DYNAMICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN PROFESSIONAL BASEBALL ORGANIZATIONS: A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON

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The sport industry is rapidly growing and becoming more diverse in providing and producing sport products as well as services with increasing global interest. According to Pitts and Stotlar (2002), the sport industry is one of the largest industries in the United States. Growth rates in the global sport industry are also increasing. For instance, PricewaterhouseCooper (PwC’s) Entertainment and Media Practice reported that sport product consumption in the United States, Europe, Asia, Latin America, and Canada will increase from $74.6 billion in 2003 to $102.5 billion in 2008 (Farre, 2004).

Specific to the sport of baseball, total revenue from all Major League Baseball (MLB) teams in the U.S. was approximately $2.8 billion in 2002 (Howard & Crompton, 2004). In American Triple-A Minor League baseball, revenues were estimated at $3.1 million in 2001 (Horrow, 2002). It has also been estimated that 62 percent of Americans call themselves “Major League Baseball (MLB) fans” (John, 1998). Baseball has experienced growth and has become very popular as a spectator sport with special interest in the United States, Japan, Taiwan, South Korea and Latin America. In South Korea, for example, baseball has been estimated to be a $17.2 million industry in U.S. dollars (Korea Sports Industry Network, 2002). Thus, professional baseball leagues are becoming almost universal, and baseball is considered by some as an “international pastime” in the 21st Century (Vass, 2003). This steady growth and global interest has also presented challenges including internal integration, information technology, globalization, and commercialization in managing professional baseball organizations. Moreover, many sport organizations are faced with problematic issues, such as poor internal or external communication, lack of job stability, conflicts in decision-making processes, and misunderstanding of organizational goals or strategic directions (Slack, 2006). The importance of organizational culture in sport management has gained a lot of attention in literature, as evidenced by a number of different studies (Colyer, 2000; Doherty & Chel-
More specifically, studies have found that understanding and managing organizational culture leads to enhanced organizational performance, affecting the long-term success of the organizations (Arnold & Capella, 1985; Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Several researchers have also identified that organizational culture affects an organization's ability to perform, and that culture has an important relationship with and contributes to organizational effectiveness (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991). In addition, it has been demonstrated through empirical research addressing the importance of organizational culture to enhance organizational performance (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). For example, Amis, Slack and Hinings (2004) pointed out that within the sport industry, technological advancement and greater competition in the market place have forced most sport organizations to change internal and external environments in order to contribute to organizational goals and business objectives. To effectively deal with these new challenges, sport managers or administrators should be prepared to better understand and analyze the various phenomena of organizational culture.

Despite the importance of organizational culture in managing a sport organization, there has been little effort to analyze specific dimensions and factors of organizational culture within sport organizations, and no single instrument or questionnaire to measure variables has been utilized. Furthermore, although these studies have demonstrated the importance of organizational culture, more studies are needed to broaden our understanding of organizational culture specific to the variety of its outcomes. For example, there has been little effort to investigate cultural factors such as cultural type, strength, and congruence influencing organizational effectiveness as well as long-term success. Consequently, a better understanding of the multiple dimensions and types of organizational culture can be an effective way to develop an organization and enhance its performance.

Another important area of research appears to include cross-cultural examination of sports organizations. The sport industry is fast becoming a global market, thus cross-cultural research in the field of sport management can help to identify the universality and uniqueness of organizational culture among various sports across nations. Also, it is typical for organizations to want to compare, contrast and even copy the strategies of other successful organizations. In other words, comparing dimensions of organizational cultures in similar sport organizations across nations may provide information useful for determining what types of cultures are most effective and what cultural, organizational and/or industry variables may be contributing to that effectiveness in a global environment.

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THE COMPETING VALUES FRAMEWORK (CVF)

Delobbe, Haccoun, and Vandenberghe (2000) recently proposed that understanding organizational culture is one of the greatest theoretical tools for organization development. In theoretical perspectives, organizational culture refers to a complex and deep aspect of an organization that can strongly affect organizational members (Champoux, 1996). In addition, Schein (1992) stated that organizational culture is defined as widely shared values and assumptions that are deeply rooted in an organization. Likewise, Zammuto and Krakower (1991) defined organizational culture as the patterns of values and ideas in an organization that shape human behavior.

