CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter Five described and explained in detail the process, rationale and purpose of the mixed methods research design, (cf. par. 5.7, p. 321, p. Fig. 16, p. 318; 17, p. 326; 18, p. 327). The mixed methods research design were applied in this research study to acquire an experiential overview of the extent of school sport management in a group of identified South African schools in accordance with their diverse needs. As was clearly outlined in Chapter Two, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies was employed for the purpose of more comprehensive responses to provide for unexpected developments and to clarify idiosyncratic circumstances. Furthermore, a theoretical framework based on an extensive literature study in Chapters Two, Three and Four assured the reliability (cf. par. 5.8.3, p. 329; 5.9.4, p. 342) and validity (cf. par. 5.8.3, p. 328; 5.9.5, p. 346) of the measuring instruments. Grounded in the conceptualisation of the rather sophisticated research process that was made possible by the illustration of a mixed research model (cf. par. 5.7.4.3, p. 326; Fig. 18, p. 327), the description of the research design and methods in Chapter Five represented the rationale for decisions and procedures pertaining to data collection and the deconstruction process.

In this chapter, the captured data from the qualitative and quantitative research is presented, analysed, described and interpreted in a systematic manner as the next step of the research process. The documentation and analysis process aimed to present data in an intelligible and interpretable form in order to identify trends and relations in accordance with the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). In turn, the identified trends and relations in accordance with the research aims, would enable the researcher to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.

The research results were firstly presented as an analysis of the qualitative data obtained from the individual semi-structured interviews (cf. par. 5.8.4.2, p. 332). The analysis of the qualitative data was followed by an analysis of the quantitative data that was recorded by the questionnaire (cf. par. 5.9.3, p. 339). Furthermore, it is important to remain mindful of the fact that the data from the qualitative and quantitative sections are connected, in that the results of qualitative data contributed to the development of the quantitative questionnaire for school sport managers[90] and related role players, concerning the relevant needs and competencies in accordance with the diverse needs of

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[90]Cf. p. par. 5.4, p. 316; 5.7.4, p. 324; 5.9, p. 333; 5.9.3, p. 339

schools (cf. Chap. 7). The comprehensive, connected data concludes with findings and recommendations (cf. Chap. 8). The focus now turns to the analysis and interpretation of the data for this study.

6.2   ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Marshall and Rossman(1999:150) describe data analysis as the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. It is described as messy, ambiguous and time-consuming, but also as a creative and fascinating process. Broadly speaking - while it does not proceed in linear fashion -it is the activity of making sense of, interpreting and theorizing data that signifies a search for general statements among categories of data (Schwandt, 2007:6). There fore one could infer that data analysis requires some sort or form of logic applied to research. In this regard, Best and Khan (2006:354) clearly posit that the analysis and interpretation of data represent the application of deductive and inductive logic to the research. Verma and Mallick (1999:29) and Morrison (2012:22,24) on the other hand, state that the interpretive approach (cf. par. 5.2.1.3, p. 307), which involves deduction from the data obtained, relies more on what it feels like to be a participant in the action under study, which is part of the qualitative research. Very often the researchers rely on their experience of particular settings to be able to read the information provided by the subjects involved in the study. While this thesis employed a mixed method of data collection, namely a combination of qualitative (cf. par. 5.4.1, p. 316; 5.8.4, p. 330) and quantitative methods (cf. par. 5.4.1, p. 316; 5.9.3, p. 339), it focused on the adoption of a pragmatic position and also used a phenomenological approach in conducting this research.

Antonius (2003:2) succinctly states that the word data points to information that is collected in a systematic way and organised and recorded to enable the reader to interpret the information correctly. As such, data are not collected haphazardly, but in response to some questions that the researcher wishes to answer. Schostak and Schostak (2008:10) capture the essences of capturing data well when they further add, that data are not given as a fixed, but are open to reconfiguration and thus alternative ways of seeing, finding answers to questions one wishes to answer. Implicated in the preceding views of Antonius (2003:2) and Schostak and Schostak (2008:10) are the two methods used to analyse data, namely qualitative and quantitative.

Veal (2006:196); Schurink *et al.* (2011:397); Sesay (2011:95); Atkins and Wallace (2012:245) and Tuckman and Harper (2012:387) state that a qualitative study involves an inseparable relationship between data collection and data analysis in order to build a coherent interpretation of data. An

assumption of the qualitative researcher is that the human instrument is capable of ongoing fine-tuning in order to generate the most fertile array of data. Morgan and Krueger (1998:Vol. 6:3-17) on the other hand, provide important views when they reiterate that the analysis of qualitative methods must be systematic, sequential, verifiable and continuous. It requires time, is jeopardised by delay, is a process of comparison, is improved by feedback, seeks to enlighten and should entertain alternative explanations. As with qualitative methods for data analysis, the purpose of conducting a quantitative study, is to produce findings, but whereas qualitative methods use words (concepts, terms, symbols, etc.) to construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal, procedures and techniques are used to analyse data numerically, called quantitative methods (Sesay, 2011:74). On the whole, regardless of the method (qualitative or quantitative), cf. par. 1.4.2, p. 13; 1.4.5, p. 16; 1.4.6, p. 17; 5.4.2, p. 318), the purpose of conducting a study, is to produce findings, and in order to do so, data should be analysed to transform data into findings. In this study, data will be analysed using both the qualitative and quantitative method. At this point in time, one has to take a closer look at both methods of analysis.

Regarding qualitative and quantitative analysis of data, Kreuger and Neuman (2006:434) offer a useful outline of the differences and similarities between qualitative (cf. par. 6.2.1, p. 358) and quantitative methods (cf. par. 6.2.2, p. 367) of data analysis. According to these authors, qualitative and quantitative analyses are similar in four ways. Both forms of data analysis involve:

- Inference - the use of reasoning to reach a conclusion based on evidence;
- A public method or process - revealing their study design in some way;
- Comparison as a central process – identification of patterns or aspects that are similar or different; and
- Striving to avoid errors, false conclusions and misleading inferences.

The core differences between qualitative (cf. par. 6.2.1, p. 358) and quantitative data (cf. par. 6.2.2, p. 367) analysis are as follows (Kreuger & Neuman, 2006:434-435):

- Qualitative data analysis is less standardised with the wide variety in approaches to qualitative research matched by the many approaches to data analysis, while quantitative researchers choose from a specialised, standard set of data analysis techniques;

- The results of qualitative data analysis guide subsequent data collection, and analysis is thus a less-distinct final stage of the research process than quantitative analysis, where data analysis does not begin until all data have been collected and condensed into numbers;

- Qualitative researchers create new concepts and theory by blending together empirical and abstract concepts, while quantitative researchers manipulate numbers in order to test a hypothesis with variable constructs; and

- Qualitative data analysis is in the form of words, which are relatively imprecise, diffuse and context based, but quantitative researchers use the language of statistical relationships in analysis.

Apart from Kreuger and Neuman, Robson (2011:408) also offers an equally important view on analysis and interpretation of data, when he posits that the process and products of analysis provide the bases for interpretation and analysis. It is therefore not an empty ritual, carried out for form's sake, between doing the study, and interpreting it, nor is it a bolt-on feature, which can be safely ignored until the data are collected. Robson (2011:468) further aptly points out that the central requirement in qualitative analysis is clear thinking on the part of the analyst.

