included in this study.

*Head Golf Professional.* An individual whose primary employment involves the ownership and operation of a golf shop at a PGA Recognized Golf Facility or the supervision and direction of the golf shop and supervision of teaching at a PGA Recognized Golf Facility (PGA, 2005).

*Leisure.* Leisure is an experience that occurs during free time throughout an engagement that is freely chosen for the intrinsic motivation inherent in participating in it (Kleiber, 1999).

*National Recreation and Park Association (NRPA).* The NRPA is the major professional association of the parks and recreation profession. It is a non-profit service, research, and educational organization. It advocates the importance of thriving, local park systems; the opportunity for all Americans to lead healthy, active lifestyles; and the preservation of great community places (NRPA, 2005).

*Professional Golfers' Association of America (PGA).* The PGA is the national governing body of professional golfers for the United States. It is a non-profit organization that promotes the enjoyment of and involvement in the game of golf. The PGA aims to contribute to the growth of the game by providing services to golf professionals and the golf industry; the PGA has more than 28,000 men and women golf professionals. (PGA, 2005).

*Professional Golf Management Program (PGM).* An educational program offered by the PGA designed to teach the skills and knowledge needed by golf professionals (PGA, 2005).

*PGA Golf Management Schools.* Golf management programs conducted by colleges and universities accredited and recognized by the PGA (PGA, 2005).

*PGA Members.* Golf professionals and others who qualify for membership in accordance with the Bylaws and Regulations of the PGA (PGA, 2005).

*PGA Recognized Golf Facilities.* Golf courses and golf ranges that meet the standards established by the PGA. All PGA Recognized Golf Facilities are fully equipped to teach golf and demonstrate the use of all types of golf equipment. With the exception of PGA Recognized Golf Ranges, recognized golf facilities also include golf shops adequate for the display and sale of golf equipment and apparel (PGA, 2005).

*PGA Recognized Golf School.* This is the same as a PGA Golf Management School.

*Section.* The PGA is divided into geographical areas determined by the Board of Directors. These areas are called “Sections.” Sections cover an area approximately 140 square miles (PGA, 2005).

*Teaching Professional.* An individual employed at PGA Recognized Golf Facilities, PGA Recognized Golf Schools, and/or PGA Recognized Indoor Facilities and serve as either golf instructors, supervisors of golf instructors, or individuals who instruct PGA Professionals how to teach (PGA, 2005).

*Tournament Director.* An individual primarily employed in the coordination, planning, and implementation of golf events for organizations, businesses, or associations (PGA, 2005).

*United States Golf Association (USGA).* The USGA is the national governing body of golf for the United States, its territories and Mexico. It is a non-profit organization operated by golfers for the benefit of golfers (USGA, 2005).

## CHAPTER II

### Review of the Literature

The literature related to management competencies of golf course directors is reported in this chapter. Management theorists have investigated management competencies in different fields among managers with various levels of managerial job tasks. Demographic factors such as sex, educational level, ethnicity, and experience may influence managers' job performance. Little research has been reported regarding demographic differences. The research that has been found regarding this topic is presented. In studies where no demographic information was found, because of the known demographics of golfers and golf professionals, it can be assumed the studies were conducted with mostly with white males. This may also be true of much management research cited. For purposes of organization, a review of literature is presented in the following areas: the golf industry, golf course directors, management concepts, management competencies, recreation/sport management competencies, golf management overview, Dillman survey methodology, non-response bias, validity and reliability, and summary.

## *The Golf Industry*

There are many different accounts of the history of golf in the literature. According to the PGA (1990), the origin of the game of golf remains unknown. Many countries such as Switzerland, France, Belgium, Germany, Rome, and China had golf-like games since the 13<sup>th</sup> century. However, the Scots claim golf as their own because they played a game of golf that closely resembles modern golf; the Scots credit themselves with spreading golf to other countries (PGA). In the beginning of the Middle Ages, traders and sailors from Scotland and Holland enjoyed the game of golf rather than participating in local sports. Golf became an “official” game when the Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St. Andrews, Scotland, was founded in 1754 (Graffis, 1975). Golf first boomed in Scotland in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Due to immigration, many Scots left their country to make a living in other lands and took the game of golf with them.

The first golf course in the United States, St. Andrew’s Golf Club, was founded in Yonkers, New York in 1888 (PGA, 1990). Though there is evidence that golf was played at several locations prior to 1888, St. Andrew’s is believed to be the first U.S. golf course because it is the oldest continuously operating club as well as one of the five founding clubs of the United States Golf Association (USGA, 2005). Since the first golf course was established in the United States, golf has grown into a huge business (Graffis, 1975). The growth of golf made the business of the game the third largest American sports business in 1950s (Graffis).

In the United States, golf courses are classified into three types: (1) private (country club), open for play by members, (2) public (municipal or other governmental

courses owned by a city or some other unit of government), open to the public for play, and (3) semi-private (privately or publicly held), open to the public with membership optional. Each type of golf course has a different purpose in terms of profitability.

Initially, private golf clubs were created mostly in the northeastern United States for social purposes rather than for profit (Eberl, 1985). Golf and country clubs evolved together between 1880 and 1930 (Moss, 2001). During this time, organized sports activities began to serve a social function and became an important part of American culture (Moss). People found coherence and meaning in small socially and ethnically homogeneous (i.e., status and ethnic) communities (Moss). American country clubs were the social center for their surrounding areas, and selected groups of people (i.e., white males) were encouraged to participate in golf for the sake of general sociability. Today, country clubs still serve a social purpose, and the associated private golf courses are also quite profitable. Membership fees, financial back-up (tax redemption), and dues allow private golf course owners to make money in terms of profitability (Favila, 1995).

As the game of golf spread, public courses were developed for less affluent individuals who could not afford a membership at a private course. During the industrial era of the mid-1800s, the United States government increased spending on parks and recreation facilities, such as municipal, national, and state parks (Edginton et al, 2002). The locally government-funded parks, maintained by municipalities or recreation districts, became ideal places to develop golf courses for the general public. Because of these public courses, the popularity of golf grew rapidly (Eberl, 1985). In terms of profitability, municipal golf courses depend on a large volume of golfers who use public golf courses.

Semi-private golf courses comprise 58 percent of the total number of courses in the United States (NGF, 2005). Semi-private courses have formed recently and are usually owned by corporations such as golf management firms. They combine private enterprise and public interest in their daily fees and activities (Favila, 1995). Semi-private course owners thrive on green fees, golf-shop sales, the restaurant and bar trade, and golf cart rentals more so than do those of private or public courses (Eberl, 1985). The profit motive is crucial in daily fee operations, and semi-private management firms are entrepreneurs with an interest in the game of golf and a new breed of business (Eberl). According to Symonds (1989), these corporations also increase involvement in real estate developments surrounding golf courses, set up international operations, and add golf resorts to their holdings. Additionally, in a study on differential perceptions of potential home buyers, real estate brokers, and homeowners regarding resort homes, Howard (1981) found that golf and tennis amenities were important factors in influencing people's home purchases.

Regardless of the type of course one plays, today people of all ages and abilities play and enjoy golf for a variety reasons. In order to understand the needs of golfers, it is necessary to be aware of what motivates people to play golf. In a study of the distinct dimensions of golf participants' motivations and constraints, Petrick, Backman, Bixler, and Norman (2001) assessed how often both male and female respondents played golf, the total number of rounds played, and the number of different golf courses at which people played. They devised five categories of golfers from low experience on few golf courses to high experience on many golf courses. The results of their study indicated that people play golf for four reasons: 1) for a leisure pursuit, such as relaxation, fun, exercise,



and friendship; 2) for status, such as playing a high-status sport, being with business colleagues, and meeting other golfers; 3) for family enjoyment, such as being with spouse and sharing golf experiences with other family members; and 4) for competition, such as playing competitive sports and developing better golf skills.

While Petrick and his associates (2001) demonstrated the motivation of golfers, Cohn (1991) investigated the psychological characteristics of peak performance in golf. Cohn conducted a study to measure internal factors in golf experiences among 19 golfers using open-ended interviews. A total of nine psychological dimensions emerged from the interviews: (1) temporary, focusing on the time frame of the peak experience; (2) narrow focus of attention, one area of focus during the performance; (3) automatic and effortless performance, requiring little conscious thought; (4) immersed in the present, thoughts only on the present moment (not on previous holes or holes yet to play); (5) feeling of control, control over actions, emotions, and thoughts; (6) self-confidence, feeling superior to other golfers and imagine having the ability to execute desired shots; (7) absence of fear, avoid negative consequences while performing at their peak; (8) relaxed, calm mind and no tension; (9) fun or enjoyment, feeling of mastery and achieving their goals. Cohn's findings indicated that golfers rated fun and enjoyment as very high during the peak golf performance. Fun and enjoyment during a peak golf experience correlated with performance or a product of peak performance. Performance and psychological factors are important for the enjoyment and the satisfaction with the golf experience.

Consistent with Cohn's (1991) findings, Beggs (2002) conducted a mixed methods study on activity satisfaction in golf and simulated golf. Beggs investigated golfers in simulated and natural golf environments to determine and compare the

satisfying factors of each activity using observation, nominal group technique, and surveys. In his investigation, Beggs used both qualitative (observation) and quantitative (survey) methods. A sample of 24 subjects participated in the observation phase of the study and in the nominal group technique. Three foursomes (12 subjects for simulated golf and 12 for golf in the natural environment) were observed in a round of golf or simulated golf. Nominal group interviews took place immediately with the groups following their round of golf or simulated golf. A total of 60 golfers (30 in simulated golf and 30 in natural golf environments) were chosen to complete the questionnaire at the Bloomington Sportplex and the Eagle Pointe Golf Course in Indiana. Beggs revealed that the satisfying factors of golf in the natural environment included psychological, educational, social, relaxation, physiological, and aesthetic dimensions. Respondents played golf in simulated environments because of social and relaxation factors. Overall, golf was found to be a satisfying activity and golf in a natural environment was more satisfying than simulated golf.

Similarly, Petrick, Backman, and Bixler (1999) investigated the determinants of golfer satisfaction and perceived value. Perceived value is derived when consumers believe they have obtained more than they gave for either a product or a service (Zeithaml, 1988). Patrick and his associates conducted a study to examine selected factors of both a satisfying experience on a golf course and one with perceived values at three different types of golf courses in the Cleveland area. Golf courses were classified into categories of “Premier” (18 hole courses with numerous amenities), “Quality” (18 hole courses with few amenities), and “9-hole Courses.”

Petrick and his colleagues measured overall satisfaction, perceived value, mastery, important characteristics of a golfing experience, services and features offered by golf course, and demographics. A total of 1,397 subjects were randomly selected from six different Cleveland Metro Parks golf courses during a six month period. Findings indicated that golfers' satisfaction and perceived values varied for different types of courses played. Petrick and his associates also found that the demographic factors linked to golfers' overall satisfaction and perceived value differed by the type of golf course played. Further, differences existed in the types of golf course services and features that predicted golfers' satisfaction and perceived value at different types of golf courses. With regard to measuring the external attributes of a golf course that contribute to satisfaction at that level of course, maintenance of greens, staff courtesy, pace of play management, tee time availability, and maintenance of tees were contributors to explaining satisfaction.

Consistent with findings from some researchers (Beggs, 2002; Cohn, 1991; Petrick, Backman, & Bixler, 1999; Petrick et al., 2001), golf is a satisfying activity. When an activity is satisfying, individuals continue to engage in the activity (Beard & Ragheb, 1980). Studies from researchers (Beggs; Cohn; Petrick, Backman, & Bixler; Petrick et al.) provided important implications for golf course management. Along with market sharing due to the increasing number of golf courses (NGF, 2005), golf course directors/head professionals need to investigate the factors that influence golfers to use and return to their facilities. For instance, factors such as employment, age, income, sex, number of children, mastery, and purchase intentions have been shown to be linked to satisfaction and perceived value (Petrick et al.) According to scholars (Jayanti & Ghosh, 1996; Spreng, Mackenzis, & Olshavsky, 1996), increases in satisfaction and perceived

value have raised customers' repeat usage. Information regarding personal factors and golf course amenities are predictors of golfers' satisfaction and perceived value at different golf course types. Therefore, golf course directors/head professionals are expected to have the skills to change the golfing experience and marketing plans to maximize their resources, as well as their clientele's experience.

As the game's popularity has grown, the golf market has been escalating gradually (Kelly, 1987). The golf market consists of golf-related travel, golf equipment manufacturers, and media coverage. Worldwide media coverage of the game includes television coverage of golfing events, a booming golf magazine industry, and a growing recognition of star players (Schmuckler, 1995). Modern technologies, such as television and the Internet, have provided an outlet to generate additional income from merchandise, ticket, and sponsorship sales (Bernstein, 2000). For example, the Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association (SGMA, 2000) reported that between 1993 and 2000 customer purchases of sports apparel through technology such as the Internet grew 43%, from \$27 billion in 1993 to \$39 billion in 2000.

In a study on an analysis of Internet marketing in the sport industry, Brown (1999) conducted research to understand the usage of the Internet as an effective marketing tool. A stratified sampling of 750 sport organizations in the performance segment of the industry listed in the 1998 Sports Market Place was selected to collect information on the status of marketing through the Internet using a questionnaire survey. Findings indicated that most Web Sites provided information regarding the organization to visitors and promoted awareness of the organization. Brown suggested that sport marketers need to focus on the on-line consumer/seller relationship.

Consistent with the development of Internet marketing, Leavitt and Whisler (1958) and Uris (1958) predicted that changes in managers' scope and activities would happen because of new technology such as computers. The activities of golf course directors are altered with technological advancements. For example, a personal data processor at the director's desk provides instant electronic contact with every other staff member. In a survey on the impact of the computer on the manager's role among middle managers, Pedigo (1986) found that the heaviest computer users were first-level managers. However, Pedigo predicted that usage of the computer would increase at higher-levels when entry-level managers were promoted.

In addition, technology appears to provide a vehicle through which golf course directors can help determine business ideas, sell products, and gain customer loyalty in the most effective way. Computer usage and the Internet will require golf course directors to carefully consider a whole range of critical issues such as revenue opportunities related to making tee times, virtual advertising, sponsorship, and merchandising (Stotlar, 2000).

Along with the usage of technology, television sponsorship is an immense business. The SGMA (2001) conducted a survey on sporting goods companies' spending on general marketing activities from 44 SGMA member companies. The study revealed that network television had the greatest increases in spending for sports programs since 1994 among the 31 items surveyed. Similarly, television coverage of golf has been growing dramatically, and advertising packages for TV golf events increased 49 percent between 1986 and 1995 (Schmuckler, 1995). Much of the increase was due to growing product demands from golf equipment manufacturers and tournament title sponsors, who comprised most advertising expenditures on televised golf (Barry, 1994). In fact, twice

the number of companies were trying to sell golf equipment in 1995 when compared to the 1980s (Schmuckler). Those numbers have continued to increase from 1995 to the present (SGMA). The SGMA marketing expenditures study revealed that merchandising expenditures related to golf in 1999 kept pace with 1994 expenditures. The size of the sports merchandising (e.g., equipment, apparel, etc) market was \$46 billion at wholesale in 1999. In terms of the spending level, approximately 30% of total dollars was spent on merchandising (SGMA).

Clearly, the game of golf has been commercialized, and businesses have turned competition into capitalism. In such a highly competitive marketplace, Stevens and Grover (1998) reported that organizations often utilize their most popular assets (e.g. athletes, celebrities, etc). For example, in a study of sporting goods companies' marketing expenditures, the SGMA (2000) reported that 80% of sporting goods companies incorporated promotional activities (e.g., athlete endorsements, event sponsorship etc.) in their marketing plans. Athlete and/or celebrity and other endorsements are the most common form of promotions, as they account for 43% of the promotional budget (SGMA).

Since endorsements and sponsorships are good marketing tools, popular golf personalities draw considerable interest from the public, and organizations make the most out of the stars by taking full advantage of their potential when they are most popular. In a study of the effectiveness of using athletes in advertising, Dowell (1994) found that featuring star athletes as advertisements are effective in positively influencing buyer behavior. Further, his study indicated that single and young adult consumers with an average income and an interest in sports tended to be influenced by this type of

advertising. For instance, the USGA, PGA, Nike, and other companies capitalized on the popularity of Tiger Woods because he attracts larger audiences and generates more sales than any other golf professional of his time. In 1999, Nike signed Tiger Woods for \$20 million; an investment which led to a profit of over \$200 million (Watt, 2003).

Mahny and Howard (2001) predicted new trends and strategies to help maximize profits in the sports industry during the next decade. Improved revenue generation and cost containment will be issues for many sport organizations because the general growth in the economy of the sporting industry probably will not continue for the next decade. To remain viable in the sports industry, golf course directors will need to explore a variety of strategies previously unavailable or not thoroughly utilized to generate more revenues because of economic declines. Because golf is often viewed as a luxury as opposed to a necessity, golf course directors need creative strategies such as “taking advantage of new technology, exploiting the big events, rivalries, stars, improved targeting efforts by small organizations, tapping new markets, and reconnect with traditional consumers” (p. 275).

### *Golf Course Directors*

Making a distinction between director, manager, and administrator has been a recurring problem over the years. According to Fayol’s (1930) viewpoints of administrative theory, there is a difference between management and administration: management is an integrating force and administration works solely through people. Although distinctions have been acknowledged, the terms have been used

interchangeably and the term management is often used regardless of whether one is referring to business organizations, hospitals, or government bureaus (Jensen, 1983; Wren, 1972). According to Weber (1927) and Taylor (1947), management or administration denoted the practice of control on the basis of knowledge. Both sought “technical competence in leaders who would lead by virtue of fact and not whim, by ability and not favoritism” (Wren, p. 231).

In the golf industry, the term director is often used rather than “administrator” or “manager.” The term, director of golf, refers to a person who manages the whole golf operation of golf facilities recognized by the PGA (PGA, 2005). Therefore, the main duties of manager, administrator, and director require coordinating and integrating the activities and work of others (Barnard, 1938; Follett, 1930; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974). Regardless of title, an executive, chief of police, athletic director, school principal, recreation director, general manager, or sport manager are all believed to be managers, administrators, or directors.

In the golf industry, there is considerable overlap in usage of the terms Director of Golf and Head Golf Professional. The duties and responsibilities of both positions are basically the same in terms of ownership and operation of golf activities at a PGA recognized golf facility. When both positions are available in a PGA recognized golf facility, the Director of Golf is responsible for the total golf operation including the golf shop, golf range, golf car operations, and the supervision of the Head Golf Professional, while a Head Golf Professional is responsible for supervision and direction of the golf shop, and supervision of teaching at a PGA Recognized Golf Facility (PGA, 2005). When there is only a Head Golf Professional position available in a PGA recognized golf



facility, he/she is responsible for the total golf operation as the Director of Golf would be. Henceforth, the term Director of Golf and Head Golf Professional will be used interchangeably.

### *Management Concepts*

Scholars have defined management as the process of administering and coordinating resources effectively, efficiently, and in an effort to achieve the goals of the organization (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Hitt, Middlemist, & Mathis, 1986; Lewis, Goodman, & Fandt, 1995). According to Barnard (1938), to achieve effectiveness an organization should pursue specific objectives or appropriate goals while also avoiding offsetting dissatisfactions. For instance, efficiency is achieved by using the fewest inputs (e.g., people, money, time, and material, etc.) to generate a given output. According to Drucker (1967), effectiveness means “get the right things done” and efficiency means “doing things right” (p. 1-2). Over time, different perceptions about organizational objectives and human behavior have evolved different viewpoints on management. In addition, many environmental conditions, such as political, social, economical, technological, and international impacts, have caused a change in the way managers approach the task of management.

Since early management perspectives laid the groundwork for important management thought and practices today, it is worthwhile to review the evolution of management concepts. The evolution of management concepts included the classical perspective, the behavioral perspective, management science perspective, system

approach, and contemporary management perspectives. Each concept is introduced very briefly below.

### *Classical Perspectives*

During the early 1900s, the formation of modern corporations and factory systems presented challenges in efficiently operating and organizing complex organizations. The challenges and complexities that these corporations encountered corresponded with the development of the classical perspectives of management (Wren, 1972). The classical perspectives of management provided important concepts for the management and outline of organizations (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973). Practitioners and theorists derived classical management concepts and made their recorded observations and experiences into common guiding principles (Kast & Rosenzweig).

According to Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (2002), classical practitioners and theorists aspired to either the one best way of job performance or founding a firm using the scientific method of management. These theories were comprised of scientific management, bureaucratic management, and administrative management, each of which has a different focal point (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Hitt et al., 1986; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973; Thompson, 1966; Wren, 1972).

*Scientific management.* Scientific management was proposed by Frederick W. Taylor, who viewed management as a science rather than using the old “rule of thumb” approach (Taylor, 1929). In management, the rule of thumb simply meant that present

managers followed the ways of previous managers. Due to problematic management practices, the primary emphasis of scientific management involved increasing efficient ways to perform jobs (Taylor; Lewis et al., 1995).

To determine the one best way of job performance, Taylor (1947) examined task performance, supervision, and motivation through observations. In the area of task performance, Taylor (1911) proposed four principles:

1. Each person's job should be broken down into elements, and a scientific way to perform each element should be determined;
2. Workers should be scientifically selected and trained to do the work in the designed manner;
3. There should be good cooperation between management and workers so that tasks are performed in the designed manner;
4. There should be a division of labor between managers and workers; managers should take over the work of supervising and setting up instructions and designing the work, and the workers should be free to perform the work itself.

(p. 36-37)

In the area of supervision, since a single supervisor could not be an expert at all tasks, Taylor (1911) divided tasks among several first level supervisors, referred to as foremen [*sic*], with each having a separate responsibility for such duties as planning, production scheduling, time and motion studies, and material handling. Piece-rate incentives were used to reward employees for performing jobs efficiently since the largest amount of income went to the workers who produced the maximum output.

Advocates of scientific management included Barth, Cooke, and Emerson, who “spread the gospel of efficiency” (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, p. 56). Additionally, Gantt, known for developing scientific charts for planning work flow (Kast & Rosenzweig), and Gilbreth, who specialized in time and motion studies to determine the most efficient way to perform tasks, were also supporters of scientific management (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Hitt et al., 1986).

According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1974), scientific management spread rapidly throughout the industry and made important contributions to administrative management and Weber’s bureaucratic model. For instance, scientific management “emphasized the need for specialized labor, fostered the beginnings of job design, and emphasized the desirability of well-trained employees” (Hitt et al., 1986, p. 46). Despite these notable contributions, scientific management had criticisms. Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (2002) drew attention to the fact that scientific management ignored the social context of work and the needs of workers. They contended that because scientific management evaluated every facet of a worker’s performance, it dehumanized working conditions and ruled out the possibility of employee initiative. The scientific management approach presumed managers to be innovative and capable of coming up with new, usable ideas, which was not always the case.

*Administrative management.* While scientific management focused on the productivity of the individual worker, administrative management focused on the functions of management and the delineation of general principles of management (Breeze, 1983; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973). In other words, administrative management

looked for the best way to combine jobs and people into an efficient organization. Fayol (1930) introduced the concept of administrative management, and he was the first to recognize that successful managers had to understand the basic managerial processes or functions such as planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. Fayol focused on managerial levels and the organization as a whole.

Following Fayol's (1930) concept of administrative management, researchers outlined managerial positions and compared with norms for the different levels of management. In terms of managerial work roles and relationships, Thomason (1967) conducted a study related with an average number of tasks for different levels of management. His study revealed that there were four different levels of management along with different numbers of job duties including: foreman [*sic*], 413; superintendent, 309; area superintendent, 274; and general managers, 91.

In a study on functions of middle managers, Nealey and Fiedler (1968) found typical activities for first-line and second-line supervisors. The first-level supervisors were concerned with production, on the job training, control of materials and supplies, and maintenance. The functions of second-level supervisors included cost control, setting standards, selection and placement, coordination of work units, and formal training. Second-level managers needed less technical capability regarding specific production processes than did the first-level managers. In addition, second-level managers supervised several departments including different technical processes.

With regard to the dimensions of managerial jobs, Dowell and Wexley (1978) factor analyzed the importance of 89 work activities among 251 first-line supervisors. Their study revealed that factor structures received from the inter-correlations among

ratings of importance were highly similar to those received from the inter-correlations among the ratings of the amount of time spent in an activity. The result of factor analysis indicated that the 89 work activities were categorized within seven dimensions for first-level supervisors including (1) working with subordinates, (2) organizing the work of subordinates, (3) work planning and scheduling, (4) maintaining efficient and high-quality production, (5) maintaining safe/clean work areas, (6) maintaining equipment and machinery, and (7) compiling records and reports.

Using a similar methodology, Tornow and Pinto (1976) conducted a survey on the functional responsibilities of different managerial positions among higher-level managers using Management Position Description Questionnaire. Their study revealed that 13 functions and associated work performed by managers could be differentiated and evaluated. Those 13 functions included: (1) product, marketing, and financial strategy planning, (2) coordination of other organization units and personnel, (3) internal business control, (4) products and services responsibility, (5) public and customer relations, (6) advanced consulting, (7) autonomy of action, (8) approval of financial commitments, (9) staff service, (10) supervision, (11) complexity and stress, (12) advanced financial responsibility, and (13) broad personnel responsibility.

Based on results of the studies among first-line supervisors and higher-level managers, it appears as though lower-level managers spend most of their time within their own departments or organizations and executives work wide variety of tasks and contacted with outside the organization. With regard to an observational study of managerial activities, Luthans, Rosenkrantz, and Hennessey (1985) also found that networking, socializing, and playing politics were important for successful managers.

They conducted an observation of 52 managers in a state department of revenue, a manufacturing plant, and a campus police department. Successful managers engaged more in tasks such as conflict management, planning, coordinating, and decision making than did less successful managers.

Similarly, in a study on relations of managers to others outside their immediate subordinates, Luthans (1986) observed three clusters among 300 managers. The three clusters included (1) routine communication associated with processing paperwork and exchanging routine information; (2) planning, decision making, and controlling; and (3) human resource management activities (e.g., motivating, positively reinforcing, disciplining, punishing, managing conflict, staffing, and training and developing). His study revealed that although routine activities within the organization were deemed important, the most important tasks for managers were networking, socializing, and politicking.

With regard to a hierarchical level within the functional areas of data processing, finance, and merchandising, McHenry (1986) conducted research among 343 managers in a large retail organization. He measured pay grade between entry-level and middle-managers and their activities, depending on their functions. His study revealed that managerial positions made a difference in what tasks a manager performed. The managerial positions were also affected by the manager's functional area. For instance, the managerial task of supervising showed stronger relations with the position in merchandising than with positions in data processing and finance. In terms of long-range planning, the positions in finance and merchandising were rated higher than data processing. In general, the effect of hierarchical level was less strong in data processing.

Overall, each level of managers' interests and roles appeared to be different from one another. Middle managers were concerned with clients, sponsors, and the community, as well as their subordinates. Entry-level managers were concerned with their peers, the interests of their superiors, and the interests of others (e.g., union stewards, outside inspectors).

In order to describe the position of manager, Page and Tornow (1987) conducted a study for 108 executives, 125 managers, and 196 supervisors in different industries and different organizational levels. The importance, criticality, and frequency of occurrence of the respondents' job tasks were evaluated using factor analysis. The 10 factor profiles for different levels of management were: planning, controlling, strategic decision making, monitoring business indicators, supervising, coordinating, sales/marketing, public relations, consulting, administration, and labor relations. Executive positions were similar in their functions of planning, controlling, monitoring business indicators, and public relations. Managers' positions were similar to those of the executives in planning, controlling, coordinating, and consulting while remaining similar to the supervisors in monitoring business indicators, sales/marketing, and public relations. Supervisors' positions were scored significantly higher in supervising functions (activities) than those of the executives and managers. Supervisors rated relatively low scores compared to the others on most of the other factors.

Similarly, in a study of the role of middle managers, Dunnette (1986) conducted research comparing 574 first-level, 466 middle-level, and 165 executive managers using a factor analysis. Of 65 managerial roles, respondents rated seven important tasks including: monitoring the business environment, planning and allocating resources,



managing individuals' performance, instructing subordinates, managing the performance of groups, representing the group, and coordinating groups. In terms of managerial functions between different levels of managers, as the hierarchical level of management increased, so did levels of monitoring and coordinating. Concurrently, the instruction of subordinates and the management of individuals' performance decreased.

Although there were many elements in Fayol's administrative theory, the importance and impact of his precepts have evolved in many areas of management, especially the organizational process (Lewis et al., 1995). In addition, Fayol's principles on subordinate initiative, harmony, and team spirit are particularly applicable toward encouraging creativity and teamwork in the workplace (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973).

*Bureaucratic management.* According to Wren (1972), the theory of bureaucratic management was introduced by Weber (1927). Since small family businesses were becoming large and complex enterprises, Weber focused on the overall managerial system (Mee, 1962). His contributions helped establish a relationship between the economy of organizations and society as a whole. In Weber's view, the growth of large organizations required rational capitalism, similar to military administration. This led to "stable, strict, intensive, and calculated administration" (Weber, p. 307). Since capitalism had been a crucial factor in the development of bureaucracy (Wren), Weber suggested that a clearly defined hierarchy with well-defined reporting relationships was an efficient way to maintain managerial accountability.

The concepts of Weber's bureaucracy were to promote a well-defined, rational, and impersonal administration since resources were often used to satisfy individual

desires rather than the organization's goals (Hitt et al., 1986). Bureaucratic management was based on "clear division of labor, a well-defined hierarchy of authority, firm rules, and impersonal relations" (Lewis et al., 1995, p. 47). Consistent with Weber's bureaucratic management, Mintzberg (1973) proposed a dynamic model of executive roles.

Mintzberg conducted a study on calendars of five CEOs' scheduled appointments and their organizations for a month. Additionally, he collected data from CEOs that included subjective data about specific activities, chronological records of activity patterns, a record of incoming and outgoing mail, and a record of the executive's verbal contacts with others. Mintzberg's study revealed that the CEOs worked at a persistent pace on a variety of activities, along with frequent interruptions. The CEOs favored handling currently important tasks along with specific and well-defined works over activities on general functions of uncertainty and less immediate relevance. With regard to communication patterns, CEOs preferred written contact over verbal contact. Previously, the tendency for interpersonal interaction among many cited large-scale organizations was primarily verbal rather than written (Bass, 1990).

Mintzberg's (1973) model included both internal and external activities of organization for CEOs. The managerial roles presented by Mintzberg contained 10 management tasks categorized into interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles. The interpersonal dimension consisted of three roles: (1) figurehead role, performing symbolic activities of a legal or social nature; (2) leader role, establishing the work atmosphere and motivating subordinates; and (3) liaison role, developing and maintaining network of outside contacts to obtain favors and information. The informational aspect

consisted of three roles: (1) monitor role, collecting all information relevant to the organization; (2) disseminator role, transmitting information from the outside to subordinates in the organization; (3) spokesman [*sic*] role, transmitting information to outsiders on the organization's plans, policies, actions, results, etc. Lastly, the decisional category included four roles: (1) entrepreneur, initiating improvement projects to bring about changes and adapting to the changing condition in the environment; (2) disturbance handler, dealing with corrective action and/or unexpected disturbances; (3) resource allocator, making decisions regarding the use of organizational resources; (4) negotiator, representing the organization and dealing with others.

According to Mintzberg (1975), the 10 managerial roles are incorporated tasks. Therefore, every level of manager may use Mintzberg's managerial roles when possessing formal authority over an organizational unit. Formal authority guides interpersonal roles, which result in three informational roles. Further, the manager plays the four decisional roles through the authority and informational roles. However, there were overlaps or difficulties in the tasks among Mintzberg's managerial roles (Snyder & Wheelen, 1981). For instance, since the roles were not mutually exclusive, one activity seemed relevant to several roles. Though a manager acts as a representative figurehead of his/her organization when presenting at the meeting, he/she may also act as liaison, monitor, and/or spokesperson.

In a study on the influence of hierarchical levels and functional specialties in managerial roles and required skills, knowledge, and abilities, Pavett and Lau (1983) surveyed 180 top, middle, and lower managers from a wide variety of private sector services and manufacturing firms in southern California. They measured 54 items

regarding the importance to managers' success of enacting Mintzberg's (1973) 10 managerial roles plus technical skills. Their study revealed that hierarchical level supported differences in the rated importance of the managerial roles. For instance, conceptual skills as well as external roles including liaison, spokesperson, and figurehead were more important at a higher level of management than at the lower levels. Among lower and middle level managers, interpersonal (e.g., leadership), informational roles (e.g., dissemination), and technical skills were rated as important for successful job performance.

Bureaucratic management has made positive contributions to modern managerial thought (Lewis et al., 1995; Hitt et al., 1986). For instance, impersonal rules and procedures presented a fair and consistent way to deal with staff relations. However, while bureaucratic management may express an ideal model in terms of formal relationships, the consequences of such rigidity and structure sometimes did not contribute to healthy organizational functioning or effectiveness (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973). In addition, as indicated in several studies (Mintzberg, 1973; 1975; Pavett & Lau, 1983) through observations and questionnaire surveys, management functions differed based on managers' area of responsibility in the organization, managers' hierarchical level in the organization, special orientation of an organization, and changes within organizations.

For instance, in a study on senior executives' missions in their organizations, Herbert and Deresky (1987) surveyed general managers in 24 Canadian companies using interviews and questionnaires. Their study showed that general managers were involved in different tasks depending on their organizations' strategies. When the organizations

tried to develop themselves by expanding their markets, personnel, and investments, the most important functions and tasks for their general managers were marketing, finance, and research and development. When the organizations tried to stabilize themselves by cutting costs and improving productivity and investments, the functions of consequence to their general managers were finance, production engineering, and research and development. Interestingly, despite the organization's strategy, the general manager must be an effective leader. Herbert and Deresky stressed that this human resources function played an important role over many other functions which assigned to the manager.

### *Transition from Classical to Behavioral Management*

People who utilized classical management contributed to the concept and practice of management. Nevertheless, classical theory has had several drawbacks. Classical theory has been criticized for employing closed-system assumptions about the organization which are unrealistic, and some contend it failed to consider many environmental and internal influences (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Hitt et al., 1986; Wren, 1972). Even so, many classically-based theories are still utilized in organizations and can serve as an initial approximation for management practices (Lewis et al., 1995; Hitt et al., 1986; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973).

Insights from classical theories provided the foundation for many modern managerial practices. While Taylor (1911) and others focused on management at the operational level, Fayol's (1930) insight in general management focused on the implications of managerial practices. For large organizations, including governmental

organizations and management firms, Weber's (1927) concepts promote fair and consistent staff relations. However, some concepts and theories did not lead to desirable results in some situations, and changes in the workplace began to give rise to new management perspectives. As a result, the behavioral perspective of management began to emerge.

### *Behavioral Perspectives*

During the first few decades of the twentieth century, the newfound capabilities of workers influenced managerial decisions in organizations through the formation of labor unions (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974). Along with these changes, the effects of human behavior raised a significant issue regarding the actions of workers. Kast and Rosenzweig pointed out that awareness of and emphasis on human behavior affected the evolution of management thought. The behavioral perspective of management recognized the importance of human behavior patterns in shaping managerial styles.

*Follett's dynamic administration.* Follett (1930) stressed that among many other managerial functions, coordination provided a key to effective management. Based on her observations of managers, Follett argued that managers needed to coordinate and harmonize group efforts rather than force and coerce people. She contended that subordinates should be involved in the decision-making process whenever they are likely to be affected by a decision. Follett's beliefs were that workers must be involved in solving problems and that management was a dynamic process rather than a stationary

principle. Follett made contributions in the area of conflict management by suggesting that managers could help resolve interdepartmental conflict by communicating with one another and with the affected workers.

*Barnard's executive functions and theory of authority.* In the behavioral approach to management, Barnard (1938) made two major contributions—executive functions and theory of authority. In Barnard's theory of authority, authority flows from the ability of employees to accept or reject an order through a communication. His theory of authority suggested that “employees accept a superior's order if they comprehend what is required, feel that the orders are consistent with organizational goals, and perceived a positive, personal benefit” (p. 161-184). Thus, Barnard's effort set the foundation for several contemporary management perspectives.

Barnard (1938) felt that executives provided three primary functions: “1) the maintenance of organization communication; 2) the securing of essential services from individuals; 3) the formulation of purpose and objectives” (p. 215-234). Top management must establish and maintain a communication system among subordinates. Executives must be sensitive to the interactions among individuals under them and to their material resources (Scott, 1967). In addition, Executives must be concerned with broad policies, objectives, and plans. Barnard regarded organizations as social systems that required employee cooperation and continual communication to continue effectively and efficiently. Further, executives were responsible for clearly creating the organizational purposes and objectives and for motivating employees to direct all their efforts toward attaining these objectives.

Similar to Barnard's (1938) study about executive functions, Klaus (1981) conducted interviews with 31 senior federal executives in six different agencies regarding service competencies to determine a superior manager's model. Klaus' observation concluded that the senior executives needed an understanding of a variety of concepts including a systems view, a strategic focus, and a proactive stance. For instance, executives required the capability and willingness to uphold a network of contacts, to encourage and support staff personnel, to control diverse interests, to market and convince, to take risks, and to maintain integrity and credibility. Executives also must acknowledge broad sources of information. Further, important functions to possess for executives included persistence, persuasiveness, flexibility, open-mindedness, and self-confidence.