Therefore, the type, dynamic pattern, and strength of organizational culture are considered significant dimensions for study in order to precisely measure cultural values, in turn, allowing various organizations to facilitate internal integration and external adaptation. However, it has been argued that there is no one correct framework to determine the dimensions of organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). The most appropriate framework for any organizational culture study should be based on empirical evidence, should accurately capture the reality being described, and should be able to integrate and organize most of the dimensions of organizational culture being proposed.

One such framework, selected for this study, is the Competing Values Framework (CVF) originally proposed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981). Likewise, the CVF is capable of meeting both the

![Diagram of the Competing Values Framework](image)

Figure 1. The Competing Values Framework: Cameron & Quinn (1999).
Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture Based on the Competing Values Framework. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc. p. 32.
advantages of qualitative and quantitative cultural studies. The CVF has been widely used to investigate organizational culture in many different areas such as business, education, and government (Colyer, 2000). According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), the CVF has been identified as one of the fifty most important models in management science and considered a useful tool in helping organizations study the change needed to reach a desired quality culture.

The CVF was originally developed to specify the dimensions of organizational effectiveness as well as organizational culture and has been used to study many organizational aspects such as leadership roles and effectiveness, organizational culture, change, development and human resource management (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Based on the framework, Quinn and McGrath (1990) developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) utilized to identify the organizational culture profile based on the core cultural values, assumptions, interpretations, and approaches that characterize organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

Using the CVF, researchers may identify whether an organization has a predominant internal or external focus and whether it strives for flexibility and individuality or stability and control. Together these two characteristics create four quadrants, each representing a distinct set of cultural values indicators (see Figure 1). These four dominant cultural values such as clan, adhocracy, market, and hierarchical making the CVF are also based on six organizational culture attributes including dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success.

The upper left quadrant is referred to as the clan culture, the upper right the adhocracy culture, the lower right the market culture, and the lower left the hierarchy culture. The clan culture in upper the left quadrant of Figure 1 is primarily concerned with human relations. This culture emphasizes flexibility and maintains a primary focus on the group culture for group maintenance. The clan culture emphasizes trust and participation as core values and the primary motivational factors of attainment, cohesiveness, and membership. Leaders tend to be participative, considerate, and supportive, and they facilitate interaction through teamwork. Second, the adhocracy culture in the upper right quadrant of Figure 1 also focuses on flexibility and change, but maintains a primary focus on the external environment. In this culture, leaders also concentrate on acquiring additional resources, and on attaining visibility, legitimacy, and external support. This orientation emphasizes growth, stimulation, creativity, and variety. Third, the market culture in the lower right quadrant emphasizes productivity, performance, goal fulfillment, and achievement. The purpose of organizations with emphasis on the market culture tends to be the pursuit and attain-
ment of well-defined objectives. Motivating factors include competition and the successful achievement of predetermined ends. Leaders tend to be directive, goal oriented, instrumental, functional, and are constantly providing structure and encouraging productivity. Finally, the hierarchy culture in the lower left quadrant emphasizes internal efficiency, uniformity, coordination, and evaluation. The focus is on the logic of the internal organization and the emphasis is on stability. The purpose of organizations with emphasis on the hierarchy culture tends to be the execution of regulations. Motivating factors include security, order, rules, and regulation. Leaders tend to be conservative and cautious, paying close attention to technical matters (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

One of the most important applications of the CVF is as a guide for change. Cameron and Quinn (1999) noticed that some organizations were more effective if they demonstrated flexibility and adaptability, while other organizations were more effective when they demonstrated stability and control. Cameron (1983) also mentioned that each cultural type in the CVF has different emphases and characteristics considered as multiple outcomes. Therefore, outcomes, values, or emphases in four major cultural types (clan, adhocracy, hierarchical, and market) should be precisely and effectively pursued.

