

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION, AIMS, OBJECTIVES, METHODOLOGY AND OUTLINE OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH PROBLEM

The professionalisation of sport is evident in South African schools that increasingly utilise sport as a business enterprise for attracting sponsors, providing sport bursaries to talented athletes, and to market the school to the broader community. The importance of school sport requires the expertise of competent human resources, of which the sport manager (cf. p. par. 1.2.2, p. 5; 3.1, p. 114; 4.2, p. 202; 4.3, p. 207) seems to be the key driver; yet, academic programmes lack in providing adequate training for such a specialised position. In addressing this need, the purpose of the proposed research is to develop a sport management programme for educator training, according to the diverse needs of schools in South Africa.

Thus, the **problem statement** of this research is: *What are the needs and competencies of school sport managers required for the sport management training of educators, according to the diverse context of South African schools?*

Based on a literature overview, the above-stated research problem is substantiated on the following grounds:

- The diverse needs of schools have made and are still making different demands on the school sport manager, requiring different competencies and approaches (cf. p. par. 1.2.2, p. 5; 3.1, p. 114; 4.2, p. 202; 4.3, p. 207).
- The ever-changing needs and demands of school sport management have created awareness amongst educators of the specialised skills, knowledge and attributes required to manage sport effectively in schools.
- Although a variety of sport management training programmes exist in the South African context, the question arises whether sport management training for educators is in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.
- Scientific information has been identified as insufficient concerning the specialised competencies and requirements for school sport managers.
- Sport management in schools is a relatively new specialist field of study, resulting in uncertainty amongst school sport managers concerning their tasks and responsibilities (cf. par. 4.6.2, p. 250; 4.6.3, p. 251).
- There is a need for in-depth, topic-specific information about the needs and competencies related to school sport management in the diverse South African context.

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- No appropriate instrument is available to measure the extent and prevalence of variables related to school sport management in accordance with the diverse context of South African schools.
- A need has been identified for a sport management programme for educator training in South African schools (cf. par. 1.1, p.1; 1.2.2, p. 5; 1.2.3, p. 7).

A literature overview with regard to school sport management was conducted, in order to substantiate the research problem from the relevant literature.

1.2 THE LITERATURE OVERVIEW

The literature overview is presented in four parts to substantiate the research problem statement. Firstly different concepts are described to clarify their use. The literature review secondly focuses on the role of school sport managers and thirdly on sport management training. Fourthly the literature overview focuses on the issue of school sport. Next concepts of importance to this study are discussed.

1.2.1 Concept clarification

It is important that the different concepts used be properly clarified before proceeding with any further discussion.

1.2.1.1 Sport management

The field of study referred to as sport management has been defined by a variety of different names. Stier (2008:2) argues that the name of the discipline has been the subject of close scrutiny and many debates in its brief history. The discussions and debates are currently continuing.

According to Parkhouse and Pitts (2005:3), sport management is defined as: *“All people, actions, activities, businesses, and organisations involved in regulating, facilitating, promoting, or organising any product that is sport-, fitness- and recreation-related in sport; and sport products can be goods, services, people, places or ideas”*. Parks, Quarterman and Thibault (2007b:7) note that sport management is also the name given to many university-level academic programmes designed to prepare students to assume positions in the sport industry.

Viewed against the above descriptions and based on related explanations by Pitts, Fielding and Miller (1994:18); Trenberth and Collins (1999:16); Gouws (2001:243-253); Parkhouse and Pitts

(2005:3); Chelladurai (2005:22); Pitts and Stotlar (2007:3-4); Parks *et al.* (2007b:6-7) and Stier (2008:2), the term *sport management* is, for the purpose of the current study, regarded as the regulatory actions taken to enable competitive school sport in an organised and structured manner, in addition to offering sport opportunities for mass participation. The school sport manager, therefore, refers to the leader (educator, coach, organiser, official, team manager) who regulates, facilitates, promotes, or organises any activity in school that is sport-, fitness- or recreation-related. The *school sport manager* utilises resources (people, finances, facilities and information) to achieve the goals and objectives of the school. Additionally, school sport managers plan, organise, exercise control, give direction, and evaluate all sport and related activities. In brief then, whilst the concept sport management globally refers to the academic discipline (field of study) related to the the managerial tasks and activities of sport as whole, in the South African context, the school sport manager has a dual purpose. Firstly, to act as an educator (teacher) to teach subject, content specific academic subjects and learning content such as Mathematics and Acciountancy. Secondly, they are responsible to coordinate and undertake different management functions and perform different roles in relation to the management of school sport, coach, manager, etc. (cf. par. 2.2.3.2, p. 33; 2.3.3.4, p. 60; 2.4.1, p. 72; 2.4.5, p. 88; 2.5.2, p. 103; 3.4, p. 140; 3.5, p. 151; 3.6, p. 154; 3.7, p. 198; Table 3, p. 131). Mostly, school sport managers also only hold a professional qualification as educator, specialising (major) in at least two learning areas. They are also required to obtain two language endorsements, an accredited first aid certificate and a certificate related to a sport and to culture is compulsory (cf. Ch. 4; par. 4.5.7, p. 243). It should however be clearly stated, that in contrast to the global perspective that sport management has nothing to do with sport instruction, school sport managers in the South African context and in accordance with the mentioned definition, are fairly common in South African schools, but are seldom referred to as school sport managers, although they perform the roles and duties of a sport manager outlined earlier (cf. also par. 2.2, p. 26; 2.4, p. 70; 2.5, p. 98; 3.4, p. 141; 3.5, p. 151; 3.6, p. 154; 3.7, p. 198. The field of study of school sport management is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4 (cf. par. 4.6.2, p. 250; 4.6.3, p. 251; 4.6.4, p. 276).

1.2.1.2 Programme

The concept of programme has been described by various authors and institutions, often using the concept programme and curriculum interchangeable. A programme, however indicates a list and exposition of subject-specific themes, together with an outline of related learning content (Dictionary. Com, 2013). The Council on Higher Education (2004a:36) regards a programme as a purposeful and structured set of learning experiences which lead to a qualification. Geyser (2006b:142) defines a programme in the South African education system as a purposeful and

coherent combination of units of learning (modules) leading to one or more qualifications. The Further Education and Training Awards Council (2010:1) indicates that a programme is the learning package designed, developed and delivered by a provider to suit specific groups of learners or particular local needs. In addition, a programme provides insight into learning experiences to enable one to reach the standards of knowledge, skills and competence to achieve the award (certificate, diploma, degree etc.). Subsequently, for purposes of this study, in very simple terms, a programme can be viewed as the journey through purposeful and structured sets of learning experiences that leads to a qualification or destination after the set outcomes have been met. A programme includes components as described in more detail in Chapter 7 (cf. par. 7.5, p. 547).