In closing, it can be said that the researcher should keep in mind the sequential list provided by Miles and Huberman (1994:9) of what they describe as '*a fairly classic set of analytic moves'*:

- Giving codes to the initial set of materials obtained from observation, interviews and documentary analysis;

- Adding comments and reflections (commonly referred to as memos);

- Going through the materials trying to identify similar phrases, patterns, themes, relationships, sequences and differences between sub-groups;

- Taking identified patterns and themes out of the field to help focus the next wave of data collection;

- Gradually elaborating a small set of generalisations that cover the consistency one discerned in the data; and

- Linking the generalisations to a formalized body of knowledge in the form of constructs (theories.

From the preceding discussion of data analysis and interpretation, the views, ideas and suggestions expressed by different researchers and authors have been identified as important for

use in this study. In the next few paragraphs, the researcher will explore the analysis and interpretation of qualitative data collected for this thesis.

6.2.1 Analysis of qualitative data

Qualitative data analysis can be described as the process of making sense from research participants' views and opinions of situations, corresponding patterns, themes, categories and regular similarities (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:461). Nieuwenhuis (2007:99-100) captures the essence of data analysis well, when he provides the following definition of qualitative data analysis that serves as a good working definition: *"..qualitative data analysis tends to be an ongoing and iterative process, implying that data collection, processing, analysis and reporting are intertwined, and not necessarily a successive process".* In short, as Gibbs (2007:vol. 6: 1) so aptly points out, qualitative data analysis is a process of transformation of collected qualitative data, done by means of analytic procedures, into a clear, understandable, insightful, trustworthy and even original analysis.

Marshall and Rossman (1999:150) state that qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data. In contrast with quantitative methods, (cf. par. 5.9, p. 333; 6.1, p. 354; 6.3, p. 431) that examine cause and effect, Muijs (2011:9) posits that qualitative methods are more suited to looking at the meaning of particular events or circumstances. Creswell (2013:44) refer to meaning as the intention of the original author and further state that data analysis is both inductive and deductive and establishes patterns or themes. Patton (2002:432) posits that qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significance from trivia, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal. Henning *et al.* (2004:127) summarise data analysis as a continuous, developing and repeating process during which transcribed data of interviews are investigated. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:135) further state that qualitative researchers construct interpretive narrative from their data and try to capture the complexity of the phenomenon under study. Qualitative researchers thus use a more personal, literary style, and they often include the participant's own language. Robson (2011:468) concurs with the views of Leedy and Ormrod (2010:135) and further reiterates that qualitative analysis remains much closer to codified common sense than to the complexities of statistical analysis of quantitative data (cf. par. 5.9.6, p. 350). Without reservation, in summing up, one could say that qualitative data analysis is based on assumptions, and the use of interpretive (theoretical) frameworks (cf. par. 5.2.1.3, p. 307) to ensure a final written report or presentation that includes the voices of participants, the reflexity of the researcher, a complex description and

interpretation of the stated problem (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12), and its contribution to the literature or a call for change (Creswell, 2013:44).

When engaging in qualitative data analysis, the researcher not only wishes to highlight recurring features, but also different steps, procedures and processes that are at the disposal of a researcher. In this regard, the first step in analyzing qualitative data according to Best and Khan (2006:270) involves *organising* the data. It is however, crucial to bear in mind that the methods of organising the data, will differ depending on the research strategy and data collection techniques. Once the data have been organised, the researcher can proceed to the following stage in data analysis, namely *description.* During the second stage of data analysis, the researcher seeks to describe the various pertinent aspects of the study, which include inter alia the setting, both temporally and physically; individuals being studied; the purpose of any activities examined; the viewpoints of participants and the effects of any activities on the participants. Patton (2002:434), describes the third and final phase of the analysis process, namely *interpretation,* as involving an explanation of the findings, answering why questions, attaching significance particular results, and putting patterns into an analytic framework. The discipline and rigour of qualitative analysis, the author (Patton) clearly states, depend on presenting solid descriptive data in such a way that others reading the results, can understand and draw their own interpretations.

Scott and Usher (2011:89) posit that a typical qualitative analytical approach may include the following aspects:

- Coding or classifying field notes, observations or interview transcripts by either inferring from the words being examined what is significant, or from the repeated use of words (phrases) whether a pattern is developing (i.e. that all activities which have been recorded are being understood in a similar way).
- Examining the afore said classifications to identify relationships between them; yet, concurrently beginning the process of understanding those relationships in general terms, so that they have credibility (cf. par. 5.8.3, p. 329) beyond the boundaries of the case being examined. Researchers draw upon previous knowledge about the world that has enabled them to distinguish between objects and between occurrences in their life.
- Making explicit these patterns, commonalities and differences – in brief, making sense of the data, and taking these by now more developed theoretical constructs into the field to test or refine them.

- Elaborating a set of generalisations, which suggest that certain relationships hold firm in the setting being examined, and affirming that these cover all the known eventualities in the data set.

- Formalizing these theoretical constructs and making inferences from them to other cases in place and time.

As we have seen so far from our discussion of qualitative data analysis, there are always variations in the number and description of steps for the same process by different authors. To the preceding body of knowledge, outlined by different authors, one can add the views of Watling and James (2012:385-395). According to these authors, the process of qualitative data analysis consists of six stages (steps), namely:

- Defining and identifying data. From the outset, it is crucial to obtain a clear understanding of the meaning of data, and fundamentally, even more importantly, the data required in accordance with the research question and aims.

- Collecting and storing data. When collecting data, most researchers start to form opinions and judgement, which result in theories being developed, in the mind of the researcher, and as such one has to consider not only ways to collect data, but also to store data to make them accessible for analysis. So the interviews for instance can be recorded by means of a digital recorder, transcribed and stored (loaded) on a computer programme such as Atlas.ti^{TM} Version 6 (Atlas.ti^{TM}).

- Data reduction and sampling. During the data collection process (cf. par. 5.8.4, p. 330), reaching a point of saturation implies that all data were reduced, filtered and sampled through the process of analysis. It is therefore critical for the researcher when analysing data to determine what one already knows to be important or relevant, in accordance with the intended purpose of the investigation. Stated differently, the researcher needs to establish, on the one hand, which data are not relevant, and on the other hand, which data encapsulate the essence and evidence one wishes to focus on for a more detailed analysis. Hence, from the preceding can be inferred that it is important to establish incidences and similarities in the respective interviews. In addition, one should establish whether the expected reactions (responses) were obtained and if there are still deficiencies regarding certain questions.

- Structuring and coding data. Structuring and coding of data underpin the key research outcomes and can be used to shape the data to test, refine or confirm established theory, apply theory to new circumstances or use it to generate a new theory or model, or even in the case of

this study, develop a new measurement instrument, such as a questionnaire (cf. par. 5.9.3, p. 339). During coding, the corpus of data has to be divided into segments and these segments are assigned codes which relate to analytic themes being developed (Fielding, 2002:163) and applied consistently over the period of analysis and over a range of data. Basic coding, carried out as a first step in the analysis of data, is both useful in itself and acts as a preparation of the data for more advanced analysis at higher levels of abstraction (Punch, 2011:175). It can therefore be deduced that structuring and coding signifies an analytical process of elaboration of data, as for instance obtained from semi-structured interviews in related themes, on the hands of codes and structures to form (establish) an understandable framework and associations derived from the language of participants. The process of coding for this study will be considered in a later paragraph (cf. par. 6.2.2.2, p. 370).