Cameron and Ettington (1988) investigated relationships between organizational culture strength and certain components of educational effectiveness using a sample of 334 American colleges and universities. Their findings showed that "cultural type" is a good predictor of organizational effectiveness. For example, a clan culture was found to be better for increasing organizational members' satisfaction, and enhancing organizational development. An adhocracy culture was found to be better at external adaptation, while a market culture was better for obtaining resources. Thus, the CVF makes it clear that achieving valued outcomes in each cultural type is crucial for long term organizational effectiveness. Consequently, exploring and measuring cultural types, strengths, and perceptions based on the CVF (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981) within sport organizations may provide valuable guidance to sport managers or administrators for change.

**PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The general focus of this study was to describe the types and patterns of organizational culture within a purposive sample of professional baseball organizations in two separate countries using the CVF. For the purpose of the present study, the Triple-A Baseball (TAB) in the United States and the Korean Professional Baseball League (KPBL) were selected. It was determined that there were at least two practical reasons to compare these two different professional baseball leagues. First, the TAB has been identified as a good model for the development of the KPBL. Second, comparing cultural types in the two leagues provides an opportunity to ex-
amine the different cultural context of the two countries and its contribution to organizational development in the leagues.

The primary purposes of the present study were: (a) to investigate the cultural strength and type of organizations within each league, (b) to determine if there are differences in perceptions of cultural strength across the four cultural types “within” the collective sample from each country; (c) to determine if there are differences in perceptions of cultural strength across the four cultural types “between” the collective samples from each country.

**Methodology**

**Participants**

Survey methodology was used as the means of data collection for this study. Ten organizations were selected from the TAB and seven from the KPBL. The criteria for selection included organizational size (in terms of number of full time employees), winning percentage, and geographic location. These criteria were selected in order for the organizations to be as representative as possible of both leagues. A total number of 585 surveys were sent to potential participants. The participants from selected organizations in this study were full-time administrative and staff employees that had at least one year experience with their respective clubs. A total of 271 questionnaires from ten organizations in the TAB and seven organizations in the KPBL were received with an overall response rate of 46.32%. Only 265 completed questionnaires (n = 132 from U.S.; n = 133 from S. Korea) were included in data analyses after eliminating six questionnaires that were completed by respondents with less than one year experience with their organization. Of the 265 respondents in the study, 76.2% were male and 23.8% were female from both leagues. The largest groups in the distribution were managers (43.2%) while the smallest group was general managers (1.5%) in the TAB, whereas the largest group was staff (80.5) in the KPBL. The years of employment with the organizations ranged from 12 to 324 months (M =62.54, SD = 61.29) and the average years of employment was 62 months after eliminating the respondents (n = 3) who had less than 12 months experience with their organizations (see Table 1). A portion of the data collected for this study was previously used for a preliminary research inquiry to describe dominant cultural type in Triple-A baseball organizations in the United States (see Choi & Scott, 200).

**Instruments**

The Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI, Cameron & Quinn, 1999) was used to measure organizational culture of each club. The OCAI consists of four major cultural types (clan, market, adhocracy, and hierarchical). The questionnaire includes 24 items divided into four subscales, which represents the four types of culture. Each subscale has six items that
address employee perceptions of core cultural elements, such as dominant cultural type, leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphases, and criteria of success.

A reliability analysis was conducted to investigate the internal consistency of the survey instrument used in this study. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were calculated to examine the reliability of the scales. In order to obtain an accurate reliability coefficient, two separate reliability coefficients were reported for two independent sample sets. The results from the reliability analysis including intercorrelations for the four cultural types for both versions of the instrument were reported as follows. The reliability coefficient alpha for the English version of the OCAI ranged from .77 to .84 while the Korean version of the same measure, from .76 to .85. The reliability analysis indicated that the deletion of items would not substantially increase the value of Cronbach’s alpha for both versions of the instrument. According to the results of correlation analysis, there was a strong relationship \( r (132) = .724, p < .001, \) English & \( r (133) = .838, p < .001, \) Korean) between clan and adhocracy cultures in the two versions of the instrument.
In order to address instrument purification in this study, the questionnaire was submitted to a panel of three academicians called "American Experts" who are recognized authorities in sport management studies. The American experts consisted of three faculty members in the sport management programs at institutions of higher education in the United States. The American experts evaluated each item based on the underlying construct. Moreover, a Korean version of the instrument was submitted to a panel of three Korean academicians, called "Korean Experts," who assisted in the translation of the questionnaire into Korean. The Korean experts were professors in sport management programs at different universities recognized by the Korean Society of Sport Management.