1.2.1.3 Diversity

Literature reveals that most authors tend to classify or group some aspects of diversity in order to illustrate the meaning of diversity. In this regard Wentling (2001:2) and Lumby (2006:152) distinguish between a narrow and broad description of diversity. From this concept elucidation, a narrow description refers to differences such as culture, race, age, gender, religion, disability and many more. A broad description, on the other hand refers, inter alia, to aspects like sexual orientation, lifestyle, educational background, value, status and class. Smit, Cronjé, Brewis and Vrba (2011:275) opine that diversity refers to the mosaic of people who introduce a variety of backgrounds, styles, perspectives, values and beliefs as assets to groups and organisations with which they interact. For the purpose of this research, the focus is mainly on this mosaic or mixture of people characterised by differences and similarities as these manifest in the study population (cf. par. 5.8.1, p. 328; 5.9.2, p. 335).

1.2.1.4 Schools

The South African Schools Act recognises two categories of schools, namely public and independent (private).⁵ Public schools are state controlled and independent schools are privately governed (South Africa, 1996c:148; Steyn *et al.*, 2011:148).⁶ Reference will be made in this context in this study. *Former (Ex) Model C schools* refers to former state-aided public schools, which formerly constituted mainly white learners in which the School Governing Body (SGB) may determine their own admission policy within the legal bounds of the South African Schools Act⁷ and the Constitution of South Africa (Appels *et al.*, 1999:418). Township schools refer to schools in

⁵ Internationally both narrow and broad definitions for private schools are used. Cf. (Kitaev, 1999; Hofmeyr & Lee, 2004). The term independent school has come to replace private in many parts of the world (Hofmeyr & Lee, 2004:144) and is as such used in this study

⁶ For more detail see the South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996, section 46 (x) and Chapter 3 (xii)

⁷ Cf. note 5, above

residential areas of South Africa which originated as racially segregated, low cost-housing developments for black learners, i.e. Africans, Coloureds and Indians (Bond, 2008:406; Mampane & Bouwer, 2011:114). Hence, in relation to this study township schools would refer to any school built on the periphery of towns and cities, often characterised by poverty, crime and violence. Informed by the views of Kingston (1993:162); Clarke (2003:275); Risimati (2007:20) and Hlalele (2012:269-270) for purposes of this study, *rural schools* are schools found in farms, villages and semi-urban areas, remote and mainly infrastructurally underdeveloped.

1.2.1.5 Competencies

When defining the concept competence, Bellis (2001:57) compares defining the meaning of competence with a minefield. He goes on to explain that the word competence is widely used, and there are various definitions of the concept competency. For clarification, some definitions found in the world of education, training and work will be considered, after which a definition of competence will be formulated for use in this study.

To be competent presupposes that individuals should comply to set cognitive (intellectual/knowledge), affective (attitudes) and psychomotor (physical or mind-hand) skills within a specific context or situation. Kleinhans (2005:12) adds that competency comprises behaviours which are instrumental in the delivery of desired results and/outcomes.

Competencies should include all the skills, knowledge, characteristics, attitudes and values in a specific context (school sport management) applied to a defined standard of performance of a particular task. In relation to educator training it would thus also mean that, in order to manage school sport, educators should obtain sport management competencies that are practical, fundamental (theoretical) and reflective in nature.

1.2.2 The role of school sport managers

Sport, through its role in formal and non-formal education not only reinforces human capital in countries all over the world; but it also plays a role in education, health and all spheres of daily life (European Commission, 2007:11; International Sport and Culture Association, 2010:2; Hussain *et al.*, 2011:111). The philosophy conveyed through sport helps to develop knowledge, to build up skills, and to enhance motivation, competition and learning. Sport is an area of human activities that greatly contributes to the interests of the masses and has the potential to bring them together and reach out to all, regardless of age groups, social origin or religious denomination. Sport thus plays a social, cultural and recreational role. The societal role of sport also has the potential to

supplement South Africa's relations with the rest of the world. Given the preceding state of affairs it can thus be derived that school sport managers would play an important role in the education of people. It is thus important to consider the competencies required by a school sport manager.

Recent research has given considerable attention to the competencies of sport managers, both abroad and in South Africa. Research on international level includes, amongst others, that of Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979); Medalha (1982); Montour (1982); Ulrich and Parkhouse (1979; 1982); Paris and Zeigler (1983); Ellard (1984); Parks and Quain (1986); Lambrecht (1987; 1991); Brassie (1989a; 1989b); Kjeldsen (1990; 1992); Cuneen (1992); Baker, Pan, Cox, Cao & Lin (1993); Chen (1993); Cheng (1993); Quarterman (1994; 1998); Kikulus, Slack, and Hinings (1995a; 1995b); Doherty and Danylchuk (1996); Toh (1997); Danylchuk and Chelladurai (1999); Ammon (2000); Li, Ammon and Canters (2002); Horch and Schütte (2003); Skinner, Saunders and Beresford (2004) and Quarterman, Allen and Becker (2005). Exponents like Jamieson, Jennings, Parkhouse, Zeigler, Olafson, Parks, Pitts, Paton, Zakrajsek, Schneider and Stier published divergent research findings about competencies of sport managers and the study field of sport management, especially in the United States of America. Related research on a local level includes the work of Gouws (1993; 1994); Hollander (2000); De Villiers (2003); Hollander, Hollander and Venter (2007); Bloemhoff (2008) and Burger, Goslin, Kluka and Van Wyk (2008). Most studies conducted in countries outside South Africa focused on the competencies of sport managers in clubs and federations, volunteer workers, intercollegiate athletic directors, interuniversity athletic directors, the managerial roles of sport managers and programmes for the training and development of industry related sport managers. However, there is a vacuum in the South African sport management literature regarding the study field of school sport management and competencies of sport managers; specifically a scientific description of the competencies and requirements for the training of school sport managers (cf. par. 3.1, p. 114; 4.6.2, p. 250).