In a study of managerial jobs, Allen (1981) conducted a survey among 1,476 New York City managers. Managers were asked to evaluate task dimensions such as analysis and monitoring. His study revealed that higher-level managers reported needing a greater variety of activities to execute their jobs than did managers at lower-levels. For instance, compared to entry and middle level, higher-level managers rated analyzing and evaluating laws, problems, programs, work procedures, processes, and reports as important. However, middle or lower-level managers scored higher on developing and using mechanisms for ensuring adequate progress toward goals, maintaining appropriate accords, and inspecting ongoing activities than executives.

The classical view of managerial functions indicated that a manager organizes, coordinates, plans, and controls. However, many studies (Barnard, 1938; Klaus, 1981; Allen, 1981) showed that executives were not regulated workers. Executives play a



complex, interwoven combination of interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles (Mintzberg, 1975). Mintzberg argued that such behavior was both appropriate and efficient. In his research regarding time spent in managerial work among five chief executives, he examined 25 major decisions. His research revealed that top managers' abilities to influence a large number of tasks through brief contacts may be a highly controlled use of their time. He pointed out that executives provide a unique perspective and are a unique information source for time management issues.

Consistent with Mintzberg's (1975) argument, Peters (1979) noted the exceptional competency needed to perform the role of senior executive and the preparations and solutions for each of these difficulties. For instance, top management considerations and decisions are often limited to one option instead of multiple choices because time is fragmented. Although major decisions take months or years to surface, the lapse time offers chances to build strong agreements and requirements for implementation. Holding a position in high-level management influenced the time during which decisions were to be made and the delay in feedback about the outcomes. Peters concluded that the most important role for top management is that of shaping the value to offer coherence "in an untidy world, where goal setting, option selection, and policy implementation hopelessly fuzz together." In addition, top managers have to focus additional attention on long-term opportunities and threats to provide long-term leadership on strategic issues and their analysis, the formulation of implementation, interpretation, and evaluation (Wortman, 1982).

*Mayo's Hawthorne studies.* Studies of several situational factors were conducted by Mayo and his colleagues at the Western Electric Company's plant in Hawthorne, Illinois from 1924 to 1932 (Lewis et al., 1995). Mayo's Hawthorne studies were designed to investigate employee productivity and fatigue under the effects of physical working conditions (Parson, 1974). One of these investigations was referred to as the Hawthorne studies.

In the framework of Hawthorne studies, Mayo and his colleagues formed test groups (constant lighting conditions) and control groups (variety of lighting conditions). The findings from the Hawthorne studies indicated that the productivity of the test group improved when illumination levels were increased as was expected. Interestingly, productivity was increased even though the test group's level of illumination was dramatically decreased. Similar results were found in the control group's productivity (Lewis et al., 1995). Workers in both groups indicated they perceived that special attention was being paid to them, which caused them to develop group pride, which in turn motivated them to improve their performance; this is called the Hawthorne effect (Parson, 1974). The Hawthorne effect revealed that productivity increases were caused by a human behavioral phenomenon rather than a physical event. Thus, factors not specified by management may directly influence productivity and worker satisfaction.

According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1974), the management of employee behavior could contribute to performance and efficiency in a different way than the technical solutions supported by advocates of scientific management. The management implication was that when a manager showed concern for employees, their motivation and productivity were likely to improve. Mayo and his colleagues provided the transition

from scientific validation to the early human relations movement (Lewis et al., 1995). Mayo and his colleagues brought the concept of the organization as “a social system encompassing individuals, informal groups, and intergroup relationships, as well as formal structure” to the forefront (Kast & Rosenzweig, p. 81).

*Maslow's hierarchy of needs.* Maslow (1954) developed a theory of motivation based on a hierarchy of human needs that contained five levels of needs that must be satisfied. These five levels of needs, in sequential order from the bottom level of needs to the top, were Physiological and Survival Needs, Safety and Security, Love (Social Needs), Ego and Esteem, and the need for Self-Actualization (Maslow). The basic concept of these five needs was as each level of needs is met, the individual can focus more attention on performing the higher level needs. In other words, an individual moved up the hierarchy as he/she attempted to satisfy unfulfilled needs.

After the introduction of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Maslow's theory has been applied in several countries. Plummer (1989) interpreted studies in the United States, United Kingdom, and Germany in the 1980s and claimed that self-actualization has increased a result of economic success. For instance, developing societies were likely to concentrate on lower order needs (Physiological and Safety Needs), while wealthy societies focused on higher order needs (Ego and Self-Actualization). In addition, prosperous societies were occasionally concerned with satisfying lower order needs. Plummer continually argued that connecting growing self-actualization concerns and behavior with a society's economic well-being was consistent with hierarchical theories.

He acknowledged that Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs focused on individual differences and societal differences, as well.

Though Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs provided great value in a general sense, its application had faults when applied to all people at all times (Bridges & Roquemore, 1993). For instance, the lower level needs such as Physiological and Survival may apply in order. However, individuals may also be motivated simultaneously by needs that do not follow the order of Maslow's Hierarchy (Bridges & Roquemore). Nonetheless, in spite of failing to obtain empirical support, Maslow's hierarchical need structure continues to be a common view of human motivation. For instance, several researchers (Herrington, 1993; Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986; Yalch & Brunel, 1996) conducted studies in management using Maslow's hierarchy of needs as their research framework. Evidences of the hierarchy of customer needs, marketing mix, and price and distribution are seen in surveys.

According to Herrington (1993), the hierarchy of customer satisfaction has implications for the determination of customer needs and overall customer satisfaction. Herrington utilized Maslow's hierarchical need to advise marketers on how to promote their products to better appeal to consumers. He acknowledged that the core product was related to the basic physiological need, and on-time product delivery was equated with safety. He also contended that customer interaction represented belongingness, innovations represented esteem, and developing a supplier-customer partnership referred to self-actualization. He suggested that the customer needs depended on what satisfaction level was being met. By meeting customer needs in sequence and cumulatively, entrepreneurs represented everything and became a partner on the inside instead of a

suppliant on the outside. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs proposed a promising way to look at how consumers evaluated the total product.

In order to reevaluate the usefulness of need hierarchies for product design, Kahle, Beatty and Homer (1986) conducted a study using a life style measure (List of Values) to test Maslow's theory of a need hierarchy. A total of 193 students (122 foreign students and 71 citizens of North America) enrolled in the University of Oregon were selected to indicate the relative importance of different values. The sampling technique was a simple probability selection procedure to enhance the effectiveness of heterogeneity of variance within such a homogeneous group. The students had an opportunity for ongoing interaction with fellow representatives of their culture. Kahle and his associates revealed that a large percentage of students showed a high priority for lower level needs. Therefore, few students reached the highest need levels. In addition, the finding that many students expressed regarding self-fulfillment was inconsistent with the belief that self-actualization was relatively rare because it required satisfaction with the four lower-level aspects.

With regard to age comparison of the students who expressed the most interest in each need, Maslow's model was not supported. The oldest students valued the dimensions of security and being well-respected whereas the youngest students valued self-fulfillment. Similarly, Maslow's hierarchy did not correspond regarding the primary and secondary categories (values rated most and second most important by each student). For instance, only 31 percent of the students who selected self-respect as their highest value also highly rated being well-respected by others. It indicated that two needs shared equivalent levels in the need hierarchy.

Based on Kahle et al. (1986), values cannot be equated with needs. Even though needs change in similar ways for most individuals as they age, it seems that there are considerable individual differences. Hierarchy needs like those proposed by Maslow may not be as common and easily observable as many textbooks propose.

The simplicity and logic of Maslow's theory has some relevance to marketing decisions such as consumer behavior. In a study of need hierarchies in consumer judgments of product designs, Yalch and Brunel (1996) conducted two experiments to evaluate different brands of electric shavers and toothbrushes. In their first study, 50 college students were selected to compare the aesthetic and functional qualities of an electric shaver and to suggest an appropriate price for each product. Product design was influenced by having pictures of two shavers varying in aesthetic appeal. The first experiment revealed that products with high aesthetic appeal received more favorable evaluations than products with low aesthetic appeal as the level of need increased. In addition, the least appeal was for the lowest level need, second least for the next highest level, and the greatest appeal was for the highest level needs. With regard to price expectations, the more appealingly designed product was judged more favorable than the purely functional shaver. Respondents were willing to pay more money for the aesthetically appealing product. Consumers equally weighed satisfaction of lower and higher order needs. Overall, the first experiment supported the hierarchical nature of evaluations.

In a second study, 155 college students were asked to evaluate the aesthetic and functionality features of a toothbrush (Yalch & Brunel, 1996). Four blue toothbrushes were chosen from an original set of eight actual products based on pre-test ratings of their

level of aesthetic and functional features. Participants were asked to evaluate the design qualities of each product, using bipolar scales for both the aesthetic dimension (conventional-sophisticated and old-fashioned-futuristic) and the functionality dimensions (very poor brushing job-an excellent brushing job and very poor functional characteristics-excellent functional characteristics). Respondents were asked the price they would be willing to pay for each brush. The findings demonstrated that products with high aesthetic appeal received more favorable evaluations than products with low aesthetic appeal as the level of need increased. For price expectations, the highest expected price was for the “high aesthetic-high functionality” product and the lowest was for the “low aesthetic-low functionality” product. There was little price difference between the two products.

Maslow’s hierarchy needs model has evolved in many areas of research as a general basis of human motivation. Simultaneously, empirical studies failed to show its application in human motivation. Maslow (1998) believed that managers first need to identify unmet employee needs and then show employees how these needs can be met in the context of the workplace. The hierarchy of needs model suggests that managers must develop good relations with subordinates to discover their motivational needs.

*McGregor’s theory X and theory Y.* McGregor (1960) proposed a human relations perspective to compare assumptions managers made about employees, which he called Theory X and Theory Y. Theory X managers perceived that their subordinates had “an inherent dislike of work and that they will avoid it if at all possible” (p. 33). In contrast, Theory Y managers perceived that their subordinates “did not dislike work and wanted to

make useful contributions to the organization” (p. 47). Moreover, Theory Y assumed that subordinates were self-motivated and self-directed toward reaching organizational goals. McGregor believed that commitment to the organization’s goals was a direct result of the personal satisfaction that employees felt from a well executed job.

Theory X suggested that employees needed to be forced, directed, or intimidated in order to achieve organizational goals (McGregor, 1960). Managers who supported this view tended to exercise an authoritarian style, telling people what to do and how to do it. McGregor believed that Theory Y assumptions allow the organization to capitalize the human potential of all subordinates and become more productive. Sharing responsibilities and power with subordinates made them more committed to organizational goals. McGregor’s Theory Y assumptions fit with contemporary leadership styles that stress employee participation and empowerment (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002). They are often used in knowledge-based organizations where employee knowledge is a source of competitive advantage (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin).

#### *Management Science Perspectives.*

Management science is commonly called “operations research” or “quantitative science” (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973, p. 8), and it is the concept dedicated to investigating and developing procedures to aid in the decision making process (Cook & Russell, 1985). The management science approach has evolved from the application of the scientific or systematic management techniques (Render & Stair Jr., 1997). The most significant developments in this discipline emerged from Britain during World War II when military



strategists faced the challenge of many complicated problems, such as determining convoy routes, foreseeing enemy locations, planning incursion strategies, and giving troops logistical support (Render & Stair Jr.).

Render and Stair Jr. (1997) supported the notion that quantitative analysis was the scientific approach to managerial decision making. They also stressed that this approach begins with data, and the key to quantitative analysis is to process raw data into meaningful information. The quantitative science approach includes “defining a problem, developing a model, acquiring input data, developing a solution, testing the solution, analyzing the results, and implementing the results” (Render & Stair Jr., p. 3).

Management science has made significant contributions to the functions of business, such as accounting, finance, marketing, and management (Cook & Russell, 1985). For instance, management science may generate solutions regarding information, policy, and other guidance from the functional areas if each functional area has specific problems. An example of each function of business follows.

In accounting, management information systems (MIS) has been used to automate and advance various accounting procedures (Cook & Russell, 1985). MIS is a computerized system for collecting, analyzing, and reporting information to managers. In the finance field, management science successfully helped capital budgeting, a procedure that evaluates numerous projects that need cash outlays to maximize net benefits in limited budget situations (Cook & Russell). In the field of marketing, research has provided various advantages and applications to predict future trends and to determine product mix, product selection, and packaging effectiveness (Cook & Russell). In the field of management, the management science approach enabled helpful decision making

in the primary functions of management including production scheduling, planning, forecasting, scheduling, assembly line balancing, plant location and layout, distribution, inventory control, and quality control (Cook & Russell).

Kast and Rosenzweig (1973) extended the use of mathematics, statistics, and other quantitative techniques for making decisions and solving problems in management. The management science approach focused research on operations and the use of quantitative techniques to help managers in decision making (Kast & Rosenzweig). Today, many organizations utilize management science personnel, workers of operations research, or consultants to apply the principles of scientific management to problems and opportunities (Render & Stair Jr., 1997). Halsey (1981) pointed out that management science techniques are particularly suitable for complex and unstructured problems.

Cook and Russell (1985) proposed that applications of management science include any approach to problem solving that “incorporates 1) viewing the problem within a systems perspective, 2) applying the scientific method to develop the solution methodology, 3) using a team or interdisciplinary approach, 4) using a mathematical model, and/or 5) using a high-speed electronic computer” (p. 9).

In some cases, management science is categorized in quantitative management, while behavioral management is considered qualitative management. Management science includes some aspects of behavioral management. In behavioral management, the main focus is understanding human and organizational behavior. Advocates of behavioral management use quantitative techniques to make conclusions regarding observations of staff or organizational behaviors. The fundamentals of behavioral management involve management science to solve practical problems successfully. Management scientists’

propositions require some organizational changes, which often have behavioral implications. If management science is to be applied successfully, both behavioral aspects and human factors must receive careful thought (Cook & Russell, 1985).

### *Systems Approach*

According to Bertalanffy (1952), systems theory views an organization as a system which consists of interrelated parts that function in a holistic way to achieve a common purpose. The systems approach provides a basis for integration, by giving a way to view the total organization in interaction with its environment and for conceptualizing the relationships between internal components or subsystems. Further, systems disciplines provided the basic structure of reference for the development of contingency visions of organizations and their management (Luthans, 1973).

According to Boulding (1956), the systems approach stressed the interrelatedness and interdependency of the parts to the whole—physical, biological, and social. He stressed that since any system was merely a collection of interrelated parts, identifying each of the parts and the nature of their interrelationships can be simplified the model-building process. Systems could be viewed as a combination of three building blocks: inputs, outputs, and transformational processes. The blocks are connected by material and information flows.

Systems theory has contributed some important concepts that affect management thinking, including open and closed systems, subsystem, synergy, and equifinality (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974). Open systems are systems that must interact with the external

environment to survive, while closed systems are systems that do not interact with the environment. Subsystems include interdependent parts of a system. Synergy asserts that “the whole is greater than the sum of its parts” (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002, p. 17). Equifinality is a characteristic of an open system, and it suggests that a system can reach “the same goal through a number of different routes” (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, p. 125).

Management is a process which spans and links the various subsystems of the organization. The systems view suggests that managers face situations which are dynamic, inherently uncertain, and frequently ambiguous (Sayles, 1964). Management is not in full control of all the factors of production, as suggested by traditional theory. It is strongly restrained by many environmental and internal (technological, structural, and psychosocial) forces. Sayles outlined the role of management under the systems approach:

A systems concept emphasizes that managerial assignments do not have these neat, clearly defined boundaries; rather, the modern manager is placed in a network of mutually dependent relationships...The one enduring objective is the effort to build and maintain a predictable, reciprocating system of relationships, the behavioral patterns of which stay within reasonable physical limits. But this is seeking a moving equilibrium, since the parameters of the system (the division of labor and the controls) are evolving and changing. Thus the manager endeavors to introduce regularity in a world that will never allow him to achieve the ideal...only managers who can deal with uncertainty, with ambiguity, and with battles that are never won but only fought well can hope to succeed. (p. 254-259)

Systems theory suggests that different inputs, subsystems, and transformational processes can lead to a similar outcome. Systems theory can be used as a framework for the integration of a modern organization theory. According to Cook and Russell (1985), the advantage of the systems approach is that it allows “the optimization of an organization’s overall goals, not just those of isolated departments or components of the human/machine system” (p. 20).

### *Contemporary Perspectives*

Contemporary management perspectives include contingency/situational theory, Likert’s system of management, McClelland’s theory of needs, and total quality management. Each of these contemporary viewpoints was built on the work of the classical and behavioral management theorists.

*Contingency/Situational Theory.* In the 1960s, scholars, consultants, and managers became increasingly aware that the effectiveness of different management styles varied depending on their orientation to situations (Luthans, 1973). Many models of contingent or situational leadership have been introduced for managers. These models are either task oriented to be directive or relations-oriented to be participative, depending on the situations (Bass, 1990). The Contingency Model is a highly researched and validated contextual theory (Bass). Fiedler (1967) developed the Contingency Model through years of experimental research with military organizations and private enterprises. The Contingency Model focuses on analyzing the style of both successful and

unsuccessful leaders in an evaluation of which styles worked best in various situations that complement their style (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).

The Contingency Model proposes a leader-match theory that describes how well the given situations work with various leadership styles (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). The framework of Fiedler's Contingency Model includes leadership styles as task-motivated and relationship-motivated (Fiedler, 1967). While task-motivated leaders try to pursue goal achievement, relationship-motivated leaders focus on developing strong work relationships (Northouse, 1997). To measure leadership styles, Fiedler developed the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC). This bipolar scale supports researchers' understanding of various leaders' perspectives regarding positive and negative work experiences (Northouse). For instance, leaders who score high on this scale are expressed as relation-motivated and those who score low on the scale are expressed as task-motivated.

According to Fiedler and Chemers (1974), situations can be described by measuring three dimensional spaces: (1) leader-member relations, the degree of confidence, loyalty, and attraction that subordinates feel for their leader; (2) position power, the degree of influence the leader has in hiring, firing, disciplining, pay increase and promotion of subordinates; and (3) task structure, the degree to which procedures have been established for assigning job. Good leader member relations, high positional power, and high task structure are the most constructive combination of attributes for leaders. Fiedler's (1967) contingency model shifted leadership research from looking for leader traits only to identifying the best style contingent on the situation.

The contingency perspective asserted that any of the previous management perspectives might be used alone or in combination with other perspectives in different situations (Northouse, 1997). Additionally, Luthans (1973) pointed out that the performance results of applying either quantitative or behavioral approaches were failing. For example, certain quantitative approaches worked in some situations with some types of problems, but not in others. For behavioral approaches, Reif and Luthans' study (1972) revealed that job enrichment seemed to work well with skilled technicians, but not with unskilled machine operators. In the contingency perspectives, managers are faced with choosing from different managerial approaches in order to be most effective in a given situation. This requires managers to first identify the key contingencies or variables in the given organizational situation (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974). Following is an example of a comprehensive conceptual contingency model for organization theory and management practice:

A major conclusion from this analysis is that effectiveness is not achieved through following one organizational model...there is no one best way to organize for the purpose of achieving the highly varied goals of organizations within a highly varied environment. Particular kinds of goals coupled with specific kinds of activities within particular kinds of environments do call for particular organizational structures if effectiveness is a major criterion for the organization (Hall, 1972 cited in Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, p. 508).

An important factor to consider in the contingency approach is the type of technology being used by the organization. Woodward (1980) conducted contingency studies and discovered that a particular managerial style was influenced by the

organization's technology. Woodward identified three different types of technology such as small-batch, mass production, and continuous process technology. The level of human interaction varied with each of these technology types. Small-batch technology tended to have the most human involvement due to customized outputs. Mass production technology tended to have less human involvement due to automated and robotic equipment that typifies assembly line operations. Continuous process technology had the lowest level of human involvement as the product flowed through the stages of conversion.

Some of Woodward's (1980) findings showed that bureaucratic management methods were most effective in organizations that were using mass production technology. Conversely, organizations using small-batch and continuous process technologies had little need for the formalized rules and communication systems of the bureaucratic style. According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1973), other important factors to consider in defining the contingencies for each situation included environment, organizational size, and organizational culture. For instance, since large organizations may find it necessary to use more structured and firm rules, regulations, and policies to control organizational activities, the larger organization would tend toward a more bureaucratic management style. On the other hand, since smaller organizations may find that they can rely less on the formal structure and allow workers the autonomy to make decisions for the situations and problems that they come across. Thus, smaller organizations demonstrate a more behavioral orientation.

With Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model, situational leadership theory is another widely applied model in management. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) developed the



situational leadership theory, which aligns task behaviors and is contingent on the level of the followers' maturity resulting in specific leadership behaviors. Leadership behaviors include (1) telling, (2) selling, (3) participating, and (4) delegating. Maturity is defined as the ability and willingness of individuals to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. Task behavior is the extent to which the leader spells out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group, which includes giving directions and setting goals (DuBrin, 2001). Relationship behavior is the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication, and includes such activities as listening, providing encouragement and coaching (DuBrin).

Situational Theory concentrates on the followers (Bass, 1990). When followers are not stationary in their performance, they move both backward and forward depending on their progress or various situational aspects (Bass). In order for leaders to be effective, they must evaluate their subordinates' developmental levels and classify the leaders leadership style to match the employees' developmental levels, including D1, D2, D3, and D4 (Northouse, 1997). D1 employees are low in competence and high in commitment, D2 employees have some competency, but are low on commitment, D3 employees are those who have moderate to high competence, but may lack commitment, and D4 employees are in the highest level of development.

To obtain support for the situational model as an approach to improve learning, Hersey, Angelini, and Carakushansky (1982) conducted a study on the impact situational leadership and classroom structure in learning effectiveness among 60 managers. They divided participants into two groups (experimental and control) in a management training seminar. The experimental group was trained in four stages (D1-D4), while the control

group did not receive training. In the learning process, the instructor gave different combinations of attention tasks to trainees. The instructors gradually engaged in directing, selling, participating, and delegating with trainees. When the maturity of the trainees increased, the instructor decreased the task-oriented direction. Hersey and his colleagues found that the experimental group learned significantly more than did the control group. Thus, situational leadership was shown to be an effective tool for improving learning in classroom settings.

The Hersey and Blanchard (1988) model has appealed to managers in various organizations and to leaders of management training programs because it permitted managers to keep all options open (Bass, 1990). However, the model has been criticized for its theoretical inadequacies and its lack of empirical evidence. To apply the situational leadership model effectively, the leader should select a leadership style based on followers' own preferences, group maturity, and the demands of the task (Northouse, 1997). For example, when the task requires a great deal of focused activity and the group maturity is low, a telling or directing leadership style is required. However, if task needs are low and group maturity is high, a participative leadership style is most appropriate.

*McClelland's theory of needs.* McClelland (1961) proposed the acquired needs theory, which asserts that people with different needs are shaped by their life experiences. An individual's motivation in certain job functions are influenced by three factors: (1) achievement, (2) power, and (3) affiliation (McClelland). To measure individuals with different needs, McClelland used the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), depending on a projective measure. The TAT is a test of imagination that presents the subject with a

series of ambiguous pictures (Bass, 1990). The assumption is that the subject will project his or her own needs into the story.

McClelland (1975) argued that the need for achievement is an important value for successful managers. He emphasized that managerial success was anticipated by the need for achievement. He found that individuals with a high need for achievement had a tendency to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations. A risk-free task lacks challenge and a highly risky task holds the probability of failure. High achievement-motivated people chose the task that has a moderate likelihood of success (Bass, 1990).

Similarly, in a study on the need for achievement of entrepreneurs, Wainer and Rubin (1969) found that those entrepreneurs who operated their companies were associated with the growth rate of their firms. Moreover, they found that entrepreneurs with a strong need for achievement and a moderate need for power had the highest performing companies. Consistent with McClelland's findings, Hall and Donnell (1979) conducted a study on managerial achievement among 1,000 managers. Their study revealed that the managers' speed of career advancement was related to their motivation to achieve.

In terms of affiliation motivation, individuals with a high need for affiliation require harmonious relationships with other people (McClelland, 1961). Highly affiliation-motivated people usually prefer a task that provides significant personal interaction (McClelland). However, McClelland (1975) asserted that need for affiliation should be avoided while acquiring the need for power in order to become a successful manager.

Likewise, people obtain emotional satisfaction from experiencing the effects of their use of power (McClelland, 1961). Power needs and power orientations have been assessed by using the TAT (McClelland, 1975). Power seekers are more likely to make use of the power they gain if they believe their attempts to lead through power will be successful (McClelland).

McClelland (1975) claimed that an individual's need for power can be one of two types: personal or social (institutional). An individual with a need for personal power directs others. Individuals who want institutional power desire to coordinate the efforts of others to further the organizational goals. Furthermore, individuals who were strongly motivated for power became more active when managing others than did those with a low motivation for power (McClelland). McClelland concluded that if power motivation is low, leadership potential generally will be absent. If power motivation is high and activity is aided, the individual has thoughts of personal dominance and winning at someone else's expense.

McClelland (1975) noted that individuals with a high power motive displayed more instability in their interpersonal relations, had more arguments, were more impulsive, and engaged in more competitive sports. Although individuals with power-oriented motivation may create unsatisfying conditions for their subordinates, they may fulfill tasks and the attainment of goals for their group or organization (Jordan, 2001). Groups in which the leaders displayed ascendant tendencies did better than did groups in which non-ascendant people were the leaders (Shaw & Harkey, 1976). While managers preferred jobs that provided opportunities to satisfy their need for achievement, successful executives had the highest need for power (Harrell & Stahl, 1981). Power

motivation was related to specific differences in the behavior of different leaders. Managers with high power-oriented and high achievement-oriented motivation achieve success in their tasks (Harrell & Stahl).

*Likert's system of management.* Likert (1967) presented four dimensions of manager behavior in a variety interpersonal relationships in various organizations, including (1) exploitative autocratic, (2) benevolent autocratic, (3) consultative, and (4) participative. Likert's System of Management is a continuum from autocratic to participative. Likert's model distinguished autocratic leaders to be in System 1 and System 2, and democratic leaders in System 3 and System 4. In the exploitive authoritative style (System 1), the manager has low concern for his/her subordinates. System 1 focuses on threats, fear, and punishment with some promise of reward. When the manager includes concern for employees to an authoritative position, a benevolent dictatorship (System 2) is used. System 2 stresses more positive and less negative reinforcement than System 1. At the consultative (System 3) point along the continuum, even though the manager tries to make people feel included, the leader's decision is still final. At the participative style (Style 4) extreme on the continuum, the leader makes maximum use of participative methods. Both leaders and followers work well together at all levels.

These four systems are used particularly in decision-making and the degree to which people are involved in a decision (Stogdill, 1974). Upon completion of empirical research on management styles and human components, Likert (1977) used the Profile of Organizational Characteristics (POC) questionnaire survey to assess where an

organization is perceived lie on the continuum between System 1 and System 4. He found positive associations exist between measures of the organizations' performance and whether the organization is closer to democratic systems 3 and 4 than to autocratic systems 1 and 2. He also discovered that democratic (System 4) leaders ranked highest and autocratic (System 1) leaders ranked lowest on the four dimensions.

*Total quality management.* Total Quality Management (TQM) was developed by W. Edwards Deming, and is an organization-wide approach that focuses on quality as an overarching goal through participative management (Clark, 1991). According to Deming (1986), the basis for the TQM is the understanding that "all employees and organizational units should be working harmoniously to satisfy the customer" (p. 12). Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, and Konopaske (2003) expressed TQM as "a combination of technical knowledge and human knowledge" (p. 370).

During the past 20 years, TQM has had a major impact on business management practices and has been one of the most influential and widespread quality systems (Swiss, 1992). After World War II, several Japanese companies, such as those that manufactured automobiles and electronics, adopted Deming's quality system. TQM contributed to Japanese industries tremendously outperforming their most formidable competitors—American corporations (Clark, 1991). American corporations began to borrow Japanese techniques of TQM in the 1960s.

As several authors have concluded, TQM is an organization's long-term effort to improve its customer satisfaction and productivity (Clark, 1991; Gibson et al., 2003; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002). Since consumer's needs are constantly changing,

organizations must strive to continuously improve organizations' systems and practices (Deming, 1986). The TQM perspective views quality as the central purpose of the organization, "in contrast to the focus on efficiency advocated by the classical perspective" (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002, p. 18). Further, quality is viewed as everybody's job, not just the role of quality control specialists, as in bureaucratic management.

Deming (1986) pointed out that people must be empowered with the authority to make necessary decisions. Further, people must be enabled with knowledge to know when to exercise that authority to deal with the inherent complexity and variability of production and service delivery technology. The key elements of TQM focus on the customer, employee involvement, and continuous improvement (Deming). These elements focus on the importance of identifying organizations, customers and subordinates, and maintained that quality would be continuously addressed and improved by focusing on empowering everyone involved.

### *Management Competencies*

Management occurs within any type of organizational context where human and physical resources are combined to achieve certain objectives (Hersey & Blanchard, 1972). A manager faces many functions, responsibilities, and needs in an effort to attain organizational goals and objectives in a given situation. Management competencies are related to skills, knowledge, ability, tasks, processes, expectations, and core content regarding one's job (Boyatzis, 1982). Management competencies and skills are the means

by which management strategy, management practice, tools and techniques, personality attributes, and style work to produce effective outcomes in organization (Whetten & Cameron, 2002). In order to achieve organizational synergy and success, management competencies are necessary regardless of the specialized area of management such as production, distribution, finance, health care, education, state government, or facilitating activities (Bass, 1990; Whetten & Cameron). A brief introduction of each function and competency of management is described in the following sections.

### *Managerial Functions*

Several researchers (Fayol, 1930; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Hitt et al., 1986; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974; Lewis et al., 1995) introduced four functions of management: planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. Planning includes the initial step of the actions necessary to achieve goals. It involves understanding the tasks and objectives, discovering strengths and weaknesses, gathering related information, exploring opportunities, and coordinating the resources. Organizing comprises identifying the basic framework of formal relationships among tasks, activities, and people in an organization. Directing refers to the actual supervision of the work and people toward achievement of goals. Controlling consists of measuring the performance, comparing it to objectives, implementing necessary changes, and monitoring progress.

Bass (1990) claimed that the classical functions of management were entirely rational processes. Even though organizations attempted to achieve rationality, there were limitations of the classical four functions. For example, the human nature of employees



and members of the organization was ignored. Similarly, Wofford (1967) conducted study on behavior styles and performance effectiveness among managers. Factors to describe the functions of managers were setting objectives, planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. Wofford's study revealed that restricting the analysis to classic managerial functions limited an additional inquiry into the nature of managerial performance such as what managers, administrators, and executives actually do as a whole.

According to Voltmer and Esslinger (1979), each managerial function is a continuous and dynamic process used to solve a problem and execute an effective operation when new situations and problems occur. In order to accommodate the complexity of contemporary work environments, Voltmer and Esslinger suggested dividing Fayol's four managerial functions into seven areas. The acronym POSDCRB denoted planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (Voltmer and Esslinger).

When executing each managerial function, many researchers (Bateman & Snell, 2002; Haas, Porat, & Vaughan, 1969; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Katz, 1974; Pavett & Lau, 1983) found that the importance of those functions varied depending on the level of management. For instance, Katz (1974) proposed that different levels of managers should possess different managerial skills for effective administration. Bateman and Snell devised three levels of managers. These included: top manager as strategic manager, middle manager as tactical manager, and entry-level manager as technical manager. The top managers took overall responsibility for the firm while middle managers were responsible for implementing the directions of the top manager. Both strategic and

tactical managers performed the functions of planning and organizing more than entry-level counterparts. Entry-level managers were more concerned with the function of directing and controlling.

Consistent with these findings, Haas and associates (1969) conducted a comparative study of three levels of managers in diverse organizations using the Work Analysis Form. Their study revealed that the functions of planning and coordinating were done mostly in top-level positions, while negotiating was done at middle-levels and supervising in lower-level positions. Interestingly, all levels of managers used the function of investigating more than that of planning, and the managers considered this to be less than ideal.

Similarly, in regard to the necessity of continuing education among middle managers, Richards and Inskeep (1974) conducted a study using surveys. A questionnaire was sent to 87 business college deans, 78 business executives, and 40 executives in trade associations. The three groups defined middle management as the bulk of management between those who function as foremen [*sic*], first-line supervisors, and policy-making executives. Middle management defined by the three groups included operating division and department heads, together with such staff persons as personnel and industrial relations managers, purchasing agents, analysts, and engineers. Their study revealed that these executives valued supervision and human relations skills to be the most important priority and improving quantitative and technical skills to be second order of priority.

Mahoney, Jerdee, and Carroll (1965) also found that supervising was the most important function of first-level managers. They conducted a survey on the important functions of 452 managers from 13 different companies that varied in size from 100 to

400 staff members. Managerial functions included planning, investigating, coordinating, evaluating, supervising, staffing, negotiating, and representing. Their study revealed that additional time was spent on supervising along with the four other functions (planning, investigating, coordinating, and evaluating). Respondents spent almost 90 percent of time on supervising, planning, investigating, coordinating, and evaluating at work.

According to Katz (1974), a classical administrative skills theorist, three areas of skill are necessary to the management process—conceptual, human, and technical skills. Top managers should possess conceptual skills, which involve the ability to handle overall problems and complexities for benefits of organization. Conceptual skills require coordinating and integrating all activities toward an organizational goal. Middle managers should have strong human skills to communicate and motivate effectively between employers and employees. For lowest level managers, it is an advantage to possess technical and human skills to execute technical activities as well as deal with employees efficiently.

With regard to an assessment of the skill performance among managers, Cameron and Tschirhart (1988) conducted research among over 500 mid-level and upper middle-level managers in approximately 150 organizations. The 25 most frequently mentioned management skills in the academic literature were measured. Their study revealed that those 25 skills fell into four groups. These four clusters included: participative and human relations skills (e.g., team building and supportive communication); competitiveness and control (e.g., assertiveness, power, and influence skills); innovativeness and individual entrepreneurship (e.g., problem solving); and rationality and maintaining order (e.g., managing time and decision making). The conclusion of their study was that effective

managers demonstrated paradoxical skills such as being both participative and hard-driving and both nurturing and competitive. The most effective managers were able to be flexible and creative while also being controlled, stable, and rational.

In addition to executing each function effectively, each level of manager should demonstrate managerial skills with regard to performing job-related tasks and responsibilities because management skills developed order and consistency through management functions (Bateman & Snell, 2002; Haas, Porat, & Vaughan, 1969; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Katz, 1974; Pavett & Lau, 1983; Voltmer & Esslinger, 1979). This is a process of working with and through individual employees or groups of employees to accomplish organizational goals and objectives. The evidence suggested that the most important functions of the manager were the application of different managerial skills in various situations (Pavett & Lau). Since management competencies pave the way for management strategies, practices, tools, techniques, personality attributes, and styles to produce effective outcomes in organizations (Whetten & Cameron, 2002), management competencies are crucial for effective management in relation to job-related tasks and responsibilities.

### *Managerial Competencies*

Management theorists identified and classified management competencies into variety of categories. Management competencies from leading management theorists (Agor, 1983, 1983-84; Anthony, 1981; Barnard, 1938; Drucker, 1975; Follett, 1930; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973,

1974; Katz, 1974; Mintzberg, 1973; Shenher, 1989; Whetten & Cameron, 2002) were classified into six categories including technical, human relations, conceptual, negotiation, political, and intuitive skills. A brief summary of these managerial competencies follows.

*Technical skills.* Katz (1974) suggested that technical skills relate to a manager's ability to use certain knowledge, techniques, and resources to achieve specific tasks in an organization. According to Zeigler (1983), technical skills include managing details. In other words, technical skills may include basic functions such as budgeting, scheduling, and departmental planning through basic techniques and knowledge (Katz). In terms of technical skills, a manager should hold the ability to apply precise techniques, methods, and procedures in a necessary area (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992). Drucker (1975) concurred with Katz's suggestion of technical skills, and stressed that strategic planning was important to do the right things for managers. Katz suggested that entry-level managers possess technical skills. It was crucial for executives in smaller organizations to also possess technical skills because these managers must ask relevant questions and give appropriate feedback when dealing with subordinates.

Many studies (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992; Katz, 1974; Drucker, 1975) verify the importance of technical skills to an individual's success and effectiveness as a manager. For instance, with regard to the study on the development of high technology, Kemp (1983) analyzed 94 questionnaires and 20 interviews of senior industrial and military executives. He found that project managers who fully understood the technology and the operational needs led successful projects. These project managers could attract the support of professionally competent and experienced employees.

*Human skills.* Many researchers (Anthony, 1981; Barnard, 1938; Bennis, 1989; Drucker, 1975; Follett, 1930; Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1973, 1974; MacKenzie, 1969; Mintzberg, 1973; Katz, 1974; Pavett & Lau, 1983; Shenher, 1989; Waters, 1980, Whetten & Cameron, 2002; Zeigler, 1983) asserted that human skills relate to a manager's ability to get along with other people as well as motivating others in an organization, whether they were subordinates, peers, or superiors. Human skills may include human relations tasks such as leadership, communication, decision-making, motivation, conflict resolution and problem solving, effective rewarding, evaluating, and patience. In a study of the influence of hierarchical level and functional specialties, Pavett and Lau (1983) found that human skills were the most important factor for successful job-related tasks regardless of level.