- Theory building and testing. An important purpose of research is to generate new knowledge (Watling & James, 2012:392). To this end, it might be helpful to take into consideration the set of tactics for generating meaning from qualitative data, described by Miles and Huberman (1994:245-246), commented on in an ensuing paragraph. More specifically in relation to theory building and testing as part of the process of data analysis, it can be said that based upon the created framework, relevant diversions (distractions) can be made and insight in the research question under investigation can be obtained. In building and testing theory, it is important to view the reactions of respondents and whether they correspond or not, and also to ensure that a point of saturation of data is reached.

- Reporting and writing up research. In brief, the reporting and writing up of research entails to put words on paper, in the form of a report, constructing an argument based on the findings of what you have done, what you have seen and heard, participants you interviewed and the information that comes forth from the process of data analysis. Ultimately, the conclusions drawn from the information should contribute to the body of knowledge and represent new meaning and insight in the research question.

Creswell (2013:182-188), contrary to the view of Watling and James (2012:385-395), believes that the process of qualitative data analysis and interpretation can best be represented by a spiral image – a data analysis spiral, in which the researcher moves in analytic circles rather than using a fixed linear approach. One enters with data made up of text or images (e.g. photographs and videotapes), and exits with an account or a narrative. In between, the researcher touches on several facets of analysis, circling around and upwards towards completion of the process. Although the preceding belief of Creswell may be true, he also offers a valuable research tip when

he in an earlier work urges researchers to look at qualitative data analysis as following steps from the specific to the general and as involving multiple levels of analysis (Creswell, 2009:184-185). Stated differently, qualitative data analysis suggests a linear, hierarchical approach, building from the bottom to top, yet the approach is interactive in practice and steps are interrelated and always visited in a specific (prescribed) order.

Synthesizing the discipline and rigour of qualitative analysis depends on presenting solid descriptive data in such a way that others reading the result can understand and draw their own interpretations. Implicated herein is the generation of meaning. Concerning the generation of meaning, Miles and Huberman (1994:245-246) list the following useful general guidelines and tactics that researchers and others reading descriptive data should keep in mind:

- Noting patterns and trends. Do the trends, patterns, and conclusions make sense?
- Clustering. Grouping events, places and people together if they appear to have similar patterns or characteristics.
- Making metaphors. Metaphors are rich, data-reducing and pattern-making devices which help to connect data with theory.
- Counting. Helps to enable the researcher to see what is there by counting frequency of occurrence of recurrent events.
- Making contrasts and comparisons. Establishing similarities and differences between and within data sets.
- Partitioning variables. Splitting variables may be helpful to find more coherent descriptions and explanations.
- Subsuming particulars into the general. Linking specific data to general concepts and categories.
- Factoring. Attempting to discover the factors underlying the process under investigation.
- Noting relations between variables by using matrix displays and other methods to study interrelationships between different parts of the data.
- Finding intervening variables. Trying to establish the presence and effects of variables intervening between observed variables.
- Building a logical chain of evidence. Trying to understand trends and patterns through developing logical relationships.
- Making conceptual/theoretical coherence. In other words, moving from data to constructs to theories through analysis and categorisation.

The preceding paragraphs set out to provide the theoretical framework and context for the data analysis of this particular study. In brief, as I have shown, qualitative data are in the form of text, and the act of analysis involves the examining, of all elements of the data sets, to clarify concepts and constructs as well as the deconstruction of the textual data into manageable categories, patterns, themes and relationships according to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). The researcher has at his/her disposal different methods for the analysis of qualitative data, and various steps, procedures and processes are described by authors, experts and academics for qualitative data analysis. In addition to the preceding outline of the data analysis (cf. par. 6.2.1, p. 358), for this study the focus should now turn more specifically to the process of qualitative analysis.

6.2.1.1 Process of data analysis

Partington (2003:113) states that there is little standardisation with no absolutes where a specific type of qualitative data relates to a specific type of analysis. Neuman (2011:518) further opines that no single qualitative data analysis approach is widely accepted, while Schurink *et al.* (2011:403) posit that there are always variations in the number and description of steps for the same process of data analysis by different authors. From the preceding views, it can thus be inferred that each qualitative data analysis to some extent will be a uniquely designed event. With the preceding in mind, the qualitative data analysis of this research (responses from the semi-structured interviews) was done according to a **qualitative content analysis process** that integrated Creswell's (2013:182-188) analytic spiral with the process as described by Marshall and Rossman (1999:152-159) and Watling and James (2012:385-395), comments as offered by Gibbs (2007:vol.6: 1) and Creswell (2009:184-185) and recommendations by Henning *et al.* (2004:104-109); Roberts *et al.*(2006:43); Davies (2007:181-184); Gall *et al.* (2007:257); McMillan and Schumacher (2010:322-323;366-377); Greeff (2011:359) and Schurink *et al.*(2011:403-404). The qualitative content analysis involved the following procedures:

- **Recording of data** was done by audio recording on a digital voice recorder, while audio recording on another tape recorder served as backup of electronic failure and faults; and to ensure that all voices could be heard. Taking notes served as further backup and provided the context to the interviews.
- **Verbatim transcription** of the responses from the interview commenced as soon as possible; and was done by an expert to ensure a speedy completion. To ensure that the researcher became acquainted with the data for the purpose of analysis and interpretation, the original interview of the completed verbatim transcription was listened to again. Transcription notation

symbols, comments and the taking of field notes as suggested by Henning*et al.* (2004:76-77) were used to capture non-transcribable text to gain as much of the complete picture as possible. In an endeavour to ensure the reliability and validity of the data (cf. par. 5.8.3, p. 329), the verbatim transcribed interviews were presented to the respondents to verify and sign off.

- The entire transcribed text and field notes **were thoroughly read** at first to obtain an overall and comprehensive impression of the content and context before the abstraction process of coding began where units of meaning are identified or labelled.

- *Codes* are names or labels assigned to specific units or segments of related meaning identified within the field notes and transcripts (Henning *et al.*, 2004:104; Neuman, 2011:510). The transcribed text was arranged in meaningful themes and categories with the assistance of Atlas.ti^TM Version 6 according to codes. As progress was made with the analysis, further sub themes and sub categories were included to identify meaning connections, relationships and trends. The **coding process** for the field notes and transcripts consisted of three steps described by Thiétart (2007:139) and Neuman (2011:510-514), namely: open coding, axial coding and selective coding.

  o *Open coding* involved the identification and naming of segments *of* meaning from the field notes and transcripts in relation to the research topic. The focus of open coding was on wording, phrasing, context, consistency, frequency, extensiveness and specificity of comments. Consequently, the segments of meaning from the field notes and transcripts were clearly marked (highlighted) and labelled in a descriptive manner.

  o *Axial coding* was done by reviewing and examining the initial codes that were identified during the previous procedure outlined above. Categories and patterns were identified during this step and organised in terms of causality, context and coherence.

  o *Selective coding* as the third and final coding procedure involved selective scanning of all codes that were identified for comparison, contrast and linkage to the research topic (question) as well as for a central theme or "key linkage" that might occur.