Doherty and Carron (2003:117) highlight the diversity of stakeholders to whom the school sport manager needs to reach out, and the authors mention the challenge to ensure high satisfaction levels of all involved. Consistent pressure is exerted on school sport managers to perform several functions that are critical to the overall success of schools. For example, at one level school sport managers are coaches, officials, team managers, organisers of different sport codes or chairpersons of committees, whose task it is to plan, organise, direct and control the activities of their athletes and people towards achieving the goals of the school. In addition to selecting talented players, the coach is also charged with the responsibility of motivating such players to display peak performance. On another level, school sport managers are predominantly educators.

Sport managers in their role as educators are, from a sociological perspective, required to introduce athletes into knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and thought processes to enhance survival in an increasingly scientific, commercialised and technological society. In their role as educators, school sport managers are required to transmit to athletes a body of knowledge and skills as well as a related set of processes, which may require the school sport manager to assume the role of a counsellor, advisor, trainer, motivator and psychologist, to name but a few (cf. par. 1.2.1.1, p. 2). In sum, globally, sport management is regarded as a profession and sport in schools are taught by specialist coaches, while learners are also exposed to Physical Education (P.E.), taught by subject experts. More specifically in the South African context, the school sport manager has to assume the role of educator, who is required to teach PE as part of Life Orientation, sport instructor and manager who performs different roles and undertake different managerial tasks and as such dispose of different managerial competencies par. (cf. par. 2.2, p. 26; 2.4, p. 70; 2.5, p. 98; 2.6, p. 111; 3.1, p. 114; 3.6.7, p. 179; 4.6.2, p. 250; 4.6.3, p. 251; 4.8, p. 283; 4.9, p. 296; Fig. 2, p. 36; 11, p. 196; 13, p. 252; par. 8.4.1, 605).

1.2.3 Sport management training

In 1957 concerns to provide a graduate programme specifically designed to prepare students and employees for jobs in a variety of sport related industries, were already expressed by the late Walter O' Malley, owner of the Brooklyn (now Los Angeles) Dodgers Baseball Club (Parks *et al.*, 2007b:5). As a result of these concerns expressed by O' Malley, his anticipation of the future growth of organised sport and his prediction for the need of professionally prepared sport managers, a sport management programme was developed. According to Mason, Higgins & Wilkenson (1981:44), the first sport management programme was developed by a collaborated effort of James Mason from Ohio University and Walter O'Malley, and implemented in 1966.

During the 40 years since the inauguration of the Ohio University Masters Sport Management programme in 1966, the preparation of sport managers has seen significant developments (Burger *et al.*, 2008:253; Jones *et al.*, 2008:78; Lambrecht & Kraft, 2009:341). Recently, the content for sport management training has been subjected to lengthy debates, despite the proliferating numbers of sport management programmes. Current sport management programmes are generic and do not necessarily conform to the unique sport management training needs of school sport managers in relation to the diverse needs of South African schools. Consequently topic specific information from education sport authorities and selected academics from higher education institutions (HEIs) about the needs and competencies related to school sport management in the

diverse context of South African schools and education is required to measure the extent of prevalence of these and other variables (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4).

Some critics suggest that sport management training is one-dimensional and too theoretical (Hollander, 2000:10). Furthermore, training decisions are not based on critical reflection (Frisby, 2005:2) or do not account for alternative approaches to the study of sport management and research (Amis & Silk, 2005:361). Sport managers who support Frisby's view, point out that training should be specialised and focused (Skinner & Gilbert, 2007:126). In addition, few studies, monographs or texts relative to sport management go beyond the listing of prescriptive policies and procedures for the provision of sport management training. Baker and Southall (2007:284) question the professional preparation of sport managers and recommend that a more context-specific approach be undertaken, and that the outcomes measures such as job placement rates, alumni evaluation of programme effectiveness, and employer evaluation of graduate competencies be recognised. Some exponents in the study field suggest that the direction for improved professional preparation in sport-related areas lies in a grounded theoretical base and a commitment to scientific programme development (De Villiers & Bitzer, 2004:26; Jones *et al.*, 2008:78). A healthy balance between the theoretical and practical aspects is suggested for programme development (Zeigler, 2007b:301), specifically for the sport management training of educators.

In the South African context, a variety of sport management programmes exist in the training sector (Hollander, 2000:11; De Villiers, 2003:51; Burger *et al.*, 2008:253). Recognising that sport has assumed increasing importance in the South African society, Gouws (1993; 1994) provides a theoretical basis for scientific inquiry which demonstrates the uniqueness of sport management as a new cross-discipline. Gouws, who in 1993 and 1994 first identified the growing demand for well-trained sport managers in South Africa, highlights the importance of developing sport management training programmes in South Africa at university level (Gouws, 1993; 1994). However, Gouws neglects to accentuate the greater and more urgent demand for trained community and school sport managers within the underprivileged communities and by implication, to the diverse needs of the South African society. In Gouws' (1994) study he further proposes the import of a professional preparation component with regard to sport management. Given the growing complexity of the school sport manager's role in South Africa (cf. par. 2.2, p. 26; 2.4, p. 70; 2.5, p. 98), in addition to the expansion of school sport, the professional preparation of school sport managers mandates context specific research. Probably the most significant criticism against Gouws' (1994) study is that he does not emphasise the greater and more urgent demand for management training in

relation to specific sectors of the sport domain, such as schools. Subsequently the question arises as to what extent the current sport management training programmes have kept up with the ever-changing demands of sport, more specifically in the context of the proposed study – the competencies needed to manage sport in the diverse context of South African schools. The context-specific research focus is consistent with the views of several other researchers (Weese, 1995:240; Masteralexis & McDonald, 1997:97; Boucher, 1998:76; Pitts, 2001:6; Stier, 2001:42; Case & Branch, 2003:26; Mahoney *et al.*, 2004:92; Costa, 2005:117,118; Baker & Southall, 2007:284; Burger *et al.*, 2008:253; Schneider *et al.*, 2008:263; Lambrecht & Kraft, 2009:341; Williams & Colles, 2009:340).