According to Bass (1990), human skills include leadership ability and interpersonal skills (full support from departmental subordinates). For maintaining balance and controlling conflict situations, human skills were important for managers. Bass acknowledged that possessing human skills advanced performance in an organization. Further, Bass recommended interpersonal skills for middle and lower level managers. Interestingly, though leadership skills were necessary for all managers, Pavett and Lau's study (1983) indicated that leadership skills were more important for lower level managers than for middle or top level managers. Because lower level managers were closely working with their subordinates, leadership was important.

During the last three decades, several researchers (Anthony, 1981; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; Kotter, 1990; Mintzberg, 1975; Zenger, 1985) acknowledged that leadership skills influence behaviors of people attempting to perform job-related tasks in

an organization. According to Mintzberg, leadership includes interpersonal relationships, motivational activities, and an integration of personal and organizational goals. Previous studies have focused on a two dimensional approach to leadership that identified behaviors of a leader and the effects of leadership on work performance. These two models of leadership behaviors have been identified as “initiation of structure and consideration” (Gibson et al., 2003, p. 304). According to Blake and Mouton’s managerial grid (1978), initiation of structure involves task-oriented skills and consideration involves interpersonal skills indicating trust, communication, friendship, and rapport between the leader and the followers.

According to Zaleznik (1977), skills associated with management and leadership corresponded with each other even though these two approaches concentrated on different focuses. Zenger (1985) reiterated Zaleznik’s claim that “leadership is management’s better half.” Based on the debates of many theorists, a distinction between management and leadership skills was that managers try to “do things right” and leaders try to “do the right things” (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). According to Kotter (1990), many researchers have tried to demonstrate that management and leadership skills were linked and complementary, while they have also discussed how these two skills differed from each other. Further, he stressed the necessity of these two skills as follows:

Both skills of management and leadership are needed if a business is to prosper. Leadership by itself never keeps an operation on time and on budget year after year. And management by itself never creates significant, useful changes. [Management produces] a degree of consistency and order, while leadership produces movement. (p. 103)

Contemporary researchers in management found distinctive characteristics that classify management and leadership traits. Quarterman (1998) summarized the key characteristics that distinguished between management and leadership in Table 1.

Transactional leadership contains three basic components: (1) contingent reward, where the leader gives rewards based on follower efforts; (2) management by exception (active), where the leader tries to catch followers doing something wrong and gives feedback; and (3) management by exception (passive), where the leader waits and if standards are not being met, gives feedback (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership is more immediate than transformational leadership because transactional leaders motivate followers by identifying and clarifying the followers' roles in achieving the leaders' desired outcome and focus on more routine transactions with an emphasis on rewarding group members to meet standards (DuBrin, 2001). On the other hand, in order for followers to fulfill the exchange, they must be confident that they can reach the expectation, and they must value the outcome.

A transformational leader differs from a transactional one by not only recognizing followers' needs, but also by attempting to elevate those needs to higher levels (Byrd, 1987). The major difference between the two theories is that transformational leadership competencies are concepts of the leadership paradigm including empowerment, visionary abilities, self-understanding, value congruence, and anticipatory skills (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1990).



Table 1.

*Characteristics of Management and Leadership*

Management Characteristics	Leadership Characteristics
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Working with and through individuals or groups to accomplish organizational goals (Hersey &amp; Blanchard, 1988, p. 3).</li> <li>• Doing things right (Bennis &amp; Nanus, 1985)</li> <li>• “Coping with complexity” (Kotter, 1990, p. 104)</li> <li>• Being reactive</li> <li>• Focusing on structure (Bennis, 1989)</li> <li>• Short-range perspectives (Bennis)</li> <li>• Accepting the status quo (Bennis)</li> <li>• Making “decision based on established directions” (Bellman, 1988, p. 40)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey &amp; Blanchard, p. 3)</li> <li>• Doing the right things (Bennis &amp; Nanus)</li> <li>• Coping with change (Kotter, p. 104)</li> <li>• Being proactive</li> <li>• Focusing on people (Bennis)</li> <li>• Long-range perspectives (Bennis)</li> <li>• Challenging the status quo (Bennis)</li> <li>• Making “decisions based on an envisioned future” (Bellman, p. 40)</li> </ul>

Note. From an assessment of the perception of management and leadership skills by intercollegiate athletics conference commissioners, by Quarterman, 1998, *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, p. 149.

Empowerment skills involve the willingness to share power and realizing that team efforts can attain organizational visions instead of single leaders. McGregor's Theory Y is a good example of empowerment and commitment through employee participation (1960). Visionary skills involve a manager's ability to use persuasion and modeling to achieve organizational purposes. Self-understanding skills involve a manager's awareness of his/her strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats as well as those of his/her subordinates and the organization as a whole. Value congruence skills involve a manager's ability to understand and teach organizational policies and values as well his/her ability to comprehend each person's role as a member of organization. Anticipatory skills involve a manager's ability to foresee and visualize future trends or changing environments that the organization will face and conceptualize strategies to negotiate uncertain situations.

Because communication is the way people transmit feelings, thoughts, information or ideas from one person to another, effective communication is very important for good productivity as well as the success of an organization (Anthony, 1981; Fellner & Mitchell, 1995; Laios, 2001; Shenhar, 1989). In the People at Work Survey of 2002, Mercer Human Resource Consulting found that 80 percent of 2,600 American employees were dissatisfied with their organization because of poor communication between senior managers and employees (Employees value effective communication, 2003). By utilizing effective communication skills, productivity is improved and a sense of achievement is generated.

According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1992), communication skills include written, verbal (words, tone of voice), and nonverbal (gestures, facial expressions, posture, etc.)

communication. Usually, communication skills involve reading nonverbal signals, listening, and the use of spoken messages (Netzley, 2001). In contemporary society, written communication is a crucial component because of modern technologies including email, text messages, and the World Wide Web. For these reasons, managers must ensure that written communication is accurate, complete, grammatically correct, and carries the meaning intended (Segars, 2003). Effective communication skills include the ability to clearly send and receive information, thoughts, and feelings (Tracy, 1998).

Follett (1930) and Drucker (1975) suggested that managers should possess communication skills for working within an organization and making decisions in uncertain situations. In a study on examples of effective and ineffective general managers, Kaplan (1986) interviewed 25 general managers and executives. The results of the content analysis of interviews revealed that effective general managers did better in strategic long-term thinking than in short-term crisis management and communicating well. The respondents assessed the effective general managers to have more vision, a greater knowledge of business, and more ability to establish priorities than ineffective general managers.

In addition, researchers (Anthony, 1981; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992; MacKenzie, 1969; Waters, 1980) noted the importance of communication and decision-making skills. Follett and MacKenzie stressed that these skills are continuously used in relation to performing job tasks and responsibilities. In addition to communication and decision-making skills, Anthony amended the importance of conflict resolution and problem solving skills to include essential human skills. Since human skills pertain to people skills, they were vital skills for all levels of management to communicate effectively with peers,

subordinates, and superiors (Follett, 1930). Other human skills include the ability of selecting, staffing, team-building, rewarding, and representing. In the managerial competencies framework, Waters proposed practice skills, context skills, insight skills, and wisdom. Among these four skills, context skills involved the perspective of human relations. This perspective contained consulting, making demands, asserting authority, building commitment, and motivating.

According to Mintzberg (1973), one of the most important skills in the human relations area is the ability to motivate individuals or groups of individuals. Since the introduction of piece rate incentives in Taylor's motivation concept, many management behavior researchers (Maslow, 1954; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1992; Shenhar, 1989) have proposed motivation skills to enhance employees' job performance. For instance, Mayo's Hawthorne Studies indicated that special attention toward employees motivated productivity as well as contributed to efficient employee's performance (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974). Further, Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs suggested that managers must create good relations with employees to determine their motivational needs (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 2002).

Hellriegel and Slocum (1992) proposed motivation as an interpersonal skill which included the manager's ability to motivate, lead, and work with others. Barnard (1938) pointed out that a manager must take a responsibility to motivate subordinates and direct all their efforts toward attaining organizational goals. Shenhar (1989) included motivation skills in his managerial competency model. Based on the classical model of Katz, his revised model included technical, human, operational-administrative, and strategic-business skills. Interestingly, he included technical skills as human skills.

According to his description of technical skills, the manager should possess professionalism and the ability to motivate and guide subordinates.

*Conceptual skills.* Katz (1974) proposed that conceptual skills relate to a manager's ability to see the big picture for the benefit of the organization. Conceptual skills include "recognizing how the various functions of the organization depend on one another, and how changes in any one part affect all the others" (p. 93). For instance, top managers who possess conceptual skills are usually successful wherever they work because they detect potential problems and make effective decisions in any situation. Since conceptual skills become more important when moving toward higher levels of management, establishing competence in both the technical and human factors is crucial for logical decision making and broad-scale action.

Waters (1980) defined conceptual skills as insight skills including coping with ambiguity, assessing readiness for change, empathizing, and dealing with cultural differences. Shenhar (1989) also proposed conceptual skills to include strategic business skills which involve looking at the organization as a whole. To perform strategic business skills effectively, operational administrative skills must supplement conceptual skills. Operational administrative skills included allocation of resources, priority setting, and performance of activity planning in relation to set objectives and scheduled time. According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1992), conceptual skills involved the application of the manager's thinking and planning ability as well as his/her capability of viewing the whole organization in order to maximize benefits.

With regard to the importance of managerial skills and competencies needed in organizations, the American Management Association (AMA) (2000) conducted a national survey among 921 managers in the United States. The AMA investigated a separation between the managerial skills and competencies needed in variety of business firms. Statistical analyses showed that there were gaps between what companies needed and what managers could contribute. Those gaps were widest in the area of conceptual skills, including coaching and mentoring skills; time management; communication, especially in the ability to transform ideas into words and actions and listening and asking questions; and the ability to identify opportunities for innovation. In addition to these discrepancies, implementing improvements and setting priorities were also lacking.

*Negotiation skills.* In a competitive society, negotiation means to formulate a set of decisions (Rubin & Brown, 1975). According to Bazerman and Lewicki (1985), because of rapid changes in technology and society, a manager confronts numerous conflicts within organizational design and structure (e.g., task forces, product management, and matrix organizations). Some theorists (Bazerman & Lewicki; Rubin & Brown) suggested that negotiation skills concerned a manager's ability to confer with other people or groups in order to reach an agreement with reciprocal benefits for their organizations. Bazerman and Lewicki conducted various investigations to study negotiation skills and found that negotiation skills may be used in situations of conflict and decision-making processes based on the purpose of three factors (economics, social psychology, and behavioral decision) which influenced decision processes. The evidence from Bazerman and Lewicki suggested that negotiation skills provided important notions

with which to understand behavior in organizations as well as successes of organizations. Therefore, negotiation skills are important vehicles to resolve conflicts and make decisions in an organization.

*Political skills.* Theorists (Anthony, 1981; Newman, 1971-1972; Pavett & Lau, 1983; Young, 1987; Waters, 1980) recommended that managers possess political skills, which include the ability to gain or concede power in order to achieve desired consequences. According to Waters, political skill was regarded as wisdom among the four preferred skills he proposed (practice skills, context skills, insight skills, and wisdom). Wisdom included allocating resources, using the power of persuasion, charisma, strategy formulation, and entrepreneurship.

In a study by Pavett and Lau (1983), political skills were acknowledged as important for managerial success. Political skills included enhancing a manager's position, building a power base, and establishing the right connections. Pavett and Lau concluded that political skills were most important for middle level managers. Political skills were also seen as most important to marketing and sales managers.

*Intuitive skills.* Intuition is the capability to recognize directly with no reasoning such as imagination, vision, and foresight (Herrmann, 1982). Agor (1983; 1983-1984) proposed intuitive skills, which related to a manager's ability to employ a sixth sense or hunch, as well as make interpretations derived from experiences in decision making or problem solving for the organization. In addition to explaining intuition regarding relevant experiences, Agor (1986) surveyed thousands of lower-level and top managers to compare their intuition in making key decisions in the public and private sectors. In a

comparison between lower-level and top managers, top managers demonstrated that they were more likely to rely on intuition in reaching key decisions. These managers concurrently used intuition and analytical reasoning in making key decision. Intuition was brought into play in making decisions concerning uncertain situations, when facts and time were limited, when little precedence existed, and when several plausible possibilities could be considered.

Likewise, in a study on intuitive decisions among chief executive officers (CEOs), Bruce (1986) conducted in-depth interviews with CEOs in 11 large firms. The results of the study indicated that the CEOs intuitively set the tone and directions for their corporations. Although CEOs had staff, senior management, and consultants to offer advice, the CEOs had to have the capability to make the important decisions by themselves. These intuitive decisions, especially at higher organizational levels, related to success and are likely to be a consequence of the possession of relevant information based on experience.

To become successful, Agor (1983) and Mintzberg (1975) alleged that managers must learn to use both hemispheres of the brain. This approach suggested that managers used both sides of the brain to execute their tasks and responsibilities. In brain hemisphere thinking, some researchers (Agor, 1983-84; Herrmann, 1982; Mintzberg) focused on the need to integrate the analytical skills of the left brain and intuitive skills of the right brain. Analytical skills utilize facts based on scientific evidence (knowledge, tools, and techniques) to make decisions and solve problems. In terms of management styles, analytical skills emphasize deductive reasoning while intuitive skills underscore



inductive reasoning. One side complements the other as managers make decisions on behalf of their respective organizations.

A review of literature from the works of management theorists reveals that managerial skills will help managers to meet organizational changes and improve organizational effectiveness. Further, development of management skills helps to improve a manager's competencies. Whetten and Cameron (2002) pointed out that effective managerial behavior provides competency, and managerial competency changes a manager's behavior.

Whetten and Cameron (2002) identified the skills and competencies that separated extraordinarily effective performers from other senior officers in the fields of business, health care, education, and state government. Interestingly, the ten most frequently cited competencies of effective management were all behavioral skills. These ten characteristics were "verbal communication (including listening), managing time and stress, managing individual decisions, recognizing and solving problems, motivating and influencing others, delegating, setting goals and articulating a vision, self-awareness, team building, and managing conflict" (p. 8).

In terms of acquiring and developing management skills, management theorists have studied various fields such as production, distribution, finance, education, health care, state government, or facilitating activities. Management skills can be improved through practice and training (Ketz, 1974). Though people acquired their learning in different ways, natural abilities for aptitude or ability in management skills can be developed through people's own personal experiences and backgrounds. Management skills are linked to a more complex knowledge base than other types of skills and are

inherently connected to interaction with unpredictable individuals (Whetten & Cameron, 2002).

### *Recreation/ Sport Management Overview*

Due to the fact that the sports industry has grown enormously, many people desire to have a career in sports (Markiewicz, 1991). Interest in sports among individuals has reached an all-time high in the United States (Bridges & Roquemore, 1993). The increased popularity of sports offers research opportunities for people interested in the management of sports as it is performed by all segments of the population. The economic magnitude of the sports industry and people's eagerness to obtain careers in sports has necessitated the evolution of sports management programs at colleges and universities. The need for sport management is greater for professionally trained sport managers rather than laypeople with no managerial competencies as well as formal educational background (Zeigler & Spaeth, 1975).

Within the last three decades, scholars have identified and classified sport management competencies into a variety of categories among several sports contexts including athletic directors, managers in private sectors, directors in campus recreation, and chairpersons in sport management programs (Zeigler, 1973). In the study undertaken in this dissertation, sport management competencies from many researchers are classified into five areas of management competencies devised by sport management researchers. They include technical, human, conceptual, negotiation, and intuitive skills.

Early scholars stressed the importance of having competent and credible sport management programs in higher institutions. For instance, Zeigler (1973) suggested that scholars study managerial phenomena in the various phases of management where sports contexts exist. In 1975, Zeigler and Spaeth supported Zeigler's initial suggestion and recommended that studies in sport management contain managerial competencies including decision making, human relations, and problem-solving. These managerial competencies were linked to the managerial competency theory from Katz's administrative processes—conceptual, human, and technical skills.

As the number of sport management programs in higher education increased and the number of students enrolled in physical education professional preparation programs decreased, many physical educators have reorganized academic units to include sport management programs (Parkhouse, 1987). The discipline of sport management has evolved as a combination of business management and sports contexts (Parkhouse, 1991). As of 2005, there were 178 academic institutions providing undergraduate and/or graduate Sport Management programs in the United States (NASSM, 2005).

In the 1980s, researchers focused on developing sport management curricula to educate competent sport managers. For instance, Parkhouse (1980) proposed that sport management programs should not limit course work to the discipline of physical education. Further, Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979) pointed out that sport managers should take business related courses regardless of their specialty since the physical education courses are not helpful for the business aspect of management. According to Jamieson (1980) and Sprandel (1974), athletic administrators lacked preparation when entering the field because physical education curricula were irrelevant for sport managers. For this

reason, Sprandel suggested a need for an objective and reliable approach to curriculum development to produce competent athletic administrators. A combination of business and physical education skills would help to prepare future administrators in the field of athletic administration (Leith, 1983).

Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979) proposed that research efforts in sport management competencies, skills, and techniques were needed until a body of knowledge could be developed to sufficiently encompass all aspects of sport management. To aid in the development of management competencies in sport management programs, Paris (1979) provided an inventory of competency validation among administrators in Canada. Respondents selected 52 management competencies as important. The competency dimensions that managers considered to be important included leadership, evaluation, planning, finance, communication, and education. Paris proposed that his findings might apply to administrators in college and university athletic departments because it was important for people holding these positions to possess these competencies as well.

Similarly, Scott (1979) proposed an additional role for administrators. Though both experienced and new managers used the same competencies, the main difference between the two was that new managers used new knowledge and higher levels of expertise as needed. These new skills included budgeting and finance, computer knowledge, negotiation skills, knowledge of collective bargaining and school law, public relations, communication, and interpersonal relations.

While early researchers in physical education suggested that managerial skills were necessary in sport management programs, Jamieson (1980) conducted a study to identify and evaluate 112 competencies in 12 curriculum areas among 300 recreational

sports administrators in municipal, military, and institutional settings. Jamieson utilized 12 competency areas that formed the basis of her Recreational Sports Competency Analysis (RSCA) instrument based on a review of the literature and the use of an expert panel to arrive at a consensus. These competency areas included business, communication, facilities, governance, legality, management techniques, officiating, philosophy, programming techniques, research, safety/ accident prevention, and sport science. Among the 12 areas, Jamieson's study revealed that six areas (including business procedures, communication, governance, legality, safety/accident prevention, and officiating) were significantly different in relation to management area. Jamieson acknowledged that a recognizable body of knowledge could be utilized in the development of curricula based on competencies.

In order to develop sound sport management curricula, Ulrich and Parkhouse (1982) conducted a study among 145 sport management graduates from four institutions. Their research focused on evaluating graduate training and work satisfaction as well as assessing sport management graduates' job performance as employed managers. Based on the data, they suggested that sport management courses include organizational management (e.g., management concepts, organizational behavior, research, and personnel/industrial relations); communication (e.g., public relations, broadcast journalism, sports writing, and current issues in sports); and an internship.

In a study by Zeigler and Bowie (1983), Katz's classical model of management skills was modified. Zeigler and Bowie believed that the skills in Katz's three categories should be developed into five categories. They believed this expansion was needed to cover the many ramifications of the managerial process of performing tasks, as well as

the personal and professional preparations of the manager. These five categories of management skills included technical skills, human skills, conceptual skills, personal skills, and conjoined skills. The first three skills (technical, human, and conceptual skills) were the same as Katz proposed in 1974. The last two categories, personal skills and conjoined skills, were added by Zeigler and Bowie. Personal skills included “the development of the manager’s own skills,” and conjoined skills included “the manager’s ability to employ basic skills in combination with the realization of goals” (p. 83).

In order to determine entry level competencies for recreational sports personnel as identified by chairs of preparatory institutions, Jennings (1984) conducted a study among 53 chairpersons of physical education and recreation departments in four year colleges. Jennings used Jamieson’s (1980) RSCA instrument to determine if the competency areas identified by practitioners as most needed for entry level recreational sport personnel would be different from those identified by chairpersons of physical education and recreation departments offering sport management programs. The findings of the study revealed that recreation department chairs rated officiating to be more important than did physical education chairs. Physical education chairpersons differed from recreational sport practitioners in all areas except sport science and safety/accident prevention. In addition, physical education chairpersons as academicians identified sport science to be more important than did recreational practitioners, while practitioners identified safety/accident prevention as more important than did academicians. Lastly, recreation department chairpersons differed from practitioners in all areas except officiating, sport science, and safety/accident prevention.

In the management areas of fitness, sport marketing, sport promotions, sport administration and management, sport directing, and aquatics, Quain and Parks (1986) conducted a study to assess the perceived state of sport management curricula using a survey. They rated 50 areas of study for prospective employment opportunities among 368 active sport management practitioners. Of the 50 curricular areas, four out of the top 10 subjects appeared to be the most frequent choices for all six career categories: management, interpersonal communication, public relations, and budgeting. Further, respondents rated an internship as an important ingredient of sport management curricula. Findings indicated that the most important business skills for managers were human relations skills and financial management skills. Subsequent research supported the idea that sport management programs required curricula content including management, public relations, interpersonal communication, and budgeting (Parks & Quain, 1986). Parks and Quain argued that sport management curricula should include different areas of focus. For instance, managers holding positions in sport promotion should possess different management competencies than managers holding positions in aquatics. Although similarities between the diverse job categories are shared, Parks and Quain noted that the specific preparations were needed for each separate career.

Further, Hatfield, Wrenn, and Bretting (1987) conducted a study on the most important curricular needs among athletic directors and general managers in professional sports. Their results indicated that athletic directors needed education in athletic administration, speech communication, public relations, marketing, and business management while general managers needed education in business and sport law, public relations, speech communication, labor relations, and marketing.

In a similar study for intercollegiate athletic directors, Cash (1983) presented an inventory of management competencies to athletic directors in the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). Cash conducted a study of management competencies for effective performance among 243 NCAA Division I and II directors of athletics. Cash indicated that business, finance, and personnel skills were shown to be important for athletic directors. When comparing Division I and II directors, Division I directors delegated their work more frequently than Division II directors.

In the 1980s, researchers examined sport management curricula in undergraduate and master's programs (Parkhouse, 1978; Pitts, 2001). These studies revealed that sport management programs were mostly housed within physical education departments, which affected the development of sport management curriculum standards. In 1993, although an increased number of institutions offered sport management programs, there was a concern for a recognized base of common knowledge for sport management (NASPE-NASSM Joint Task Force, 1993). As a result, the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) and the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) joined to develop a task force on sport management curriculum and accreditation.

NASPE-NASSM (1993) suggested that competency-based knowledge was needed for baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral levels. Furthermore, additional faculty members were needed to develop reliable curricula in sport management. The minimum requirements for faculty composition in sport management programs were: two faculty members for undergraduate and master's programs; three faculty members for doctoral programs; three faculty members for the combinations of either undergraduate and



master's programs or doctoral and master's programs; five faculty members for programs offering doctoral, master's, and undergraduate programs.

In terms of the concern for competency-based knowledge, NASPE-NASSM (1993) recommended that minimum core content for undergraduate programs include behavioral dimensions in sport, management and organizational skills in sport, ethics in sport management, marketing in sport, communication in sport, finance in sport, economics in sport, legal aspects of sport, governance in sport, and field experience in sport management.

For the master's program, eight content areas were recommended, including managerial leadership and organization in the sports field, research in the sports field, legal aspects of the sport field, marketing in the sports, sport business in the social context, financial management in the sports, ethics in sport management, and field experience in sport management. In terms of the doctoral programs, a doctoral degree encompassed: previous graduate experiences (e.g., background of the baccalaureate and master's); research foundations (e.g., techniques of gathering, analyzing, interpreting, and reporting data); sport management theory in an area of specialization (e.g., sport marketing, organization theory in sport, sport foundations, sport finance, information management, sport law, and human resource management in sport); advanced cognate area (e.g., minimum of two courses outside of the program including business, law, journalism, physical education, and other areas); and an internship (to support the goals of the doctoral student).

NASSM has had a significant influence on the development of sport management programs. According to Pitts (2001), NASSM has offered contexts for scholarly research

and discussion through the *Journal of Sport Management* and its annual conference. In addition, the NASSM has been used as a model when similar organizations have been established worldwide. In 1993, 16 programs met the curriculum standards and another 12 were under review (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001). Pitts (2001) estimated that more programs will be reviewed in the near future.

With regard to studies on administrative competencies in professional sports, Irwin, Cotter, Jenson, and White (1994-1995) conducted a study to investigate the required skills for 118 professional sports managers. The study aimed to determine whether or not the managers were taught certain skills in institutions of higher education. The respondents acknowledged the importance of administrative and financial skills such as marketing, finance, law, administration, public relations, and business. Respondents indicated that they most frequently used skills in policy development, communication, finance, writing, and marketing while working in the professional sports industry. Irwin and his associates concluded that a sport administration degree did not prepare graduates with the skills needed in the sport industry.

In addition to study on management competencies for sports managers and management program, effective leadership has been one of many important managerial ingredients used to stimulate and inspire associates as well as to achieve organizational goals (Babiak, 1995). According to Paton (1987), research literature in physical education and sport management revealed that leadership skills, roles, and behaviors have been a major segment of research topics. Soucie (1994) maintained the importance of leadership and claimed that effective managerial leadership would allow managers to become effective and efficient job performers. Benefits of utilizing effective leadership comprise

not only empowered, motivated, satisfied, and creative personnel, but also involved a productive organization (Bass, 1990).

Likewise, in a leadership discussion between Weese and Bass (Weese, 1994), Bass pointed out that management in the area of leadership has changed from organizational hierarchies and strict adherence to a chain of command to a team (Weese). Weese and Bass explored the dynamics of transactional and transformational leadership paradigms and how such concepts may be applied in sport management theory and practice. Bass claimed that transformational leaders produced higher levels of commitment and performance than transactional leaders. For instance, transformational leaders strive

to aspire to what can be and carting people beyond their own self-interest and strive toward the achievement of transcendental goals while transactional leaders tended to put effort and motivation in exchange for fair compensation when ordinary expectations are laid out. (p. 182)

In another study, Quarterman (1998) provided empirical evidence about management and leadership skills utilized by practicing athletic administrators. Quarterman investigated leadership and managerial competencies among intercollegiate athletic conference commissioners or conference settings. Twelve leadership and managerial competency items were coded so that the higher the response number, the more the competency was used by respondents when performing job-related tasks. The 12 leadership and managerial competencies included leadership skills (visionary, self-understanding, empowerment, intuitive, value-congruence, and anticipatory) and management skills (conceptual, human relation, technical, political, negotiation, and

analytical). Quarterman showed that conference commissioners used moderate to substantial time and effort in both leadership and management skills, and that such skills were used interchangeably by these administrators.

With regard to the characteristics of leaders and managers, Ibrahim and Cordes (1996) compared and contrasted characteristics of parks and leisure service professionals. To be a positive visionary leader as a leisure services professional, they suggested two ingredients: (1) creating a vision and (2) relating the vision to the mission and goals. Based on the works of Bennis (1989), they proposed that “although management and leadership etched differently, the two sides complement each other and occupy equally necessary positions” (p. 42).

Research on leadership has modified from traits and characteristics in the 1940s to behavioral components, and it is currently directed toward a cognitive revolution (Weese, 1994). The evidence from Bennis (1989) suggested that effective managerial leaders considered progress of their subordinates, motivated and inspired them to enrich the organization, and undertook constantly advancing internal and external organizational relationships.

In order to investigate the perceptions of NCAA Division I-A sports information practitioners concerning their current and ideal professional roles, Stoldt (1998) employed a study using a survey. A total of 183 NCAA I-A members of the College Sports Information Directors of America were asked about their public relations role. The public relations role survey was classified into four function types—one technical and three management related roles (statements regarding the practitioners, practitioners’ institutions, and practitioners’ job satisfaction levels). Stoldt showed that most

practitioners regarded the directors as technicians. They also revealed that there were significant differences between technicians and other role types regarding job title, salary, sex, years of experience, age, and job satisfaction. Further, between current and ideal primary roles with practitioners, practitioners desired to frequently participate in managerial activities. High-level athletic managers require reassessment for the way they operate their public relations practitioners. The results also indicate that the issue of role conflict and new ways to serve institutions need to be addressed for sports information personnel.

With regard to examining competencies among sport event managers, Peng (2000) surveyed 79 academicians and 34 practitioners. He utilized a comparison of the perceived important competencies to investigate whether there was a difference in the perceptions between the two groups. The 79 academicians were chosen from the 200 sport management programs that preferred the event management courses in the United States. The 34 practitioners were selected from United States Olympics National Governing Bodies (USNGBs). Peng found no differences between the academicians and the practitioners in perceived important competencies needed to execute a task in the area of sport event management.

Interestingly, favored competencies for those two groups were slightly different. The top five competencies preferred by the academicians were: (1) maintains effective communication skills with staff, (2) uses good verbal communication skills, (3) uses good written communication skills, (4) communicates performance expectations with staff in a written job description, and (5) establishes procedures reflecting fair treatment of staff and participants. The top five competencies favored by the practitioners were:

(1) maintains effective communications with staff, (2) designs, plans, and controls event logistics (e.g., transportation, hospitality, food and beverages, venues, ticketing, etc.), (3) uses good verbal communication skills, (4) uses good written communication skills, (5) utilizes effective time management techniques. Overall, good communication skills are required in order to perform tasks in the area of sport event management.

Similarly, Graham (1998) utilized a study to analyze sport managers' interpersonal communication skills in 26 Ontario amateur sport organizations. A comparison of real and ideal perceptions of superiors, managers, and subordinates was conducted to determine whether the views of others (supervisors and subordinates) differed from self (manager) perceptions of desirable interpersonal communication skills. Findings indicated that sport managers were discovered to not be as effective in communicating as they believed. Interestingly, there were paradoxical perceptions between managers and subordinates regarding communication. Managers believed they communicated better downwards than upwards, while subordinates suggested that managers were not as effective in downwards communication as they thought.

Many researchers identified management competencies of sport managers as well as competencies needed in sport management programs in order to prepare students to be effective managers (Jamieson, 1980; Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001; Parkhouse & Ulrich, 1979; and Zeigler & Spaeth, 1975). In addition, contemporary researchers attested to the importance of leadership skills when accomplishing organizational goals (Cash, 1983; Jamieson, 1980; Jennings, 1984; Quain & Parks, 1986; and Quarterman, 1998). The most important competencies investigated by researchers in sport management may be categorized into five areas: technical skills (e.g., business procedures including budgeting,

accounting, facility/equipment management, legality, risk management, management techniques, philosophy, sport science, programming techniques/event management, sport law, computer skills, marketing, and sport science); human skills (including leadership and communication skills); conceptual skills (including decision making and problem solving); negotiation skills (including public relations, leadership, and decision making); and intuitive skills (including governance, decision making, and leadership). Interestingly, sports managers mentioned using skills categorized as technical or human skills more often than skills in other competency categories.

*Competencies of Sport Managers (COSM) by Toh (1997) for Instrument Development*

A variety of investigators have sought to identify specific competencies of the most effective managers through surveys using different instruments. For instance, Curtis, Wilsor, and Stephens (1989) surveyed 428 members of the American Society of Personnel Administrators in the United States to investigate skills needed to obtain employment, skills important for successful job performance, and skills needed to move up in the organization. Another survey by American Management Association (2000) conducted an investigation of managerial competencies among 921 managers in the United States. The results indicated that customer focus, ability to use information to solve problems, and credibility among peers, subordinates, and colleagues were top three management competencies that successful managers should possess. To study why managers fail, Camp, Vielhaber, and Simonetti (2001) surveyed 830 managers in the United States. The result indicated that ineffective communication, poor interpersonal

skills, failure to clarify expectations, and poor delegation and empowerment were over 50 percent of the reasons.

Since the 1980s, sport management scholars have attempted to identify management competencies through the use of surveys and questionnaires. Jamieson (1980) developed a management competency instrument to use among recreational sport managers called the Recreational Sports Competency Analysis (RSCA). Some recreation/sport researchers conducted studies regarding management competencies based on this instrument. While developing the research instrument, Jamieson pilot-studied the RSCA for validity and reliability of the instrument, testing the adequacy of the instrument, and reviewing the analysis of the questions using 12 expert panels to arrive at consensus. Further, Jamieson's RSCA has been endorsed by the National Intramural-Recreational Sports Association (NIRSA) (Toh, 1997).

In 1997, Toh conducted a study to construct another research instrument to determine sport management competencies. His model, called the Competencies of Sport Managers (COSM), was based on Jamieson's (1980) RSCA instrument. Since Toh's methodology and instrument was used and modified in the present study, it is necessary to understand his study and the rationale behind the COSM.

The COSM contains two areas: competencies and demographic information. The demographic information included club membership size, age, sex, working experience, salary, academic achievement, and position title. There were four steps to developing the competency area of the COSM. First, Toh (1997) reviewed literature related to management competencies in recreation and sport contexts. The literature encompassed research articles and texts focusing on recreation, recreational sports, physical education,



and sport management. Secondly, Toh revised Jamieson's RSCA based on the literature and recommendations offered by a panel of six expert jurors. A total of 99 competency statements divided into 10 categories were developed.

Thirdly, during the process of consolidating the COSM, a Delphi technique was utilized to determine content validity. Toh (1997) sent the 99-statement questionnaire to an expert jury to evaluate and validate the competency statements. After combining the comments and suggestions from the jury members, Toh modified the instrument to include 98 statements divided into 10 competency categories. He sent the modified instrument back to the expert jury and asked them to check the necessity of each statement using a five-point Likert scale. The jurors were asked to evaluate and validate each competency statement. If scores for a statement were higher than 3.0 (1 being unnecessary, 3 being neutral, and 5 being necessary) after it was reviewed by the expert jury, the statement remained in the instrument. The results from the expert jury indicated that all 98 statements scored 3.0 or higher, and all statements were retained.

Lastly, to establish validity and reliability of the instrument, Toh (1997) conducted a pilot study among 223 randomly selected sport managers using a questionnaire survey. He conducted a Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis to test the internal consistency coefficient of the instrument. The Cronbach's Alpha analysis determines how well a set of statements measured a single one-dimensional latent construct. Reliability analysis was performed (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.97$ ) and two items were eliminated. The total competency statements consisted of 96 items and 10 categories.

After developing the COSM, Toh (1997) tested the validity and reliability of the COSM by surveying 816 sport managers from private athletic clubs, Young Men's

Christian Associations (YMCAs), and parks and recreation agencies. The Cronbach's Alpha was found to be 0.90. The results of factor analyses indicated that six factors of 31 statements were internally consistent, reliable, and valid. These six major areas of sport management competency included in the final version of the COSM were: Governance, Sport Foundations, Budgeting, Risk Management, Computer Skills, and Communications.

Toh suggested that even though four categories from the COSM (business procedures, facility/equipment management, management techniques, and research/evaluation) were not included, the COSM seemed appropriate for the determination of sport management competencies because the COSM was internally consistent. Bollen (1989) supported his claim that there were two standards to evaluate the instrument: "(1) consistency with the data and (2) consistency with the real world" (p. 67). In his recommendation, Toh suggested six management competencies to sport managers as guidelines for recruiting sport managers, structuring sport management curriculum, or modifying existing curricula.

### *Golf Management Overview*

While there have been expansions in the golf industry and other popular sports in American society, an area that has not been studied in sport management is the competencies of individuals who direct administration of golf facilities. As Klug (2001) indicated, directors/head professionals in the golf industry used mostly trial and error methods in managing golf facilities. This is because an identity and uniqueness of golf management has not been differentiated from other fields such as physical education,

sport management, leisure studies, or business management. Therefore, it is necessary to establish evidence in support of major theories and concepts regarding golf management for teaching PGA apprentices in order to benefit the golf facilities as well as serve customer needs.

Since golf management is different from business management and physical education, the actual and preferred competencies of golf facility must be identified. An additional issue is the credibility of the Professional Golf Management (PGM) programs provided by the PGA or accredited PGM programs in higher education. The PGM program is recognized by the PGA as providing necessary skills to secure and retain employment as a director or head golf professional (PGA, 2005). Therefore, this study will critically analyze the current status of golf management among golf course directors and envision the possibilities of the future because this knowledge provides professionals with a sense of who and where they are in reality as opposed to who and where they think they might be.

Since golf management competencies have not been investigated, concepts and recommended competencies were gathered from other fields including management, sport management, accounting, apparel merchandising, hospitality management, and education. This interdisciplinary approach, by its very nature, creates additional concerns: devising qualifications for becoming a golf director, the credibility of the current education program offered by the PGA, and meeting the basic needs of the golf industry.

Currently, a golf professional working at a PGA-recognized golf facility must possess competencies in a variety of areas such as turf grass management, retail operations and merchandising, food and beverage management, personnel management,

accounting, risk management, marketing, teaching skills, and customer services (PGA, 2005). Since the scope of golf directors in this study was limited to PGA certified golf professionals working in PGA recognized golf courses, it is worthwhile to review the training program for PGA directors/head professionals and assess skills needed for effective job performance for future professionals.