One of the major concerns in cross-cultural survey research is whether the questionnaires in two different languages are equivalent (Usunier, 1998). In order to identify probable translation error, a back-translation technique was employed. Back translation was conducted by three individuals (the author and two doctoral students) who were fluent in both Korean and English. The researcher and one back-translator independently translated the instrument from English to Korean. After translating the items, a meeting was held to evaluate the outcomes of the preliminary translation. The translated items were compared and corrected after discussing discrepancies between two translators. The translated and modified items were then back-translated into English by a Korean doctoral student specializing in bilingual education. This back-translator compared the original English items and the back-translated English items to determine whether the translation was performed appropriately. To prevent any bias during the back translation process, a second doctoral student who did not participate in the previous translation was selected for this task. Cultural strength and type were measured by the English and Korean versions of the OCAI with 6-point Likert scale. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with each statement, using a six-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 6 ("strongly agree").

Procedures

After completing the validation of the translated version of the OCAI, the survey packets including the OCAI were mailed to purposively selected professional baseball organizations from the KPBL and the TAB to examine organizational members' perception of their organizational culture. A survey packet was directly mailed to the general managers of the respective organization for distribution to employees. Each respondent also received an addressed return envelope so that the completed questionnaire could be sent directly back to the researcher. Finally, the questionnaires were completed with pen and pencil method.
Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS, version 15.0) was used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics were employed to examine the means and standard deviations of cultural strength across four cultural types in the study. Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (RM-ANOVA) with within-subject design was used to investigate differences in cultural strengths across four cultural types within the leagues. In addition, paired t-tests were conducted to determine differences in cultural strength in each of the four cultural types between professional baseball leagues in the U.S. and in South Korea. All tests for statistical significance were performed at alpha level 0.05.

RESULTS

The unit of data analysis for examining organizational culture within each baseball club was the collective responses from individual organizational members sampled from each selected professional baseball organization.

Cultural Strength of Baseball Organizations in the TAB and the KPBL

The degree of cultural strength was scored by the number of points awarded to a specific cultural type. Table 2 and 3 present the cultural strength of each cultural type within the TAB and the KPBL. The TAB had the highest mean score ($M = 4.35$) of cultural strength in the market culture followed by the clan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviation of Each Cultural Type within the Triple-A Baseball ($n = 132$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. The range of mean scale = 1 to 6*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Mean and Standard Deviation of Each Cultural Type within the Korean Baseball League ($n = 133$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. The range of mean scale = 1 to 6*
Table 4
Repeated Measures RM-ANOVA of Cultural Types within the Triple-A Baseball

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$\omega^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Types</td>
<td>16.738</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.579</td>
<td>17.450**</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blocks</td>
<td>180.581</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>1.378</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>125.658</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>322.977</td>
<td>527</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ** $p < .001$

culture ($M = 4.29$). According to the results of this study, while there is evidence of reasonable balance in the four cultural types, overall the TAB appeared to place more value in the market and clan cultures. This result also indicates that both leagues have cultural balance across the four cultural types.

Among four cultural types, the market culture also showed the highest mean score ($M = 4.15$) of cultural strength of each cultural type within the KPBL, followed by the hierarchical culture ($M = 4.03$). According to the results of this study, the KPBL overall placed slightly higher value on the market and hierarchical culture than the other cultural types.