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) guidelines for the training of sport managers were developed by Hollander (2000); while De Villiers (2003) developed a sport-industry-related programme for the training of sport managers; and Gerber (2009) proposed a curriculum for the training of sport facility managers in the South African context. A more recent study by Steyn (2012) focuses on training of sport event managers for the South African context. It should be said that although the guidelines developed by Hollander contributed to the management training for the various sectors of the sport industry, and the studies of the last three mentioned authors address the gap in pertinent sport management training programmes for specific sectors or industries in South Africa, information about specific sport management programmes for educator training in relation to the diverse context of South African schools is still insufficient (cf. par. 3.6.7, p. 179; 6.3.1, p. 432). The researcher concurs with the view of Hollander regarding the one-dimensional training offered by HEIs, and in addition questions the relevancy of current sport management programmes for educator training according to the diverse needs of South African education. The contents and learning outcomes related to sport management qualifications are generic and do not necessarily conform to the unique sport management training requirements of school sport managers in relation to the needs of South African schools.

1.2.4 School sport

Sport as an educational activity can serve as an effective means through which pro-social and positive norms and values can be instilled (Nichols, 2004:177; Coalter, 2005:190; Berna, 2006:37). Forrester (1999:122) regards sport participation as an important vehicle for the empowerment of disenfranchised and impoverished communities to experience upward social mobility and recognition in the wider society. It is thus possible for an institution or an individual to experience enhancement in social status, whilst being afforded the opportunity to actively take part in sport, which would otherwise not have been possible. In this sense, sport as an educational activity

needs to be managed well by competent, knowledgeable and skilful sport managers (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1).

The educational value of sport participation has contributed to the increased role that governments, communities and development agencies ascribe to sport in improving the quality of life of children, addressing societal needs, and in some cases, offering an alternative to various "ills" of society (De Donder, 2006:43). The educational and developmental value received global recognition when 2005 was proclaimed as the *International Year for Sport and Physical Education* by the United Nations (Van Eekeren, 2006:19).

As signatory to this pledge, the South African government has developed several policies that would promote an active lifestyle among its citizens, including the introduction of two mass participation programmes, namely *Siyadlala* (community-based) and School Sport Mass Participation (Anon, 2006:10). Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) also set out to develop The White Paper to " ... *get the nation to become active, focusing on school-level sport participation*" (Singh, 2006a:182).

1.2.5 Rationale for research

Based on personal experience, contact with educators in public and independent schools, academics in higher education training and sport subject specialists, the researcher is of the opinion that a need exists for context-specific trained school sport managers in the competitive world of school sport. Related literature also supports the need for a new breed of context-specific trained school sport managers who are able to function effectively in an increasingly complex and diverse South African school.⁸ Although research has been conducted on sport management in general and on occupation-related management training, little attention has been given to the management of training for school sport managers (Cuskelly & Auld, 1991:35; Cotton & Li, 1996:87; Masteralexis & McDonald, 1997:97-98; Hill & Kikulus, 1999:19; Burger *et al.*, 2008:253).

The school sport manager (cf. par. 1.2.1.1, p. 2; 2.2, p. 26; 3.6.7, p. 179) is a central figure pertaining to the learners' sporting experience, and the sport manager is the main driver of sport in

⁸Cf (Gerber, 2000:6; Hollander, 2000:4; Van Deventer, 2002b:104; De Villiers, 2003:47; Young & Potgieter, 2004:96; Rooth, 2005:196; Christiaans, 2006:136; Du Toit *et al.*, 2007:252; Van Deventer, 2007:131,137; 2008a:132; Singh & Surujlal, 2009:190-191; Surujlal & Singh, 2009:206; Van Deventer, 2009b:128; 2009a:473; Van Deventer & Van Niekerk, 2009:157; Du Toit & Van der Merwe, 2011:2; Van der Merwe, 2011:1; 252; 258-279; Du Toit & Van der Merwe, 2012:2; Steyn, 2012:157; Van der Merwe *et al.*, 2012:4; 14-15)

achieving the goals and the realisation of the strategy (Coetzee *et al.*, 2005:60). Therefore, identifying and unpacking essential sport management competencies and needs for the training of educators may be meaningful for the effective provision and management of sport activities in schools. However, despite the fact that a competent school sport manager has become essential, sport management as a profession is still a relatively new concept, despite initiatives taken worldwide (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2005:3) and locally in South Africa (Gouws, 1994:6; De Villiers, 2003:2-3;51,53). Higher Education Institutions should thus be optimally informed to ensure adequate education and training for this unique requirement (Bellis, 2001:175-177; De Villiers & Bitzer, 2004:25; Kovac *et al.*, 2008:304). Therefore, scientifically grounded and practice-directed educator training should be implemented in the South African context in order to enhance education and training, and to increase the marketability of the position of a school sport manager (Goslin, 2007:2).

Increased media exposure has compelled schools to seek and adopt a professional approach towards competitive school sport, in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. Although independent (private) schools are relatively more affluent than public schools, the latter, and in particular ex-model C schools (cf. par. 1. 2.1.4, p. 4) have entered into the competitive sport arena by utilising sport as a means for generating revenue through events, attracting sponsorships and marketing their schools through the achievements of their athletes and sport teams (Hollander, 2000:46; David, 2008:106-107;117-120;123-124). For the sake of sustainability, this state of affairs requires personnel specially trained in the field of sport management (Terblanche & Malan, 2002:114; Woolf, 2008:52; Ferkins *et al.*, 2009:245). Since an efficient school sport manager is expected to perform multiple functions, s/he needs to be adequately prepared and equipped for these critical areas to ensure that the needs of all stakeholders are satisfied. No scientifically based and practice-directed training currently exists for the management of school sport in South African schools.

The following sub-questions serve to contextualise and delineate the problem statement of this research.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS, PURPOSE AND AIMS

The rationale for formulating research questions is to express the essence of the research problem in question format that indicates a delineated, focused and specific inquiry (Jansen, 2007:2; Denscombe, 2010b:15-22; Fouche & De Vos, 2011a:89-90;92-93; 2011b:108-110; Fouche & Delport, 2011a:71;74-75; 2011b:108-110).

1.3.1 Research questions

The primary research question in this research project is: *What are the needs and competencies of school sport managers required for the sport management training of educators, according to the diverse needs of South African schools?* The following subsidiary questions are formulated to further delineate the focus of this research:

- **Sub-question 1**

What is the context of school sport within the educational system? (cf. Chapter 2)

- **Sub-question 2**

What is the current role of the sport manager within the education system? (cf. par. 2.2.3.2, p. 33; 2.3.3.4, p. 60; 2.4.1, p. 72; 2.4.3, p. 82; 2.4.5, p. 88; 2.4.6, p. 90; 2.5.2, p. 103; 3.4, p. 140; 3.5, p. 151; 3.6, p. 154; 3.7, p. 198; Table 3, p. 131)

- **Sub-question 3**

What sport management training programmes are used as integral to and part of international and national educator training? (cf. Chapter 4)

- **Sub-question 4**

What are the needs and competencies required for educators to manage school sport effectively, according to the diverse needs of South African schools? (cf. Chapter 3, 6)

- **Sub-question 5**

What sport management training programme can be developed for school sport managers, according to the diverse needs of South African schools?