- The codes were eventually **evaluated** for relevance to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

- Related codes were then listed in categories according to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12) and theoretical framework from the literature study (cf. par. 4.9, p. 296, Fig. 15, p. 289).

- From our discussion thus far, it follows that the analytic process was further informed by inquisitive questions to identify thematic relationships from the various categories, according to both the inductive and deductive reasoning process. Questions included amongst others (Henning *et al.*, 2004:106):

- o What was the relationship(s) in meaning between all the categories?
- o What can be deduced from the categories as a whole?
- o What meaning was missing?
- o What was fore grounded in the analysis?
- o What has moved to the background, in other words, what is no longer important or necessary?
- o What alternative explanations were possible?
- o How were the research aims addressed by the various categories?

- The qualitative analysis process for this research was concluded by the **description** of thematic relationships and patterns of relevance to the research. So, the thematic relationships and patterns identified during the interpretation process contributed towards the development of an appropriate instrument for the quantitative phase of this research (cf. par. 5.7.4.2, p. 325; par. 5.7.4.3, p. 326).

The process of qualitative analysis outlined above served as a framework to ensure that the initial data (semi-structured interviews) were systematised by thematic organisation to form part of the data that were connected to and combined with the quantitative data (cf. 5.7.4, p. 324). For clarity purposes and a better understanding of the qualitative analysis process for the current study, the qualitative content analysis process for the semi-structured interviews is illustrated in figure 19.
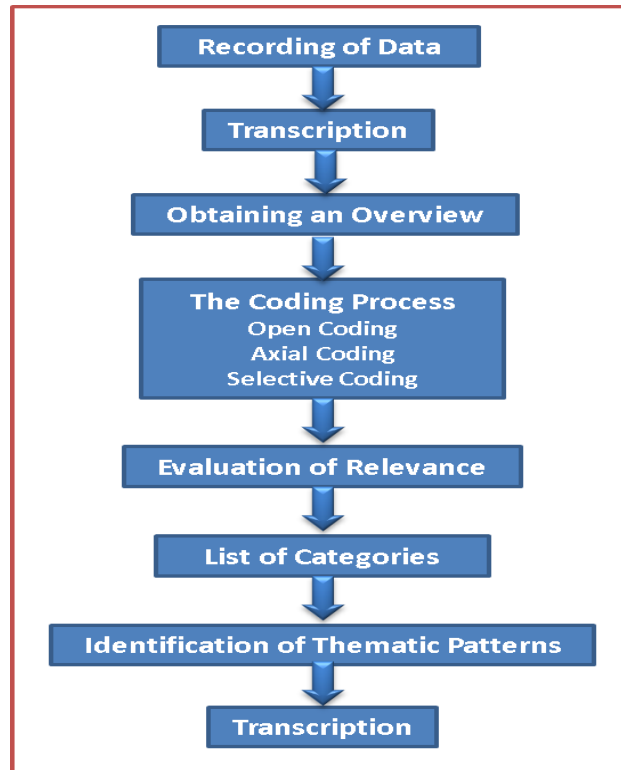
Figure 19: The qualitative content analysis process

The outlined process enabled a systematic and logic step-by-step approach for the analysis of the qualitative data and allowed the researcher to go beyond mere descriptive, comparative and explanatory ends to discover the rationale and motivation for responses (Thiétart, 2007:361). It is important to bear in mind that the qualitative process was approached like a spiral process and not as a fixed linear action. The content analysis outlined in the preceding paragraphs, and illustrated in Fig. 19 (cf. p. 366), often overlaps and implies that the various steps of analysis are regarded as mere procedural guidelines and not as rigid steps like that of a recipe (Schurink *et al.*, 2011:403). In other words, although the content analysis process should be systematic and can be a logic step-by-step approach, it nevertheless should be adaptable to the specific needs and requirements of the researchers.

The identified themes were further used as a basis for reasoning, argumentation, deliberation, contemplation and the formulation of syntheses and conclusions to develop, in combination with the quantitative data, a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12; Chap. 7).

To summarise, in relation to the current study, the qualitative data included the recorded responses from the semi-structured interviews (cf. par. 5.8.4.2, p. 332). The qualitative data analysis involved the deconstruction of the qualitative data into manageable categories, patterns, themes and relationships in accordance with the research aims (Mouton, 2001:108; Neuman, 2011:509-510). In accordance with the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12), the aim of the qualitative analysis of this research was to examine the various elements of the captured data to clarify concepts and to identify patterns, themes and relationships. By means of organising, reduction and the description of the data, the researcher attempted to interpret, make sense of, give meaning to school sport management and build theory to support the extensive literature review (cf. Chapter 2-4) in an endeavour to develop a measuring instrument, namely a questionnaire (cf. par. 5.7.4.2, p. 325) to determine the needs and competencies required by educators to manage school sport effectively in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3. 2, p. 12, research aim 4). The methodology for the analysis of the qualitative data was based on the content analysis procedures (cf. par. 6.2.1, p. 358), and was presented in two sections according to the nature of the capturing data. At first, the focus turns to providing a discussion on the analysis gleaned from the semi-structured interview, which is followed by a discussion of the interpretation of the interviews and the analysis and interpretation of the quantitative part of the empirical investigation, namely the questionnaires.

6.2.2   Interview analysis

Interviewing as data-gathering method (cf. par.5.8.4.1, p. 331) was included to obtain additional data, clarify vague statements, permit further exploration of research topics, expand on the qualitative findings and yield a more in-depth experiential account of the extent of school sport management and the views of school sport managers on the competencies and needs of school sport managers for educator training according to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

The recording of the interview data took place by means of note-taking and audio recording (cf. par. 6.2.1.1, p. 363). Verbatim transcripts of the interviews were compiled for analysis and interpretation. To ensure reliability and validity of data, the transcribed interviews were presented to respondents to verify and confirm the contents of the interviews (cf. Annexure O, on CD). However, only two respondents signed and returned the transcribed text, while all six respondents gave consent to the recording of the interview by means of a tape recorder and a backup recorder (cf. Annexure G, on CD). In addition, the notes taken during these interviews served as another backup during the recording procedure.

An experienced co-researcher was present at the first interview and provided academic assistance during this interview. The assistance involved amongst other things the guidance of the interview according to the research focus and asking clarification questions. The results of the decoding process were again submitted to the co-researcher for an independent evaluation. Regular discussions took place and adjustments were made according to suggestions and recommendations (cf. par. 5.8.3, p. 329).

Before exploring the analysis of interview data according to the content analysis process utilised by this project, it is useful to discuss the utility of computer-aided research and the procedures followed using Atlas.ti[TM] during thematic content analysis.