Usually, individuals who manage golf courses in the United States are licensed professionals who hold a PGA membership (Class A-4: director, Class A-1: head professional, Class A-13: general manager) (PGA, 2005). It is a requirement in most of the private and 90 percent of the public facilities that a PGA professional be on staff (PGA). To become a PGA member, individuals must register for the PGA study program, Professional Golf Management (PGM), while apprenticing at golf courses. In 1967, when the PGA did not have a training program, apprentices were required to attend business school prior to becoming a PGA member (PGA). Because the PGA realized a career in golf management requires an individual to handle the many demands of the golf industry, the PGA apprentice program was unveiled in 1992 (PGA). Interested individuals must complete the online Professional Readiness Orientation (PRO), which provides “an overview of the golf profession including daily challenges of a PGA professional, requirements of the PGM program, and an overview of the employment and compensation trends in the industry” (PGA, 2005, p. 46). The PGM is a nationwide training program for aspiring PGA professionals and provides future members with the skills and knowledge needed to be a golf professional.

The PGM program consists of self study courses, seminars, and a series of work experience activities that relate to the prescribed course (PGA, 2005). In the PGM, there

are three levels for completing the required knowledge and skills. On average, the PGA estimates that it takes an individual approximately 16-18 months to complete Level 1, 12 months to complete Level 2, and 6 to 12 months to complete Level 3. Prior to promotion to each level, an apprentice must complete a knowledge test and a skills test. Thus, completion of the PGM takes approximately three years. Once the PGM program is completed, the apprentice becomes a Class A member of the PGA. A Class A member is eligible to become a director or head professional of golf. Requirements to become a Class A member of the PGA are completing the playing ability test (PAT) and the PGM program. A summary of PGM program is shown in Table 2.

Table 2.

*Professional Golf Management (PGM) Program*

---

Playing Ability Test (PAT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shooting no more than 12 stroke above the difficulty rating of a course in 36 holes (less than 20% of a passing score)</li> <li>- Completing six months of work experience</li> </ul>
PGM	<p>Level I &amp; II:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Self-Study Courses &amp; Testing (analysis of the swing, customer relations, supervising and delegating, business planning and operations, merchandising &amp; inventory management, and teaching swing concepts)</li> <li>- Work Experience Activities</li> </ul> <p>Level III:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Seminar</li> </ul>

---

Note. From *PGA*, 2005, retrieved February 10, 2005, from <http://www.pga.com>.

With regard to golf education programs accredited by the PGA in higher education, 13 institutions have Professional Golf Management (PGM) programs in the

United States (PGA, 2005). The PGM program is a four and one-half year college curriculum that provides the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for success in the golf industry (PGA, 2002). According to the PGA record (PGA), since its establishment in 1975, more than 1,600 students have graduated from a PGM program and more than 900 students were enrolled in the program in 2002.

PGM students graduate with a baccalaureate degree in majors including marketing, business administration, and recreation and park management. Each student is required to complete an internship of at least 16 months at a golf facility under the guidance of a PGA professional. To satisfy the PGA membership requirement, students are required to complete the PGM program and pass a Playing Ability Test (PAT).

After reviewing curricula from the 13 institutions that have a PGM program, the PGA devised additional requirements each student and/or institution must meet to maintain the program. The requirements are: students must maintain a golf handicap of eight or less and a grade point average of 2.5, take and pass 26 courses that make up the PGA's PGM program, and intern at a golf course for at least 16 months before graduation. In addition, each program must have one golf course to serve as its primary home base, becoming both classroom and workplace; enrollment is limited to 300 total students at each university program at any given time. Unfortunately, there is no evidence in any literature in support of developing PGM program courses based on the theories and practice in management for future golf professionals with regard to the PGM program.

The four and one half year self-study PGM program may not only be a burden for students in terms of workload, but it also seems to lack theory and practice in golf management. According to an investigation of Master of Business Administration (MBA)

curricula from three views (practitioner, industry, and student), Von der Embse, Delozier, and Castellano (1973) revealed that the MBA curriculum, as a professional program, should be designed in response to the needs of the potential and actual customers rather than those of faculty and students. Based on the viewpoints of business people, faculty, and students, curriculum design is a joint performance of both the needs of potential and actual customers as well as those of scholars and students. Along with Von der Embse and his associates' findings, investigations in management competencies among directors who are working in golf courses are needed to establish a sound PGM, and better serve golf managers and customers. This effort ensures the proper balance of employer demands, student preferences, and societal needs.

Another area of concern is the fact that PGM programs can be found in different departments (e.g., business and parks and recreation) at different institutions. In the 1950s, the philosophy and structure of education for business were changed from a functional to a professional orientation (Von der Embse et al., 1973). Von der Embse and his colleagues stated that the business industry wanted a flexible generalist who was trained and sharpened through case analysis and simulation, knowledgeable in management science skills, and aware of broad and philosophical issues ranging from ecology to job satisfaction. This indicated that management competencies in various industries transformed from technical skills to human and conceptual skills.

Von der Embse and his associates (1973) conducted an inquiry into a comparison of what course areas were regarded as most essential in an MBA degree by employers and students. In addition, they also considered what areas the curriculum should be focused on to accommodate the needs of personnel directors of Fortune 500 companies.

The results of the investigation indicated that businesses sought broad management skills in MBAs and wanted considerable functional specializations in finance, management, marketing, and accounting. Further, regardless of the variations among industries in products, markets, and operations, employers preferred certain backgrounds and skills in their MBAs. The implications of this study for the PGM program suggests that PGM graduates need to possess a variety of skills and specializations in order to be a sought-after and successful business people in the golf industry.

### *Professional Preparation for Golf Course Directors*

As indicated in the previous section, several studies revealed that different management competencies are needed depending on an individual's area of focus. Therefore, identification of competencies in golf management is needed because golf management contexts are unique and different from other fields. In the case of the PGM program from the PGA, there is a lack of empirical evidence in support of major theories and concepts for teaching PGA apprentices. Though sport management as an academic discipline has existed for at least four decades, a review of sport management literature revealed that studies in sport management have been limited to athletics administration or managing sports.

The field of sport management has implications for golf management. Though sport management is an applied profession, it is still important to meet the standards of a field that calls for more than the application of specialized knowledge. For instance, many sport management scholars have claimed broader theoretical foundations for sport



management curricula during the last four decades, but sport management still struggles in the academic field due to the lack of an organized body of knowledge (Boucher, 1998).

Slack (1991) confronted this issue with the following statement:

If our area [sport management] is to grow as a legitimate field of study, it will need to develop its own knowledge structures. That is, we must develop a body of knowledge that is sufficiently substantial and unique to merit recognition by other academic disciplines. These knowledge structures must be of a higher order than practical how-to knowledge and they must have a theoretical foundation. (p. 95)

According to Pitts (2001), a field of study consists of a body of knowledge and literature concerning theory and practice; professionals (those who educate, pursue research, and practice); professional organizations dedicated to the advancement of the field; professional preparation; and credibility. In the field of golf management, evidence shows that a body of knowledge is lacking. A field of study cannot exist without its practical and theoretical content agreements, related literature, and the depth of content, a body of knowledge can be evaluated.

Pitts (2001) further claimed that sport management literature has had a heavy focus on careers in higher education and college athletics even after requests to broaden the scope of study in the field. Pitts stated that sport management is nothing more than athletics administration, and suggested sport management should expand the scope of the research and add areas of the sports industry.

To examine the need to set specific directions to enhance the systematic growth of the body of knowledge in sport management, Costa (2000) conducted a study between 17 senior and junior professors of sport management employing a Delphi technique. The 17

experts were asked seven key statements including (1) successes to be sustained in sport management, (2) the current events and trends impacting research in sport management, (3) qualities used to describe a best case scenario for sport management in five to seven years, (4) qualities used to describe a realistic situation for sport management in five to seven years, (5) general direction to move sport management research toward an ideal future, (6) needed strategies to achieve those general directions, (7) challenges to be managed toward those general directions. Costa indicated that the sport management field needed to (a) enhance the quality of doctoral programs, (b) increase standards for research publications and the quality of research, (c) recognize the field as a context for both theory testing and theory building, (d) increase quality in research designs, (e) increase faculty development, time, and funding for research, and (f) increase collaboration in research.

The sport management field borrowed theoretical frameworks from such fields as leisure service management, tourism, sociology, philosophy, communication, marketing, finance, and law. Researchers have used these fields to develop sport management literature. This is common among developing fields and influences the credibility of the literature (Pitts, 2001). For instance, golf management uses business management as a conceptual framework. From this, theories, definitions, fundamentals, and models of golf management are developed.

Since sport management has been developed and influenced by such diverse disciplines, golf directors are challenged to utilize new skills, knowledge, and abilities in their decision-making. In relation to such challenges, undergraduate PGM programs must continually assess their curricula to ensure proper training. There is a need for stronger

links between what practitioners do in the workplace and what students are taught in PGM programs. This implies that more specific evidence is needed to support the body of knowledge for teaching students in PGM. Several sport management scholars (Koehler, 1988; Parkhouse, Ulrich, & Soucie, 1982; Parks, 1992; Slack, 1991) have proposed that a more concerted effort to understand golf management from the manager's perspective is needed.

Further, PGM programs in universities need to attain and sustain a certain level of credibility within their own field and among other fields. According to Pitts (2001), credibility has to do with quality, accountability, and credentials. Criteria to measure credibility might be in areas such as "curriculum standards, credentials of faculty, student quality, meeting the demands of the job market, the literature, and scholarly associations, conferences, and awards" (Pitts, p. 7).

#### *Dillman Survey Methodology*

Dillman (1978) proposed a survey methodology which proves to be effective for obtaining responses. Regardless of how interesting the questionnaire or impressive the mail-out package, Dillman pointed out that "without follow-up mailings, response rates would be less than half those normally attained by the Total Design Method" (p. 180). The purpose of a follow-up survey is to increase the probability that the overall response group indicates the general population (Assessment of Non-Response Bias, 2005). Further, the follow-up survey reduces the possibility of a non-response bias.

After Dillman (1978) proposed the Total Design Method, many studies utilized his survey methodology. In a study of whether the number of firms who did not respond introduced bias to the data, a follow-up survey was performed after the original survey was mailed out (Assessment of Non-Response Bias, 2005). The follow-up survey was used for two purposes: (1) to verify the overall survey response group (original survey and follow-up survey) was representative of the population (business sector) and (2) to provide data relating to any non-response bias in the original survey. The return rate of the original survey was 10.3 percent and the follow-up survey had a 5.7 percent response rate. The follow-up survey assisted in producing an overall response rate of 12.1 percent. Findings indicated that characteristics, experiences, and opinions of the respondent firms were similar in both the original and follow-up surveys. Though there are no definitive tests for measuring a non-response bias, the data generated from the survey were likely representative of the business population. If there was a bias, Dillman believed that respondent opinions were somewhat over-stated.

Dillman (1978) suggested three follow-up mailings to increase the survey response rate. According to Dillman, this mailing survey procedure should yield a 70 percent response rate for the general public and a 77 percent response rate for more specialized populations. The three mailings that comprise the complete follow-up sequence are identified by the number of weeks elapsed after the original mail-out:

One Week: A postcard reminder sent to everyone. It serves as both a thank you for those who have responded and as a friendly and courteous reminder for those who have not.

Three Weeks: A letter and replacement questionnaire sent only to non-respondents.

Nearly the same in appearance as the original mail-out, it has a shorter cover letter that informs non-respondents that their questionnaire has not been received, and appeals for its return.

Seven Weeks: This final mailing is similar to the one that preceded it except that it is sent by certified mail to emphasize its importance. Another replacement questionnaire is enclosed.

### *Non-Response Bias*

Non-response remains a limitation in sample survey design. Mail surveys have been particularly disparaged for non-response bias. Very little is known about non-respondents in most cases, it is difficult to measure the impact of their lack of response on data analyses (Huggins, Dennis, & Seryakova, 2002). Therefore, in order to generalize the sample to the population, non-responses need to be understood, documented, and minimized in the study results to the greatest degree possible.

Bias caused by non-response in survey estimates is a function of the level of non-response and the extent of differences between non-respondents and respondents to key questions of interest (Huggins et al., 2002). Some studies have strived to determine whether there is a difference between respondents and non-respondents (e.g., Kim, Lonner, Nelson & Lotke, 2004; Sheikh & Mattingly, 1981). Scholars have found that individuals who respond to surveys answer questions differently than those who do not.

In most cases, non-response bias remains only when there is a relation between the variables of interest and the reasons that people do not participate in the survey (Voogt, 2005). To determine whether non-response bias affects the outcome of final analyses and study conclusions, Huggins and her associates (2002) conducted a study on an evaluation of non-response bias in Internet surveys using the Knowledge Networks Panel (Health Study, Computer Use Study, and Investment Study). Sample size for each group included 12,868 for a Health Study, 30,527 for a Computer Use Study, and 2,370 for an Investment Study. In the Knowledge Networks Panel, data were collected to outline the demographic, economic, and behavioral characteristics of respondents. Profile data included person and household demographics, computer and Internet use, television and cable, individual health and ailments, political profiles, magazine and newspaper readership, financial profiles, and lifestyle profiles. Huggins and her associates addressed several sources of survey errors that are an inherent part of the survey process such as non-response, non-coverage, and response error using multiple adjustments for weights. For instance, after starting with an equal probability design (self-weighting with several known deviations to make the sample more efficient), adjustments were calculated and applied to base sample weights to explain these known deviations.

Huggins and her associates indicated that response rates from each of three surveys were 69 percent for the Health Study, 77 percent for the Computer Use Study, and 84 percent for the Investment Study. Results of demographic differences between respondents and non-respondents in three studies revealed that non-response occurred frequently in younger populations, Blacks, Hispanics, people with lower incomes, and those with lower education levels. In the Investment Study, only one discrepancy

between respondents and non-respondents was statistically different (age 65-74). Of the results of differences in outcome statistics, both the Computer Use and Investment studies indicated that no statistical differences were found. However, in Health outcomes by response group, having responses from non-respondents would statistically affect the outcome measures. Finally, in an impact of weighting to reduce bias on outcome estimates, the analyses from Huggins and her associates (2002) suggested that sample weighting was effective for women, persons aged 1-34, and Blacks. Overall, Huggins and her associates provided a synopsis about the difference between respondents and non-respondents for several studies using profile data. Response rates around 70-80 percent seemed to be high to minimize non-response biases for the key characteristics in the three studies. Therefore, bias for studies with less than 50 percent response can be important though statistically insignificant.

With regard to assessing non-response bias, there are three methods for estimating non-response bias: comparisons with known values for the population, subjective estimates, and extrapolation (Kish, 1965; Lehman, 1963; Pace, 1939; Scott, 1961; Wallace, 1954). In comparison with known values for the population, results from a survey are compared with known values (e.g., age, marital status, place of birth, income, etc.) for the population. Since the known values are from a diverse source instrument, differences may take place as a result of response bias rather than non-response bias (Wiseman, 1972). In addition, although the tested items are not biased from non-response, it is difficult to decide if the other items are also free from bias (Lehman, 1963).

In relation to subjective estimates, one approach is to determine socioeconomic differences between respondents and non-respondents (Clausen & Ford, 1947; Huggins et

al., 2002; Kirchner & Mousley, 1963; Scott, 1961; Vincent, 1964; Wallace, 1954). For instance, non-respondents are typically less educated than respondents, so characteristics of respondents and non-respondents may be different.

Another widely suggested basis for subjective estimates is the interest hypothesis (Blair, 1964; Donald, 1960; Hovland, Romberg, & Moreland, 1980; Reuss, 1943). The assumption of the interest hypothesis is that individuals who are more interested in the subject of a questionnaire respond more readily (Reuss). In addition, non-response bias occurs on items in which the subject's answer is related to his/her interest in the questionnaire (Blair). Many researchers concluded that subjects are more likely to respond to a questionnaire if they make a favorable impression on those who read the responses.

Consistent with findings on subjective estimates from researchers, Hovland and his colleagues (1980) investigated the possible bias resulting from excluding non-responders from mail survey questionnaires within a professional population. They analyzed the differences between the responders and non-responders with respect to the subjects' demographic data, attitudes, and knowledge. Two questionnaires regarding soliciting attitudes and specific knowledge were sent to randomly selected subjects. Results from the study revealed that subject matter affected subject response rates to mailed surveys. In a demographic comparison between responders and non-responders, researchers found no differences. Overall, non-response bias did not affect the results of Hovland and his colleagues' survey on typical response rates.

Lastly, extrapolation methods to determine non response bias include successive waves, time trends, and concurrent waves (Ferber, 1948-1949 and Pace, 1939). The



assumption of the extrapolation methods is that people who respond less readily are more likely to be non-respondents (Ferber). The term “less readily” refers to respondents who answer late or need stimulation to answer. Kim and her associates (2004) reported that late responders answer differently than early responders because of the different levels of interest in the subject matter. For instance, in a study on response rates in volunteer organizations, StatPac (2005) reported that individuals who were actively involved in the organization responded more than passively involved volunteers.

Successive waves of a questionnaire are the most common type of extrapolation. Wave denotes the response generated by a stimulus such as a follow-up postcard as Dillman (1978) proposed. Subjects who respond in later waves are assumed to have responded because of the increased stimulus and are expected to be similar to non-respondents. Another basis for extrapolation is time trends (Ferber, 1948-1949). The assumption of time trends is that people who respond later are regarded as non-respondents. An advantage of using the method of time trends is that the possibility of a bias being presented by the stimulus itself can be excluded. Lastly, the procedure of concurrent waves includes sending the same questionnaire concurrently to randomly selected samples (Ferber). Wide variations are used in the incentives to guarantee a wide range of return rate among these sub-samples. This method permits for an extrapolation across the various sub-samples to estimate the response for a 100 percent return rate. The extrapolation can be done at an early due date because only one wave is needed from each of the samples.

In order to obtain a valid prediction for the direction of non-response bias, Armstrong and Overton (1977) conducted a study on estimating non-response bias in

mail surveys. Data were gained from 16 previously published studies. The sample sizes for the studies varied. The first wave ranged in size from 60 to 7,900 with a median of 1,000; the criterion waves ranged from 45 to 5,000 with a median of 770. Response rate in the first wave ranged from 10 to 75 percent with a median of 42 percent. The non-respondents covered by the mail criterion ranged from 13 to 92 percent with a median of 44 percent. Findings from Armstrong and Overton indicated that subjective estimates and extrapolations represented valid predictions for the direction of non-response bias. For estimates of the magnitude of bias, extrapolations led to substantial improvements over a strategy of not using extrapolations.

### *Validity and Reliability*

When a test or other measuring device is used as part of the data collection process, the validity and reliability of the test is important because it assists in determining the amount of faith people should place in its results (Morris & Fitts-Gabbon, 1978). Reliable and valid results are of utmost importance for every researcher, regardless of whether quantitative or qualitative research is conducted (Patton, 1978).

Reliability and validity are necessary for authenticating an instrument. Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument is measuring what it is intended to measure. Due to the nature of the study undertaken, it is appropriate to discuss the instrument's content validity. Content validity involves a test's ability to include or represent all of the content of a particular construct. According to Dunn (1987), it is concerned with "individual, subjective judgment regarding the extent to which an empirical measurement

reflects a specific domain of content” (p. 64). The content validity of an instrument is established by through the review of related literature (e.g., dissertation). Another way to establish the content validity is that the questionnaire (i.e., items or statements) in the instrument should be written based on the literature reviewed to ensure that they are representative of research findings and complete. Lastly, a panel of expert jury reviews the items or statements to confirm content validity (Yu, 2005).

Reliability refers to the consistency of a test, survey, observation, or other measuring device. Therefore, a reliable instrument performs the same way repeatedly. Among many measurements for reliability of an instrument, the Cronbach’s Alpha internal consistency reliability analysis is highly recommended (Yu, 2005). A reliability coefficient is often the statistic of choice in determining the reliability of a test, and it should not be lower than 0.80 (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Yu). This is accomplished by administering the instrument once and then applying various statistical tests, one of which is Cronbach’s Alpha. In order to help ensure the reliability of a mailing survey instrument, the questionnaire (e.g., items or statements) in the instrument should be clear, concise, and of appropriate length, and difficulty (Gronlund, 1976); the sample size should be large enough; and extreme homogeneity within the sample should be avoided (Dunn, 1987).

### *Summary*

The changing nature and popularity of golf services and facilities demands qualified golf directors in a wide variety of recreational golf settings. To be considered a

qualified golf professional, it is important to possess a variety of different competencies in golf and business-related areas. A considerable number of studies related to sport management competencies have been published, but to date, a study related to golf course directors has not yet been investigated. Information generated from the management theorists and sport management scholars guided the initial direction of the exploratory empirical investigation in this study. The work of such scholars initiated the quest to investigate the competencies associated with golf management. The theoretical concepts that guided this study were borrowed from the conceptual management and sport management literature, which included attempts by researchers to identify and classify unique sets of competencies. It is necessary to continually examine and update the body of knowledge in golf management, and to design methods for efficiently delivering such information to current and future golf course directors.

## CHAPTER III

### Research Methodology

This study was designed to explore golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities in the United States. The entire research process aimed to construct a competency model for PGA golf professionals using the Competencies of Golf Course Directors (CGCD) instrument and test this model in the study.

The purpose of this study is: (1) to identify differences in response toward the importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions of the United States; (2) to identify the differences in the perceived importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in the United States; (3) to determine if there is consistency among PGA golf professionals as to preferred competencies for golf course directors; and (4) to discover the importance of needed competency components identified in the PGA professionals' analysis for golf course directors in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in the United States.

The study included the following phases: (a) selection of the instrument, (b) Institutional Review Board approval, (c) sample size and selection, (d) selection of expert jury, (e) pilot test of the instrument, (f) administration of the instrument, (g) analysis of data, and (h) summary. This chapter discusses the detailed steps in each phase.

### *Selection of the Instrument*

Due to the nationwide scope of the study, the research design chosen for this study was a self-administered electronic mail-survey questionnaire. Advantages to using online surveys include a 30-60% response rate, inexpensive administration, fast results, and ease of modification (Bambooweb directory, 2005). Similar approaches were used in other management competency analysis studies (Whetten & Cameron, 2002). Based on the work of Dillman (1978) and that of Whetten and Cameron, a questionnaire survey is an appropriate instrument for a study of competency.

With regard to the selection of the instrument through reviewing literature in management competencies of recreational sport managers, Toh's (1997) Competencies of Sport Managers (COSM) instrument was chosen with modifications for several reasons. First, the COSM instrument presented in the literature evaluated competencies of the recreational sport profession and utilized methodologically reliable procedures. This was the most appropriate instrument that assessed the suggested competencies required to manage recreational sports that were related to the purpose of this study. Second, the COSM was one of the few instruments in the recreational sport field of study to convey evidence of validity and reliability (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .97$ ). Third, the COSM instrument effectively measures problems presented for golf professionals because it has produced reliable and valid data. Toh's study provided information of value for the selection of competencies and the general framework for the questionnaire.

The COSM instrument was modified based on the current literature and the suggestions provided by five experts serving as a panel of jurors. In Toh's (1997) study,

the competency statements included 96 items categorized within 10 areas before measuring management competencies among recreational sport managers. It was determined that modifying the original statement of the COSM was appropriate because the needs of directors in the golf industry might differ from those of managers in the recreational sport field. Further, the original statements of the COSM were all content validated and deemed important by the expert jury.

Prior to the modification of the 96 competency statements, a review of literature related to the golf profession was conducted. Relevant literature including professional journals, dissertations, textbooks, and previous questionnaires were reviewed to develop a suitable questionnaire. When modifying the COSM to be applicable to the golf profession, three statements were added. The changed and included statements were in the areas of customer relations, merchandising and inventory management, and golf cart management. The total of 99 competency statements were utilized.

Hereafter, the instrument is identified as the Competencies of Golf Course Directors (CGCD). The CGCD instrument consisted of two sections: (1) Competencies and (2) Demographic Information. The competencies area included a total of 99 statements that formed the first part of the questionnaire (See Appendix D). Each competency statement tested for self-reported importance of different types of directors of golf operations. The different types of management consisted of nine classes based on directors' employment classification at PGA-recognized golf facilities. The nine classes were: Head Golf Professionals (Class A-1), Head Golf Professionals at golf range (Class A-2), Directors of Golf (Class A-4), PGA members at golf schools, indoor facilities, or supervisors of golf instructors (Class A-6), Directors of Golf or Head Golf Professionals

at golf facilities under construction (Class A-7), General Manager (Class A-13), Director of Instruction (Class A-14), an executive, administrative, or supervisory position with golf industry manufacturer or golf industry distributor (Class A-19), and Life Members (members who have held a minimum of 20 years in an Active Classification, but are not eligible for classification as Active Members).

A questionnaire using a Likert-type four-point scale was developed to gather information on the management competencies perceived important for the effective performance of the golf course director. A four-point scale Likert-type was chosen because it requires respondents to provide answers of either very important or somewhat important to management competencies rather than giving a neutral answer as would be possible on a five-point Likert scale. According to StatPac (2005), a physical placement of the “neutral” category (at the midpoint of the scale) makes a difference in the conclusions that could be drawn from the data. StatPac revealed that questions that avoid the neutral option generate a greater volume of accurate data in factual questions. Thus, the importance of competency statements was rated by the following four-point Likert scale:

1. Unimportant
2. Somewhat Important
3. Very Important
4. Critically Important

The 99 competency statements for the CGCD instrument were grouped into 10 competency areas, including (1) business procedures; (2) communication/public relations; (3) computer skills; (4) facilities/equipment management; (5) governance;



(6) legality/risk management; (7) management techniques; (8) research/evaluation; (9) philosophy/sport science; and (10) programming techniques/event management.

The CGCD instrument measured management competencies for the golf course directors. It was necessary to perform a test of content validity of CGCD. In the content validity process, the Delphi technique was executed using information provided by a panel of experts. The content validation processes for CGCD instrument occurred in three steps. First, the 96 statements of COSM instrument by Toh (1997) were reworded and modified for the golf profession. The chair of the dissertation committee evaluated the CGCD instrument (Appendix D) for appropriateness of wording and grammar. A total of 99 competency statements were developed. Second, the CGCD instrument was sent to five expert jury members with a cover letter explaining the study and thanking them for their assistance (see Appendix B). The experts were asked to evaluate and validate the competency statements. They were asked to make any additions, deletions, amendments, and changes as deemed necessary. Based on their suggestions and a further review of literature, the CGCD instrument offered 91 statements. Lastly, the questionnaire was again sent to the jury and reviewed by the chair of the dissertation committee to evaluate for design, content, appearance, and errors. Jurors were instructed to rate the necessity of the competency statements for their golf operation according to the following five-point Likert scale:

1. Unnecessary
2. Questionable
3. Neutral
4. Somewhat Necessary
5. Necessary

An average criterion score of greater than 3.0 (as judged by members of the expert jury) was needed for a competency to be included in the questionnaire. As a result of this validation for CGCD instrument, all 91 statements were retained (see Appendix E).

Part two of the questionnaire was designed to gather demographic information such as, age, sex, working experience, salary, position title, club membership size, and academic achievement. The demographic information of the COSM was modified for the purposes of this study and included a description of the golf course (e.g., private, semi-private, municipal, or only driving range), affiliation with the PGA, professional certification status, size of membership (for private or semi-private golf course), yearly rounds of golf, and year the director became a director/head professional.

#### *Institutional Review Board Approval*

Upon committee acceptance, the researcher applied for approval by the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board [IRB] for the Protection of Human Subjects. IRB approval was granted on April 27, 2005 as shown in Appendix H. Following IRB approval a pre-contact letter was sent to five directors/head professionals to conduct the

pilot study. Participants were requested to provide feedback about access difficulties, item wording problems, and content.

### *Sample Size and Selection*

Most golf courses in the United States are PGA recognized facilities. This indicates that those facilities usually have a PGA certified director or head professional who hold Class A membership in the PGA. The subjects selected for this study were golf professionals (directors or head professionals) at PGA recognized private, semi-private, and public golf facilities within selected areas in the United States.

In order to determine management competencies for golf course directors, it was necessary to use judgment sampling to access different golf environments and obtain answers to the research questions presented in this study. The different golf environments included year-round and seasonal golf facilities, different populations served, familiarity, and/or willingness to provide directories for the sample Districts. Through measuring the selected golf environments using judgment sampling, the chosen sample appears to be representative of the entire population.

The Association's Sections are organized into 14 Districts. In the PGA membership system, each Section Headquarters manages its own membership services, and the Section Directory consists of information about members and facilities. Among the 14 Districts, four Districts (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) were chosen for the purpose of this study to compare management competencies among golf professionals between Districts. District 2 includes Metropolitan (New York City area), New Jersey, and

Philadelphia; District 11 includes Northern California, Southern California, and Aloha (Hawaii); District 12 includes Sun Country, Northern Texas, and Southern Texas; District 13 includes North Florida, South Florida, and Georgia. Each District includes three sections as shown in Table 3 (a map for the 41 sections is in Appendix G).

Table 3

*Fourteen Districts*

Districts	Sections
District 1	Connecticut, New England, and Northeastern New York
District 2	Metropolitan (NY), New Jersey, and Philadelphia
District 3	Dixie, Gulf States, and Tennessee
District 4	Central New York, Western New York, and Tri-State
District 5	Michigan, Northern Ohio, and Southern Ohio
District 6	Illinois, Wisconsin, and Indiana
District 7	Gateway, South Central, and Mid-West
District 8	Minnesota, Nebraska, and Iowa
District 9	Rocky Mountain, Colorado, and Utah
District 10	Kentucky, Middle Atlantic, and Carolinas
District 11	Northern California, Southern California, and Aloha (Hawaii)
District 12	Sun Country (New Mexico), North Texas, and South Texas
District 13	North Florida, South Florida, and Georgia.

Note. *2005 PGA Membership & Golf Directory* (p. 90), by PGA, 2005.

Golf professionals (directors/head professionals) at PGA recognized facilities were chosen from 12 of the 41 Sections. In an attempt to match the number of the sample

size needed in each selected region, the investigator decided to measure by District (including 3 Sections) rather than by Section. For instance, year-round golf areas (e.g., Florida and/or California Section) had a larger number of PGA professionals than other Sections. Thus, the researcher measured the entire population in the selected Districts as opposed to Sections because the entire populations of the Districts were sufficiently small to be accessible.

Initially, a judgment sample of three Districts was selected to present the PGA with a fourth section selected as a substitute if needed. When collecting Section Directories, member information was gathered in the selected areas in two steps. First, telephone calls were made to Executive Directors or secretaries in the selected 12 Sections to request Section Directories so that a personalized email and survey could be sent to each golf professional. Not all Section Membership Directories could be obtained because of confidentiality. Second, in order to get a Section Directory for the areas where the researcher did not obtain one, electronic mail (see Appendix A) was sent to the PGA Membership Director at the PGA Headquarters in Florida. The PGA Membership Director gave the same response as the Executive Directors—the Section Directories could not be obtained because of concerns about Section member confidentiality. A total of six Section Directories were collected, and three were not obtained. Section Directories were obtained from six Sections: Metropolitan, New Jersey, Philadelphia, Georgia, New Mexico, and North Texas. Section Directories were not obtained for North Florida, South Florida, and Southern Texas.

The sample of districts and sections selected for this study included 748 golf professionals in District 2; 968 golf professionals in District 11; 655 golf professionals in

District 12; and 1,422 golf professionals in District 13. In the 2005 PGA Membership and Golf Directory, PGA members' name, email address, facility name, and telephone contact number were listed alphabetically. When choosing the population, all members holding Class A-1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 13, 14, 19, or Life membership in each of the selected Sections were chosen from the 2005 PGA Membership and Golf Directory. The electronic mail addresses of the selected PGA recognized facilities were obtained from the 2005 PGA Membership and Golf Directory, and six Section Directories. In case of low response rates from the original sample in selected Districts (District 2, 12, and 13), electronic mail addresses of members in an extra District (District 11) were prepared and used with the original Districts with the follow up reminder electronic mailing out of the survey. A further breakdown of the number of subjects surveyed by Districts is shown in Table 4.

This sampling design utilized four Districts to represent the PGA. Within the Districts and respective sections, a census of members permitted contact with all listed membership. From that census, voluntary respondents self-selected by responding to the electronic survey.

Table 4

*Total Number of Subjects Surveyed*

Subject	Number of PGA members	Number Surveyed
District 2		748
Metropolitan (N. Y. City)	253	253
New Jersey	158	158
Philadelphia	337	337
District 11		968
California	887	887
Aloha (Hawaii)	81	81
District 12		655
Sun Country (New Mexico)	85	85
North Texas	282	282
South Texas	288	288
District 13		1,422
North Florida	542	542
South Florida	567	567
Georgia	313	313
Total	3,793	3,793

*Selection of Expert Jury*

For the selection procedures of the expert jury, the investigator contacted participants via email and telephone to secure their participation. A total of 19 experts were asked to participate in this study: six directors and/or head professionals in private, semi-private, and private golf facilities and 13 directors from the PGA recognized PGM program in higher education. The purpose of the study, the instructions, and the significance of their contribution were explained to them. Among the six selected golf

experts, five professionals agreed to participate: three experts in public golf facilities, one in a semi-private facility, and one in a private golf facility. One expert in a semi-private golf facility never responded to email and telephone contact.

Of the 13 directors in the PGM programs, no one participated in this study. Three directors responded that they were not comfortable serving as jury members in this study because they were new to their director positions or busy with work. Eight directors never responded, and two directors agreed to participate but did not respond to further steps. Electronic mails were sent three times within five weeks to PGM program directors. They were university faculty who had documented experience and involvement with golf skills development, curriculum design, and students' internship coordination.

Five PGA professionals who held Class A Membership with expertise in golf management were selected to form the expert jury. The purpose of the expert jury was to test the validity and reliability of the instrument modified (CGCD) for this study. A list of the jury may be found in Appendix C. Members were nationally prominent in the golf management field with at least ten years of practical experience in golf course operation. One member had graduated from the PGM program and had some experience in golf operation. The jury appeared to represent the PGA of America sample being studied.

### *Pilot Test of the Instrument*

Prior to the distribution of the questionnaire to subjects, the CGCD was pilot tested by five jury members: one jury member graduated from the PGA recognized PGM program at a semi-private golf course; one from a private golf course; and three were



current head professionals or directors of golf operation at public golf courses. A total of five questionnaires were distributed and analyzed for the pilot study. The purpose of this pilot study was to examine the adequacy of the instrument, to establish validity and reliability of the instrument, and to review the potential analysis of the questions.

In the content validity process of the CGCD instrument, the Delphi technique was used. Five jurors who agreed to participate in this study were used to measure content validity and reliability of the instrument via an email (3 jurors) and mail (2 jurors) questionnaire. Of the modified 99 competency statements from Toh's (1997) COSM instrument, the jurors were asked to evaluate and validate the statements through a cover letter explaining the nature of the study. They were encouraged to make any additions, deletions, amendments, and changes as necessary. In addition, an evaluation form was included to solicit questions about the clarity of wording, readability, instructions, definitions, time taken to complete, and general comments.

After analyzing jurors' comments and suggestions, the investigator made changes to the instrument, which yielded 91 statements. Then, the resulting questionnaire was again sent to the jury to suggest changes in wording and to check the necessity of competency statements with regard to their golf courses. This time, jurors were instructed to measure the necessity of each statement according to the five-point Likert scale. An average score of greater than 3.0 was required to retain competency statements. A total of 91 competency statements were maintained through the content validation process by expert jurors. On average, the respondents reported that the questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete. Suggested changes included:

1. Rewording and simplifying of competency statements.

2. Shortening the length of the questionnaire.
3. Clarifying instructions related to golf professionals.

### *Administration of the Instrument*

The CGCD instrument was emailed to the chosen sample of golf professionals (directors of golf operation/head professionals) employed at the PGA recognized facilities in the middle of August 2005. These golf professionals were those individuals listed in the membership of districts and sections as indicated earlier. To maintain a 95 percent confidence interval, a sample size of a minimum of 385 subjects was required. Based on a response rate of 20 percent and assuming that 10 percent of those who had responded would be invalid, a total of 2,139 subjects were required to obtain at least 385 valid and usable responses ( $2,139 \times 0.2 \times 0.9 = 385$ ). Therefore, a total number of 3,793 questionnaires were sent via electronic mail to the selected subjects.

The Total Design Method for surveys (Dillman, 1978) was followed for purposes of data collection. The Total Design Method includes three mailings in eight weeks. In case of low response rate from the selected Districts (District 2, 12, and 13), a modified version of the Total Design Method was prepared to send out to District 11 (California and Hawaii) during the third week. An email detailing the nature of the study, implications of the research, value of submitting the questionnaire, confidentiality of each subject, voluntary response, and instructions for completing the questionnaire, along with the Website link were sent to the selected respondents.

A follow-up email was sent approximately 12 days following the initial mailing to subjects thanking those who already completed and submitted the questionnaire and reminding subjects who had not responded to complete the survey. In addition, District 11 was included in the survey. Approximately three weeks following the initial emailing, a final reminder email letter with the Website link was sent to subjects who had still not responded to the questionnaire. Data collection concluded during October 2005.