The purpose of this research is to determine the needs and competencies of school sport managers, in order to develop a sport management programme for educator training, according to the diverse needs of schools in South Africa.

1.3.2 Research aims

Based on the problem statement and research questions, the research aims are:

- **Research aim 1**

To determine the context of school sport within the educational system.

- **Research aim 2**

To describe and delineate the current role of the sport manager within the education system.

- **Research aim 3**

To analyse selected international and national sport management training programmes as part of educator training.

- **Research aim 4**

To determine the needs and competencies required by educators to manage school sport effectively according to the diverse needs of South African schools.

- **Research aim 5**

To develop a sport management training programme for school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In recent years, well-known exponents, including previous Zeigler award winners in sport management, have reiterated the need to look beyond mainstream frameworks, utilising diverse approaches in research design and methodology to enhance an understanding of the discipline of sport management (Olafson, 1995:341; Slack, 1998:21; Pitts, 2001:3; Frisby, 2005:2; Skinner & Edwards, 2005:404; Chalip, 2006:1; Shaw *et al.*, 2008:353). Babbie and Mouton (2008:74) mention that researchers often confuse the concepts of research design and research methodology; therefore these concepts necessitate clarification.

1.4.1 Research design

Research design, according to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009:46) is best described as the overall plan according to which the respondents of a proposed study are selected, as well as the means of data collection or generation. Babbie and Mouton (2008:74) describe research design as a plan or blueprint to conduct the research; while Zikmund, Babin and Griffin (2010:66) refer to research design as the master plan; and Merriam (1991:6) compares it with an architectural blueprint. The manner in which the research design is structured will be a direct function of the purpose of the research; and this will be determined by the way in which the research problem is formulated. The research problem will also determine the methods and procedures, that is, the types of measurement, sampling, data collection and data analysis that will be employed for the proposed research (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010:66).

1.4.2 Research methodology

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:12) concur with Babbie and Mouton (2008:74), stating that the research methodology refers to the researcher's general approach in carrying out the research project.

More specifically, Mouton (2001:56) views research methodology as focusing on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used. Research methodology can thus be explained as the strategies, plan of action, processes or designs in the choice and implementation of specific methods, as well as the linking of the selection and implementation to achieve the desired aims (Crotty, 1998:3). The research design and methodology is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 (cf. par. 5.4, p. 316).

1.4.3 The literature study

The literature study puts the research in the correct context (Denscombe, 2010b:29). Consequently, the literature study for the undertaken research was used as a theoretical and conceptual framework to determine the context of sport within the educational system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 1) and to describe and delineate the current role of the sport manager within the education system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 2). The researcher also intended to analyse selected international and national sport management training as part of educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 3). For this purpose, a documentary analysis of related literature and policies was undertaken. Lastly, in order to determine the competencies required for educators to manage school sport effectively, according to the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4), the required competencies were explored from the literature.

A variety of electronic databases (Lexis Nexis, EBSCO-Host, ERIC, SA e-Publications, ProQuest, NEXUS and SabinetOnline) and education and management indexes were utilised for the purpose of an in-depth literature study. Electronic access to literature sources via the Internet formed an important part of the literature study and internet websites (<http://hrw.org>; <http://portal.unesco.org/education>): databases, such as the Internet Public Library (www.ipl.org), JSTOR, ScienceDirect and AlltheWeb, as well as Internet search engines (Google, Google Scholar, Bing, Yahoo and Aardvark) were utilised.

1.4.4 Empirical investigation

An empirical investigation was undertaken for the study, using qualitative and quantitative methods to obtain data that would strengthen the trustworthiness and validity of the research (cf. par. 1.4.5, p. 16; 1.4.6, p. 17; 5.8, p. 328; 5.9, p. 333). The term *empirical* refers to knowledge derived by the process of practical and scientific experience, experiment and inquiries (Skager & Weinberg, 1971:4). An empirical investigation involves a planned process of collecting and analysing data in a systematic, purposeful and accountable manner (Isaac & Michael, 1997:2). The purpose of this

empirical investigation is therefore to obtain reliable and valid data, in accordance to the research problem (cf. par.1.1, p. 1) and the accompanying research aims (cf. par.1.3.2, p. 12). The nature of the research problem and research aims necessitates a purposeful research design to meet the requirements of these research intentions. Based upon the scope and complexity of the research problem and aims, the researcher decided on a mixed-method research design.

1.4.4.1 Mixed methods research

Mixed methods research, according to Bergman (2008b:11), is one of the fastest growing areas in research methodology today. It has evolved to the point where it is “... *increasingly articulated, attached to research practice, and recognised as the third major research approach or research paradigm*” (Johnson *et al.*, 2007:112).

Human sciences research often utilises both qualitative and quantitative methodologies – sometimes consciously, sometimes unconsciously (Fouche & Delport, 2011a:63,66). Mixed methods research is regarded as the kind of research where qualitative (cf. par. 1.4.5, p. 16; 5.8, p. 328) and quantitative (cf. par. 1.4.6, p.17; 5.9, p. 333) methods are combined in a single study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:677; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:17; Collins *et al.*, 2006:69; Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007:5; 2011:5). In their study of cross cultural physical activity participation, Henderson *et al.* (1999:248) use a combination of the qualitative and quantitative methods. In their view the integration of these two methods provides a broader picture and overview of the undertaken study. The researcher is convinced that the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods for this research offers the combined advantages of the respective qualities of both approaches (Thiétart, 2007:82). Some of the advantages of the mixed methods approach are:

- To gain data from a wider range of perspectives;
- To enhance the significance of interpretation;
- To clarify the underlying logic; and
- To explain unique circumstances, opinions and practices.

The combination of research approaches led to the adoption of a **pragmatic position** (cf. par. 5.2.1.5, 311; 5.3.1, p. 314) to conduct this research, because it provides a workable solution to the multi-faceted research problem (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:696; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:17-18; Creswell, 2009:11-12). More specifically, the envisaged results had the potential to provide the researcher with a clear and complete picture of the current and desirable

competencies, together with the identified requirements for sport management programmes for the training of educators.