Differences in the Four-Cultural Types within the TAB

Repeated measures Analysis of Variance (RM-ANOVA) was also conducted to examine the differences of cultural strength across the four types of organizational culture with the selected organizations from the KPBL. In this study, an investigation of cultural types suggests that the organizations within the KPBL place more emphasis on the market culture in terms of external environment, central structure or goal orientation and the hierarchy culture which focuses on internal control, regulation and policy. The result of repeated measures ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences in cultural

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Table 5
Repeated Measures RM-ANOVA of Cultural Types
within the Korean Professional Baseball League

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>w^2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Types</td>
<td>5.336</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.779</td>
<td>8.020**</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blocks</td>
<td>265.032</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>2.008</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>87.824</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>358.192</td>
<td>531</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ** p < .001

Table 6
T-Test of Cultural Strength by League

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Types</th>
<th>League</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clan</td>
<td>KPBL</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>3.9185</td>
<td>.10290</td>
<td>-.3638**</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TAB</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>4.2929</td>
<td>.10285</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adhocracy</td>
<td>KPBL</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>3.9048</td>
<td>.09704</td>
<td>-.578</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TAB</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.9609</td>
<td>.09699</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>KPBL</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>4.1529</td>
<td>.09325</td>
<td>-2.057</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TAB</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>4.3447</td>
<td>.09325</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical</td>
<td>KPBL</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>4.0326</td>
<td>.09554</td>
<td>.671</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TAB</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.9684</td>
<td>.09553</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ** p < .001

strength across culture types (F (3, 1.779) = 8.02, p < .05) within the KPBL, accounting for 3.9% of the variance using \( w^2 \). The results of post-hoc tests using Tukey’s HSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences (p < .05) in two comparisons of cultural types: the clan versus the market and the adhocracy versus the market culture (see Table 5).

Cultural Differences between the KPBL and the TAB

Finally, the cultural strength of each cultural type between the KPBL and the TAB was compared. The overall cultural strength of four-cultural types within the TAB was higher than the KPBL. As seen in Table 6, the results indicated that the TAB has a stronger emphasis on the market and clan cultures evidenced by the higher scores in these quadrants while the
Figure 2. Comparison of Organizational Culture between the Korean Professional Baseball League and the Triple-A Baseball based on the Competing Values Framework.

KPBL focuses on the market and clan cultures. However, the TAB places less emphasis on the hierarchy culture than the KPBL. The results of the independent sample *t*-test with Bonerroni's correction (α = 0.0125) revealed a significant difference in the clan culture (*t* (263) = -3.91, *p* < .05) between the KPBL (M =3.9185, SD = .103) and TAB (M = 4.2929, SD = .103). The results of league comparison in cultural strength of each cultural type are shown in Figure 2. According to these results, the TAB could be described as a stronger culture than the KPBL for a market and people oriented culture (see Figure 2). Interestingly, both leagues had the highest scores on the market culture.

**DISCUSSION**

The primary purpose of this study was to describe and compare the types and patterns of organizational culture within a purposive sample of two professional baseball organizations in two separate countries using the CVF (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981).

**Implications of Cultural Strength in Professional Baseball Organizations**

In this study, organizations of both the TAB and the KPBL demonstrated evidence of cultural strength across the four types of culture with mean scores ranging from 3.9 to 4.2 on a 6-point scale. This indicates that cultural balance has been achieved by these organi-
zations, however based on recommendations from previous research (Colyer, 2000), it is advisable that each club focus on strengthening all of the four cultural types described in this study. While there were slight differences in employees' perceptions of the organizational culture from representative organizations in the two leagues, the study determined that the market and clan cultures were perceived to be stronger in the TAB. This finding indicates that organizations in the TAB may have an edge over organizations in the KPBL in achieving goals related to fan identification and/or corporate sponsorship and developing a sense of unity and extended family among staff. According to Cameron and Freeman (1991), previous research in organizational culture study has revealed that strong cultures are associated with homogeneity of effort, clear focus, and higher performance in environments where unity and common vision are required. They also mentioned that strong culture is more effective to deal with new environments or change than weak culture. Arnold and Capella (1985) pointed out that strong cultures that are externally oriented are more successful in turbulent, competitive environments than weak, internally oriented cultures. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), each cultural value of the CVF should be considered as an important contributing factor which influences an organization in achieving its goals. Thus, the balance of cultural strength across the four cultural types is also an important measure of organizational effectiveness and how well organizations accept or adjust to their environments in a marketplace.