In order to determine non-response bias, extrapolation methods were used (Ferber, 1948-1949). According to Kim and her associates (2004), subjects who respond after a follow-up email are deemed to have responded because of the increased stimulus and are expected to be similar to non-respondents. Therefore, participants who submitted their responses before the first reminder email were considered early responders and participants after the first follow-up reminder email were considered late responders. Respondents were categorized by response to determine if there was a difference between participants who submitted their questionnaire before the first reminder and participants who submitted their questionnaire after the follow-up reminders.

### *Analysis of Data*

After all the responses were gathered and transferred into Microsoft Excel, the data were subjected to computer analysis. Examination of the data revealed the presence of missing data points. The cases with missing data in the datasets indicated a random pattern.

With regard to coding missing data, Little and Rubin (1987) claimed that there is no simple rule for whether to leave data as they are, to drop cases with missing values, or to impute values to replace missing values. The problem with missing values is not so much reduced sample size as it is the possibility that the remaining data set is biased (Little & Rubin). Little and Rubin acknowledged that when the number of cases with missing data is small (less than five percent in a larger sample), it is common to drop these cases from analysis because imputation can distort coefficients of association and correlation relating variables. In the present study, since missing values of individual items were less than five percent, missing data were eliminated from analysis.

For computer analyses, the calculation were executed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12.0 (Norusis, 2004). The statistical analyses focused on demographic information and assessing golf management competencies among PGA golf course directors (in different types of golf courses in the diverse regions).

### *Demographic Information*

Descriptive statistics were utilized to analyze demographic information (PGA affiliation, job position, years at current job, sex, age, highest degree, major, and SES). The analyses included cross tabulations identifying frequencies, mean scores, median scores, standard deviations (SD), and percentages, when appropriate.

## *Assessing Golf Management Competencies*

The second set of analyses were conducted to test whether there were differences between identified groups (golf professionals in different regions and types of golf courses) in a combination of management competency items. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted: (1) to identify differences in response toward the importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States; (2) to identify the differences in the perceived importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in the United States; and (3) to determine if there was consistency among PGA golf professionals as to preferred competencies for golf course directors.

By measuring the importance of 91 competency items in 10 categories, conducting MANOVA was appropriate because it has a better chance of discovering which factor is truly important than using multiple tests of analysis of variance (Everitt & Dunn, 1991). While performing the MANOVA, Wilks' lambda statistics were reported because those state a direct measure of the proportion of variance in the combination of dependent variables that are unaccounted for by the independent variable (Everitt & Dunn).

If there was a significant multivariate effect after running the MANOVA, the univariate effects were examined for each competency category using univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA). When the overall F ratios were significant, Scheffe's post-hoc tests were performed to make all possible comparisons among means. Steps to obtain

results from MANOVA followed by univariate ANOVAs and post hoc tests aided in answering whether there was consistency among PGA golf professionals regarding preferred competencies for golf course directors. Significance was calculated at the .05 probability level for MANOVA, ANOVA, and post hoc tests.

To determine the dimensions underlying the management competencies of golf course directors in different types of golf courses in the selected regions, factor analytic procedures were conducted. Factor analysis discovers simple patterns in the pattern of relationships among the variables (Darlington, 2005). Procedures of factor analysis examine only the variance that each observed variable shares with other observed variables.

Previously, Toh (1997) utilized exploratory factor analysis to determine competencies among sport managers. He discovered that sport management competencies included a six factor model with 31 competency items. A six factor model was confirmed using confirmatory factor analysis. Toh found that the six factor model of the COSM instrument best fit the data [ $\chi^2$  (419, N=408) = 684.21,  $p < 0.001$ ; RMSEA=0.039; and CFI=0.94]. Furthermore, the internal consistency reliability ( $\alpha = 0.97$ ) of the COSM instrument was found to be high for the sample.

Toh's (1997) observed variables (the 99 competency statements) were theoretically explained in each of the 10 possible factors. Thus, it was appropriate to use principal components analysis. A principal component analysis with a direct Oblimin rotation scheme was conducted to discover the importance of competency factors identified in the PGA professionals' analysis for golf course directors to possess in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in the United States. The direct Oblimin

rotation scheme was selected because correlations between extracted factors were above .20. Errors and unique variance were estimated and eliminated. In relation to a sample size for factor analysis, at least 300 responses are adequate (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). A sample size of 50 is very poor, 100 is poor, 200 is fair, 300 is good, 500 is very good, and 1,000 is excellent (Tabachnik & Fidell). Significance was calculated at the .05 probability level for the principal components factor analysis.

### *Summary*

In order to investigate management competencies among PGA golf professionals who are in charge of golf operations in different types of golf courses in selected regions of the United States, methods and data analysis of the study were introduced in this chapter. Procedures for this study included selection of the instrument, outlining the sample size and selection, selection of expert jury, determination of instrument validity, how the CGCD instrument was administered to the sample, and how data were analyzed to explore answers to the questions proposed by this study. The modified instrument (CGCD) provides and identifies a profile of preferred competencies of golf operations.

## CHAPTER IV

### Analysis of Data

This chapter reports and discusses the results of the study with respect to each research question and demographic information. The entire research process aimed to determine management competencies among golf course directors using the Competencies of Golf Course Directors (CGCD) instrument, and construct a competency model for PGA golf professionals by testing CGCD model in the study.

The purpose of this study was: (1) to identify differences in response toward the importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions of the United States; (2) to identify the differences in the perceived importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in the United States; (3) to determine if there was a consistency among PGA golf professionals as to preferred competencies for golf course directors; and (4) to discover the importance of needed competency components identified in the PGA professionals' analysis for golf course directors in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in the United States.

The questionnaire used for the study consisted of two parts. The first part of the questionnaire asked the subjects to rate each competency item according to the degree of importance each subject perceived it to contribute to effective performance of the



director/head professional of golf operations at their facilities. A four-point Likert type scale was used to determine the importance level for director of golf operations for each of competency item. The values assigned to the Likert scale included unimportant, somewhat important, very important, and critically important. The second part of the questionnaire asked subjects for demographic information. For interpretation purposes, percentages were rounded to the nearest tenth. The percentages reported in the tables represent only valid cases. The statistical level of significance used for this study was .05. Analysis of data was provided in this chapter under the following topics: (a) an analysis of population frames and response rate, (b) demographic data, (c) findings, and (d) summary.

### *Response Rate*

The population for this study consisted of 3,793 PGA golf professionals of private, semi-private, and public golf courses in District 2, 11, 12, and 13 selected from the 2005 PGA Membership and Golf Directory and six Section Directories. Golf professionals held a PGA membership of Class A-1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 13, 14, 19, or Lifetime in each of the selected Districts. Of those, 748 were golf professionals in District 2 (Metropolitan, Philadelphia, and New Jersey); 968 were golf professionals in District 11 (California and Aloha); 655 were golf professionals in District 12 (New Mexico and Texas); and 1,422 were golf professionals in District 13 (Florida and Georgia).

The Dillman (1978) survey methodology was employed for the data collection process. Three separate email-outs were used to collect data, including cover letter and

survey, follow-up email, and final cover letter and survey, along with the Website link. The responses were transmitted directly into Microsoft Excel after respondents clicked the 'submit' button.

During the course of data collection, a total of 423 surveys (11.2 percent of the total population) were submitted with either blank responses, possible multiple submissions, or unusable data. These might have occurred for a variety of reasons such as technical difficulties delivering electronic mail to subjects, problems related with current email addresses, mistakes made by the subjects themselves while submitting responses, golf professionals' lack of time to complete the survey, subjects' lack of interest in responding to the questionnaire, or the perceived inapplicability of the research to particular golf environment settings.

During electronic mailing processes, a total of 2,570 administrative errors occurred as detailed in the following statements. For the first day of electronic mailing, less than 10 percent were absentees, refusals, or subjects not contacted due to operational problems. Six hundred forty emails were immediately returned for reasons such as unknown email addresses, delayed notifications, delivery errors, or deleted notifications without opening the email. Since some error notifications listed more than one undeliverable email address, more than 640 errors occurred while delivering the first survey email-out.

The total number of submission completed, and usable surveys for this study was 391, for an overall response rate of 10.3 percent. Table 5 shows the frequency and percentages of the response by individual population groups submitting the questionnaire. District 12 represented the largest portion of the population, at 40.4 percent with 158

responses, followed by District 11 with 83 responses for 21.2 percent. District 2 represented 18.7 percent with 73 responses, and District 13 represented 19.7 percent with 77 responses of the population, though it had the largest population among the groups at 37.5 percent. Although District 12 represented just 17.3 percent of the overall population, they had the highest rate of response for the study at 40.4 percent. Overall response rates for this study were low compared to other online surveys. According to Bambooweb directory (2005), using online surveys typically yield a response rate of 30-60 percent.

Table 5

*Responses by Different Districts*

Districts	Response		
	Emailed (Percent)	Received	Percent of Total Response
District 2 (NY, Phil., & NJ)	748 (19.7%)	73	18.7
District 11 (CA & HI)	968 (25.5%)	83	21.2
District 12 (NM & TX)	655 (17.3%)	158	40.4
District 13 (FL & GA)	1,422 (37.5%)	77	19.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>3,793 (100%)</b>	<b>391</b>	<b>100.0</b>

For clarity of responses, the breakdown of disparate types of golf facilities in different Districts was analyzed as indicated in Table 6. Golf professionals working at private golf courses in District 12 represented the largest portion of the population with 72 responses for 38.5 percent, followed by private golf courses in District 2 at 29.4 percent. With regard to semi-private/daily fee golf courses, golf professionals in District 12 comprised the largest portion of the population with 45.7 percent, followed by District

11 and 12 with 22.8 percent. For public golf courses, golf professionals in District 12 represented the largest portion of the population at 36.4 percent, closely followed by District 11 at 31.8 percent.

Table 6

*Response Rates by Disparate Types of Golf Facilities in Different Districts*

Golf Facilities	Districts				
	District 2	District 11	District 12	District 13	Total
Private	56 (29.9%) (76.7%)	32 (17.1%) (38.6%)	72 (38.5%) (45.6%)	27 (14.4%) (35.1%)	187 (100%) (47.8%)
Semi-Private/ Daily Fee	11 (8.7%) (15.1%)	29 (22.8%) (34.9%)	58 (45.7%) (36.7%)	29 (22.8%) (37.7%)	127 (100%) (32.5%)
Public	4 (6.1%) (5.5%)	21 (31.8%) (25.3%)	24 (36.4%) (15.2%)	17 (25.8%) (22.1%)	66 (100%) (16.9%)
Golf Management School	0 (0%) (0%)	0 (0%) (0%)	1 (100%) (.6%)	0 (0%) (0%)	1 (100%) (.3%)
Driving Range Only	1 (12.5%) (1.4%)	1 (12.5%) (1.2%)	3 (37.5%) (1.9%)	3 (37.5%) (3.9%)	8 (100%) (2.0%)
Other	1 (50.0%) (1.4%)	0 (0%) (0%)	0 (0%) (0%)	1 (50.0%) (1.3%)	2 (100%) (0.5%)
Total	73 (18.7%) (100%)	83 (21.2%) (100%)	158 (40.4%) (100%)	77 (19.7%) (100%)	391 (100%) (100%)

\* % at first row: within facility types \* % at second row: within Districts

Response patterns to determine non-response bias were compared to the response differences between early respondents and late respondents on the golf management competencies using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The means by group between respondents and late respondents were 261.62 and 267.64 ( $M = 265.34$ ,  $SD = 36.98$ ). In terms of mean score comparisons among the 91 competency statements, two items were significantly different between early respondents and late respondents: using good written communication skills were 2.82 and 3.03 ( $M = 2.95$ ,  $SD = 0.74$ ); and establishing procedures reflecting fair treatment of both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers were 2.37 and 2.64 ( $M = 2.54$ ,  $SD = 0.83$ ) respectively. Regarding mean score comparisons among 10 management categories between respondents and late respondents, late respondents scored higher on nine categories than did respondents.

The results of a one-way ANOVA indicated that there were no significant differences between respondents and late respondents in response patterns,  $F(1, 389) = 0.06$ ,  $p = 0.80$ , suggesting that data were not biased by rate of response. Participants who submitted their surveys before the first follow-up reminder answered items similarly to participants who submitted their surveys after the first follow-up reminder.

### *Demographic Data*

Directors/head professionals who operate golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) and currently hold a PGA membership of Class A-1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 13, 14, 19, or Lifetime in each of the selected Districts (2, 11, 12, and 13) were the subjects in this study. They were chosen from the 2005 PGA Membership and Golf Directory and six

Section Directories. Demographic information for each different type of golf facility (private, semi-private, and public) and District were reported as follows.

### *Types of Golf Facilities*

A total of six different types of golf facilities were involved in the study, including private, semi-private, municipal, driving range only, golf management school, and others. Based on the responses by disparate types of golf facilities, golf professionals in private golf courses comprised the largest portion of the population at 47.8 percent with 187 responses, followed by semi-private golf courses at 29.9 percent and 127 responses. Public golf facilities formed the smallest portion of the population, representing 19.4 percent.

To respond to the research questions, eight responses from driving range only courses and two responses in others were included in public golf facilities because driving ranges are open to the public. The researcher combined two facilities (driving range only and other) into public golf facilities. Since only one golf professional responded from a golf management school and it could not be included in any type of golf facilities, data from the golf management school was treated as missing data. Therefore, the total responses in the various golf courses included 187 private, 127 semi-private, and 76 public golf facilities. Table 7 shows respondents by different types of golf facilities.

Table 7

*Respondents by Different Types of Golf Facilities*

Types of Golf Facilities	Frequency	Valid Percent
Private	187	47.8
Semi-Private/Daily Fee	127	32.4
Public	76	19.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>390</b>	<b>100</b>

Note: missing data = 1

*PGA Certification*

Respondents were asked to indicate their professional certification (PGA) related to golf management. Table 8 indicates PGA members by each District. All of directors/head professionals held PGA certification as expected. All completed the PGM program offered by the PGA to obtain certification.

Table 8

*Professional Certification*

Certification	District 2	District 11	District 12	District 13	Total
PGA	73	82	77	158	390
<b>Total</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>390</b>

Note: missing data = 1

### *Classification of PGA Membership*

All of the golf professionals currently hold PGA memberships. The different types of management consisted of nine classes based on directors' employment classification at PGA-recognized golf facilities. The nine classes were: Head Golf Professionals (Class A-1); Head Golf Professionals at golf range (Class A-2); Directors of Golf (Class A-4); PGA members at golf schools, indoor facilities, or supervisors of golf instructors (Class A-6); Director of Golf or Head Golf Professionals at golf facilities under construction (Class A-7); General Manager (Class A-13); Director of Instruction (Class A-14); an executive, administrative, or supervisory position with golf industry manufacturer or golf industry distributor (Class A-19); and Life Member (members who are not eligible for classification as Active Members and who have held a minimum of 20 years in an Active Classification). Head golf professionals formed the largest portion of the population (68.0 percent), followed by directors of golf (21.8 percent). Table 9 demonstrates the classes of PGA membership in this population.



Table 9

*Classification of PGA Membership*

Classification of Membership	Frequency	Valid Percent
Class A-1 (Head Professional)	227	68.0
Class A-2 (Head Professional at Golf Range)	1	0.3
Class A-4 (Directors of Golf)	72	21.8
Class A-6 (Members at Golf Schools/ Indoor Facilities)	19	5.7
Class A-7 (Directors at Golf Facilities under Construction)	1	0.3
Class A-13 (General Manager)	6	1.8
Class A-14 (Director of Golf Instruction)	6	1.8
Class A-19 (Supervisory Position in Golf Industry)	1	0.3
Life Member	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>334</b>	<b>100</b>

Note: missing data = 57

*Age*

The majority of directors/head professionals were between 35 and 49 years old (58.0 percent). A large percentage of the population was 35-39 years old (19.7 percent), while 1.8 percent of individuals were younger than 30 years old and 31.6 percent were over age 50. The age of subjects in this population reflects the seniority that would be expected of directors/head professionals or general managers in the golf industry.

Noticeably, young directors/head professionals ages 30-39 represented a fairly large

portion of the population (28.1 percent combined). Table 10 demonstrates the breakdown of ages in categories for each type of golf course.

Table 10

*Age by Disparate Golf Courses*

Age/Types of G.C	Private	Semi-private	Public	Total
25-29	0 (0%) (0%)	5 (71.4%) (4.0%)	2 (28.6%) (2.7%)	7 (100%) (1.8%)
30-34	15 (3.9%) (3.9%)	13 (3.4%) (3.9%)	4 (1.1%) (3.9%)	32 (8.4%) (3.9%)
35-39	36 (48.0%) (19.8%)	21 (28.0%) (16.9%)	18 (24.0%) (24.3%)	75 (100%) (19.7%)
40-44	47 (65.3%) (25.8%)	14 (19.4%) (11.3%)	11 (15.3%) (14.9%)	72 (100%) (18.9%)
45-49	29 (39.2%) (15.9%)	31 (41.9%) (25.0%)	14 (18.9%) (18.9%)	74 (100%) (19.5%)
50-54	21 (44.7%) (11.5%)	17 (36.2%) (13.7%)	9 (19.1%) (12.2%)	47 (100%) (12.4%)
55-59	17 (45.9%) (9.3%)	10 (27.0%) (8.1%)	10 (27.0%) (13.5%)	37 (100%) (9.7%)
Over 59	17 (47.2%) (9.3%)	13 (36.1%) (10.5%)	6 (16.7%) (8.1%)	36 (100%) (9.5%)
Total	182 (47.9%) (100%)	124 (32.6%) (100%)	74 (19.5%) (100%)	380 (100%) (100%)

Note: missing data = 11

\*% at first row: age \* % at second row: types of golf courses

## *Sex*

Most directors/head professionals in the total population were male (94.0 percent). Only 23 respondents were female directors/head professionals in the golf industry (6.0 percent). Eight respondents did not report their sex. Table 11 indicates the sex distribution by different types of golf courses for this population.

Table 11

### *Sex*

Sex/Types of G.C	Private	Semi-private	Public	Total
Male	170 (47.4%) (93.4%)	120 (33.4%) (96.0%)	69 (19.2%) (92.0%)	359 (100%) (94.0%)
Female	12 (52.2%) (6.6%)	5 (21.7%) (4.0%)	6 (26.1%) (8.0%)	23 (100%) (6.0%)
Total	182 (47.6%) (100%)	125 (32.7%) (100%)	75 (19.6%) (100%)	382 (100%) (100%)

Note: missing data = 9

% at first row: sex \* % at second row: types of golf courses

## *Education Level*

Level of educational attainment was determined by asking respondents to indicate whether they had attained a particular educational degree. Eight separate degree categories were available for respondents as indicated in Table 12. A vast majority of respondents had received a bachelor's degree (57.8 percent), followed by those who

compared some college (18.0 percent), even though high school graduates were far more common in the golf industry (10.3 percent). Respondents who indicated having some high school education and master’s degrees or higher education levels were less common. Two respondents reported that they had received “other degrees.” Other degrees earned were listed by respondents included the Educational Specialist (Ed. S.) degree and the Golf Management degree. Two respondents did not provide education information.

Table 12

*Education Level*

Education Level	Frequency	Valid Percent
Some high school	2	.5
Some College	70	18.0
High school Graduate	40	10.3
Associate Degree	35	9.0
Bachelor’s Degree	225	57.8
Master’s Degree	14	3.6
Doctoral Degree	1	.3
Other	2	.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>389</b>	<b>100</b>

Note: missing data = 2

Respondents were also asked to indicate their area of study along with educational degree attainment. Of 391 respondents, only seven golf professionals reported their areas of study including business administration and politics, economics, engineering, golf academy, studio arts, physical education and biology, professional golf management.

*Annual Salary*

The respondents were asked their annual salaries (not including income from private lessons and earnings from tournaments). Two hundred eighteen directors/head professionals (55.8 percent) reported annual salaries of more than \$60,000, while 34.6 percent of respondents reported annual earnings between \$25,000 and \$59,999. Twenty four respondents did not answer the question. Table 13 illustrates the salary earned by the respondents.

Table 13

*Annual Salary*

Annual Salary	Frequency	Valid Percent
Below \$25,000	7	1.8
\$25,000-29,999	7	1.8
\$30,000-34,999	8	2.0
\$35,000-39,999	19	4.9
\$40,000-44,999	28	7.2
\$45,000-49,999	29	7.4
\$50,000-54,999	23	5.9
\$55,000-59,999	28	7.2
\$60,000 or more	218	55.8
<u>Total</u>	<u>367</u>	<u>93.9</u>

Note: missing data = 24

*Employment Experience in the Golf Industry*

The majority of the respondents (75.6 percent) indicated that they had been employed in the golf industry for over 13 years. One hundred seventy nine (47.3 percent in private, 45.7 percent in semi-private, and 43.4 percent in public golf courses) respondents in each type of golf course indicated that they have been working as directors/head professionals in the golf industry for over 20 years. Two individuals did not respond to this question (1 in District 2 and 1 in District 11). Table 14 shows the employment experience distribution for the respondents.

Table 14

*Employment Experience Compared by Types of Golf Clubs*

Years/ District	Private	Semi-private	Public	Total
1-4 years	5	4	1	10
5-8 years	9	9	8	26
9-12 years	23	22	14	59
13-16 years	31	17	13	61
17-20 years	30	17	7	54
Over 20 years	88	58	33	179
Total	186	127	76	389

Note: missing data = 2

### *Yearly Rounds of Golf*

In reporting the number of rounds of golf played at the courses managed by the respondents, the largest portion of yearly rounds of golf was 20,000 to 29,999 (23.9 percent), followed by 30,000 to 39,999 (19.8 percent) and 40,000 to 49,999 (15.0 percent), respectively. When combining the three categories of yearly rounds of golf together (20,000-49,999), a total of 58.7 percent was derived. Approximately 10 percent of golf courses had over 80,000 rounds of golf per year in the United States.

In comparing yearly rounds of golf for 20,000 to 49,999 between different types of golf courses, private golf courses had the largest portion of yearly rounds of golf at 62.4 percent, followed by semi-private golf courses (56 percent). Although the population size for public golf courses was the smallest, public golf courses had the largest portion of yearly rounds of 50,000 or above at 40.3 percent, followed by semi-private golf course (32.8 percent). Table 15 depicts yearly round of golf by private, semi-private, and public golf courses.

Yearly rounds of golf were compared between Districts. In golf regions with all-year round courses (Districts 11 and 13), the largest portion of yearly rounds of golf were 20,000-59,999 at 68.6 percent in District 13, and yearly rounds of golf of 30,000-69,999 were 66.7 percent in District 11. Within District 2, 10,000 to 29,999 yearly rounds of golf were most frequently reported (71.4 percent). Yearly rounds of golf for 20,000 to 49,999 in District 12 reported at 77.8 percent respectively. There were not many differences between yearly rounds of golf (20,000-59,999) within Districts. Therefore, in terms of

location, yearly rounds of golf and seasonal golf share more similarities than differences.

Table 16 indicates yearly rounds of golf in Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13.

Table 15

*Yearly Rounds of Golf by Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Courses*

Rounds of Golf	Private	Semi-Private	Public	Total
Below 10,000	7 (58.3%) (3.8%)	4 (33.3%) (3.2%)	1 (8.3%) (1.6%)	12 (100%) (3.2%)
10,000-19,999	35 (72.9%) (18.8%)	10 (20.8%) (8.0%)	3 (6.3%) (4.8%)	48 (100%) (12.9%)
20,000-29,999	64 (71.9%) (34.4%)	17 (19.1%) (13.6%)	8 (9.0%) (12.9%)	89 (100%) (23.9%)
30,000-39,999	37 (50.0%) (19.9%)	25 (33.8%) (20.0%)	12 (16.2%) (19.4%)	74 (100%) (19.8%)
40,000-49,999	15 (26.8%) (8.1%)	28 (50.0%) (22.4%)	13 (23.2%) (21.0%)	56 (100%) (15.0%)
50,000-59,999	10 (31.3%) (5.4%)	17 (53.1%) (13.6%)	5 (15.6%) (8.1%)	32 (100%) (8.6%)
60,000-69,999	7 (26.9%) (3.8%)	10 (38.5%) (8.0%)	9 (34.6%) (14.5%)	26 (100%) (7.0%)
80,000 & above	11 (30.6%) (5.9%)	14 (38.9%) (11.2%)	11 (30.6%) (17.7%)	36 (100%) (9.7%)
Total	186 (49.9%) (100%)	125 (33.5%) (100%)	62 (16.6%) (100%)	373 (100%) (100%)

Note: missing data = 18



Table 16

*Yearly Rounds of Golf at Districts*

Rounds of Golf	District 2	District 11	District 12	District 13	Total
Below 10,000	5	1	1	5	12
10,000-19,999	26	4	2	16	48
20,000-29,999	24	8	24	33	89
30,000-39,999	5	20	19	30	74
40,000-49,999	6	16	13	21	56
50,000-59,999	2	6	5	19	32
60,000-69,999	0	12	5	9	26
70,000-79,999	0	0	0	0	0
80,000 & above	2	14	3	17	36
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>373</b>

Note: missing data = 18

*Membership Size*

As demonstrated in Table 17, regardless of membership size, private golf courses held the largest membership (63.7 percent), followed by semi-private (31.8 percent). The largest portion of the membership size for the golf courses was below 500 members (60.6 percent). Of the membership size below 500, private golf courses had 92 memberships at 31.5 percent, followed by semi-private golf courses with 76 responses at 26.0 percent.

When comparing membership size within private golf clubs, membership size of below 500 received 92 responses (49.5 percent), followed by membership size of 500-

999 (23.6 percent with 64 responses). Similarly, the largest portion of the membership size for semi-private golf courses was below 500 (81.7 percent), followed by membership size of 1,000-1,499 (6.5 percent). Public golf courses with a membership size of below 500 and 500 to 999 were also well represented (69.2 percent and 15.4 percent respectively).

Table 17

*Membership Size for Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Facilities*

Membership Size	Private	Semi-Private	Public	Total
Below 500	92 (52.0 %) (49.5%)	76 (42.9%) (81.7%)	9 (5.1%) (69.2%)	177 (100%) (60.6%)
500-999	64 (92.8%) (34.4%)	3 (4.3%) (3.2%)	2 (2.9%) (15.4%)	69 (100%) (23.6%)
1,000-1,499	11 (61.1%) (5.9%)	6 (33.3%) (6.5%)	1 (5.6%) (7.7%)	18 (100%) (6.2%)
1,500-1,999	11 (73.3%) (5.9%)	4 (26.7%) (4.3%)	0 (0%) (0%)	15 (100%) (5.1%)
2,000-2,499	2 (100%) (1.1%)	0 (0%) (0%)	0 (0%) (0%)	2 (100%) (.7%)
2,500-2,999	3 (100%) (1.6%)	0 (0%) (0%)	0 (0%) (0%)	3 (100%) (1.0%)
3,000-3,499	1 (100%) (0.5%)	0 (0%) (0%)	0 (0%) (0%)	1 (100%) (0.3%)

Table 17 (continued)

*Membership Size for Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Facilities*

Membership Size	Private	Semi-Private	Public	Total
3,500-3,999	1 (100%) (0.5%)	0 (0%) (0%)	0 (0%) (0%)	1 (100%) (0.3%)
4,000 & above	1 (16.7%) (0.5%)	4 (66.7%) (4.3%)	1 (16.7%) (7.7%)	6 (100%) (2.1%)
Total	186 (63.7%) (100%)	93 (31.8%) (100%)	13 (4.5%) (100%)	292 (100%) (100%)

Note: missing data = 99

\* % at first row: within each membership size \* % at second row: within facility types

*Findings*

This study sought to: (1) identify differences in response toward the importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States; (2) identify differences in the perceived importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in the United States; (3) determine if there is consistency among PGA golf professionals as to preferred competencies for golf course directors; and (4) discover the importance of needed competency components identified in the PGA professionals' analysis for golf course directors in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in the United States.

To answer the above statements, the present study used an instrument named the Competency of Golf Course Directors (CGCD). The result of Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliability of the CGCD instrument was found to be high for the sample ( $\alpha=.974$ ). The results of the statistical analyses are reported in the following sections: (a) assessment of golf management competencies, (b) evaluation of golf management competencies among PGA professionals, and (c) exploration of dimensions of management competency for golf course directors.

#### *Assessment of Golf Management Competencies*

Two separate multivariate analyses of variances (MANOVAs), univariate analyses, and Scheffe's post hoc tests were conducted to test whether there were differences between the means of identified groups (golf professionals in different regions and different types of golf courses) on a combination of management competency items (10 categories). With regard to testing the redundancy of the variables and the need to remove variables from the analyses, correlations between the 91 competency statements were examined by computing the squared multiple correlation of a variable. Correlations between variables were found to be less than .70. Therefore, the threat of multicollinearity in the dataset was not considered to be a problem.

MANOVAs were chosen to measure the importance of 91 competency items in 10 categories because the tests has a better chance of discovering which factor is truly important than using multiple tests of analysis of variance (Everitt & Dunn, 1991). Wilks' lambda statistics were reported because those state a direct measure of the

proportion of variance in the combination of dependent variables that is unaccounted for by the independent variable (Everitt & Dunn).

*The Importance of Management Competencies in Diverse Regions*

Are there significant differences in the perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States?

H<sub>0</sub>: There are no significant differences in the perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States.

The perceived importance of preferred management competencies were compared with regard to mean scores of competency items from different regions using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The importance of 91 preferred competencies in 10 categories rated from PGA golf professionals in District 2, 11, 12, and 13 were tested. Those 10 categories of management competencies included (1) business procedures, (2) communications/public relations, (3) computer skills, (4) facilities/equipment management, (5) governance, (6) legality/risk management, (7) management techniques, (8) research/evaluation, (9) philosophy/sport science, and (10) programming technique/event management. The possible scores (the four point Likert scale) of perceived importance of management competencies ranged from somewhat important to very important. The MANOVA results indicated that there were significant differences between Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13 on the perceived importance of golf management

competencies [ $\lambda=.856$ ,  $F(30, 1110)$ ,  $p=.001$ ]. Table 18 includes the results of the multivariate test.

Table 18

*The Results of Multivariate Test of Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13 to Management*

*Competencies of PGA Golf Professionals*

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	p	$\eta^2$
Districts	.856	2.02	30	1110	.001	.051

\*  $p<.05$

Univariate ANOVAs were used as follow up tests to determine the differences between the Districts in the perceived importance of preferred management competencies. The univariate analyses (see Table 19) show that management competencies between Districts differed rating computer skills [ $F(3, 33)=2.94$ ,  $p=.033$ ], facilities/equipment management [ $F(3, 70)=4.67$ ,  $p=.003$ ], legality/risk management [ $F(3, 75)=6.30$ ,  $p=.000$ ], and research/evaluation [ $F(3, 75)=3.35$ ,  $p=.019$ ].

Table 19

*The Results of Analysis of Variance Test of Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13 to Management*

*Competencies of PGA Golf Professionals*

Effects	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Computer Skills	98.13	3	32.71	2.94	.033
Facilities/Equipment Management	208.98	3	69.66	4.67	.003
Legality/Risk Management	223.74	3	74.58	6.30	.001
Research/Evaluation	224.24	3	74.75	3.35	.019

\*  $p<.05$

After finding significant differences of the importance of management competencies in Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13, mean comparisons were performed using Scheffe's post hoc tests. Results of post hoc tests indicated that significant mean differences were found in three areas of management competencies. Table 20 includes the mean differences of Districts on legality/risk management, facilities/equipment management, and research/evaluation.

Table 20

*The Results of Mean Comparison for Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13*

Competencies	Districts	N	Mean	Std. Error	p
Facilities/Equipment Management	District 13	158	21.30	.307	.004
	District 2	73	19.30	.452	
Legality/Risk Management	District 13	158	18.56	.274	.002
	District 2	77	16.63	.403	
	District 11	83	18.23	.378	
	District 2	77	16.63	.403	
Research/Evaluation	District 13	158	23.12	.376	.025
	District 2	73	21.07	.553	

\* p<.05

When comparing Districts on legality and risk management, significant differences were found among Districts 2, 11, and 13. Mean scores of District 13 ( $M=18.56$ ) followed by District 11 ( $M=18.23$ ) were higher than District 2 ( $M=16.63$ ). It was determined that directors in Districts 11 and 13 rated the importance of legality and risk management similarly, while directors in District 2 regarded it as less important. Since legislation of each state differs, importance of legality and risk management may vary depending on each District.

In terms of the importance of facility and equipment management, directors in District 13 ( $M=21.30$ ) regarded facilities and equipment management as more important than did directors in District 2 ( $M=19.30$ ). Regarding research and evaluation, directors in District 13 ( $M=23.12$ ) rated this competency higher than those District 2 ( $M=21.07$ ). Directors in District 13 considered research and evaluation as more important dimensions for management competencies than did Directors in District 2. Lastly, in comparison of possessing computer skills as important for management competencies between Districts, post hoc tests indicated that no significant differences were found in mean scores between Districts.

#### *The Importance of Management Competencies at Different Golf Facilities*

Are there significant differences in the perceived importance of each competency among PGA golf professionals at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public)?

H<sub>0</sub>: There are no significant differences in the perceived importance of each competency among PGA golf professionals at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public).

The management competencies among golf course directors at PGA-recognized private, semi-private, and public golf courses were compared to the perceived importance of competency items stated in the CGCD instrument using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The MANOVA results indicated that there were significant differences between private, semi-private, and public golf courses on the perceived importance of the



golf management competencies [ $\lambda=.900, F(20, 756), p=.005$ ]. Table 21 includes the results of the multivariate test.

Table 21

*The Results of Multivariate Test of Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Courses to Management Competencies of PGA Golf Professionals*

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	p	$\eta^2$
Golf Facility Types	.90	2.04	20	756	.005	.051

\*  $p<.05$

As follow up tests, univariate ANOVAs were used to identify significant differences in responses toward the importance of each category of management competency among golf course directors at private, semi-private and public golf facilities. The univariate analyses (see Table 22) showed that management competencies between golf facility types differed only in management techniques [ $F(2, 192)=4.23, p=.015$ ]. There were no significant differences on other categories of management competencies.

Table 22

*The Results of Analysis of Variance Test of Private, Semi-private, and Public Golf Courses to Management Competencies of PGA Golf Professionals*

Effects	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Management Techniques	383.62	2	191.81	4.23	.015

\*  $p<.05$

After finding significant differences in the rating of importance of management techniques at PGA recognized private, semi-private, and public golf courses, mean

comparisons were performed using Scheffe's post hoc tests. The highest mean scores were private golf courses ( $M=41.71$ ) followed by public golf courses ( $M=41.72$ ). The lowest mean score was found at semi-private golf courses ( $M=39.60$ ).

Results of post hoc tests indicated that significant mean differences were found between private ( $M=41.71$ ) and semi-private ( $M=39.60$ ) golf courses (see Table 23). There were no significant differences found in relation to public golf courses. It was determined that directors at private golf courses considered management techniques as more important as a competency than did directors at semi-private golf courses. Directors at private and public golf courses were similar in views of management techniques as important for management competencies. Based on the findings of the importance of management competencies among golf course directors at private, semi-private, and public golf courses, there was little significant difference in managing different types of golf courses.

Table 23

*The Results of Mean Comparison for Private and Semi-private Golf Courses*

Competencies	Types of G. C.	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	Std. Error	<i>p</i>
Management Techniques	Private	187	41.71	.493	.015
	Semi-private/ Daily fee	127	39.60	.598	

\*  $p < .05$

*Evaluation of Golf Management Competencies among PGA Professionals*

Was there consistency in the perceived importance of each competency among members of the PGA?

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no consistency in the perceived importance of each competency among members of the PGA.

The results in the assessment of golf management competencies at disparate golf courses in different regions aided in answering whether there was consistency in the perceived importance of management competencies among golf course directors or not. Based on the statistical analyses using MANOVAs, ANOVAs, and Scheffe's post hoc tests, perceived importance of managerial competencies among golf course directors differed between private, semi-private, and public golf courses in Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13.

Regarding the differences in perceived importance of management competencies between golf course directors in Districts 2, 11, 12, and 13, four components of management competencies were found to be significantly different. Those four components of managerial competencies included computer skills, facilities/equipment management, legality/risk management, and research/evaluation. Within the three management competencies of facilities/equipment management, legality/risk management, and research/evaluation, directors in District 13 considered certain management competencies to be more important than did directors in District 2. Further, directors in District 11 considered computer skills to be more important managerial competencies than directors in District 12.

With regard to the comparison of perceived importance of 10 managerial competencies between different types of golf courses, directors at private golf courses considered management techniques as more important than directors at semi-private golf courses. There were no additional significant results of perceived managerial competencies found between other types of golf courses.

Statistical analyses revealed significant differences in responses toward the importance of management competencies among golf course directors at different types of golf courses in diverse regions. However, no significant differences were found in six categories of management competencies in various Districts and nine categories of competencies in different types of golf courses. There was some inconsistency in the perceived importance of each competency among members of the PGA. Therefore, it is necessary to further investigate the perceived management competencies identified by golf course directors.