1.4.5 Qualitative research

Qualitative research (cf. par. 5.8, p. 328) involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter and investigates people in their natural environment (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:3). Welman *et al.* (2009:8-9) describe qualitative research as aiming at determining the dynamic and changeable nature of reality by collecting subjective data, presented verbally by people in the form of language, and not numbers, as would be the case with quantitative research methods. Qualitative research methods, in the form of interviews, were used in combination with the structured questionnaires (quantitative research) for this study, as part of the mixed methods research design (cf. par. 5.9, p. 334)

1.4.5.1 Study population

Goddard and Melville (2007:34) maintain that a population comprises a set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher are represented. The entities may be people, such as all the educators involved with and in school sport; or they may be things, such as all the sport equipment housed in a specific sport store. The researcher chooses topic-specific experts in the field of study as participants, based on their specialised expertise and close involvement in school sport management as the study population for the qualitative phase of the proposed research (cf. par. 5.8, p. 328).

The study population of the qualitative phase (cf. par. 5.8.1, p. 328) comprised departmental officials in the position of Education Specialists: School Sport (Department of Basic Education) and academics from HEIs presenting sport management, as part of educator training (cf. par. 5.8, p. 328). The study population and selection procedures, as described in more detail in par. 5.8.1 (cf. p. 328) of the qualitative research, were applied when conducting interviews as part of the qualitative research.

1.4.5.2 Data collection: interviews

Given the extent and purpose of this research (cf. par. 1.3, p.11), the interview was used as data-collection method (cf. par. 5.8.4, p. 330). Koshy (2005:92) regards interviewing as one of the most powerful ways to understand human behaviour. In the context of this research, interviews were valuable for gathering in-depth information on the participants' experiences, knowledge, opinions

and beliefs (Anderson, 1998:190; Patton, 2002:341; Best & Kahn, 2006:266-267; 336). Interviews were conducted, according to a semi-structured interview schedule that specifies predetermined questions and sequences for the interviewer. The semi-structured interview also offers the added advantage of allowing more clarifying, probing and cross-checking questions, where the interviewer has the opportunity and freedom to alter, rephrase, and even add questions, according to the responses from the interviewees (Argarwal, 2005:209).

In order to ensure that the responses were recorded, a digital tape recorder and back-up recorder were used to record the responses of the participants. Field notes were written of contextual observations in relation to the research aims (Gorman & Clayton, 2005:138-139 ; Thiétart, 2007:184).

1.4.5.3 Qualitative data analysis

The aim of the qualitative data analysis of this research was to examine the elements of the various captured datasets, in order to clarify the concepts and constructs, and to identify patterns, themes and relationships, according to the stated research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12; par. 6.2.1, p. 358). In this study, the qualitative data analysis was done according to a *content analysis* process, as recommended by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004:104-109); Roberts, Priest and Traynor (2006:43); Davies (2007:181-184); Gall, Gall and Borg (2007:292) and Schurink, Fouché and De Vos (2011:402-419). The content analysis process will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

1.4.5.4 Reliability and validity

In addition to the qualitative component of the empirical research (cf. par. 1.4.4, p.14; par 5. 6, p. 320), quantitative research methods in the form of questionnaires were also used in combination with the semi-structured interviews (qualitative research methods as part of the mixed methods research design (cf. par. 5.7, p. 321). In this way the qualitative data informed the development of the questionnaire and was the data connected (cf. 1.4.1, p. 13; 5.7.4, p. 324).

1.4.6 Quantitative research

For the purposes of this study, an empirical survey was chosen as research method for the quantitative section of the mixed methods research design (cf. par. 5.9, p. 333). Authors such as Best and Kahn (2006:269); Thiétart (2007:173); Gall *et al.* (2007:230); and Neuman (2011:309) are of the opinion that a survey is particularly suitable in quantitative research for the purpose of collecting data by means of a questionnaire from respondents about their views, judgments as well

as past, current and future experiences foreseen. In the context of the quantitative research phase of this study, the *survey* thus presents a unique opportunity to obtain data about the current and desired competencies of school sport managers (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4 and 5).

1.4.6.1 Study population and sample

The study population of the quantitative research comprised a *non-probability, purposive* selection of schools commended by Education Specialists: School Sport from the provincial DBE for their involvement and commitment to manage school sport, according to the related criteria (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:211). The provincial Education Specialists: School Sport is involved with the selection of the schools because of their knowledge and experience regarding the schools' sport performance in their respective education areas. A purposive version of sampling was used for this research, because the selected group of schools was accepted as the study population to determine general trends, approaches, aspects, competencies and needs to manage school sport in a diversity of South African schools (Fogelman, 2002:99,100; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:236; Strydom, 2011b:232).

1.4.6.2 Measurement instrument

A related questionnaire developed by Toh (1997), validated by Hollander (2000), and refined by Gerber (2000; 2009) was further adapted and developed in alignment with the theoretical framework for the management of school sport and qualitative findings according to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). The question items of the questionnaire were grouped in coherent sections to follow a logical and thematic order (Thiétart, 2007:174). A four-point Likert scale was used to enable scores of either low or high values to represent the extent of the knowledge, opinion, judgment and experience of the respondents with regard to the competencies required to manage school sport (Keeves, 1997:792-793; De Vaus, 2002:182; Anderson, 2004:111; Maree & Pietersen, 2007a:167; Neuman, 2011:226).

1.4.6.3 Statistical analysis

The Statistical Consultancy Services of the North-West University Potchefstroom Campus assisted to organise, analyse and interpret the data. The gathered data from the questionnaire were statistically converted by means of the SAS (Sas Institute Inc, 2010; 2011) computer software programmes. A two-stage statistical procedure was followed in this regard.

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- The initial stage involves the calculation of the Cronbach alpha coefficient to determine the reliability of the various subsections of the questionnaire.
- Secondly, the statistical procedure involves the use of descriptive statistics, such as frequencies, means, ranking and standard deviation scores – to represent a particular statistical position of the recorded responses.

The interpretation of the results will be done on the effect sizes and not on the p-values, because the results are not based on random sampling procedures (cf. par. 5.9.6, p. 350).

1.4.6.4 Reliability and validity

- Reliability

Reliability indicates that if the same variable is measured under the same conditions, a reliable measurement will produce the same, or nearly the same, measurements (Schwandt, 2001:226; Bush, 2002:62; Anderson, 2004:111; Hammersley, 2009:43; Delport & Roestenburg, 2011b:177; Neuman, 2011:208).