6.2.2.1 Utility of computer-aided research and procedures followed using Atlas.ti[TM]

As mentioned earlier, this research leaned heavily on various 'new' computer-aided designs and techniques for thematic content analysis. The use of Atlas.ti[TM], a program which has been used by many theorists in various fields including psychology, was adopted for this project (Sheridan & Storch, 2009:2; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009:1-6; Atlas.ti, 2011; Friese, 2011:2; Alas.ti, 2012). The strength of computer assisted thematic content analysis is that it automates various processes such as cataloguing of primary documents, organising of codes and code descriptions, and the use of memos which both leave a research audit, as well as aid in noting qualitative findings and moments of inspiration (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009:6; Atlas.ti, 2011:3; Menter *et al.*, 2011:218). Also Atlas.ti[TM] allows the researcher to organise and catalogue all data in one comprehensive and efficient manner. Apart from the preceding strengths, Atlas.ti[TM] also makes possible connections (relations) between codes, categories and sub-categories, as well as the creation of networks. Moreover, networks create the possibility to point out different relationships, similarities and differences (Kelle, 2004:483; Lu & Shulman, 2008:105-107; Ryan, 2009:142-145). Bazely (2010:453) also emphasises the importance of Atlas.ti[TM] when she states that Atlas.ti[TM] manages research data effectively by arranging codes alphabetically, presenting strength of codes and depicting data graphically.

As the themes were derived, Atlas.ti[TM] was also useful in generating macro-themes, which resulted in the final themes of analysis. Virtually every aspect of the content analytic process (including interpretation) was greatly aided by the use of Atlas.ti[TM.] Various forms of outputs, allow the researcher to examine specific aspects of the textual data. One can filter outputs using documents, quotations, memos and super-codes. In this way, one is able to, for example, output

all quotations in a specific document that relate to a specific code. This process would involve significantly more time, were it done manually. Considering that not all hunches regarding code formations will be correct, computer-aided content analysis saves countless hours of fruitless work by providing data manipulation at the click of a mouse button. Atlas.ti™ allows codes to be dynamically linked to quotations and documents in a way that facilitates the quick and easy navigation of complex sets of data.

Processes inherent in Atlas.ti™ mean it fits well with qualitative content analysis as it allows formerly manual procedures to be accomplished more quickly, and establishes a definable audit trail. Sections of text is selected with the mouse and then either associated with an existing code (s), or used to define new ones. Also, using the program was a constant reminder of the systematic and procedural complexities necessary in order to produce a thematic content analysis of the quality required in the academic context. Although the interpretive phase still involved many hours of thought and interpretation, Atlas.ti™ facilitated this process by keeping track not only of all the data in isolation, but also in reference to the overall context. The checking and rechecking of assumptions and conclusions is also greatly facilitated by the use of computer aided analysis such as Atlas.ti™.

In sum, concluding the discussion of computer assisted thematic content analysis, more specifically in relation to the current study; use was made of a software program, namely Atlas.ti™ Version 6 for the analysis and interpretation of the semi-structured interviews. Here originates the building of theory, by making use of codes assigned to the most important aspects also applicable (relevant) to this research report. Moreover, the said Atlas.ti™ programme appears to be the exception on the rule on all other software programmes, because it offers the user the opportunity to make all possible connections between the different codes of the qualitative data base (Kelle, 2004:483). Equally important is the quick recall of data like an idea obtained from the networks created, which makes this program more than useful and valuable (Creswell, 2008:249). In this regard, given the extent of the study and the purpose of the qualitative part of the report, the researcher made full use of the feature of Atlas.ti™ to compile (provide) networks from the most important quotes connected with certain codes. As a result then of the connection (merger) of data obtained from the interviews, the researcher was able to develop a theoretical framework and gain insight for the development of a questionnaire, which will be presented in another part of this report (cf. par. 5.9, p. 333; par. 6.3, p. 431).

6.2.2.2 Content analysis process

The analysis of the interview data was done according to the content analysis process as described in par. 5.8 (p. 328) and 6.2.1.1 (p. 363) At first, all notes and transcripts were read to gain an overview of the body and context of the gathered data. The reading process was followed by a three-step coding process that consisted of open, axial and elective coding procedures (cf. par. 6.2.1.1, p, 363), making use of the Atlas.ti^{TM} Version 6 computer program. The open coding step led to the initial identification and marking of descriptive names for specific units or segments of meaning in relation to the research aims. These identified units of meaning to a large extent bore relation to and showed consistency with the questions that were asked during the interviews (cf. Annexure B, on CD). All these labelled units of meaning, as preliminary qualitative indicators, were again evaluated during the axial and selective coding steps for coherence and relevance to compile a final list of codes (cf. par. 6.2.1.1, p. 363; Fig. 20, p. 374). Each category was systematically labelled in accordance with the relevance of the data and theoretical framework from the literature study (cf. par. 4.8, p. 283; Fig. 15, p. 289). In Figure 20 (cf. p. 374) a comprehensive framework that was compiled by means of Atlas.ti^{TM} Version 6, and which contains all codes of interest to the research report, is presented. The framework in particular outlines and illustrates the main components (categories) of the data analysis done for the qualitative part of this study.

The identified categories were:
- Core competencies
- Functional competencies
- Specialist competencies
- Resources
- Training
- Governance
- Specialists
- Compulsory Physical Education
- Funds
- Infrastructure
- Support

The related units of meaning from the notes and transcripts were systematically assigned to the final categories. After a brief introduction of each of the main components, a discussion followed

that includes verbatim responses (quotes) as examples where appropriate and applicable to enhance and substantiate views of respondents. Firstly, the discussion described the prevalence of prominent responses and continued with an evaluative and interpretive discussion in relation to the research aims. Given the extent of the current research, a brief account should be provided about the observation list.

6.2.2.3 Observation

Huberman and Miles (2002:92,154); Henning *et al.* (2004:81-86); Thiétart (2007:184) and Coleman (2012:254) recommend the use of an observation list during the interview process. A face-to-face interview enables the interviewer to observe visual clues, relating for example to the layout of an office and also allows the observation of body language which might indicate comfort or discomfort, thus giving the interviewer clues on how to proceed. Over and above these advantages of observation, observation also can be helpful in the early stages of analysis in that it allows the interviewer to make a judgement about how signs are read and thus locate the data in the context in which they were collected (Scott & Usher, 2011:109,110). However, one should be careful not to derive too much in body language, because, as Trompenaars and Hampden (1997), as well as Coleman (2012:254), discreetly warn us, body language is not always easy to interpret, particularly so if people are from differing cultures. Turning the focus to the purpose of completing an observation list, it can be said for this report that the observation list was to provide a brief of the context of the source of data, background information of respondents' work environment, to build rapport with respondents, and to provide information about the setting and climate in which the interview took place (cf. par. 5.8.4.3, p. 332). No formal (structured) observation list was completed, because observation in the case of this study was essentially to obtain background information about the respondent which could serve as building rapport and a point of contact to conduct the interview, and to report on the cooperation to participate in the research (cf. Annexure K, on CD).

6.2.2.4 Background information about participants in the semi-structured interview

All the Education Specialists: School Sport and academics from the HEIs were willing and helpful to participate in the research, and all the interviews were conducted in a friendly, cooperative manner. Five of the respondents were male and one female; the one respondent was between 20 and 29 years old, one between 40 and 49 years and four between 50 and 59 years of age. Of the six respondents, one held a diploma, one boasted a Honours Degree, one a Masters and two had

obtained a doctorate. The work experience varied from 01 to 09 years (2); 10 to 19 years (1) and more than 30 years (3). Some of the positive experiences of the interviewees were included in the analysis of the data (cf. par. 6.2.1.1, p. 363; 6.2.2, p. 367). Although the interviewees set aside time for the interview appointment, some interruptions did occur for them to attend to urgent school and academic matters. All interviews were however completed in full.