#### *Exploration of Dimensions of Management Competencies for Golf Course Directors*

What competencies are considered by PGA golf professionals (director of golf operation, head professional, and manager) to be important at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities in the United States?

H<sub>0</sub>: Competency factors identified in the golf course directors' analysis are not considered by PGA golf professionals (director of golf operation, head professional, and manager) to be important at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities in the United States.

To determine the management competencies expected of golf course directors/head professionals, factor analytic procedures were conducted on competencies regarded as important for golf course directors. Previously, Toh (1997) used exploratory factor analysis and found that sport managers' competencies consisted of a six factor model with 31 competency items. He confirmed the six factor model using confirmatory factor analysis. For the present study, a principal component analysis with a direct Oblimin rotation scheme was performed to discover the pattern of the factor structure in the relationships among competency variables measured by the CGCD in an effort to understand the underlying dimensions of management competencies of PGA golf professionals. An oblique rotation was considered the most appropriate method due to correlation between the factors ( $r = -.488$ ). According to Gorsuch (1983), oblique rotation is appropriate when factors are correlated above .20, while orthogonal rotation (e.g., varimax) is used when correlations between factors are below .20.

Available data for the analysis were drawn from 391 respondents in the population. The 91 statements in CGCD instrument were examined for normality by checking values for skewness and kurtosis. Most of the golf management competency items were negatively skewed. With regard to a test of the factorability of the variables, correlations between the 91 competency statements were examined. All correlations between variables were found in the range of .30 to .70, an indication that a dataset would yield a factorable solution.

To determine whether factor analysis was an appropriate measure and to estimate the number of factors for the data, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling and Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined using SPSS FACTOR. The resulting values of

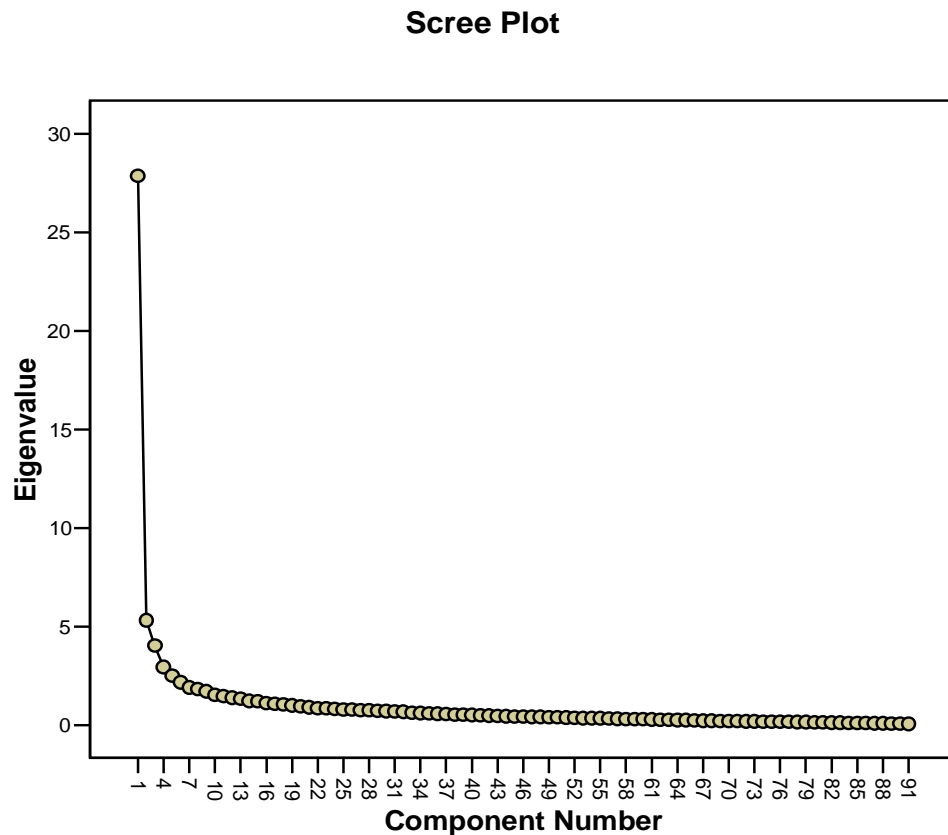
both tests indicated that factor analysis was an appropriate measurement [Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, .924 and Bartlett's test of sphericity,  $\chi^2=18574.679$ ,  $p<.001$ ]. Based on these observations, it was expected that the factorability of the correlation matrices produced by each dataset would be adequate.

To determine the number of factors to be retained and to help ensure a reliable factor structure, certain standards were established *a priori* to provide an objective means for determining the adequacy of extraction and rotation as well as to assist in the final interpretation of the factor structure. For instance, factors would have a minimum of three variables with loadings greater than or equal to .40. In addition, there must have been some interpretable underlying dimension explaining the pattern of relationships among variables.

In an initial run of principal component factors extraction with a direct Oblimin rotation scheme, the Kaiser Rule specified that all factors greater than 1.0 be retained (eigenvalues  $\geq 1.0$ ) was used. Since the Kaiser Rule has been criticized for retaining too many factors (Principal components and factor analysis, 2005), Cattell's Scree Plot was also used to retain factors. Analysis of the scree plot indicated that the number of factors was between two and three (see Figure 1).

A number of subsequent runs specified that extraction of between two and three factors were performed to discover the factor structure. Suppressed absolute values were set at .40. When three factors were extracted, the third factor had five items with cross loadings. Internal consistency reliability analysis of the third factor indicated low internal consistency ( $\alpha=.608$ ). However, the solution with two factors met the goals of interpretability. Examination of the residual correlation matrix revealed that 41 percent of

residual correlations were greater than .05. While this can be an indication of the presence of an additional factor (or factors), none of the runs produced more than two factors meeting the goals of interpretability.



*Figure 1.*

Scree Plot of Eigenvalues

The two factors extracted explained 36.5 percent of the overall variance in the solution. Since factors were correlated, variance between factors is cross loaded—it is difficult to specify variance explained by individual factors (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). Whereas it is not possible to verify the exact proportion of variance explained by factors

after oblique rotation, an estimate as to the factor's importance after rotation can be determined by noting the percent of variance explained before rotation. Of 91 items, factor one included 56 items and factor two contained 20 items. Table 24 shows the factors and their contributions to explaining variance. Reliability analysis was conducted for each of the two factors. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were .97 and .89, an indication that the reliability of measurement for each of the two factors was high.

Table 24

*Factor Analysis of Golf Management Competencies*

Factor	Number of Variables	Eigenvalues	% of Variance	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Golf Operation	56	27.85	30.61	.97
2. Client Care Development	20	5.32	5.84	.89

Note. Percent of variance is noted before oblique rotation.

Estimated percent of variance explained by the factor structure: 36.5 percent.

In the first factor, 56 items had loadings of greater than .40. The item with the largest loading at .69 was "Monitor the budget." The lowest loading at .43 was "Utilize computer technologies as electronic mail, Internet, etc." All items loading on this factor were concerned with golf operation tasks such as handling a budget, risk management, decision-making, communication, personnel management, facilities/equipment management, and computer skills. Table 25 indicates the items and their loadings in the Golf Operations Factor.



Table 25

*Golf Management Competencies Factor 1: Golf Operations*

Variable Label	Factor Loading
Monitor the budget	.692
Prepare financial reports	.675
Prepare and defend a budget proposal	.675
Provide input into strategic planning for facility development	.663
Develop a sound program evaluation plan	.657
Apply established purchasing policies and procedures	.657
Evaluate the overall performance of club/golf course	.656
Identify sources of revenue and expenditure for the budget	.645
Maintain records of operational costs	.643
Design strategies/policies to prevent misuse of facilities and equipment	.636
Establish a safety program to prevent injuries and accidents	.635
Evaluate customers', members', and/or golfers' level of satisfaction	.632
Apply basic accounting principles	.628
Establish procedures reflecting fair treatment of both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers	.627
Implement marketing techniques	.613
Exercise effective decision making in dealing with accidents	.589
Coordinate training for staff on legal and safety issues (e.g., first aid training, CPR training, ADA, OSHA, etc)	.586

Table 25 (continued) *Golf Management Competencies Factor 1: Golf Operations*

Variable Label	Factor Loading
Perform SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analyses for the club/golf course	.582
Communicate performance expectations with staff in a written job description	.580
Prepare organizational guidelines for staffing and programming	.580
Develop planning schedules for facility maintenance	.571
Conduct meetings with professional staff	.568
Prepare and review informational reports	.567
Utilize basic bookkeeping procedures	.565
Analyze and evaluate various golf programs using appropriate statistics	.560
Develop policy	.559
Conduct routine inspections of facilities and equipment	.557
Utilize effective problem-solving skills	.552
Implement system for inventory of equipment and supplies	.551
Establish standard of performance for program operation	.538
Prepare written documentation of protests	.532
Demonstrate an understanding of specific inherent risks of golf	.527
Administer a facility reservation system and an equipment lease and purchase system	.518
Motivate staff	.518
Develop appropriate means of storing equipment and supplies	.515
Utilize data bases as an information tool to assist in decision making	.514
Evaluate staff for career development	.506

Table 25 (continued) *Golf Management Competencies Factor 1: Golf Operations*

Variable Label	Factor Loading
Utilize procedures to regulate the conduct of customers, members, and/or golfers	.506
Utilize effective time management techniques	.488
Use sound procedures for settling protests	.481
Utilize customized computer software programs for such purposes as scheduling, reservations, registration, etc.	.480
Conduct research for the purpose of club/golf course improvements and development	.468
Implement legal framework for fiscal management	.466
Implement planning strategies for programs (e.g., tournaments, special events, group lessons, etc.)	.466
Develop a sound public relations plan	.460
Apply sport economics principles	.458
Utilize computer operating system (e.g., Windows, Mac OS, etc.)	.457
Utilize effective office procedures to handle registrations, reports, notices, etc.	.457
Maintain effective communications with staff	.457
Handle disciplinary action, accidents, game protests, and eligibility status reports	.451
Apply updated knowledge in golf research to practice	.451
Utilize computer software for word processing, spreadsheet, presentation, etc.	.444
Promote harmony among personnel	.440
Demonstrate an understanding of both basic business and sport laws and other important legal matters	.437
Consult club/golf course staff and members/customers	.418
Utilize computer technologies as electronic mail, Internet, etc.	.400

For the second factor, 20 variables had loadings ranging from -.816 to -.404. The largest factor loading was “Demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between health and golf” and the lowest factor loading was “Apply leadership theories applicable to the game of golf and/or the organization.” Most items loading on this factor were concerned with those tasks related to external sources of golf operations such as encourage customers, members, and/or golfers to assume leadership roles; playing abilities; demonstration of sociological and psychological aspects of golf; health and golf; and human limitation of golf. This factor explained approximately 5.8 percent of the variance in the original variables. Table 26 depicts the items and their loadings on the Client Care Development Factor.

Table 26

*Golf Management Competencies Factor 2: Client Care Development*

Variable Label	Factor Loading
Demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between health and golf	-.816
Comprehend the effect golf has on increasing/reducing stress	-.803
Demonstrate an understanding of the sociological and psychological aspects of sport	-.799
Demonstrate an understanding of exercise physiology and anatomy	-.764
Identify aggression patterns of participants	-.739
Demonstrate an understanding of human limitations in golf	-.738
Demonstrate good personal fitness	-.713
Apply theories of cooperative and competitive play	-.687
Develop physical fitness programs	-.681

Table 26 (continued) *Golf Management Competencies Factor 2: Client Care*

*Development*

Variable Label	Factor Loading
Demonstrate adequate golf skills	-.639
Use basic recreational golf terminology	-.628
Demonstrate an understanding of the broad spectrum of recreational sport opportunities	-.602
Organize clinics for tournament officials and/or marshals	-.576
Organize golf clinics	-.564
Encourage customers, members, and/or golfers to assume leadership roles	-.549
Articulate the benefits and values of golf to individuals	-.539
Adapt programs to the special needs of persons with disabilities	-.527
Implement appropriate system of procurement and evaluation of officials and/or marshals	-.457
Prepare publications (e.g.: club news, major journal reports)	-.410
<u>Apply leadership theories applicable to the game of golf and/or the organization</u>	-.404

Overall, 76 of 91 items on the CGCD loaded on two factors at a factor loading of .40 or higher. Fifteen items were not interpreted because of the weak relationship between items and factors (e.g., factor loadings lower than .40). Even though these items were not included in classifying factors in the present study, these items may hold importance of golf operations for different Districts. Table 27 indicates variables not interpreted in the final two factor golf management competency model.

Table 27

*Golf Management Competency Items with Factor Loading <.40*

---

Variable Label

---

Maintain payroll information for personnel

Demonstrate an understanding of the organizational and operational aspects of different types of golf programming (e.g. special events, tournaments, group lessons, etc.)

Recruit, interview, hire and train full-time/part-time staff

Write and process contractual agreements for both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers

Supervise governing or appeal board

Implement sound procedures for scheduling, postponements, rescheduling, and forfeiture of golf games, special events, and tournaments

Maintain good public relations with constituents

Use good written and verbal communication skills

Implement appropriate golf rules and regulations

Establish eligibility guidelines for customers, members, and/or golfers

Oversee recruitment of customers, members, and/or golfers

Utilize presentation aids

Initiate interaction with other agencies, clubs, and golf courses

Understand and implement appropriate legislation that applies to golf

Schedule staff for work

---

## *Summary*

This chapter outlined the results of the present study by addressing the following: (a) an analysis of the population frame and response rate for the study; (b) a description of the characteristics of golf course directors; (c) two multivariate analysis of variance procedures to assess golf management competencies at different types of golf courses in various regions; (d) an evaluation of golf management competencies among PGA professionals; and (e) factor analysis solutions to explore dimensions of management competency for golf course directors. With regard to the hypotheses, the following conclusions were obtained:

1. Hypothesis 1, stating that “there are no significant differences in the perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf professionals in diverse regions (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) of the United States” was rejected. The perceived importance of preferred management competencies between Districts differed in rating computer skills, facilities/equipment management, legality/risk management, and research/evaluation. Golf directors in District 13 considered management competency items on facilities/equipment management, legality/risk management, and research/evaluation as more important than did directors in District 2. Since legislation in each state differs, the importance of legality and risk management may vary depending on each District. With regard to comparison between Districts on possessing computer skills, directors in District 11 regarded computer skills to be more important managerial competencies than did directors in District 12. However, there were no significant differences found between Districts on six management competency categories including

(1) business procedures, (2) communications/public relations, (3) governance, (4) management techniques, (5) philosophy/sport science, and (6) programming technique/event management.

2. Hypothesis 2, stating that “there are no significant differences in the perceived importance of each competency among PGA golf professionals at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public)” was rejected. The importance of each category of management competency among golf course directors at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities differed in rating management techniques. Directors at private golf courses considered management techniques as more important for management competencies than did directors at semi-private golf courses. However, directors at private and public golf courses deemed similar management techniques to be important for management competencies. There were no other significant differences found between disparate types of golf courses in nine management competency categories including (1) business procedures, (2) communications/public relations, (3) computer skills, (4) facilities/equipment management, (5) governance, (6) legality/risk management, (7) research/evaluation, (8) philosophy/sport science, and (9) programming technique/event management.

3. Hypothesis 3, stating that “there was no consistency in the perceived importance of each management competency among members of the PGA” was rejected. Based on the findings from question one and two, statistical analyses indicated that perceived management competencies differed among golf course directors at different types of golf courses in diverse regions. However, six categories of management competencies in various Districts and nine categories of competencies at different types



of golf courses showed no differences among golf course directors. Therefore, there was little consistency in the perceived importance of each competency among golf course directors.

4. Hypothesis 4, stating that “competency factors identified in the golf course directors’ analysis are not considered by PGA golf professionals (director of golf operation, head professional, and manager) to be important at private, semi-private, and public golf facilities in the United States” was rejected. The factor analysis of management competencies of golf course directors revealed a 2-factor competency model (76 observed competency statements) including (1) Golf Operations and (2) Client Care Development. Factor One contained 56 competency items related with golf operation tasks including handling a budget, risk management, decision-making, communication, personnel management, facilities/equipment management, and computer skills. Factor Two included 20 items concerned with external elements of golf management including encourage customers, members, and/or golfers to assume leadership roles, playing abilities, demonstration of sociological and psychological aspects of golf, health and golf, and human limitations of golf.

## CHAPTER V

### Summary, Discussion of Findings, Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

This chapter is divided into the following sections: summary, discussion of findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations. The first section, summary, discusses the purpose of the study along with the findings. The second section, conclusions, describes the implications of the findings; finally, the recommendations contain suggestions for further research.

#### *Summary*

The purpose of the study was to explore the perceived importance of management competencies among golf course directors at PGA recognized golf facilities in the United States. The entire research process investigated the underlying dimensions of the management competencies and constructed a two-factor competency model for PGA golf professionals using the Competencies of Golf Course Directors (CGCD) instrument.

Methods for the present study consisted of the administration of the CGCD instrument to directors/head golf professionals at private, semi-private, and public golf courses in different regions to evaluate the perceived importance of 91 competency statements. To determine the importance of management competencies for golf

professionals in different golf environments, judgment sampling was chosen. The different golf environments included year-round and seasonal golf facilities, serving different populations of golfers in different regions of the United States, familiarity, and/or willingness to provide sample Districts. There appears to be no reason to believe that the chosen sample was not truly representative of the entire population.

For data collection, the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978) for surveys was followed using electronic mail that included the Website link. A total of 391 usable responses were obtained. Subjects completed and submitted a survey instrument containing questions designed to determine demographic information and statements designed to determine the golf management competencies. Data for the present study were collected during the months of August through October, 2005.

Data were analyzed using three statistical techniques. First, descriptive statistics were used to obtain an understanding of the nature of the sample. Second, multivariate analyses of variances (MANOVAs), univariate analyses of variances (ANOVAs), and Scheffe's post hoc tests were conducted for the data assessing the importance of management competencies among golf course directors at private, semi-private, and public golf courses in diverse regions. Lastly, factor analysis procedures were used to determine competency factors, using principal component factors extraction with a direct Oblimin rotation scheme.

## *Discussion of Findings*

Demographic information revealed similarities and differences between directors/head professionals at disparate types of golf courses in different regions. In terms of yearly rounds of golf within Districts, there were few differences reported. Thus, all-year round golf courses and seasonal golf courses seem to share more similarities than differences. It was assumed that all-year round golf has much competition depending on its locations and population, while seasonal golf remains consistent with rounds of golf per year.

The results of the MANOVAs, ANOVAs, and Scheffe's post hoc tests indicated that the importance of perceived management competencies differed among golf course directors at disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in diverse golf environments. The perceived importance of preferred management competencies between Districts differed. Golf course directors in District 13 (Florida and Georgia) regarded some management competency items (facilities/equipment management, legality/risk management, and research/evaluation) as more important than did directors in District 2 (Metropolitan, Philadelphia, and New Jersey).

Since legislation within each state differs, the importance of legality and risk management may vary depending upon each District. In terms of facilities/equipment management, differences between Districts 2 (Metropolitan, Philadelphia, and New Jersey) and 13 (Florida and Georgia) occurred. This difference could be due to the presence of many resorts in Florida. In the responses by disparate types of golf facilities, 26 directors in Florida reported that they were employed at resorts. It is believed that

directors in resorts may have regarded facilities and equipment management to be more important managerial competencies than did directors working at stand-alone golf course. Additionally, issues of hospitality might have influenced directors' opinions on the managerial competencies of facilities/equipment management in resorts. Directors in resorts appear to have different job duties, directors in District 13 considered research/evaluation as more important managerial competencies than did directors in District 2. This may be explained as the need to evaluate short-term guests for repeat visitation in resort settings.

In comparisons between Districts on the competency of possessing computer skills, directors in District 11 (California and Hawaii) considered computer skills to be more important managerial competencies than did directors in District 12 (Texas and New Mexico). As shown in yearly rounds of golf between Districts, California and Hawaii have higher volumes of yearly rounds of golf than Texas and New Mexico. Possessing computer skills for golf course directors in District 11 may be important for managerial efficiency in making tee times, merchandising, sponsorship, scheduling, and reservations.

Other than the aforementioned significant differences regarding management competencies between Districts, there were no other significant differences found. For instance, there were no significant differences found in 10 managerial competencies between District 2 and District 11; District 2 and District 12; District 11 and 13; and District 12 and 13. Therefore, there was little inconsistency in the perceived importance of each competency among golf course directors. It appears that directors who are

employed anywhere in the United States shared perceptions of important management competencies for golf course directors.

A major part of this study was the assessment of the importance of management competencies as rated by PGA golf professionals at private, semi-private, and public golf courses. Directors at private golf courses considered management techniques to be more important management competencies than did directors at semi-private golf courses. Interestingly, according to the results of mean scores on management techniques between different types of golf courses, both directors at private and public facilities rated these items higher than did directors at semi-private golf courses. Both private and public golf courses are maintained by membership fees, municipalities, or recreation districts while semi-private golf courses depended on daily fees, golf-shop sales, restaurant and bar trade, and golf cart rentals. In terms of sources of revenue, directors in semi-private golf courses might consider management techniques differently than do directors in private and public golf courses. Directors at private and public golf courses shared opinions management techniques to be important management competencies.

Statistical analyses indicated that some perceived management competencies differed among golf course directors in diverse golf environments. However, six categories of management competencies in diverse golf environments (District 2, 11, 12, and 13) and nine categories of competencies at different types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) showed no differences among golf course directors. As a result, there was some consistency in the perceived importance of each competency among golf course directors. Directors in different golf environments seem to share more similarities than differences on management competencies.

To explore competency factors identified by golf course directors in diverse golf environments, factor analytic procedures were conducted. The result of factor analysis on management competencies of golf course directors indicated the presence of a 2-factor model, which consisted of 76 observed competencies. The two factors were labeled: Golf Operation and Client Care Development. Factor One contained 56 competency items related to golf operation tasks and Factor Two included 20 items related to external elements of golf management. The two factors explained 36.5 percent of the overall variance in the solution.

When comparing the factor structures with Toh's (1997) sport management competency model, the percentage of variance explained by six factor structures of the 31 items ranged from 24.6 to 3.8 percent: governance (24.6%); sport foundations (8.8%); budgeting (5.2%); risk management (4.7%); computer skills (4.3%); and communication (3.8%). Since Toh originally developed 10 categories of competency items, he may have overestimated the number of factors.

Even though only two factors for golf management competencies were supported by a large number of items in the present study, there was a relationship with 10 categories of the CGCD instrument. For instance, management competency contexts (budgeting, risk management, communication, governance, and computer skills) were combined in one large factor (Golf Operation). Similarly, sport foundations, programming techniques, and external aspects of golf operation were grouped together in the other factor (Client Care Development). Golf course directors appear to regard each separated management competency category as the whole golf operation.

When comparing the present study with management competencies investigated by management theorists as well as sport management scholars, similar findings were discovered. Both golf operation and client care development factors included the six most cited management competencies: technical skills (e.g., handling a budget, risk management, facilities/equipment management, computer skills, golf/sport foundations, and programming techniques/event management); human skills (e.g., communication and leadership); conceptual skills (e.g., decision-making and problem solving); negotiation skills (e.g., public relations, leadership, and decision-making); political skills (legal issues and leadership); and intuitive skills (governance, decision-making, and leadership).

In business procedures, directors and head golf professionals regarded financial management such as handling a budget as the most important management competencies. Financial management was found to be an important management competency in a number of other studies. According to Quain and Parks (1986), budgeting was one of the most frequent choices among 368 active sport management practitioners. Findings from Quain and Parks revealed that the most important business skills for managers were financial management skills such as budgeting. In addition, according to Cash (1983), finance was shown to be important for 243 NCAA Division I and II directors of athletics. For effectiveness and efficiency of job-related performance, it is believed that directors and managers consider financial management as an important competency to generate profits for their organization.

The importance of risk management and legal issues in this study were parallel to the findings of Jamieson (1980). Recreational sport administrators in municipal, military, and institutional setting regarded legality and accident prevention as important



management competencies. In Jennings's (1984) findings, recreational sport practitioners identified safety and accident prevention as important management competencies.

Recreational sport managers and golf course directors need a fundamental understanding of legal concepts related to the individual manager's segment of the golf, recreation, or leisure industry. As professionals, they should learn types of risk and risk prevention as much as possible and constantly care for the safety of those in and around their facilities/golf courses.

Decision-making was deemed important by such researchers as Cameron and Tschirhart (1988). Over 500 mid-level and upper middle-level managers indicated decision making to be an important management competency. Interestingly, effective managers demonstrated paradoxical skills such as being both participative and hard-driving and both nurturing and competitive. According to Bazerman and Lewicki (1985), decision making was an important competency for negotiation skills. Negotiation skills are important vehicle to resolve conflicts and make decisions in organization. According to Katz (1974), decision making becomes important when moving toward higher levels of management. Establishing competencies in both the technical and human factors is crucial for logical decision making and broad-scale action.

Communication skills were identified in the findings of Peng (2000). Peng's findings indicated that communication skills were one of the favored competencies among academicians and practitioners. Graham (1998) also revealed the importance of communication skills among sport managers in amateur sport organizations. Findings indicated that sport managers were discovered to not be as effective in communicating as

they believe. Therefore, good communication skills are required to perform tasks in sport management as well as golf management.

The public relations role was considered to be an important management competency identified in the findings of Irwin et al. (1994-1995). Professional sport managers acknowledged the importance of administrative skills as public relations. Stoldt (1998) also found the importance of public relation skills among NCAA I-A members of the College Sports Information Directors of America. Directors desired to participate in managerial activities more frequently. For golf course directors, the public relations role could include initiating interaction with other agencies, clubs, and golf courses.

Leadership skills were identified in the findings of Quarterman (1998). Quarterman showed that athletic administrators used leadership and management skills interchangeable and used moderate to substantial time and effort on both leadership and management skills. To be a positive visionary leader as a leisure service professional, Ibrahim and Cordes (1996) suggested creating vision and relating the vision to the mission and goals. As Bennis (1989) indicated, although leadership and management are outlined differently, the two sides complement each other and occupy equally necessary positions. In the present study, directors also regarded leadership skills as an important golf management competency to operation golf course effectively.

Facilities/equipment management competencies have been emphasized by Jennings (1984) and Toh (1997). Findings indicated that recreational sport managers regarded facilities and equipment management as important management competencies. Consistent with their findings, golf course directors considered managing facilities and equipment as an important competency in the present study.

Computer skills were identified as important management competencies by Pedigo (1986). Pedigo found that the heaviest computer users were first-level managers and the usage of the computer would increase at higher-levels when entry-level managers were promoted. Toh (1997) found computer skills to be an important sport management competency for recreational sport managers. As indicated in the present study, golf directors used their computers for a variety of job tasks, and computer skills were regarded as important management competency.

According to Bass (1990), management competencies help directors and/or managers to meet organizational goals and changes, as well as to improve organizational effectiveness. A development of management skills helps to improve a golf course director's management competencies. In order to achieve organizational synergy and success, these management competencies are necessary.

This study has shown that the CGCD is an internally consistent, reliable, and valid measure of major areas of golf management competencies. Further, all items in CGCD instrument were content validated and considered to be necessary and important by expert jury. Therefore, the CGCD seems appropriate for the verification the golf management competencies.

Even though statistical results indicated that the perceived importance of golf management competencies is a two-factor model, it does not mean that it is the only model. When developing the model, two issues are raised whether the model is consistent with the data or the model is consistent with the real world (Toh, 1997). It is unknown whether the two-factor model is replicable in time or with directors in different Districts.

Hence, it is necessary to test the model again using different samples to further examine whether it has a reasonable correspondence to reality.

### *Conclusions*

The findings of this study revealed the existing golf management competencies among golf course directors and head golf professionals. These findings underline an understanding of the theoretical and foundational areas important to the golf management field, including golf operation (business procedures, communications/public relations, computer skills, facilities/equipment management, governance, legality/risk management, management techniques, and research/evaluation) and client care development (philosophy/sport science and programming technique/event management).

These findings provide golf course directors/head professionals with important information regarding adequate preparation in golf management. Golf course directors in different environments of the United States utilized many of the same management competencies to manage their golf courses. Thus, one can infer that golf directors trained and educated in one region of the United States could effectively manage a golf course in a different region because the management competencies needed by golf professionals are similar regardless of golf environment.

Further, the 2-factor golf management competency model can be used as a guideline when a director/head professional operates a golf course. The current directors, head professionals, and managers can implement the model to discover the potential areas in which they need to improve and/or manage their golf course effectively. The

model can also be used as a guideline to directors/head professionals when recruiting junior golf professionals to ensure the assistant golf professional possesses the minimum standards of golf management competencies. Although it is unknown for the purpose of this study how the Professional Golf Management (PGM) program from the PGA is developed, the importance of the theoretical and foundational contexts vital to golf management cannot be undervalued. The 2-factor model assisted in discovering a set body of knowledge in golf management by PGA golf professionals from a variety of job classifications.

The realities of the golf industry indicate that golf professionals should be prepared to enter a wide range of golf management-related careers. However, the PGM program by the PGA does not specifically address the core theoretical content areas necessary for competence in the area of golf management.

This study revealed support for PGM programs in both PGA and higher education departments housed in either Business Administration or Recreation units. Therefore, though the nature of accreditation is beyond the scope of this study, golf management curricula can be developed for PGA golf professionals using these identified competencies and course content areas of this study as a guide. Regardless, consistent standards reflecting the importance of core competency areas related to the golf management field can assist in the improvement of academic preparation in this area. The findings from the present study may contribute to the understanding of the competencies needed for golf course directors and head professionals in the United States.

Overall response rates for this study were low (10.3 percent) compared to other online surveys and Toh's (1997) competency studies. These results were disappointing

because using online surveys reportedly yield a response rate of 30-60 percent (Bambooweb directory, 2005).

Many factors could have affected the response rate. First, technical difficulties delivering electronic mail to subjects were of concern in this study. It was unknown how many subjects were actually contacted due to problems related with current email addresses. For instance, more than 640 emails were immediately returned for reasons such as unknown email addresses, delayed notifications, or delivery errors. Pre-screening of subjects or pre-notification letters to subjects regarding their interest in participating in the study or asking them to review the accuracy of the listed electronic mail addresses for the study were not conducted due to time factors associated with data collection. Inclusion of this step may eliminate potential non-respondents as well as administrative errors (e.g., bad email addresses and system errors) via electronic mailing.

Non-response bias was a concern due to the low response rate in this study. It was questionable that the responses from subjects were truly representative of the population although statistical results indicated no differences among golf professionals. Though the overall response rate was lower than expected, there seems to be no reason to believe that the sample was not representative of the populations.

### *Implications*

Findings indicated the perceived management competencies differed among golf course directors at disparate types of golf courses in diverse regions. At the same time, there was little inconsistency in the perceived importance of each competency among

golf course directors. The perceived importance of preferred management competencies identified by PGA golf professionals revealed a 2-factor competency model including (1) Golf Operations and (2) Client Care Development. The PGA may consider using the perceived competency areas identified in this study as a basis for the implementation or improvement of current PGM program in higher education. Use of the findings of this study as a topic guide for specialty symposia, conference presentation topics, or continuing education programs could help enhance professional development opportunities for golf professionals and ensure that topics related to management competencies are for the field are continually being addressed.

Directors or head professionals were asked to participate in this study. When attempting to gather the PGA section directory from each district, the executive directors from several districts declined to provide the researcher with section directories. These directors cited member confidentiality as the reason they were unable to provide the information needed to complete the study. However, some executives gave the researcher the information needed without hesitation. Even though executive directors are different in each district, the PGA might wish to set guidelines to maintain consistency regarding the confidentiality of membership information throughout every PGA district in the United States.

While several contacts were made via email and telephone to obtain responses from directors in current PGM programs in colleges, none of the directors participated in this study. Two directors replied by declining participation in the study because their knowledge of golf management was considered to be only entry-level. It is hypothesized that the directors were either not interested or not comfortable in participating in this

study. Further, it is assumed that the directors were busy preparing students for the PGM program requirements.

Due to the time commitments of operating golf courses during the busiest season of the year, it is quite possible that many directors did not have the time to complete the survey. The length of the survey (20 minutes to complete) was also of concern in this study.

With regard to a meta-analysis of pre-notification letters to determine increasing response rates, many studies revealed that there was a 7.7 percent increase in response rate when such letters were used (StatPac, 2005). Pre-letters were believed helpful for contributing to a respondent's trust as well as building expectations and reducing the possibility that a potential respondent might disregard the survey when it arrived. In the investigation undertaken in this study, this method was not used. Inclusion of this step in future studies may eliminate potential non-respondents as well as administrative errors (e.g., bad email addresses and system errors) via electronic mailing.

### *Recommendations*

Based on the results of the present study, the following recommendations are presented primarily to golf course directors, the PGA of America, golf management schools, and scholars:

1. Further research is needed to validate the CGCD instrument using other statistics such as confirmatory factor analysis. The 2-factor model should be tested again to determine whether the model fits the data. Further, since there were inconsistencies for



some categories of managerial competencies between different regions, PGA headquarters in District 2 (New York, Philadelphia, and New Jersey) might consider putting effort into educating directors in this district about the minimum standards of management competencies on facilities/equipment management and research/evaluation.

2. The CGCD instrument can be utilized not only by PGA golf professionals in the United States, but also by others in the golf industry. It may be tested for golf professionals in different countries to compare whether the golf management competencies needed in different countries and cultures are similar or not. Throughout the comparisons, each golf course director can apply needed management competencies in his/her facility.

3. This study explored the importance of golf management competencies among golf course directors/head professionals in the United States. An additional model is needed to measure effective performance of golf course directors/head golf professionals. The extension of measurement can verify needed management competencies for effective performance. Additional data collection techniques may be employed to provide an in-depth picture of golf management competencies. Additional data collection may include focus groups, one-on-one interviews, and Delphi techniques.

4. The next step for studies in golf management may be to determine the relationship between golf course director competencies and the ability of apprentices to secure and retain gainful employment within the golf industry.

5. The PGM programs in higher education are growing rapidly. Investigations regarding the graduation rates of PGM students are needed, and their job success rates should be reported. Further, drop-out rates of PGA apprentices must be reported to verify

the effectiveness of the current PGM program. PGM programs in higher education and the PGA can use this study as a guideline to reevaluate current programs and set minimum standards for students and apprentices to be successful golf directors.

6. To increase the response rate for future studies, the use of a pre-screening method would be helpful for contributing to respondents' trust as well as building expectation and reducing the possibility that a potential respondent might disregard the survey when it arrives. Inclusion of this step may eliminate potential non-respondents as well as administrative errors (e.g., bad email addresses, system errors, etc.) via electronic mailing.

7. When collecting data from golf professionals, the researcher suggests conducting a survey during the winter because directors and head professionals are very busy during the summer months. One of the respondents suggested that using incentives through the PGA would increase response rates. Since the PGA requires continuing education, conducting the study with the PGA would benefit directors and head professionals as well as help the researcher by increasing the response rate. Therefore, the overall response rate could have been increased in this study.

## REFERENCES

- Agor, W. H. (1983). Using intuition in public management. *Public Management*, 65, 2-6.
- Agor, W. H. (1983-84). Using intuition in public management. *The Bureaucrat*, 12, 49-52.
- Agor, W. H. (1986). The logic of intuition: how top executives make important decisions. *Organizational Dynamics*, 14, 5-18.
- Allen, P. (1981). Managers at work: a large scale study of the managerial job in New York City government. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24, 613-619.
- American Management Association (2000, March-April). *2000 managerial skills and competence*. Retrieved August 20, 2005, from [http://www.amanet.org/research/archive\\_2001\\_1999.htm#2000](http://www.amanet.org/research/archive_2001_1999.htm#2000)
- Anthony, W. P. (1981). *Management: competencies and incompetencies*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Armstrong J. S. & Overton, T. S. (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14, 396-402.
- Assessment of Non-Response Bias (2005). Retrieved September, 25, 2005 from [http://www.iped.utep.edu/IPED%20Reports/2001\\_02PDF/AppendixB.pdf](http://www.iped.utep.edu/IPED%20Reports/2001_02PDF/AppendixB.pdf)
- Babiak, K. (1995). *Managerial leadership in Canadian NSOS: values and perceptions of senior staff leaders and their staff members*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada.

- BambooWeb Directory (2005). *Survey techniques in marketing*. Retrieved August 25, 2005, from [http://www.bambooweb.com/articles/s/u/Survey\\_techniques\\_in\\_marketing\\_.html](http://www.bambooweb.com/articles/s/u/Survey_techniques_in_marketing_.html)
- Barcelona, R. J. (2001). *An analysis of the perceived competencies of recreational sport managers: toward a competency-based model for academic and professional development*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Indiana.
- Barnard, C. I. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Barry, S. (1994, October 17). Blades and bikes blasting off. *Superbrands*, 126-127.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: theory, research, and managerial applications* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bateman, T. S. & Snell, S. A. (2002). *Management: comparing in the New Era* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). In Gomez-Mejia, L. R. & Balkin, D. B. (2002). *Management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Bazerman, M. H. & Lewicki, R. G. (1985). Contemporary research directions in the study of negotiations in organizations: a selected overview. *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, 6, 1-17.
- Beard, J. G. & Ragheb, M. G. (1980). Measuring leisure satisfaction. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 12, 20-33.
- Beggs, B. A. (2002). *Activity satisfaction in golf and simulated golf*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Indiana.
- Bellman, G. M. (1988). The staff manager as leader. *Training*, 25, 39-42.
- Bennis, W. (1989). Why leaders can't lead. *Training and Development Journal*, 43, 3.

- Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: the strategies for taking charge*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Bernstein, A. (2000, May 1). Washington revolution: AOL honcho wants to fix a 'broken' industry. *Street & Smith's Sports Business Journal*, 3, 46.
- Bertalanffy, L.V. (1952). *Problems of life: an evaluation of modern biological thought*. New York, NY: Watts and Co.
- Blake, R. & Mouton, J. (1978). *The new managerial grid*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Blair, W. S. (1964, February). How subject matter can bias a mail survey. *Media/Scope*, 70-72.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Son, Inc.
- Boucher, R. L. (1998). Toward achieving a focal point for sport management: a binocular perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, 76-85.
- Boulding, K. E. (1956, April). General systems theory: the skeleton of science. *Management Science*, 2, 197-208.
- Boyatzis, R. R., (1982). The competent manager: a model for effective performance. New York, NY: Wiley. In Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: theory, research, and managerial applications* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Branch Jr., D. D. (1985). *Athletic director and selected subordinate perceptions of leadership behavior as predictors of athletic organizational effectiveness*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Ohio University, Ohio.

- Breeze, J. D. (1983, August). Harvest from the Archives: the search for Fayol and Carlioz. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 116-120.
- Bridges, F. J. & Roquemore, L. L. (1993). *Management for athletic/sport administration: theory and practice*. Decatur, GA: ESM Books.
- Brown, M. T. (1999). *An analysis of Internet marketing in the sport industry*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, Colorado.
- Bruce, J. S. (1986). *The intuitive pragmatists: conversations with chief executive officers* (Special Report). Greensboro, NC: Center of Creative Leadership.
- Byrd, R. E. (1987). Corporate leadership skills: a new synthesis. *Organizational Dynamics*, 16, 34-43.
- Cameron, K. S. & Tschirhart, M. (1988). *Managerial competencies and organizational effectiveness*. Working paper, School of Business Administration, University of Michigan.
- Camp, R., Vielhaber, M., & Simonetti, J. L. (2001). *Strategic interviewing: how to hire good people*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Carmines, E. G. & Zeller, R. A. (1979). *Reliability and validity assessment*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Cash, P. M. (1983). Cash competency inventory for intercollegiate athletic directors: development and validation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Temple University, Pennsylvania.
- Clark, H. J. (1991). Total quality management: getting stated. *Total Quality Management*, 2, 29-38.

- Clarkson, M. (1999). *Competitive fire: insights to developing warrior mentality of sports champions*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Clausen, J. & Ford, R. N. (1947). Controlling bias in mail questionnaires. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 42, 497-511.
- Cohn, P. J. (1991). An exploratory study on peak performance in golf. *The Sport Psychologist*, 5, 1-14.
- Cook, T. M. & Russell, R. A. (1985). *Introduction to management science* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Costa, C. A. (2000). *Future of sport management research: a Delphi study*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Ohio.
- Curtis, D. B., Wilsor, J. L., & Stephens, D. (1989). National preferences in business and communication education. *Communication Education*, 38, 6-15.
- Darlington, R. B. (2005). *Factor analysis*. Retrieved August 20, 2005, from <http://comp9.psych.cornell.edu/Darlington/factor.htm>
- Deming, W. E. (1986). *Out of the crisis*. Cambridge, MA: MIT, Center for Advanced Engineering Study.
- Department of Commerce (2005). *2003 service annual survey: arts, entertainment, and recreation*. Retrieved June 7, 2005, from <http://www.census.gov/svsd/www/Q71-003html>
- Dillman, D. A. (1978). *Mail and telephone surveys: the total design method*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Donald, M. N. (1960). Implications of nonresponse for the interpretation of mail questionnaire data. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 24, 99-114.

- Dorn, S. A. & Perrone, D. J. (1995). Charting a course for success. *Fund Raising Management*, 25, 30-33.
- Dowell, J. D. (1994). *Athletes in advertising: do they have a positive effect on consumer behavior?* Unpublished master's thesis, Lamar University, Texas.
- Dowell, B. E. & Wexley, K. N. (1978). Development of a work behavior taxonomy for first-line supervisors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63, 563-572.
- Drucker, P. F. (1967). *The effective executive*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Drucker, P. F. (1975). *Management: tasks, responsibilities, practices*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- DuBrin, R. (2001). *Leadership: research findings, practice, and skills (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Dunn, J. K. (1987). Establishing reliability and validity in evaluation instruments. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 5, 61-70.
- Dunnette, M. D. (1986). Describing the role of the middle manager. *Is the role of the middle manager really different?* Symposium, American Psychological Association, New York.
- Eberl, G. (1985). Turning golf into a business. *Golf Journal*, 5-9.
- Edginton, C. R., Jordan, D. J., DeGraaf, D. G., & Edginton, S. R. (2002). *Leisure and life satisfaction: foundational perspectives (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.)*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Employees value effective communication. (2003). *Employee Benefit Plan Review*, 57,
- Encyclopedia (2005). Retrieved February 10, 2005, from <http://www.answers.com/topic/golf#Encyclopedia>



- Everitt, B. S. & Dunn, G. (1991). *Applied multivariate data analysis*. London, Edward Arnold.
- Favila D. (1995, April 7). Golf courses are making money as sport grows. *Dallas Business Journal*, 19-20.
- Fayol, H. (1930). *General and Industrial Administration*. New York, NY: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons.
- Fellner, B. S. & Mitchell, L. L. (1995). Communication: an essential element in internal control. *Healthcare Financial Management*, 49, 80-83.
- Ferber, R. (1948-1949). The problem of bias in mail returns—A solution. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 12, 669-676.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F. E. & Chemers, M. M. (1974). *Leadership and effective management*. Glenview, Il: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Follett, M. P. (1930). *Creative experience*. New York, NY: Longmans, Green and Co.
- Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., Donnelly, J. H., & Konopaske, R. (2003). *Organizations: behavior structure processes* (11<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Co.
- Gloede, W. F. (1993). A green and growing niche. *Mediaweek*, 3, 16.
- Gomez-Mejia, L. R. & Balkin, D. B. (2002). *Management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Gorsuch, R. L. (1983). *Factor analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Graffis, H. B. (1975). *The PGA: the official history of the Professional Golfers' Association of America*. New York, NY: Thomas Y. Crowell Co.

- Graham, J. L. (1998). *An analysis of sport managers' interpersonal communication skills in selected Ontario amateur sport organizations*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Windsor, Canada.
- Gratton, C. & Tice, A. (1989). Sports participation and health. *Leisure Studies*, 8, 77-92.
- Gronlund, N. E. (1976). *Measurement and evaluation in teaching*. New York, NY: MacMillan.
- Haas, J. A., Porat, A. M. & Vaughan, J. A. (1969). Actual versus ideal time allocations reported by managers: a study of managerial behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 22, 61-75.
- Hall, R. H. (1972). *Organizations: structure and process*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc. In Kast, F. E. & Rosenzweig, J. E. (1974). *Organization and management: a systems approach* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: McGraw Hill Inc.
- Hall, J. & Donnell, S. M. (1979). Managerial achievement: the personal side of behavioral theory. *Human Relations*, 32, 77-101.
- Halsey, J. J. (1981). Management science: a complement of information services. *Interfaces*, 11, 12-15.
- Harrell, A. M. & Stahl, M. J. (1981). A behavioral decision theory approach for measuring McClelland's trichotomy of needs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66, 242-244.
- Hatfield, B. D., Wrenn, J. P., & Bretting, M. M. (1987). Comparison of job responsibilities of intercollegiate athletic directors and professional sport general managers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 1, 129-145.

- Hellriegel, D. & Slocum, Jr., J. W. (1992). *Management* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Herbert, T. T. & Deresky, H. (1987). General managers should match their missions. *Organizational Dynamics*, 15, 40-51.
- Herrington, M. (1993). What does a customer want? *Across the Board*, 30, 33-35.
- Herrmann, N. (1982). The creative brain II. *Training and Development*, 6, 74-86.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. H. (1972). *Management of organizational behavior. Utilizing human resources* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. H. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hersey, P., Angelini, A. L., & Carakushansky, S. (1982). The impact of situational leadership and classroom structure on learning effectiveness. *Group & Organization Studies*, 7, 216-224.
- Hertz, D. B. (1965, April). The unity of science and management. *Management Science*, 11, B89-B97.
- Hitt, M. A., Middlemist, R. D., & Mathis, R. L. (1986). *Management: concepts and effective practices* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Company.
- Hovland, E. J., Romberg, E. & Moreland, E. F. (1980). Nonresponse bias to mail survey questionnaire within a professional population. *Journal of Dental Education*, 44, 270-274.
- Howard, J. (1981). *Differential perceptions of potential home buyers, real estate brokers, and homeowners regarding resort homes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, United States International University, Kenya.

- Huggins, V. J., Dennis, M. J., & Seryakova, K. (2002). An evaluation of nonresponse bias in Internet surveys conducted using the Knowledge Networks Panel. *Proceedings, Joint Statistical Meetings-Section on Survey Research Methods*, 1525-1530.
- Ibrahim, H., & Cordes, K. (1996). Leader or manager. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance*, 67, 41-42.
- Irwin, N., Cotter, L., Jenson, L., & White, K. (1994-1995). Sports Administration degrees in Australia: are they adequately fulfilling their purpose? *Sportsnetwork*, 8-9.
- Jamieson, L. M. (1980). *A competency analysis of recreational sports personnel in selected institutional settings*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Indiana.
- Jayanti, R. K. & Ghosh, A. K. (1996). Service value determination: an integrative perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 3, 5-25.
- Jennings, M. W. (1984). *Entry level competencies for recreational sports personnel as identified by chairs of preparatory institutions*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Indiana.
- Jensen, C. R. (1983). *Administrative management for athletic programs*. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger.
- Jensen, J. (1994). Escalating the golf war. *Advertising Age*, 65, 4.
- Jordan, D. (2001). *Leadership in leisure services: making a difference* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). State College, PA: Venture Publishing, Inc.

- Kahle, L. R., Beatty, S. E., & Homer, P. (1986). Alternative measurement approaches to consumer values: the list of values (LOV) and values and life style (VALS). *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13, 405-409.
- Kaplan, R. E. (1986). The warp and woof of the general manager's job. In Schneider, B. & Schoorman, D. (Eds.), *Facilitating work effectiveness*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Kast, F. & Rosenzweig, J. (1973). *Contingency views of organization and management*. Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates Inc.
- Kast, F. & Rosenzweig, J. (1974). *Organization and management: a systems approach* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: McGraw Hill Inc.
- Katz, R. L. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review*, 52, 90-102.
- Kelly, J. R. (1987). *Recreation trends: toward the year 2000*. Champaign, IL: Management Learning Laboratories, Ltd.
- Kelly, J. R. (1996). *Leisure*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Kelly, J. R. & Freysinger, V. J. (2000). *21<sup>st</sup> century leisure: current issues*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon Co.
- Kemp, R. M. (1983). Effective management of high technology projects. *Dissertation Abstracts international*, 43, 4017.
- Kim, J., Lonner, J. H., Nelson, C. L., & Lotke, P. A. (2004). Response bias: effect on outcomes evaluation by mail surveys after total knee arthroplasty. *The Journal of Bone & Joint Surgery*, 86, 15-21.

- King, B. (2002, March 11-17). Passion that can't be counted puts billions of dollars in play. *Street & Smith's Sport Business Journal*, 4, 25-26.
- Kirchner, W. K. & Mousley, N. B. (1963). A note on job performance: differences between respondent and nonrespondent salesmen to an attitude survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 47, 223-244.
- Kish, L. (1965). *Survey Sampling*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Klauss, R. (1981). *Senior executive service competencies: a superior manager's model*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Kleiber, D. A. (1999). *Leisure experience and human development: a dialectical interpretation*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Klug, F. (May, 2001). University prepares students for golf business. *Associated Press*.
- Koehler, L. S. (1988). Job satisfaction and corporate fitness managers: an organizational behavior approach to sport management. *Journal of Sport Management*, 2, 100-105.
- Kotter, J. P. (1990). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review*, 90, 103-111.
- Laios, A. (2001). Communication in Greek sports science. *Corporate Communications*, 6, 102-106.
- Larson, R. (1994). Youth organizations, hobbies, and sports as developmental contexts. In Groff, D. & Kleiber, D. A. (2001). Exploring the identity formation of youth involved in an adapted sports program. *Therapeutic Recreation Journal*, 35, 318-332.
- Leavitt, H. J. & Whisler, T. L. (1958). Management in the 1980's. *Harvard Business Review*, 36, 41-48.

- Lehman, E. C. (1963). Tests of significance and partial returns to mail questionnaires. *Rural Sociology*, 28, 284-289.
- Leith, L. (1983, December). The underlying process of athletic administration. *The Physical Educator*, 211-217.
- Lewis, P. S., Goodman, S. H., & Fandt, P. M. (1995). *Management: challenges in the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Company.
- Likert, R. (1967). *The human organization: the management and value*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Likert, R. (1977). Management styles and the human component. *Management Review*, 66, 23-28, 43-45.
- Little, R. J. A. & Rubin, D. B. (1987). *Statistical analysis with missing data*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.)
- Locke, L. F., Spirduso, W. W., & Silverman, S. J. (1993). *Proposals that work* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publication.
- Luthans, F. (1973). The contingency theory of management: a path out of the jungle. *Business Horizons*, 16, 62-72.
- Luthans, F. (1986). *Fifty years later: what do we know about managers and managing*. Presidential address, Academy of Management, Chicago.
- Luthans, F., Rosenkrantz, S. A., & Hennessey, H. W. (1985). What do successful managers really do? An observation study of managerial activities. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 21, 255-270.
- MacKenzie, R. A. (1969). The management process in 3-D. *Harvard Business Review*, 47, 80-87.

- Mahny, D. F. & Howard, D. R. (2001). Sport business in the next decade: a general overview of expected trends. *Journal of Sport Management, 15*, 275-296.
- Mahoney, T. A., Jerdee, T. H., & Carroll, S. I. (1965). The job(s) of management. *Industrial Relations, 4*, 97-110.
- Markiewicz, D. A. (1991, July 30). More fans line up for careers in sports. *USA Today*, 7B.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Maslow, A. H. (1998). *Maslow on management*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand.
- McClelland, D. C. (1975). *Power: the inner experience*. New York, NY: Irvington Publishers.
- McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Co.
- McHenry, J. J. (1986). *Activity and responsibility differences between first-level and middle managers: the effects of job function*. Paper, American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.
- Mee, J. B. (1962, October). Pioneers of management. *Advanced Management—Office Executive, 26-29*.
- Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Mintzberg, H. (1975). The manager's job: folklore and fact. *Harvard Business Review, 53*, 49-61.
- Morris, L. L. & Fitts-Gabbon, C. T. (1978). *How to measure program implementation*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.



- Moss, R. J. (2001). *Golf and the American country club*. Urbana and Chicago, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- NASPE-NASSM Joint Task Force. (1993). Standards for curriculum and voluntary accreditation of sport management education program. *Journal of Sport Management*, 7, 159-170.
- National Golf Foundation (2005). Retrieved July 10, 2004, from <http://www.ngf.org/cgi/whofaq.asp>
- National Recreation and Park Association (2005). Retrieved February 10, 2005, from <http://www.nrpa.org>
- Nealey, S. M. & Fiedler, F. E. (1968). Leadership functions of middle managers. *Psychological Bulletin*, 5, 313-329.
- Netzley, M. (2001). Alternative dispute resolution: a business (and) communication strategy. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 64, 83-89.
- Newman, W. H. (1971-1972). Strategy and management structure. *Journal of Business Policy*, 56-66.
- North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) (2005). Retrieved June 16, 2005, from <http://www.nassm.com>
- Northouse, P. G. (1997). *Leadership*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Norusis, M. J. (2004). *SPSS 12.0 guide to data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Pace, C. R. (1939). Factors influencing questionnaire returns from former university students. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 23, 388-397.

- Page, R. H. & Tornow, W. W. (1987). *Managerial job analysis: are we further along?* Paper, Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.
- Paris, R. H. (1979). *An analysis of management competency as viewed by selected educational administrators in Ontario physical education and sport*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Western Ontario, Canada.
- Parkhouse, B. L. (1978). Professional preparation in athletic administration and sport management: graduate program in the United States. *Journal of Physical Education and Recreation, 49*, 22-27.
- Parkhouse, B. L. (1980). Analysis of graduate professional preparation in sport management. *Athletic Administrator, 14*, 11-14.
- Parkhouse, B. L. (1987). Sport management curricula: current status and design implications for future development. *The Journal of Sport Management, 6*, 220-229.
- Parkhouse, B. L. (1991). *The management of sport*. St. Louis: Mosby.
- Parkhouse, B. L. & Pitts, B. G. (2001). *Definition, evolution, and curriculum*. In Parkhouse, B. L. (Ed.), *The management of sport: its foundation and application* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). St. Louis, MO: Mosby.
- Parkhouse, B. L. & Ulrich, D. W. (1979). Sport management as a potential cross discipline: a paradigm for theoretical development, scientific inquiry and professional application. *Quest Journal, 31*, 264-276.
- Parkhouse, B. L., Ulrich, D. O., & Soucie, D. (1982). Research in sport management: a vital rung in this new corporate ladder. *Quest, 34*, 176-186.

- Parks, J. B. (1992). The other “bottom line” in sport management. *Journal of Sport Management, 6*, 220-229.
- Parks, J. B. & Quain, R. J. (1986). Curriculum perspectives. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 57*, 22-26.
- Parson, H. M. (1974). What happened at Hawthorne? *Science, 183*, 922-932.
- Paton, G. (1987). Sport management research—what progress has been made? *Journal of Sport Management, 1*, 25-31.
- Patton, M. Q. (1978). *Utilization-focused evaluation*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Pavett, C. M. & Lau, A. W. (1983). Managerial work: the influence of hierarchical level and functional specialty. *The Academy of Management Journal, 26*, 170-1777.
- Pedigo, P. R. (1986). *Impact of information technology on middle management*. Paper, American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.
- Peng, H. H. (2000). *Competencies of sport event managers in the United States*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, Colorado.
- Peters, T. (1979). Leadership: sad facts and silver linings. *Harvard Business Review, 57*, 164-172
- Petrick, J. F., Backman, S. J., & Bixler, R. D. (1999). An investigation of selected factors’ impact on golfer satisfaction and perceived value. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 17*, 40-59.
- Petrick, J. F., Backman, S. J., Bixler, R. D., & Norman, W. C. (2001). Analysis of golfer motivations and constraints by experience use history. *Journal of Leisure Research, 33*, 56-70.

- PGA (1990). *PGA teaching manual: the art and science of golf instruction*. Palm Beach Gardens, FL: PGA of America.
- PGA (2002). *PGA membership and golf directory*. Palm Beach Gardens, FL: PGA of America.
- PGA (2005). *2005 PGA membership and golf directory*. Palm Beach Gardens, FL: PGA of America.
- Pitts, B. G. (2001). Sport management at the millennium: a defining moment. *Journal of Sport Management, 15*, 1-9.
- Plummer, J. T. (1989). Changing values: the new emphasis on self-actualization. *The Futurist, 23*, 8-13.
- Principal components and factor analysis (2005). Retrieved October 19, 2005, from <http://www.statsoft.com/textbook/stfacan.html>
- Professional Golfers' Association (PGA) of America (2005). Retrieved February 10, 2005, from <http://www.pga.com>
- Quain, R. J. & Parks, J. B. (1986). Sport management survey: employment perspectives. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 57*, 18-21.
- Quarterman, J. (1998). An assessment of the perception of management and leadership skills by intercollegiate athletics conference commissioners. *Journal of Sport Management, 12*, 146-164.
- Reif, W. E. & Luthans, F. (1972, Fall). Does job enrichment really pay off? *California Management Review, 30-37*.
- Render, B. & Stair Jr., R. M. (1997). *Quantitative analysis for management* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

- Reuss, C. F. (1943). Differences between persons responding and not responding to a mailed questionnaire. *American sociological Review*, 8, 433-438.
- Richards, S. A. & Inskip, G. C. (1974, Spring). The middle manager—his continuing education and the business school. *Collegiate News and Views*, 5-7.
- Rubin, G. Z. & Brown, B. R. (1975). *The social psychology of bargaining and negotiation*. New York: Academic Press.
- Sayles, L. R. (1964). *Managerial behavior*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Company.
- Schmuckler, E. (1995, January 16). Driving the green. *Mediaweek*, 5, 9-12.
- Scott, C. (1961). Research on mail surveys. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series A*, 124, 143-191.
- Scott, P. M. (1979). The new administrator: a point of view. *Journal of Physical Education and Recreation*, 50, 41-41.
- Scott, W. A. (1967). *Organizational theory: a behavioral analysis for management*. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Segars, A. H. (2003). Effective communication of corporate crises through the internet. *Business Strategy Review*, 14, 44-49.
- Shaw, M. E. & Harkey, B. (1976). Some effects of congruency of member characteristics and group structure upon group behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34, 412-418.
- Sheikh, K. & Mattingly, S. (1981). Investigating non-response bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Epidemiol Community Health*, 35, 293-296.
- Shenhar, A. (1989). *The mixture of management skills: a new look*. Tel Aviv, Israel: Tel Aviv University, Faculty of Management.

- Slack, T. (1991). Sport management: some thoughts on future directions. *Journal of Sport Management*, 5, 95-99.
- Snyder, N. H. & Wheelen, T. L. (1981). Managerial roles: Mintzberg and the management process theorists. *Proceedings, Academy of Management*, San Diego, CA, 249-253.
- Soucie, D. (1994). Effective managerial leadership in sport organizations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 8, 1-13.
- Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association (2000). *Sports apparel reacts to market changes and technology*. Retrieved June 7, 2005, from <http://www.SGMA.com>
- Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association (2001). *Sports goods companies maintain marketing spending level*. June 7, 2005, from <http://www.SGMA.com>
- Sporting Goods Manufacturers Association (2005). *Sports participation topline report (2005 ed.)*. Retrieved June 7, 2005, from <http://www.SGMA.com>
- Sprandel, D. S. (1974). A crisis in athletic administration. *The Physical Educator*, 30, 44-46.
- Spreng, R. A., Mackenzis, S. B., & Olshavsky, R. W. (1996). A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 60, 15-32.
- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (2005). Retrieved February 10, 2005, from <http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/spss/faq/alpha.html>
- StatPac (2005). The “Don’t Know”, “Undecided”, and “Neutral” response options. Retrieved September 20, 2005, from <http://www.statpac.com/surveys/undecided-category.htm>

- Stevens, E. L. & Grover, M. (1998, February 16). The entertainment glut. *Business Week*, pp. 88-95.
- Stogdill, R. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. New York, NY: MacMillan Publishing Co.
- Stoldt, G. C. (1998). *Current and ideal professional roles of NCAA Division I-A sports information directors: analysis and implications (public relations, sport management)*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma.
- Stotlar, D. (2000). Vertical integration in sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 14, 1-7.
- Stynes, D. J., Godbey, G. C., & Kraus, R. (2005). Leisure: the new center of the economy? *The Academy of Leisure Sciences*, Retrieved June 7, 2005, from <http://www.academyofleisuresciences.org/alswp3.html>
- Symonds, W. C. (1989, June 19). Driving to become the IBM of golf. *Business Week*, 3111, 100-101.
- Swiss, J. E. (1992). Adapting total quality management (TQM) to government. *Public Administration Review*, 52, 356-362.
- Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics: fourth edition*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Taylor, F. W. (1911). *Principles of scientific management*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Taylor, F. W. (1929). *Scientific management in American industry*. New York, NY: Harper & Brothers Publishers.

- Taylor, F. W. (1947). *Scientific management, comprising shop management, The principles of scientific management [and] Testimony before the special House committee*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Thomason, G. F. (1967). Managerial work roles and relationships (Part II). *Journal of Management Studies*, 4, 17-30.
- Thompson, J. D. (1966). *Approaches to organizational design*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Thompson, B., Sierpina, V. S., & Sierpina, M. (2001-2002). What is healthy aging? Family physicians look at conventional and alternative. *Generations; San Francisco*, 25, 49-53.
- Tichy, N. M. & Ulrich, D. (1983). Revitalizing organizations: the leadership role. Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor: unpublished manuscript. In Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: theory, research, and managerial applications* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Toh, K. L. (1997). *Constructing and validating competencies of sport managers (COSM) instrument: a model development*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Indiana University, Indiana.
- Tornow, W. W. & Pinto, P. R. (1976). The development of a managerial job taxonomy: a system for describing, classifying, and evaluating executive positions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 61, 410-418.
- Tracy, B. (1998). Effective communication. *Executive Excellence*, 15, p 13.



- Ulrich, D. & Parkhouse, B. L. (1982). An alumni approach to sport management curriculum design using performance ratings and a regression model. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 53, 64-72.
- United States Golf Association (2005). Retrieved February 10, 2005, from <http://www.usga.org>
- Uris, A. (1958). Job stress and the executive. *Management Review*, 47, 4-12.
- Vincent, C. E. (1964). Socioeconomic status and familial variables in mail questionnaire responses. *American Journal of Sociology*, 69, 647-653.
- Voltmer, E. & Esslinger, M. (1979). *The organization and administration of physical education*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Von der Embse, T. J., Delozier, D. W., & Castellano, J. F. (1973, December). Three views of the ideal MBA. *Business Horizons*, 85-91.
- Voogt, R. J. (2005). *An alternative approach to correcting response and nonresponse bias in election research*. Retrieved September, 25, 2005, from [http://www.ccsr.ac.uk/methods/events/attrition/documents/Voogt\\_ooo.pdf](http://www.ccsr.ac.uk/methods/events/attrition/documents/Voogt_ooo.pdf)
- Wainer, H. A. & Rubin, I. M. (1969). Motivation of research and development entrepreneurs: determinants of company success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 53, 178-184.
- Wallace, D. (1954). A case for-and-against mail questionnaires. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 18, 40-52.
- Waters, J. A. (1980). Managerial skill development. *Academy of Management Review*, 5, 449-453.
- Watt, D. C., (2003). *Sport management and administration*. New York: Routledge.

- Weber, M. (1927). *General economic history*. Trans. Knight, F. H. London, England: Allen & Unwin.
- Weese, G. (1994). A leadership discussion with Dr. Bernard Bass. *Journal of Sport Management*, 8, 179-189.
- Whetten, D. A. & Cameron, K. S. (2002). *Developing management skills* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Wiseman, F. (1972). Methodological bias in public opinion surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36, 105-108.
- Wofford, J. C. (1967). Behavior styles and performance effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 20, 461-495.
- Woodward, J. (1980). *Industrial organizations: theory and Practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Oxford University Press.
- Wortman, M. S. (1982). Strategic management and changing leader-follower roles. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences*, 18, 371-383
- Wren, D. A. (1972). *The evolution of management thought*. New York, NY: The Ronald Press Company.
- Yalch, R. & Brunel, F. (1996). Need hierarchies in consumer judgments of product designs: is it time to reconsider Maslow's theory? *Advances in Consumer Research*, 23, 405-410.
- Young, S. (1987). Politicking: the unsung management skill. *Office Politics*, 64, 62-68.
- Yu, Chong Ho (2005). *Reliability and validity*. Retrieved August, 10, 2005 from <http://seamonkey.ed.asu.edu/~alex/teaching/assessment/reliability.html>

- Yu, Chong Ho (2005). *Using SAS for item analysis and test construction*. Retrieved August, 10, 2005 from <http://seamonkey.ed.asu.edu/~alex/teaching/assessment/alpha.html>
- Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: are they different? *Harvard Business Review*, 55, 67-68.
- Zeigler, E. F. (1973). *Administrative theory and practice: a conference summary*. In Husicker, P. H. (Ed.). *Administrative theory and practice in athletics and physical education*. Chicago: The Athletic Institute.
- Zeigler, E. F. (1983). Preface In Zeigler E. F. & Bowie, G. W. (1983). *Management competency development in sport and physical education*. Philadelphia, PA: Lea & Febiger.
- Zeigler E. F. & Bowie, G. W. (1983). *Management competency development in sport and physical education*. Philadelphia, PA: Lea & Febiger.
- Zeigler, E. F. & Spaeth, M. J. (1975). *Administrative theory and practice in physical education and athletics*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, 52, 2-22.
- Zenger, J. H. (1985). Leadership: management's better half. *Training*, 22, 44-53.

## Appendix A

Requesting Emails to Executive Directors in PGA Sections and Director of Membership

Service in PGA Headquarter for the Section Directories

Dear[**Recipient Name**]:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities.

Before I can proceed with the study, I would like to request from you the “section directory” which includes PGA recognized golf facilities and directors/head professionals’ names in your area. Your assistance is extremely important because without the required names and facilities, I will not be able to proceed with my research.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. Directors/head professionals who are chosen from the section directory will remain anonymous in the survey. Their responses will be gathered and transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, their information will be used solely for the purposes of this study. The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete the survey.

Therefore, I sincerely hope that you will take just a minute to send me a section directory within a few days. Your assistance will help a PGA apprentice fulfill his dream of conducting credible research that will benefit the entire golf management profession.

Thank you very much for your time and assistance. Should you have any questions, please contact me using the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, PGA Apprentice, Ph.D. Candidate  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [sfduke54@pga.com](mailto:sfduke54@pga.com)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

Director of Membership Service

Dear Mr. Williams:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities.

Before I can proceed with the study, I would like to request from you the “section directories” which includes addresses of PGA recognized golf facilities and directors/head professionals’ names in District 2, 12, and 13. I already received directories from four sections. However, I could not get section directories from North Florida, South Florida, Southern Texas, Philadelphia, and Metropolitan. Your assistance is extremely important because without the required names and addresses of facilities, I will not be able to proceed with my research.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. Directors/head professionals who are chosen from the section directory will remain anonymous in the survey. Their responses will be gathered and transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, their information will be used solely for the purposes of this study. The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete the survey.

Therefore, I sincerely hope that you will take just a minute to send me a section directory within a few days. Your assistance will help a PGA apprentice fulfill his dream of conducting credible research that will benefit the entire golf management profession.

Thank you very much for your time and assistance. Should you have any questions, please contact me using the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, PGA Apprentice, Ph.D. Candidate  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University  
Stillwater, OK 74075  
Email: [sfduke54@pga.com](mailto:sfduke54@pga.com)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

## Appendix B

### Emails to PGM Directors and Directors of Golf Asking for Jury Member

Dear[**Recipient Name**]:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities.

Before I can proceed with the study, I would like to receive your input related to the competencies needed by golf course directors/head professionals because you are an expert in the golf industry. Your assistance is extremely important because without your cooperation, I will not be able to proceed with conducting the rest of my research.

This survey has two parts. First, you will receive a survey in which I ask that you review all the competency statements and make any necessary changes about the wordings, grammar, etc.; add, delete, move, or combine any competency statements you consider necessary, and provide any further comments in the space provided. After completing the first survey, a second survey will be sent. For this survey, you will be requested to score the importance of each statement by circling the number that best indicates the importance you place on the competency using a five point likert scale (e.g., 1: Very Unimportant, 3: Unsure or Undecided, 5: Very Important).

Your feedback will help establish competencies needed for future professionals in the golf industry. The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete. I would greatly appreciate you taking the few minutes necessary to participate in my study. Your assistance will help a PGA apprentice fulfill his dream of conducting credible research that will benefit the entire golf management profession.

Thank you very much for your time and assistance. Should you have any questions, please contact me using the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, PGA Apprentice, Ph.D. Candidate  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [sfduke54@pga.com](mailto:sfduke54@pga.com)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

Dear[**Recipient Name**]:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities in the United States.

Since you are an expert in the golf industry, I would like to receive your input related to the competencies needed by golf course directors/head professionals. This survey has two parts. First, you will receive a survey in which I ask that you review all the competency statements and make any necessary changes about the wordings, grammar, etc.; add, delete, move, or combine any competency statements you consider necessary, and provide any further comments in the space provided. After completing the first survey, a second survey will be sent. For this survey, you will be requested to score the importance of each statement by circling the number that best indicates the importance you place on the competency using a five point Likert scale (e.g., 1: Very Unimportant, 3: Unsure or Undecided, 5: Very Important).

Because of time constraints, I would appreciate receiving your first feedback by April 22, 2005. Your feedback will help establish competencies needed for future golf professionals, and it may be used to establish the curricular criteria for Professional Golf Management (PGM) programs in higher education and the PGA. The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete, and I would greatly appreciate you taking the few minutes necessary to complete and return the questionnaire by April 22, 2005.

Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, PGA Apprentice, Ph.D. Candidate  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

If at any time you have questions regarding the study or procedures, you may contact the researcher, Paul Choi, at Oklahoma State University, 807 North Ramsey St. Stillwater, OK 74075, or (405) 269-2107. If you feel you have not been treated according to the description in this letter or your rights as a participant in the research have been violated, you may contact the Office for Human Subjects Committee, 415 Whitehurst, OSU, Stillwater, OK 74078, (405) 744-1676.

Dear[**Recipient Name**]:

Within the last two weeks, I sent you an email asking you to participate in a study. I am currently conducting regarding management competencies of golf course directors.

I would like to remind you that if you wish to participate, I need your responses by May 19, 2005 so that I may continue on with my study. The questionnaire is attached in the attachments. If you have any comments, questions, or concerns, feel free to contact me using the information provided below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, Ph. D. Candidate, PGA Apprentice  
Leisure Studies Program  
Oklahoma State University  
Stillwater, OK 74075  
Email: [sfduke54@pga.com](mailto:sfduke54@pga.com)  
Cell: 405-269-2107



## Appendix C

### List of Jury Members

Chris Moya  
Head Golf Professional  
Los Altos Golf Course  
9717 Copper Av. NE  
Albuquerque, NM 87123  
(505) 298-1897

Michael Ciolek  
Director of Golf  
Isleta Eagle Golf Course  
4001 Highway 47 SE  
Albuquerque, NM 87105  
(505) 869-0950

Fred Forbes  
Head Golf Professional  
Lakeside Golf Course  
Hwy 177  
Stillwater OK 74075  
(405) 372-3399

Dan Pryer  
Head Golf Professional  
Stillwater Country Club  
5212 Country Club Dr.  
Stillwater, OK 74074  
(405) 372-1100

David Suh  
Head Golf Professional  
Skywest Golf Course  
1401 Golf Course Rd.  
Hayward, CA 94541  
(510) 317-2300

## Appendix D

### Initial CGCD to Be Validated by Expert Jury

#### **COMPETENCIES OF GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS (CGCD)**

Since the early 1980s, the number of studies related to sport management competencies has grown rapidly. However, a study related to golf course directors has not yet been investigated. The following survey is designed to allow you to provide your input related to the competencies needed by golf course directors/head professionals. Your feedback will help establish competencies needed for future professionals in the golf industry.

This survey includes three parts. Part three is an evaluation form that will allow you to provide feedback regarding the survey. Part two requests demographic information about yourself and your club/golf course. Please check the item(s) where appropriate. Part one pertains to statements that describe the competencies of golf course directors/head professionals. Please review all the competency statements and make any necessary changes about the wordings, grammar, etc.; add, delete, move, or combine any competency statements you consider necessary, and provide any further comments in the space provided.

To maintain consistency, “golf course director/head professional” refers to the full-time personnel in charge of the entire golf facility including golf operations, golf course maintenance, club house administration, food and beverage operation, and other recreational activities including programs (special events, tournaments, group lessons, etc) within the golf course/facility. The PGA also defines “golf course director/head professional” as follows:

***Director of Golf:*** The term director of golf shall refer to an individual who directs the total golf operation of a PGA recognized golf facility, including the golf shop, golf range, golf car operations (if applicable) and supervision of the Head Golf Professional (PGA, 2005).

***Head Golf Professional:*** An individual whose primary employment is:

- (a) The ownership and operation of a golf shop at a PGA Recognized Golf Facility; or
- (b) The supervision and direction of the golf shop and supervision of teaching at a PGA Recognized Golf Facility (PGA, 2005).

**Instructions:** Please review all the competency statements below and make any necessary changes about the wordings, grammar, etc.; add, delete, move, or combine any competency statements you consider necessary; and provide any further comments in the space provided.