A pilot test was conducted on three secondary schools, to ensure that the outline and formulation of the question items in various sections of the questionnaire were comprehensive, reasonable and intelligible (Thiétart, 2007:175). A statistical method was used to calculate the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) to assess the internal consistency of the various question items of the questionnaire (Santana, 2009:124; Sas Institute Inc, 2013b:363; 2013a:274).

- Validity

Validity points to the correctness without which research measurement becomes meaningless. In brief, validity, according to De Vaus (2002:53) and Singh (2007:77), refers to:

- The extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure;
- Measuring what it is supposed to be measured; and
- Yielding scores that reflect the true variables being measured, that is to say, how well the test measures the validity, whether it measures what it is supposed to measure (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997:113).

The validity of this research was optimised by a peer-sanctioned research design and methodology to conduct the research, according to the stated research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). Content validity is concerned with the representivity or sampling adequacy of the content of the instrument

and was supported in this research by the questionnaire items constructed according to the theoretical framework (cf. par. 4.9, p. 296; Fig. 15 p. 289). Construct validity bears relation to the assumptions underpinned by the theory relevant to the concept (Thomas, Nelson and Silverman, 2011:197).

The questionnaire items were thus developed in alignment with the theoretical underpinnings concerning school sport management. Face validity was optimised by the conduct of a pilot test to verify the relevance and representativeness of the various items to the intended setting (Bush, 2002:61; Roberts *et al.*, 2006:43). Leedy and Ormrod (2010:99) state that the *external validity* of a research study is the extent to which its results apply to the situations beyond the research itself, i.e. the extent to which the conclusions drawn can be generalised to other contexts.

The external validity of this research was warranted and optimised by the authoritative selection of sport-performing schools by Education Specialists: School Sport, according to the diverse South African education context and the identification of respondents based on their expertise and involvement in school sport.

The researcher also complied with the criteria relevant to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

1.4.6.5 Generalisation

The purpose of this research was not to make use of a sample to generalise the findings to a particular population, but to determine the extent of the management of school sport and the competencies required to manage school sport in selected schools, in order to develop a sport management programme for educator training.

1.5 ETHICAL ASPECTS

Mouton (2001:238) is of the opinion that the ethics of science refers to what is wrong and what is right when conducting research. All researchers, regardless of research designs, sampling, techniques and choice of methods, are subjected to ethical considerations (Gratton & Jones, 2010:121). Based on the ethical guidelines provided by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:375); Bak (2008:28-29); Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2009:37); Leedy and Ormrod (2010:101-105); and Neuman(2011:145-154) the following ethical aspects were accounted for in this research:

- Submitting of a detailed, prescribed application to the Research Ethics Committee of the North-West University for approval to conduct the research (cf. Annexure, Q);

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- Consent and approval for the research in schools by the Department of Basic Education (cf. Annexure C1 on CD);
- Obtaining permission from the provincial Departments of Basic Education, different district offices and the selected schools;
- Approval for the research in selected HEIs by the appropriate university authorities;
- The right to professional privacy and confidentiality was guaranteed by a written statement in the covering letter (cf. Annexure E, on CD);
- Participants and respondents were not subjected to any risk of unusual stress, embarrassment or loss of self-esteem; and
- The research was to be conducted, in accordance with the ethical requirement, in order to report the findings in a complete and honest way.

The researcher further ensured that the rights of the participants and the respondents were respected; anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed; deception was avoided; and the purpose of the research was made clear to all involved. Additionally, the research was also conducted in such a manner as to minimise any intrusion into the professional working life of the participants. The ethical aspects related to this research will be discussed again in more depth in Chapter 5 (cf. par. 5.10, p. 351).

1.6 FEASIBILITY OF THE STUDY

This research was feasible because:

- The study had a significant research topic in need of scientific investigation;
- Related persons from the Department of Basic Education had been contacted and were in support of the research;
- The researcher was familiar with the relevant education regions, as he has been involved with school sport for more than 20 years already, and has travelled extensively in these regions;
- The study was relevant to the current trends in the field of sport management globally and in the South African education profession; and
- Envisaged responses from respondents elicited valuable results.

1.7 THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH

For school sport managers to succeed, it is essential that today's educators acquire sport management competencies and training specifically to respond to the diverse needs and

continuously changing educational and transformational demands. In assessing the required competencies and needs of educators to manage school sport (cf. par 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4 and 5), it was established that a training programme for school sport management should provide the educator with the necessary knowledge and skills.

In a previous study by Vosloo (2007) and Vosloo, Burnett and Hollander (2009), a gap was identified concerning the competencies school sport managers already have (actual) and should have (ideal). Based on these findings, and informed by an extensive literature overview and building on previous research done by Gouws (1993; 1994); Gerber (2000); Hollander (2000) and De Villiers (2003), further research concerning this topic was imperative. A sustainable and competency-based sport management training programme for specialist and non-specialist educators was therefore needed. This study intends to provide an actual and original contribution to bridge the existing gap in the competencies of school sport managers.

1.8 PROVISIONAL CHAPTERS

In **Chapter One** the researcher provides an introduction to the scope of the study and discusses the problem statement, in addition to providing a literature overview. It includes a clarification of the key concepts that form the essence of the research, the rationale for the research and the contribution of the research. Following this, the research questions, purpose, aims, objectives, as well as the research design and methodology were described and defined. Lastly, an outline of the study is provided and a brief illustration was given to display the process and outline to be followed in the study to deliver the specific product (cf. Fig. 1, p. 24).

The literature in the broad area of school sport in the South African education system is reviewed in **Chapter Two**. Conceptions of school sport in terms of historic development and the relationship between sport and education relevant to this research are considered here. Through a sociological perspective of sport, Chapter Two will contextualise the study in a theoretical framework. An in-depth review of the different sociological theories for the prediction of trends will be done (cf. par. 2.3, p. 37). Additionally, debates and views on societal trends in school sport are also probed (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70). In concluding this chapter, the different sectors and segments of the sport industry and the role and place of school sport therein are provided (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98).

Chapter Three will continue with the theoretical framework by focusing on school sport as an enterprise (cf. par. 3.2, p. 117). Following from that, attention will be paid to the nature of school sport management, and the need for the ongoing development of school sport management and

the competencies required to manage school sport. Different schools of management thought will be unpacked; and a specific model will be tabled for the use of school sport management (cf. par. 3.6.8.1, p 191; Fig. 11, p. 196). Lastly, the different fields of management competencies of the school sport manager will be presented (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151; Fig. 12, p. 199).