The presentation and discussion of the semi-structured interview data follow in the next sections.

6.2.3   Presentation and discussion of the semi structured interview data

The purpose of the semi-structured interview, as stated previously (cf. par. 1.3, p. 12; 6.2.1.1, p. 363) was to identify related themes during the interpretation process that would contribute towards the development of an appropriate instrument for the quantitative phase of this research (cf. par. 5.7.4.1, p. 325; 5.7.4.2, p. 325; 6.2.1, p. 358).[91] From Fig. 20 (cf. p.374) it can be readily observed, that two themes in particular emanated from the analysis of the semi-structured interview, namely competencies and needs. This is also reflected in the research problem, namely to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

Sport management competencies, as was already indicated elsewhere (cf. par. 1.2.1.5, p. 5) refers to the knowledge, skills, values and individual characteristics in a specific context (school sport) subjacent to the management action of school sport applied to a defined standard of performance of a particular task (Bellis, 1997:8; Hollander, 2000:20; Gerber, 2009:12; Soucie, 2013:2). For purposes of this study, sport management competencies were earlier identified and described as core, functional and specialist (par. 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.8, p. 283; 4.9, p. 296; Table 18, p. 265).

Needs, the second theme that emanated from the semi structured interview, relate to those things that are necessary to stay alive (Bright *et al.*, 2011:167). For the purpose of this study, needs would thus focus on those things (tangible and intangible) necessary to manage school sport effectively and efficiently. Having said that, one is also reminded that the school setting in the South African context is unique, and different schools from different socio-economic status, background (history), community (historically advantaged and historically disadvantaged), type of school (public or independent, secondary or primary), classification (combined, ex Model C,

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[91]Cf. also, par. 1.3.2, p. 12

technical, rural, agricultural and township), number of learners participating in sport, composition of the school (boys or girls only and combined), cultures, ethnical origin, number of educators available to offer sport– all of these impact on the competencies and needs required by the school sport manager. The development of a sport management programme for educator training should thus be a deliberate effort to ensure that the needs, demands, requirements and competencies of educators are met (Kerr, 2003:2; O'Shea & Watson, 2007:53-54; Ko *et al.*, 2011:302; Veri & Walsh, 2012:50-51). In short, programme development is therefore a close (intimate) intertwinement between the needs of theory and practice and implies a good relationship between schools and HEIs which offer relevant programmes for training. This twofold approach of school (community or practice) and HEIs can be seen as the focus of this research. Schools, in relation to the current study, should identify clear goals, objectives, timeframes, training requirements and competencies required for the management of school sport, while the interests and responsibilities of HEIs to meet the needs, demands and requirements to schools to offer well qualified, trained and competent educators are dealt with in an organised, systematic manner in accordance with a planned structure and long term plan and goal. In Figure 21 (cf. p. 375), the competencies identified from the responses of the interviewees are depicted.

Responses assigned to this category represented the respondents' viewpoints and perceptions about the competencies required to manage school sport. As was stated elsewhere, in coherence with the literature overview, (cf. par; 3.6.9, p. 195; Fig. 12, p. 199; par 5.5, p. 319), some of the responses implicitly indicated that the competencies required to manage school sport should include core, functional and specialist competencies. *Core competencies* are those capabilities that are critical to a business achieving competitive advantage (Riley, 2012:2). Business dictionary (2013) takes a similar standpoint on their interpretation of core competencies, but add that in general, core competencies are the unique ability that a company acquires from its founders, or develops, and as such these core competencies cannot be easily imitated or replicated. Theoretically, a core competency should allow a company to expand into new end markets as well as provide a significant benefit to customers according to an unknown author in Investopedia (2013:10). In the context of the current study, the core competencies required to manage school sport should be seen as the central or innermost unique knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that are essential to manage school sport. Elsewhere (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.8, p. 283; 4.6.3.4, p. 257; Table 18, p. 265) reference was made that core competencies for the management of school sport can be divided into fundamental (foundational/essential) and general (basic day-to-day) management competencies.

Figure 20: Schematic presentation of the components of a sport management programme for educator training

Figure 21: Competencies of school sport managers in a diversity of South African Schools

The following quotes serve to support the *preceding* view.

"The basic management components of human resource management in sport, financial management in sport, uh…in particular marketing in sport where both the marketing of the sports product or product through the medium of sport uhm…uh…your facility management, your event management, legal aspects in sport. So those are the core modules" (P6: 57-57).[92]

"A physical education specialist should be able to do that, and should be able to identify what kind of exercises so the students can or can't do" (P3:146-146).

"Uhm…history yes, but I think history would provide a contextual background. Where do we come from, where are we going? You know, how was sport offered previously? Linked with physical education? How was it managed before? The Phys Ed teacher managed all the sport codes and there were people appointed in the schools etcetera, etcetera. But to get a broader understanding of South African sport in the South African context, in the African context and in the global context. Because we have a global village and you can't move away from that. So history is another one. Uhm…ja so…but I think one shouldn't go too wide because the teachers being trained, they qualify, they specialise not in physical education but they specialise in teaching and specific fields, learning areas so I would think, my understanding is that we're talking not about a separate qualification but we're talking about a more generic applied training in the management of sport combined with coaching" (P6:47-47).

"Physical education will be one of the fundamental principles that we must have" (P5:37-37)

Hereafter, the codes for the fundamental sport management competencies identified from the data regarded as the most important aspects will be discussed.

6.2.3.1 Fundamental school sport management competencies

Fundamental school sport management competencies include the competencies related to the four fundamental (basic) management tasks, namely planning, organising, leading and control as part of the management process, strategic management, communication and governance (structures that govern school sport on different levels, policies and procedures). The responses of this

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[92]For reference cf. Annexure M, on CD. To check the reference, P6:57-57, note that P6 refers to Primary document 6 and 57:57 refers to the line number where this quote comes from

category were all related to the interview questions about the respondents' view of fundamental principle (s) to manage sport in schools, the main focus disciplines of sport management training and the most important competencies an educator as school sport manager should be trained in. A majority of responses were recorded that viewed the fundamental management tasks, namely planning, organising, leading and control as representative of the fundamental school sport management competencies.

"The fundamental principles are the ability within a school setting to plan and organise activities linked to the needs of those particular children" (P3:51-51).

"Fundamental principles requiring of a sport manager is that ability to design and implement activities" (P3:67-67).

"Planning, organising, staffing, controlling…uhm, by a dedicated individual, not half-hearted, it must be a dedicated person - that is essential for me" (P4:10-10).

"The management principles of planning, organising, directing and control, those management principles" (P6:10-10).

The above mentioned quotes clearly indicate that the management of school sport is closely related to the four fundamental management tasks, namely planning, organising, leading and control and is thus in accordance with the related perspectives of management as discussed in the literature study (cf. par. 3.3.1, p. 129). Interestingly though, an overview of the responses related to the question what their understanding of sport management was, a more general view of sport management refers to the concept as *broad* (P5: 5-5) and a general misconception that "*coordination equates planning"* (P1:17-17). In addition, one respondent held the belief that "*sport should not be run haphazardly, it must be run in a coordinated way"* (P1:5-5). The preceding responses are thus in line with the requirement from the literature overview about a clear conceptualisation as a point of departure or precondition for the management of school sport (cf. par. 1.2.1.1, p. 2). There is close relationship between one's understanding of sport management and the competencies required to manage school sport. As a result hereof, this question of the interview schedule allowed for more probing questions that yielded different responses that manifested again at a later stage during the interview.