All organizations within the two professional baseball leagues demonstrated evidence of reasonable balance in all four cultural types, while none of the organizations were characterized by only one dominant cultural type. What appears to need further investigation, however, is the finding that organizations in the TAB generally place more emphasis in the clan and market cultures than in the adhocracy and hierarchy cultures. Organizations in the KPBL appear to emphasize the market and hierarchical cultures over the clan and adhocracy cultures. Future research could examine what factors, if any, contribute to these differences and if they have an impact on overall effectiveness. Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggested that no single type of culture is best in all environmental conditions, and that a match must exist between culture and environment. In addition, Colyer (2000) argued that a strong dominant culture may not always be desirable. For example, a strong one-dimensional culture could result in individuals placing unconstrained demands on themselves, as well as acting as a barrier to adaptation and change. Studies profiling these cultural types in organizations have shown that organizations usually contain characteristics of more than one type. Moreover, it has been recommended that working toward a greater balance of the four competing cultural values is important in maintaining organizational effectiveness (Colyer, 2000). This means that each cultural value is
equally important for the long-term development of an organization. There is other significant evidence to support the assumption of the CVF.

Cultural Differences within Professional Baseball Organizations in Each League

In order to determine the differences in cultural types within each league, the relative ratings of each organization on the four cultural types were used. In measuring the difference in the cultural strength of each cultural type within each league, the TAB was characterized as externally oriented with internal flexibility and discretion in terms of "market and clan culture," while the KPBL emphasized external orientation with internal control and stability regarding the market and hierarchy culture. These findings suggest that the social business environment in the TAB may be different from how the KPBL is operated. According to Kim (2004), most public organizations in South Korea are characterized by the hierarchical culture as a dominant culture type. Choi (2005) also reported that Korean business and public organizations have strong cultural emphases on both the market and hierarchical cultures. The findings of these researchers support the results from the present study showing that professional baseball leagues in South Korea appear to be operated with similar cultural values as other business organizations in the country.

In order to better interpret the cultural balance and strength in the four cultural types for the professional baseball leagues included in this study, comparative research in other organizations is likely needed. This may result in benchmark measures against which the outcomes of this study can be judged. Zammuto and Krakower (1991) reported an organizational culture study of 332 four-year colleges and universities in the United States. They reported figures for each of the cultural types, further specified according to the denomination of the institutions, i.e. public, independent or religious. They found that public institutions were characterized by high scores on either the clan or the hierarchy culture. Independent and religious institutions, on the other hand, were best characterized by a strong clan culture. Compared to their findings, the present study shows how professional baseball leagues in two countries, while slightly different from each other in their cultural values, both indicate an emphasis in the market culture. This simply supports that professional baseball clubs are different in their organizational mission as compared to institutions of higher education, and that they emphasize cultural values of profit oriented business organizations.

According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), market culture is neither synonymous with market function nor with consumers in the marketplace. Market culture operates primarily through economic market mechanisms, mainly monetary exchange. That is, the major focus of a market culture is to conduct transactions (exchanges, sales, and contacts) with other constituencies to create
a competitive advantage. Therefore, the core values of the professional baseball leagues in this study appear to be competitiveness and productivity. Figure 2 simply illustrates the cultural differences in the four cultural types between the KPBL and the TAB. However, the cultural differences in the two leagues are minor and there is evidence of reasonable balance across all four types of culture.

This finding is encouraging for baseball organizations in both countries based on recommendations of previous research. For example, according to Colyer (2000), organizations do not fall into one quadrant but contain characteristics of more than one cultural type. Therefore, a balance of competing values is important in maintaining organizational effectiveness. In other words, when an organization wants to change the organizational culture, its members need to be aware of and manage the competing values based on the external and internal environments.

As indicated by Slack (1997), sport organizations operating with stable cultures seek internal support rather than adapting to the external environment. Furthermore, Skinner, Stewart and Edwards (1999) reported that sport organizations tend to enforce traditional roots including vision, story, myth, and symbol rather than being adaptable to changing circumstances. However, the growth of professionalism and increased commercialization in the sport industry can have a significant impact on sport organizations (Scott, 1997). The results of this study suggest that these baseball organizations should review their organizational cultures for the purpose of determining how to enhance their organizational effectiveness. Also, perhaps because of the external pressures to win and the scrutiny of media, and fans, professional baseball organizations tend to adopt control market type cultures that are more responsive to the external environment.