Chapter Four concludes the contextualisation of this study in a theoretical framework. It details a historic overview of sport management-training programmes internationally (globally) and locally in South Africa, as well as the findings that have emerged from this process. Chapter Four also includes a discussion of the results from the investigation of the current curricula provided at exemplary HEIs throughout the world and various provinces in South Africa. Ultimately, Chapter Four probes the current sport management and educator training curricula. It details current curricula that were established at HEIs, and that is in accordance with and based on related views in literature and the needs and expectations of practitioners.

Chapter Five presents the empirical research through an explanation and description of the research methodology and design. This chapter includes a discussion of the processes and techniques employed in the collection of the data.

The findings of the research are introduced in **Chapter Six**, which introduces the second part of the thesis. In Chapter Six an analysis of school sport management competencies and needs required by school sport managers to manage school sport is presented.

Chapter Seven provides a further literature review on the current education system in South Africa, and guidelines at various HEQF levels for school sport management, to demonstrate the needs of the industry to be adhered to by HEIs for a school sport management programme for educator training in South African schools.

Finally, **Chapter Eight** draws together the conclusions of the preceding chapters and derives from them suggestions and recommendations for improving educator training for the management of school sport, for current, prospective and newly appointed educators. Implications of the study for HEIs in the broader sense follow thereafter. Areas where future research is required will be suggested. An illustrative summary of the chapters (Chapters 1-8) follows in Figure 1.1 (cf. p. 24).

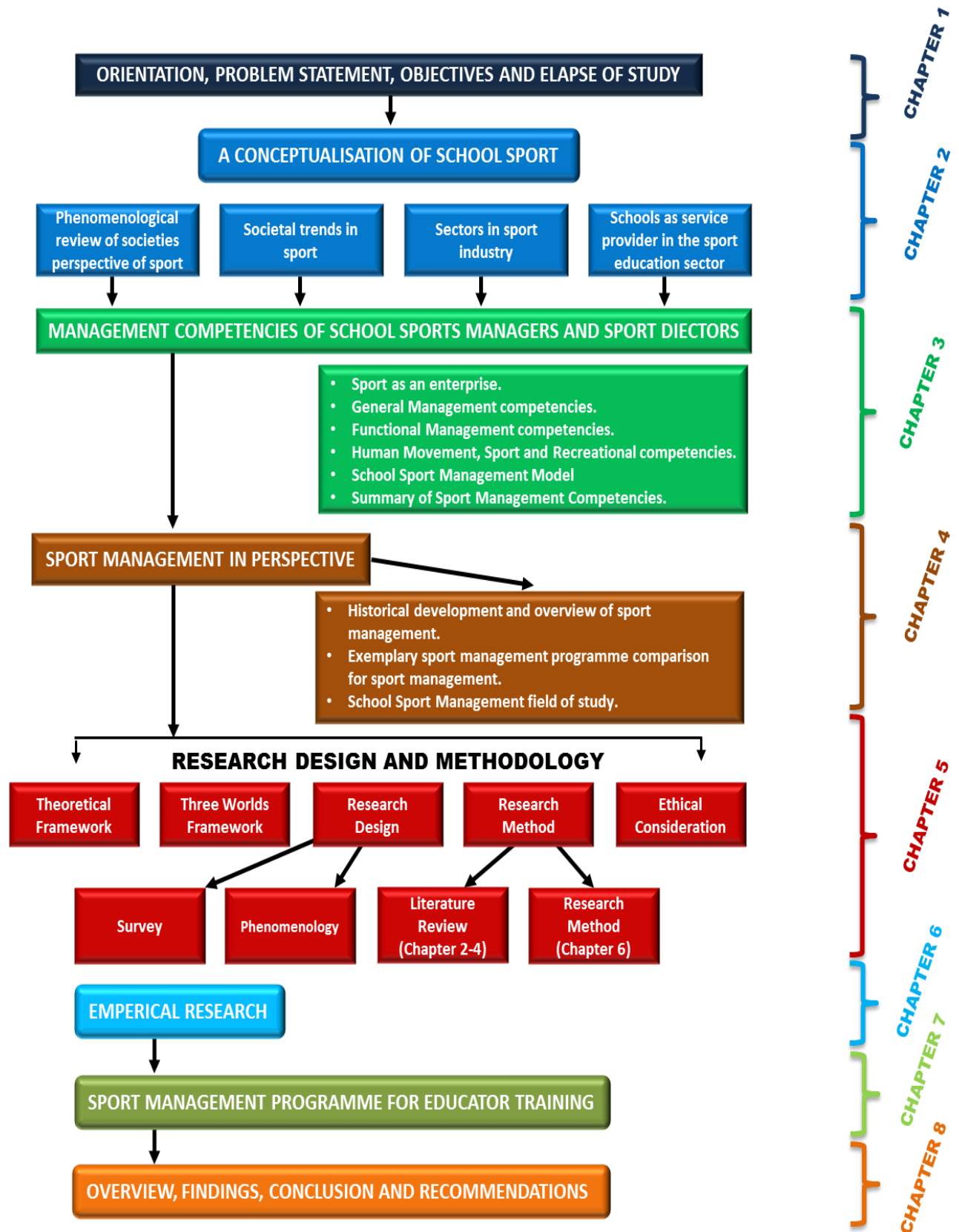


Figure 1: Outline of Study

1.9 SYNOPSIS

In this chapter, the researcher has made an attempt to contextualise this project by providing an introduction to the scope of the study, the research problem, a literature overview that includes inter alia a description and definition of concepts that form the essence of this research, the rationale, as well as the contributions of this research. This was followed by the identification and formulation of questions and sub-questions to contextualise and delineate the problem statement of this research, the purpose and aims, as well the research design and methodology of this study. It is here argued that a mixed-method research design is the most appropriate design to be used in this study. The mixed method exploratory research design was chosen and specifically applied to this study. Ethical aspects to be accounted for in this research were mentioned. Lastly, a brief illustration together with a diagram presenting the outline of the thesis was given. Here upon after, school sport in the South African education system will be explored in the next chapter. Firstly sport from a sociological perspective will be dealt with. It is important to also elucidate various trends in society on hand from which school sport in the context of the different sectors of the sport industry will be explored and analysed.