In coherence with the literature overview (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122), some responses indicated the importance of strategic management :

"Think in the first instance this person should be a strategist, uhm obviously not on his own but with the management of the school to get an understanding of the strategic positioning of sport at the school. Strategic going from educational to high performance, if that is the decision. So this person should be a strategist, strategics, understand strategy, should understand structure relationship and should understand the implementation of the strategy. What does it look like on the ground? He has to bear that in mind" (P6: 35-35).

Strategic management as fundamental school sport management competency, in line with the literature overview, further implies knowledge of the sports environment as well as of the needs of the consumer (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122). The following responses echoed by respondents, were in agreement with related themes from the literature overview (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122):

"Basic knowledge of the sports environment, of the sports institutions and also the necessary skills that you require in order to be able to handle those things" (P2:20-20).

"Sport environment, do you understand where you gonna go? "(P2: 154-154).

"*Implement activities based on the needs of the learners at that particular school*" (P3: 67-67)

"They need to do is a needs-analysis around uhm, what is required at schools. What do they have, more an audit I suppose" (P3:666-666).

"The person needs to have very good knowledge of the setting that they find themselves in. Uhm…if they are in a setting where in a school in an area where there's issues with violence or crime, how do they use sport or physical activity to address those issues?" (P3:389-389).

"A committed management in a school. We pick it up where the principal, we can say that of the university, we can say that of the management structure of the university or of the school, where the principal is a sport supporter the school will be a sport supporter. If the principal is dedicated and his staff is dedicated they will find money, they will find athletes, they will find resources" (P6:316-316).

Three particularly striking views or approaches regarding strategic management and the fundamental tasks of management were provided by three respondents, whose response to a certain degree indicated consistency with the literature review. One respondent remarked as follows: *"I think that it is important to go and sit beforehand and identify goals and responsibilities"* (P2:175-175). Another respondent reported that a fundamental principle required of a sport manager is *"the ability to design and implement activities"* (P3:67-67). The third and final respondent's view reiterated the importance of a key principle when managing school sport strategically, namely implementing a specific management philosophy. *"There are a couple of key principles, and the first one is that it must be sport for all, I believe the school system must give the opportunity to everyone to participate. So it must be managed in the philosophy of sport for all"* (P4:27-27). *"Ja, it's the philosophy, it's the principles (sighs) that they must adhere to. It should be the school principle, not winning at all costs, mass participation, uhm…etcetera, etcetera…parental involvement, that's what I think it needs. Philosophical issues that must be addressed. So he must be knowledgeable, but it must be part and parcel of the guidelines of the school system. To say, "Listen it's not just about winning, it's about mass participation. But a need to win, we must strive to win! But not at all costs."* (P4: 503-503). These views were individualised views regarding important principles to manage school sport strategically, but were also an indication of creativity, strong beliefs concerning the role of school sport managers, self-reliance, situation-specific nature and context applying fundamental management competencies to manage school sport. The individualised views also signified that the management of school sport in accordance with identified goals and responsibilities and a management philosophy was nothing new, but was already implemented in practice, regardless of different views and experience that existed in this regard.

Some respondents further expressed an explicit connection between their personal convictions and the characteristics a competent school sport manager fundamentally should have. Examples of such responses were: *"There is passion from both sides. There is passion for football, there is passion for rugby"* (P1:340-340)*. "You know, if a teacher has passion, the teacher will always try - always try! Even if there is no support from the principal. The passion drives the person"* (P1:318-318). "*In terms of the individual, I think people with a passion for sport; personal interest in sport will drive, or will champion the sport"* (P2:28-28). "*Planning, organising, staffing, controlling…uhm, by a dedicated individual, not half-hearted, it must be a dedicated person - that is essential for me"* (P4:10-10). Over and above the preceding examples of personal convictions and the characteristics of a competent school sport manager, one respondent expressed his utter disbelief

and disgust regarding the current status and attitude of people involved in sport by saying: *"There are too many people who are forced to do sport at school and therefore they don't do justice and they don't provide the right opportunities, the right climate for the children to be able to achieve. Ensure rather that it is something that you want to do"* (P2:179-179). All these responses were to some extent in accordance with the perspectives of sport management and the need for a competent person to manage school sport in accordance with the needs of a diversity of South African schools as discussed in the literature study (cf. par. 3.4, p. 140; 4.6, p. 249). The particular theme of characteristics and personality traits of school sport managers is a case in point for further research to investigate specifically the fundamental nature of characteristics and personality traits of school sport managers.

The second code associated with the fundamental school sport management competencies is related to communication. Concerning communication, Kam (2009:1) holds the belief that communication is easily overlooked, but the ability to communicate is necessary to carry out the thoughts and visions of an organisation. For the current study communication can be regarded as significant for school sport managers so as to perform the basic functions of planning, organising, leading and control (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122). More specifically, communication helps school sport managers to perform their jobs and responsibilities. So communication serves as a foundation for planning and all essential information is communicated to relevant school sport managers who in turn must communicate the plans so as to implement them. Organising also requires effective communication with others. Similarly, leaders as managers must communicate effectively with their subordinates so as to achieve the school's goals and objectives. Equally important, control is not possible without written and oral communication. In addition, school sport managers devote a great part of their time in communication, whether face to face or telephonic communication with superiors, subordinates, colleagues, parents, learners, suppliers and various other stakeholders, or written communication in the form of letters, reports or memos wherever oral communication is not possible. Thus, one can say that effective communication is a building block of successful schools and for that matter school sport managers. In other words, as Management Study Guide (2013:1) explicitly states: "*Communication acts as organisational blood"*. Hence, regarding the significance and importance of effective communication, the following quotes from one respondent confirm the previously stated views and relationships between a school sport manager and effective communication: *"Communication skills and how do you communicate with your team"* (P2:154-154). "*We send the information to them all the time. We just ensure that from our side we pass on the information"*(P2:191:191)*.* In addition, the recorded response was also in line with the literature

overview that specifically promoted dissemination of information as a fundamental role which the school sport manager has to fulfil (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169).

Also implicated in the above-mentioned definition of communication is the ability to handle conflict, establish good relations (cf. par. 3.6.2, p.160; 6.2.3.3, p. 386) and compliance with a hierarchy of authority and channels of communication in accordance with different levels of management (cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141). These views also manifested in related response from the interviews:

"I understand in my previous schools, so I'm not gonna deal with the team in terms of what they doing on their… But we still have a chat. So I learned and he learned, but not everybody was like that" (P2:167-167).

"In my experience here and so my previous school I was totally in charge of sport and nobody bothered to make it better. When I came here we had quite a bit of conflict in terms of me being an educator and managing the volleyball. And they have coach who is a technical expert and I am not suppose to get involved in volleyball, the teaching and the match tactics and those things. And I was never allowed to" (P2:167-167).

"Because again back to practical experience; year taught me that the coach is regarded as the person responsible for the code. Because I felt that the manager is more responsible for it than the coach. The coach serves a purpose. The manager has the broader control of the team because you are responsible for the child, responsible for the arrangements, you must… So the coach should actually be reporting to you and not the other way around" (P2:171-171).