**Part One: COMPETENCIES**

**BUSINESS PROCEDURES**

1. Applies basic accounting principles.
2. Identifies sources of revenue and expenditures for the budget.
3. Prepares a budget proposal.
4. Defends a budget proposal.
5. Monitors the budget.
6. Applies sport economics principles.
7. Utilizes basic bookkeeping procedures.
8. Applies established purchasing/merchandising policies and procedures.
9. Prepares financial reports.
10. Maintains payroll information for personnel.
11. Implements marketing techniques.
12. Implements legal framework for fiscal management.
13. Maintains records of operational costs.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**COMMUNICATIONS/PUBLIC RELATIONS**

- 14. Uses good written communication skills.
- 15. Uses good verbal communication skills.
- 16. Initiates collaboration with other agencies, clubs, and golf courses.
- 17. Promotes harmony among personnel.
- 18. Maintains effective communications with staff.
- 19. Utilizes presentation aids.
- 20. Consults club/golf course staff and members/customers.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**COMPUTER SKILLS**

- 21. Develops a sound public relations plan.
- 22. Maintains good public relations with constituents.
- 23. Utilizes computer operating system (e.g., Windows, Mac OS, etc.).
- 24. Utilizes computer software for word processing, spreadsheet, presentation, etc.
- 25. Utilizes customized computer software programs for such purposes as scheduling, reservations, registration, inventory management, golf swing analysis, etc.
- 26. Utilizes computer technologies as electronic mail, Internet, etc.
- 27. Utilizes data bases as an information tool to assist in decision making.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

**FACILITIES/EQUIPMENT MANAGEMENT**

- 28. Prepares design specifications for equipment and facilities.
- 29. Administers a facility reservation system.
- 30. Conducts routine inspections of facilities and equipment.
- 31. Implements system for inventory of equipment and supplies.
- 32. Develops appropriate means of storing equipment and supplies (e.g., golf carts, clubs, merchandises, etc.).
- 33. Develops planning schedules for facility maintenance (e.g., turf grass management).
- 34. Applies facility design criteria for program needs.
- 35. Provides input into strategic planning for facility development.
- 36. Designs strategies/policies to prevent misuse of facilities and equipment.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**GOVERNANCE**

- 37. Utilizes procedures to regulate the conduct of customers, members, and/or golfers.
- 38. Handles disciplinary action, accidents, game protests, and eligibility status reports.
- 39. Establishes eligibility guidelines for customers, members, and/or golfers.
- 40. Uses sound procedures for settling protests.
- 41. Establishes a judiciary process for dealing with concerns.
- 42. Prepares written documentation of protests.
- 43. Supervises governing or appeals board.

- 44. Develops policy.
- 45. Establishes procedures reflecting fair treatment of both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers.
- 46. Demonstrates an understanding of the basic business and sport laws and other important legal matters.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**LEGALITY/RISK MANAGEMENT**

- 47. Writes and processes contractual agreements for both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers.
- 48. Implements appropriate legislation that applies to golf.
- 49. Establishes a safety program to prevent injuries and accidents.
- 50. Coordinates training for staff on legal and safety issues  
(e.g., first aid training, CPR training, ADA, OSHA, etc).
- 51. Exercises effective decision making in dealing with accidents.
- 52. Demonstrates and understanding of specific inherent risks of golf.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES**

- 53. Utilizes effective office procedures to handle registrations, reports, notices, etc.
- 54. Conducts meetings with professional staff.
- 55. Implements planning strategies for programs  
(e.g., tournaments, special events, group lessons, etc.).
- 56. Prepares and reviews informational reports.
- 57. Recruits, interviews, hires and trains full-time/part-time staff.
- 58. Evaluates staff for career development.
- 59. Utilizes effective problem-solving skills.
- 60. Prepares organizational guidelines for staffing and programming.
- 61. Establishes standards of performance for facility/club operation.
- 62. Establishes standards of concession (food and beverage) operation.
- 63. Schedules staff for work.
- 64. Utilizes effective time management techniques.
- 65. Motivates staff.
- 66. Communicates performance expectations with staff in a written job description.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

**PHILOSOPHY/SPORT SCIENCE**

- 67. Articulates the benefits and values of golf to individuals.
- 68. Demonstrates an understanding of the broad spectrum of recreational sport opportunities.

- 69. Uses basic golf terminology.
- 70. Demonstrates adequate golf skills (teaching concepts, mechanics of golf swing, golf rules, golf etiquette, course management, etc).
- 71. Demonstrates good personal fitness.
- 72. Applies leadership theories applicable to the game of golf and/or the organization.
- 73. Applies theories of cooperative and competitive play.
- 74. Comprehends the effect golf has on increasing/reducing stress.
- 75. Identifies aggression patterns of members/customers.
- 76. Demonstrates an understanding of human limitations in golf.
- 77. Demonstrates an understanding of exercise physiology and anatomy.
- 78. Demonstrates an understanding of the socio-psychological aspects of sport.
- 79. Demonstrates an understanding of the relationship between health and golf.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**PROGRAMMING TECHNIQUES/EVENT MANAGEMENT**

- 80. Implements appropriate golf rules and regulations.
- 81. Implements appropriate system of procurement and evaluation of officials and/or marshals.
- 82. Organizes clinics for tournament officials and/or marshals.



- 83. Demonstrates an understanding of the organizational and operational aspects of different types of golf programming (e.g. special events, tournaments, group lessons, etc.).
- 84. Implements sound procedures for postponements, rescheduling, and forfeiture of golf games, special events, and tournaments.
- 85. Schedules tournaments, special events, and group lessons.
- 86. Adapts programs to the special needs of persons with disabilities.
- 87. Develops physical fitness programs.
- 88. Organizes golf clinics.
- 89. Encourages customers, members, and/or golfers to assume leadership roles.
- 90. Manages special events, tournaments, group lessons, etc.
- 91. Oversees recruitment of customers, members, and/or golfers.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**RESEARCH/EVALUATION**

- 92. Develops a sound program evaluation plan.
- 93. Analyzes and evaluates various golf programs using appropriate statistics.
- 94. Conducts research for the purpose of club/golf course improvements and development.
- 95. Evaluates the overall performance of club/golf course.
- 96. Evaluates customers', members', and/or golfers' level of satisfaction.

- 97. Publishes research findings (e.g., club news, major journal reports).
- 98. Applies updated knowledge in golf research to practice.
- 99. Performs SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analyses for the club/golf course.

**Comments or suggestion statement(s): add, delete, move or combine:**

---

---

---

---

---

**PART TWO: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

Please circle the most appropriate answer:

Which of the following best describes your golf course/facility:

- 1. Private
- 2. Semi-Private
- 3. Public
- 4. Golf Management School
- 5. Other \_\_\_\_\_

Are you a PGA member? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_ If yes, what type of class do you hold? A-\_\_\_

If your golf course/facility is private or semi-private, what is the size of your membership (including both individuals and member units)?

- 1. Below 500
- 2. 500-999
- 3. 1000-1,499
- 4. 1,500-1,999
- 5. 2,000-2,499
- 6. 2,500-2,999
- 7. 3,000-3,499
- 8. 3,500-3,999
- 9. 4,000 & above

On average, how many rounds of golf are played at your golf course/facility per year?

- 1. Below 10,000
- 2. 10,000-19,999
- 3. 20,000-29,999
- 4. 30,000-39,999
- 5. 40,000-49,999
- 6. 50,000-59,999
- 7. 60,000-69,999
- 8. 70,000-79,999
- 9. 80,000 & above

Your age:

- 1. Under 25
- 2. 25-29
- 3. 30-34
- 4. 35-39
- 5. 40-44
- 6. 45-49
- 7. 50-54
- 8. 55-59
- 9. over 59

How long have you been in the golf industry?

- 1. 1-4 years
- 2. 5-8 years
- 3. 9-12 years
- 4. 13-16 years
- 5. 17-20 years
- 6. over 20 years

Year became a director/head professional \_\_\_\_\_

What is your current annual salary (excluding income from private golf lessons)?

- 1. Below \$25,000
- 2. \$25,000-29,999
- 3. \$30,000-34,999
- 4. \$35,000-39,999
- 5. \$40,000-44,999
- 6. \$45,000-\$49,999
- 7. \$50,000-54,999
- 8. \$55,000-\$59,999
- 9. \$60,000 or more

Highest Educational Level Achieved

- 1. Some high school
- 2. Some college
- 3. High school graduate
- 4. Associate's degree
- 5. Bachelor's degree
- 6. Master's degree
- 7. Doctoral degree
- 8...Other \_\_\_\_\_

If you have attended college, what was your major and area of study?

Major: \_\_\_\_\_ Area of Study: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender: Female / Male \_\_\_\_\_ Position Title: \_\_\_\_\_



## COMPETENCIES OF GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS (CGCD)

**Instructions:** After synthesizing your comments and recommendations from the first part of the validation process, a new list of golf management competency statements has been produced. The second part of this validation process includes two purposes. First, to reduce the length of the survey, please mark off the statements you find to be unimportant. Second, please rate each statement using the four point Likert scale.

Please read each statement carefully and check the number that best indicates your rating of the importance of that job task for a director of golf operations. Use the following scale:

- Key : 1 = Unimportant (U)  
 2 = Somewhat Important (SI)  
 3 = Very Important (VI)  
 4 = Critically Important (CI)

### **PART ONE: COMPETENCIES**

<b>BUSINESS PROCEDURES</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Apply basic accounting principles	1	2	3	4
Identify sources of revenue and expenditure for the budget	1	2	3	4
Prepare and defend a budget proposal	1	2	3	4
Monitor the budget	1	2	3	4
Apply sport economics principles	1	2	3	4
Utilize basic bookkeeping procedures	1	2	3	4
Apply established purchasing policies and procedures	1	2	3	4
Prepare financial reports	1	2	3	4
Maintain payroll information for personnel	1	2	3	4
Implement marketing techniques	1	2	3	4
Implement legal framework for fiscal management	1	2	3	4
Maintain records of operational costs	1	2	3	4

<b>COMMUNICATIONS/PUBLIC RELATIONS</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Use good written and verbal communication skills	1	2	3	4
Initiate interaction with other agencies, clubs, and golf courses	1	2	3	4
Promote harmony among personnel	1	2	3	4
Maintain effective communications with staff	1	2	3	4
Utilize presentation aids	1	2	3	4
Consult club/golf course staff and members/customers	1	2	3	4

<b>COMPUTER SKILLS</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Develop a sound public relations plan	1	2	3	4
Maintain good public relations with constituents	1	2	3	4
Utilize computer operating system (e.g., Windows, Mac OS, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Utilize computer software for word processing, spreadsheet, presentation, etc.	1	2	3	4
Utilize customized computer software programs for such purposes as scheduling, reservations, registration, etc.	1	2	3	4
Utilize computer technologies as electronic mail, Internet, etc.	1	2	3	4
Utilize data bases as an information tool to assist in decision making	1	2	3	4
<b>FACILITIES/EQUIPMENT MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Administer a facility reservation system and an equipment lease and purchase system	1	2	3	4
Conduct routine inspections of facilities and equipment	1	2	3	4
Implement system for inventory of equipment and supplies	1	2	3	4
Develop appropriate means of storing equipment and supplies	1	2	3	4
Develop planning schedules for facility maintenance	1	2	3	4
Provide input into strategic planning for facility development	1	2	3	4
Design strategies/policies to prevent misuse of facilities and equipment	1	2	3	4
<b>GOVERNANCE</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Utilize procedures to regulate the conduct of customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Handle disciplinary action, accidents, game protests, and eligibility status reports	1	2	3	4
Establish eligibility guidelines for customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Use sound procedures for settling protests	1	2	3	4
Prepare written documentation of protests	1	2	3	4
Supervise governing or appeal board	1	2	3	4
Develop policy	1	2	3	4
Establish procedures reflecting fair treatment of both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of both basic business and sport laws and other important legal matters	1	2	3	4

<b>LEGALITY/RISK MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Write and process contractual agreements for both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Understand and implement appropriate legislation that applies to golf	1	2	3	4
Establish a safety program to prevent injuries and accidents	1	2	3	4
Coordinate training for staff on legal and safety issues (e.g., first aid training, CPR training, ADA, OSHA, etc)	1	2	3	4
Exercise effective decision making in dealing with accidents	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of specific inherent risks of golf	1	2	3	4

<b>MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Utilize effective office procedures to handle registrations, reports, notices, etc.	1	2	3	4
Conduct meetings with professional staff	1	2	3	4
Implement planning strategies for programs (e.g., tournaments, special events, group lessons, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Prepare and review informational reports	1	2	3	4
Recruit, interview, hire and train full-time/part-time staff	1	2	3	4
Evaluate staff for career development	1	2	3	4
Utilize effective problem-solving skills	1	2	3	4
Prepare organizational guidelines for staffing and programming	1	2	3	4
Establish standard of performance for program operation	1	2	3	4
Schedule staff for work	1	2	3	4
Utilize effective time management techniques	1	2	3	4
Motivate staff	1	2	3	4
Communicate performance expectations with staff in a written job description	1	2	3	4

<b>RESEARCH/EVALUATION</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Develop a sound program evaluation plan	1	2	3	4
Analyze and evaluate various golf programs using appropriate statistics	1	2	3	4
Conduct research for the purpose of club/golf course improvements and development	1	2	3	4
Evaluate the overall performance of club/golf course	1	2	3	4
Evaluate customers', members', and/or golfers' level of	1	2	3	4

satisfaction				
Prepare publications (e.g.: club news, major journal reports)	1	2	3	4
Apply updated knowledge in golf research to practice	1	2	3	4
Perform SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analyses for the club/golf course	1	2	3	4

<b>PHILOSOPHY/SPORT SCIENCE</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Articulate the benefits and values of golf to individuals	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the broad spectrum of recreational sport opportunities	1	2	3	4
Use basic recreational golf terminology	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate adequate golf skills	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate good personal fitness	1	2	3	4
Apply leadership theories applicable to the game of golf and/or the organization	1	2	3	4
Apply theories of cooperative and competitive play	1	2	3	4
Comprehend the effect golf has on increasing/reducing stress	1	2	3	4
Identify aggression patterns of participants	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of human limitations in golf	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of exercise physiology and anatomy	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the sociological and psychological aspects of sport	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between health and golf	1	2	3	4

<b>PROGRAMMING TECHNIQUES/EVENT MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Implement appropriate golf rules and regulations	1	2	3	4
Implement appropriate system of procurement and evaluation of officials and/or marshals	1	2	3	4
Organize clinics for tournament officials and/or marshals	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the organizational and operational aspects of different types of golf programming (e.g. special events, tournaments, group lessons, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Implement sound procedures for scheduling, postponements, rescheduling, and forfeiture of golf games, special events, and tournaments	1	2	3	4



Adapt programs to the special needs of persons with disabilities	1	2	3	4
Develop physical fitness programs	1	2	3	4
Organize golf clinics	1	2	3	4
Encourage customers, members, and/or golfers to assume leadership roles	1	2	3	4
Oversee recruitment of customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4

Any other comments?

## **PART TWO: DEMOGRAPHICS**

Please check the most appropriate answer:

Which of the following best describes your golf course/facility:

1. Private                                      2. Semi-Private/Daily Fee                      3. Municipal  
 4. Golf Management School   5. Driving Range Only                                      6.  
 Other \_\_\_\_\_

Are you a PGA member? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_ If yes, what type of class do you hold? A \_\_\_

If your golf course/facility is private or semi-private, what is the size of your membership (including both individuals and member units)?

1. Below 500                                      2. 500-999                                      3. 1000-1,499  
 4. 1,500-1,999                                      5. 2,000-2,499                                      6. 2,500-2,999  
 7. 3,000-3,499                                      8. 3,500-3,999                                      9. 4,000 & above

On average, how many rounds of golf are played at your golf course/facility per year?

1. Below 10,000                                      2. 10,000-19,999                                      3. 20,000-29,999  
 4. 30,000-39,999                                      5. 40,000-49,999                                      6. 50,000-59,999  
 7. 60,000-69,999                                      8. 70,000-79,999                                      9. 80,000 & above

How long have you been in the golf industry?

1. 1-4 years                                      2. 5-8 years                                      3. 9-12 years  
 4. 13-16 years                                      5. 17-20 years                                      6. over 20 years

Year became a director/head professional \_\_\_\_\_

What is your current annual salary (excluding income from golf lesson)?

1. Below \$25,000                                      2. \$25,000-29,999                                      3. \$30,000-34,999  
 4. \$35,000-39,999                                      5. \$40,000-44,999                                      6. \$45,000-\$49,999  
 7. \$50,000-54,999                                      8. \$55,000-\$59,999                                      9. \$60,000 or more

Highest Educational Level Achieved

1. Some high school                                      2. Some college                                      3. High school graduate  
 4. Associate's degree                                      5. Bachelor's degree                                      6. Master's degree

7. Doctoral degree                      8. Other \_\_\_\_\_

If you have attended college, what was your major and area of study?

Major:    Area of Study:

Gender: Female / Male                      Position Title: \_\_\_\_\_

Your age: 1. Under 25    2. 25-29    3. 30-34    4. 35-39    5. 40-44  
                  6. 45-49        7. 50-54        8. 55-59    9. over 59

### **PART THREE: COMPETENCIES OF GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS**

#### **EVALUATION FORM**

Please provide feedback regarding the survey to help ensure a better survey for the final study:

1. Were the definitions helpful? What can be done to improve them?

2. Were the instructions adequate and easy to follow? What additional instruction do you think is needed to help answer the questionnaire?

3. Were the competency statements easy to understand? What are the statements that you believe need refining/editing and how?

4. What do you think about the design of the survey? What can be done to help entice the respondents to answer the questionnaire?

5. How long did it take you to complete the survey?

6. Please feel free to make any other comments pertaining to the survey:

*Thank you for your participation.*

Appendix E

Final CGCD

**COMPETENCIES OF GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS (CGCD)**

**Instructions:** After synthesizing your comments and recommendations from the first part of the validation process, a new list of golf management competency statements has been produced. The second part of this validation process includes two purposes. First, to reduce the length of the survey, please mark off the statements you find to be unimportant. Second, please rate each statement using the four point Likert scale.

Please read each statement carefully and check the number that best indicates your rating of the importance of that job task for a director of golf operations. Use the following scale:

- Key : 1 = Unimportant (**U**)  
 2 = Somewhat Important (**SI**)  
 3 = Very Important (**VI**)  
 4 = Critically Important (**CI**)

**PART ONE: COMPETENCIES**

<b>BUSINESS PROCEDURES</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Apply basic accounting principles	1	2	3	4
Identify sources of revenue and expenditure for the budget	1	2	3	4
Prepare and defend a budget proposal	1	2	3	4
Monitor the budget	1	2	3	4
Apply sport economics principles	1	2	3	4
Utilize basic bookkeeping procedures	1	2	3	4
Apply established purchasing policies and procedures	1	2	3	4
Prepare financial reports	1	2	3	4
Maintain payroll information for personnel	1	2	3	4
Implement marketing techniques	1	2	3	4
Implement legal framework for fiscal management	1	2	3	4
Maintain records of operational costs	1	2	3	4

<b>COMMUNICATIONS/PUBLIC RELATIONS</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Use good written and verbal communication skills	1	2	3	4
Initiate interaction with other agencies, clubs, and golf courses	1	2	3	4
Promote harmony among personnel	1	2	3	4

Maintain effective communications with staff	1	2	3	4
Utilize presentation aids	1	2	3	4
Consult club/golf course staff and members/customers	1	2	3	4

<b>COMPUTER SKILLS</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Develop a sound public relations plan	1	2	3	4
Maintain good public relations with constituents	1	2	3	4
Utilize computer operating system (e.g., Windows, Mac OS, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Utilize computer software for word processing, spreadsheet, presentation, etc.	1	2	3	4
Utilize customized computer software programs for such purposes as scheduling, reservations, registration, etc.	1	2	3	4
Utilize computer technologies as electronic mail, Internet, etc.	1	2	3	4
Utilize data bases as an information tool to assist in decision making	1	2	3	4

<b>FACILITIES/EQUIPMENT MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Administer a facility reservation system and an equipment lease and purchase system	1	2	3	4
Conduct routine inspections of facilities and equipment	1	2	3	4
Implement system for inventory of equipment and supplies	1	2	3	4
Develop appropriate means of storing equipment and supplies	1	2	3	4
Develop planning schedules for facility maintenance	1	2	3	4
Provide input into strategic planning for facility development	1	2	3	4
Design strategies/policies to prevent misuse of facilities and equipment	1	2	3	4

<b>GOVERNANCE</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Utilize procedures to regulate the conduct of customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Handle disciplinary action, accidents, game protests, and eligibility status reports	1	2	3	4
Establish eligibility guidelines for customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Use sound procedures for settling protests	1	2	3	4
Prepare written documentation of protests	1	2	3	4
Supervise governing or appeal board	1	2	3	4

Develop policy	1	2	3	4
Establish procedures reflecting fair treatment of both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of both basic business and sport laws and other important legal matters	1	2	3	4

<b>LEGALITY/RISK MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Write and process contractual agreements for both staff and customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4
Understand and implement appropriate legislation that applies to golf	1	2	3	4
Establish a safety program to prevent injuries and accidents	1	2	3	4
Coordinate training for staff on legal and safety issues (e.g., first aid training, CPR training, ADA, OSHA, etc)	1	2	3	4
Exercise effective decision making in dealing with accidents	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of specific inherent risks of golf	1	2	3	4

<b>MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Utilize effective office procedures to handle registrations, reports, notices, etc.	1	2	3	4
Conduct meetings with professional staff	1	2	3	4
Implement planning strategies for programs (e.g., tournaments, special events, group lessons, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Prepare and review informational reports	1	2	3	4
Recruit, interview, hire and train full-time/part-time staff	1	2	3	4
Evaluate staff for career development	1	2	3	4
Utilize effective problem-solving skills	1	2	3	4
Prepare organizational guidelines for staffing and programming	1	2	3	4
Establish standard of performance for program operation	1	2	3	4
Schedule staff for work	1	2	3	4
Utilize effective time management techniques	1	2	3	4
Motivate staff	1	2	3	4
Communicate performance expectations with staff in a written job description	1	2	3	4

<b>RESEARCH/EVALUATION</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Develop a sound program evaluation plan	1	2	3	4
Analyze and evaluate various golf programs using appropriate statistics	1	2	3	4
Conduct research for the purpose of club/golf course improvements and development	1	2	3	4
Evaluate the overall performance of club/golf course	1	2	3	4
Evaluate customers', members', and/or golfers' level of satisfaction	1	2	3	4
Prepare publications (e.g.: club news, major journal reports)	1	2	3	4
Apply updated knowledge in golf research to practice	1	2	3	4
Perform SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analyses for the club/golf course	1	2	3	4

<b>PHILOSOPHY/SPORT SCIENCE</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Somewhat Important</b>	<b>Very Important</b>	<b>Critically Important</b>
<b>Rate the importance level for a director of golf operations to be able to...</b>				
Articulate the benefits and values of golf to individuals	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the broad spectrum of recreational sport opportunities	1	2	3	4
Use basic recreational golf terminology	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate adequate golf skills	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate good personal fitness	1	2	3	4
Apply leadership theories applicable to the game of golf and/or the organization	1	2	3	4
Apply theories of cooperative and competitive play	1	2	3	4
Comprehend the effect golf has on increasing/reducing stress	1	2	3	4
Identify aggression patterns of participants	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of human limitations in golf	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of exercise physiology and anatomy	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the sociological and psychological aspects of sport	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between health and golf	1	2	3	4

<b>PROGRAMMING TECHNIQUES/EVENT MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>SI</b>	<b>VI</b>	<b>CI</b>
Implement appropriate golf rules and regulations	1	2	3	4
Implement appropriate system of procurement and	1	2	3	4

evaluation of officials and/or marshals				
Organize clinics for tournament officials and/or marshals	1	2	3	4
Demonstrate an understanding of the organizational and operational aspects of different types of golf programming (e.g. special events, tournaments, group lessons, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Implement sound procedures for scheduling, postponements, rescheduling, and forfeiture of golf games, special events, and tournaments	1	2	3	4
Adapt programs to the special needs of persons with disabilities	1	2	3	4
Develop physical fitness programs	1	2	3	4
Organize golf clinics	1	2	3	4
Encourage customers, members, and/or golfers to assume leadership roles	1	2	3	4
Oversee recruitment of customers, members, and/or golfers	1	2	3	4

## Appendix F

### Correspondence with the Subjects

Dear Golf Professionals:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities.

A considerable number of studies related to sport management competencies have been published, but to date, a study related to golf course directors has not yet been investigated. As a result, I have designed the enclosed questionnaire as an instrument to gather information about the management competencies needed by an individual like yourself who is in charge of the overall golf operation of your facility.

I would like to request your assistance in this study. Your facility has been chosen as part of the sample from the 2005 PGA membership and golf directory list. Your participation is completely voluntary; however, in order to gather a fair impression of how golf directors/head professionals think about management competencies, it is important that the questionnaire be completed at the Website linked below. Your cooperation with the completion of the questionnaire will help ensure that the results of this study are valid.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. You will remain anonymous in the survey. Your responses will be transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet after you click the 'submit' button. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, your information will be used solely for the purposes of this study.

The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete. I would greatly appreciate you taking the few minutes necessary to complete and submit your questionnaire within the next few days.

<http://fp.okstate.edu/lowell/golfsurvey.htm>

Thank you very much for your time and assistance. Should you have any questions, please contact me using the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, Ph.D. Candidate, PGA Apprentice  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [sfduke54@pga.com](mailto:sfduke54@pga.com)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107



Dear Golf Professionals:

Last week, a questionnaire was mailed to you seeking your opinions about management competencies of golf course directors. Your facility was chosen as part of the sample from the 2005 PGA membership and golf directory list.

If you have already completed and submitted the questionnaire, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, I would greatly appreciate you doing so within the next few days. The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete and can be found at the Website linked below. I am especially grateful for your help because I believe that your response will be very useful in determining golf management competencies.

<http://fp.okstate.edu/lowell/golfsurvey.htm>

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. You will remain anonymous in the survey. Your responses will be transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet after you click the 'submit' button. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, your information will be used solely for the purposes of this study.

Thank you very much for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, Ph.D. Candidate, PGA Apprentice  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [paul.choi@okstate.edu](mailto:paul.choi@okstate.edu)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

Dear Golf Professionals:

Recently a questionnaire was mailed to you asking for your participation in a study assessing the management competencies of golf course directors. Your facility was chosen as part of the sample from the 2005 PGA membership and golf directory list. Many participants have been kind enough to help with this important project by submitting in their responses. If you were one of them, this is my way of saying thank you.

In case you have not responded to the survey at this point, I kindly ask you to do so now. In order for the information from the study to be truly representative, it is essential that each person in the sample returns her/his questionnaire. Since this research depends on the thought and input of those currently working in the field of golf operations, I would genuinely appreciate hearing from you.

The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete and can be found at the Website linked below. I am especially grateful for your help because I believe that your response will be very useful in determining golf management competencies.

<http://fp.okstate.edu/lowell/golfsurvey.htm>

You may be assured of complete confidentiality, and you may withdraw from the study at any time. You will remain anonymous in the survey. Your responses will be transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet after you click the 'submit' button. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, your information will be used solely for the purposes of this study, and no reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link any individual or agency to the study.

Thank you very much for your time and assistance. If you have any questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, Ph.D. Candidate, PGA Apprentice  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [paul.choi@okstate.edu](mailto:paul.choi@okstate.edu)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

Dear Golf Professionals:

This email would be a final one to you asking for your participation in a study assessing the management competencies of golf course directors. Many participants have been kind enough to help with this important project by submitting in their responses. If you were one of them, this is my way of saying thank you.

In case you have not responded to the survey at this point, I kindly ask you to do so now. In order for the information from the study to be truly representative, it is essential that each person in the sample returns her/his questionnaire. Since this research depends on the thought and input of those currently working in the field of golf operations, I would genuinely appreciate hearing from you.

The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete and can be found at the Website linked below. I am especially grateful for your help because I believe that your response will be very useful in determining golf management competencies.

<http://fp.okstate.edu/lowell/golfsurvey.htm>

You may be assured of complete confidentiality, and you may withdraw from the study at any time. You will remain anonymous in the survey. Your responses will be transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet after you click the 'submit' button. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, your information will be used solely for the purposes of this study, and no reference will be made in oral or written reports which could link any individual or agency to the study.

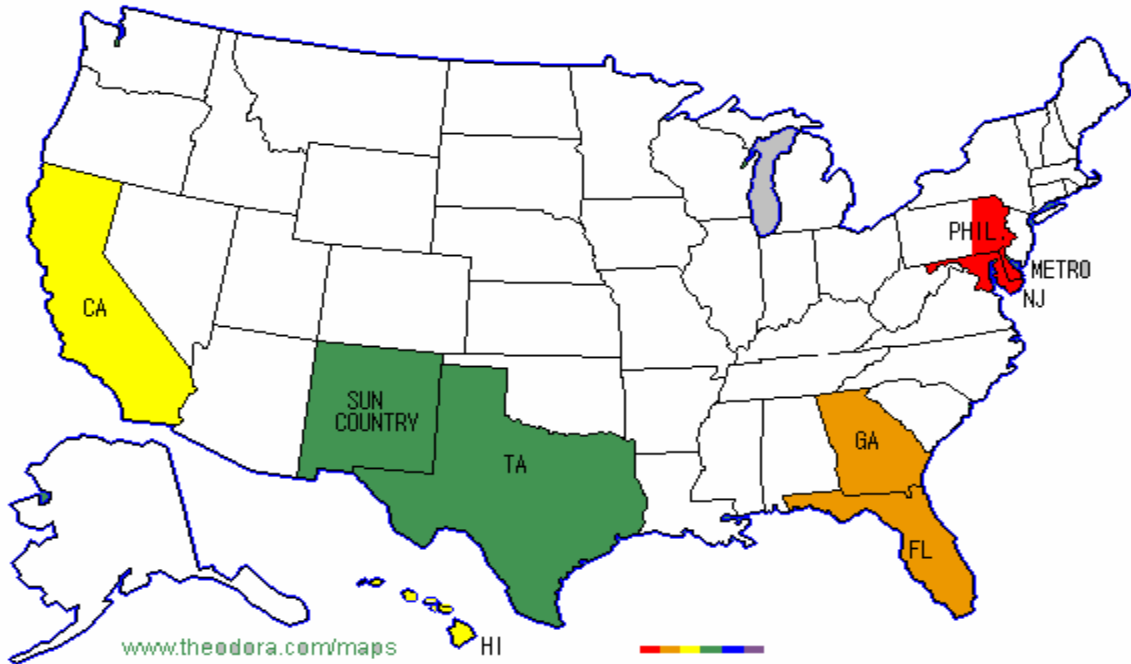
Thank you very much for your time and assistance. If you have any questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, Ph.D. Candidate, PGA Apprentice  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [paul.choi@okstate.edu](mailto:paul.choi@okstate.edu)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

## Appendix G

### Map for Selected Regions



Legend: District 2: Metropolitan, New Jersey, and Philadelphia

District 11: California and Hawaii

District 12: New Mexico and Texas

District 13: Florida and Georgia

## Appendix H

### Institutional Review Board Approval

#### Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Wednesday, April 27, 2005  
IRB Application No ED05103  
Proposal Title: Management Competencies of Golf Course Directors

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

**Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 4/26/2006**

Principal Investigator(s)

Hong Suk (Paul) Choi ✓  
117 Colvin Center  
Stillwater, OK 74075

Lowell Caneday  
180 Colvin Center  
Stillwater, OK 74075

---

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

✓ The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

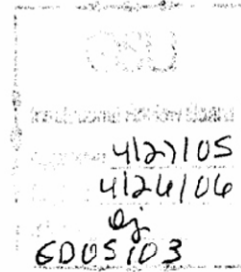
Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, emct@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Sue C. Jacobs, Chair  
Institutional Review Board

[Recipient Name]  
[Title][Company Name]  
[Street Address]  
[City, ST ZIP Code]



Dear [Recipient Name]:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities in the United States.

Since you are an expert in the golf industry, I would like to receive your input related to the competencies needed by golf course directors/head professionals. This survey has two parts. First, you will receive a survey in which I ask that you review all the competency statements and make any necessary changes about the wordings, grammar, etc.; add, delete, move, or combine any competency statements you consider necessary, and provide any further comments in the space provided. After completing the first survey, a second survey will be sent. For this survey, you will be requested to score the importance of each statement by circling the number that best indicates the importance you place on the competency using a five point likert scale (e.g., 1: Very Unimportant, 3: Unsure or Undecided, 5: Very Important).

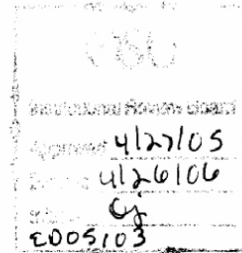
Because of time constraints, I would appreciate receiving your first feedback by April 22, 2005. Your feedback will help establish competencies needed for future golf professionals, and it may be used to establish the curricular criteria for Professional Golf Management (PGM) programs as well as the Golf Professional Training Program (GTP) from the PGA. The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete, and I would greatly appreciate you taking the few minutes necessary to complete and return the questionnaire by April 22, 2005.

Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, PGA Apprentice, Ph.D. Candidate  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater

If at any time you have questions regarding the study or procedures, you may contact the researcher, Paul Choi, at Oklahoma State University, 807 North Ramsey St. Stillwater, OK 74075, or (405) 269-2107. If you feel you have not been treated according to the description in this letter or your rights as a participant in the research have been violated, you may contact the Office for Human Subjects Committee, 415 Whitehurst, OSU, Stillwater, OK 74078, (405) 744-1676.



Dear Golf Professionals:

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in Stillwater, and I have been a PGA apprentice at the Los Altos Golf Course in Albuquerque, New Mexico since September 1, 2000. As a part of my doctoral degree work, I am conducting a study of golf management competencies at PGA recognized golf facilities.

A considerable number of studies related to sport management competencies have been published, but to date, a study related to golf course directors has not yet been investigated. As a result, I have designed the enclosed questionnaire as an instrument to gather information about the management competencies needed by an individual like yourself who is in charge of the overall golf operation of your facility.

I would like to request your assistance in this study. Your facility has been chosen as part of the sample from the 2005 PGA membership and golf directory list. Your participation is completely voluntary; however, in order to gather a fair impression of how golf directors/head professionals think about management competencies, it is important that the questionnaire be completed at the Website linked below. Your cooperation with the completion of the questionnaire will help ensure that the results of this study are valid.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. You will remain anonymous in the survey. Your responses will be transferred into a Microsoft Excel Sheet after you click the 'submit' button. The responses will be numbered and will not be personally recognizable. In addition, your information will be used solely for the purposes of this study.

The questionnaire will only take about 15 minutes to complete. I would greatly appreciate you taking the few minutes necessary to complete and submit your questionnaire within the next few days.

<http://fp.okstate.edu/lowell/golfsurvey.htm>

Thank you very much for your time and assistance. Should you have any questions, please contact me using the information below.

Sincerely,

Paul Choi, Ph.D. Candidate, PGA Apprentice  
School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology  
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater  
Email: [sfduke54@pga.com](mailto:sfduke54@pga.com)  
Telephone: 405-269-2107

## VITA

Hong Suk (Paul) Choi

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES OF GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS

Major Field: Health, Leisure, and Human Performance

### Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Seoul, Korea, On October 14, 1967.

Education: Graduated from Young-Dong High School, Seoul, Korea in February 1986; received Bachelor of Arts degree in Physical Education from Yon Sei University, Seoul, Korea in February 1992; received Master of Science degree in Sport Management from United States Sports Academy in May 1995, respectively. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Health, Leisure, and Human Performance at Oklahoma State University in December 2005.

Experience: Raised in Seoul, Korea, employed as a ski instructor at Aurora Valley Ski Resort in SuAnBo, Korea during 1991 to 1992; employed as a reporter and marketing manager at Korean-American Radio in San Francisco, CA during 1999 to 2000; employed as a golf teaching professional at Los Altos Golf Course from 2001 to present; employed by Oklahoma State University, School of Applied Health and Educational Psychology as a graduate teaching associate, Fall, 2002 to Spring, 2005.

Professional Memberships: National Recreation and Park Association, The Professional Golfers' Association of America.



Name: Hong Suk (Paul) Choi

Date of Degree: December, 2005

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES OF GOLF COURSE DIRECTORS

Pages in Study: 260

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Health, Leisure, and Human Performance

Scope and Method of Study: The purpose of this study was: (1) to identify differences in response toward the importance of management competencies among golf course directors who held PGA membership in diverse regions of the United States; (2) to identify the differences in the perceived importance of management competencies among PGA golf professionals in disparate types of golf courses (private, semi-private, and public) in the United States; (3) to determine if there was consistency among PGA golf professionals as to preferred competencies for golf course directors; and (4) to discover the importance of needed competencies identified in the PGA professionals' analysis for golf course directors in private, semi-private, and public golf courses in the United States.

Findings and Conclusions: The perceived importance of the management competencies among PGA golf directors at disparate types of golf courses in diverse regions was tested using the Competencies of Golf Course Directors (CGCD) instrument. Statistical analyses indicated that the importance of preferred management competencies differed among golf course directors in diverse golf environments. Some differences were shown to exist between golf course directors in diverse regions and in disparate types of golf courses. Therefore, there was little consistency in the perceived importance of each competency among golf course directors. Competency factors identified by golf course directors indicated the presence of a 2-factor competency model, which consisted of 76 observed competencies including (1) Golf Operations and (2) Client Care Development. Overall response rate for this study was low (10.3 percent) compared to other online surveys. However, the CGCD explained 36.5 percent of variance in the response group.

Advisor's Approval: \_\_\_\_\_ Lowell Caneday \_\_\_\_\_