According to Chatman and Jehn (1994), organizations which have high growth rates enforce innovation and flexibility, whereas organizations which have low growth rates focus on stability and control. In professional sport leagues, the gate receipt has been considered one of greatest revenue sources for professional baseball clubs (Howard & Crompton, 1995). The TAB attendance has increased nearly 100% since 1982 while the KPBL attendance has declined since 1995. In the present study, the TAB was characterized by the highest levels of market and people orientation and the KPBL was described by highest levels of market and hierarchically centralized structure. These findings are evidence which supports the above statement by Chatman and Jehn (1994).

Since the TAB was characterized by the market culture along with the clan culture, it may need to put added emphasis on the adhocracy and hierarchy cultures. In the adhocracy culture, the organizations within the TAB should analyze the organizations' key values to encourage more focus on managing external environments in the future. Furthermore, the organizations should explore the use of new technology, espe-
cially information technology, to create new alternatives based on a wider variety of information sources. In the hierarchy, culture, organizations within the TAB should consider developing evaluation systems wherein customer feedback can have immediate impact on organizational practices. Moreover, they need to examine possibilities for establishing more efficiency in inventory control by instituting “just in time” practices. Consequently, the TAB should rely on formal control mechanisms, such as policies and procedures to direct organizational members’ effort.

Since the KPBL was described as demonstrating the strongest evidence of market and hierarchy cultures, the feature of organizational culture for the KPBL should shift more toward flexibility and discretion rather than control and stability. For the clan culture, the organizations in the KPBL need to consider assessing and improving the processes associated with decision-making, communication, and performance. Furthermore, they should provide opportunities to organizational members, from the top to bottom of the organizations, to be involved in aspects of strategic planning as well as the decision-making process. For the adhocracy culture, they may need to move from a hierarchy based structure to a more flexible structure that emphasizes speed and agility and develops visible rewards that recognize the creativity and innovation of employees, teams, and units. The KPBL may need a stronger emphasis on innovation, people orientation and customer services. Thus, organizational members in the KPBL may need to be relied upon to invent new ways of adapting to change and uncertainty.

This study showed that the professional baseball leagues from South Korea and the United States had reasonably balanced perceptions of all four cultural types in the CVF, although there were slight differences in the strength of those cultural dimensions.

**Conclusions**

As previously described, the purpose of this study was to identify cultural type and compare the cultural strength of each cultural type within professional baseball organizations between two separate countries (Korea & U.S.). In this study, an investigation of four cultural types suggests that the organizations within TAB were characterized by the market culture which focuses on external environments, centralized structure and goal achievement, and the clan culture in terms of individual consideration and trust. The KPBL was also described by the market culture which the TAB has illustrated and the hierarchical culture which focuses on internal control, regulation and policy. Overall cultural strength of four-cultural types within the TAB was higher than the KPBL. The results indicated that the TAB has stronger emphasis on the market, clan, and adhocracy, evident by the higher scores in these quadrants. The purpose of the study was also to examine the difference in organizational culture among the four major cultural types within each league. The average
scores for the different culture types of clan, hierarchy, adhocracy and market within each league were not the same. This means that professional baseball organizations in each league have more than one emphasized cultural value that they emphasize and there is a certain degree of balance among the cultural values. This finding supports similar studies (Cameron, 1985; Zammuto & Krackower, 1991; and Cameron & Quinn, 1999) which showed that business organizations cannot be classified by one dominant operating value.

Additionally, it appears that the CVF for analyzing organizational culture can be very applicable to the study and improvement of professional baseball clubs and may apply as well to other sport organizations. The study identified cultural types for both professional baseball leagues. The study should be helpful to managers and administrators who are interested in profiling organizational culture and directing change in professional baseball organizations and perhaps other sport organizations.

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