The third and final code assigned to the category of fundamental school sport management competencies relates to governance. Governance refers to the way of exercising authority and control by people who run an organisation, company or even a country (Dictionary.Reference.Com, 2013; Loosely Coupled, 2013; The Free Dictionary, 2013a). Simply stated in lay language, it refers to an act, process or power of holding sway (Merriam Webster, 2013). More specifically in relation to school sport, governance thus refers to the ability to exercise authority and control by ensuring that relevant structures on different levels, policies and procedures are in place. Responses that regarded governance as a fundamental school sport management competency included, amongst others, to *monitor policy implementation* (P1:330-330). The view from the preceding respondent was supported by another closely related response from another respondent who said that *"there's*

a policy in the school under which the school operates and those policies guide the ways all of us have to interact with the children" (P2:58-58), and that educators are subject to a code of ethics, but not coaches *"More importantly, I mean, are those people the outsiders whereas your educators are subject to a code of ethics, there is not such code of ethics which exists when you are being coaches. And so how do you hold them accountable? And that becomes…that's an issue that we've been grappling with. If we've got good people that we put in place at school, on what code of conduct and under what conditions of employment"* (P2:62-62). The same respondent also held the opinion: *"policy should also indicate who is actually responsible for the sport"* (P2:171-171). These particular responses were supported in literature that advocated a clear understanding of policy implemented by government to guide the actions of school sport managers, sport federations and all other stakeholders involved and responsible for school sport, in an attempt to eradicate the imbalances and ills of the past. The significance of the role of policy was further highlighted as precondition to manage school sport in order to understand the complexity of the unique South African context and situation, challenges and frustration encountered as a result of the new government in a democratic South Africa.

One respondent associated governance with issues related to things government do*.*

"I think that they need to have an understanding of government's issues. Uhm, more specifically looking at, you can call it governance, but looking at things around transparency, discipline, responsibility, accountability, uhm…independence, you know all the characteristics" (P3:217-217). Besides the view of the preceding respondent, a few other responses implied the association of governance with monitoring and support. The association of the former two respondents concerning governance was also consistent with the viewpoint from literature that demands a broader outlook of governance and the role of government.

Concerning their experience in implementing policy and knowledge of structures related to sport and the specific environment, respondents held different views. To that end, one respondent in particular not only highlighted the importance thereof, but also questioned the role of government and expressed his concerns and frustration. So his concerns and frustrations bore relation to the lack of clear role demarcation and clarification, understanding of structures, despite structures already being in place and compliant with set policy as well as what he referred to as disregard and disrespects of schools and school structures, while another stressed *"the importance of*

understanding the role of the local municipality in terms of assisting schools" (P5:37-37).   The following examples serve as case in point of one respondent.

"*There seems to be now a synergy between the Education Department, that's DOE, and then at Sports and Recreation South Africa. But then you come to the xxx and school sport falls within the Department of Culture Affairs and Sport. Education is not committed to sport; it doesn't give any resources to sport. So you've got education policies conflict with the Department of Sport. So they can't put people in schools, it's not their place*" (P2:32-32)

"*In certain codes you don't have that problem…now we are experiencing some issues with football. There is no interference in their perception of what they think is wrong. So you want them to support but they need to understand they can't be near the team, they've got nothing to do with the match officials. We had one or two incidents where parents got involved, but fortunately our coaches, our management staff simply intervened and told them to get away*" (P2:74-74)

"*They don't understand there is a netball structure in the district, there is a netball structure in the region, and there is a provincial structure which is separate from the federation structures. Then there is an outdoor netball and an indoor netball, two different netballs. Now they are happy to go action netball but the coach doesn't want them to play there*" (P2:154-154)

All of the above stated responses pointed upon a frustration with role players in school sport's lack of understanding the specific school sport environment, changed mindset of learners, policies implemented, and conflict between policies and structures established within a school and interference by government, parents and sport federations. Needless to say that these responses, even though from only one respondent, were consistent with the viewpoint from literature that indicated the need to understand the complexity of the ever changing situation and challenge regarding the management of school sport in South Africa (cf. par. 2.2.1, p. 26).

In coherence with the literature overview (cf. par. 2.3.1, p. 37; 2.3.3.2, p. 53), a response from one respondent indicated that racial matters are still an issue, and are currently overshadowing other aspects of managing school sport.

"*I think in the South African context where we retrench a racial balance - we say fifty-fifty. One manager black, one manager white…there is still that suspicion that the black guy doesn't work,*

doesn't have sufficient knowledge, doesn't have the background and then the person is disregarded. Instead of building a capacity, a broadening process (inaudible 00:32:58-00:33:00) because the one's input is disregarded because there is an assumption that he has no experience or that he doesn't know enough" (P2:175-175).

Concerning the response stated above, it would seem that the particular respondent implied that ordinary incidences in school sport are turned into racial issues, that change is forced upon us and that school sport was and still is easily politicised. This particular response also linked up with the argument from the literature study that the competencies required to manage school sport are varied, with a particular focus and emphasis on the unique South African context referred to on more than one occasion. In the same breath, and equally important, the development of a sport management programme for educator training should be in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Quite clearly, responses from some of the respondents related to governance signified a negative experience concerning the role of government and their interference in school sport. The occurrence of situations outlined in this and preceding paragraphs may be ascribed to a restricted perspective of diversity on racial issues that can lead, according to Van Vuuren (2008:48,280), to divisive and retrogressive actions in practice. The preceding reasoning endorses the importance of commitment by school managers and leaders to all aspects of diversity for the advancement of unity at all levels of school life. Tied to the preceding, in relation to the current study, the development of a sport management programme for educator training should be in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. It must however, be kept in mind, that each school represents a unique institution with its own idiosyncratic characteristics, compilation and circumstances.

The significance of the responses related to governance for the development of a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, was to determine the competence of school sport managers on different levels of management (cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141). The role of the government to provide more guidance and support to all role players was also implied by some of the responses from respondents and was also expressed as a significant need (cf. par. 6.2.7, p. 408; 6.3.3, p. 492).

Apart from the codes assigned to the fundamental school sport management competencies, codes related to general school sport management competencies also came to the fore.

6.2.3.2 General school sport management competencies

General sport management competencies relate to day-to-day administrative activities and office management like conducting meetings and managing information, as well as time management (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.6.3.4, p. 257; 4.8, p. 283; 4.9, p. 296; Table 17, p. 245). An overview of the responses about general school sport management competencies led to a classification of responses in the following groups:

- **Administrative activities**
  - *"Administration and record keeping"* (P2:107; P3:11-11; P5:224-224)
  - *"Basic administration competencies that is writing, communication, writing of letters"* (P6:230-230)
  - *"So it would be basic administration competencies: that is: writing, communication, writing of letters, utilizing electronic media, using the computer for data bases, spread sheets, etcetera, etcetera. So there's a lot of admin, administrative skills"* (P6:230-230).

- **Office management**
  - *"How to take minutes"* (P1:163-163)
  - *"Conducting meetings, conducting interviews and then your facility management skills. So it's all about those basic management competencies"* (P6:230-231).
  - *"There should be dissemination of information"* (P1:64-64; P4:418-418).
  - *"Recommend to anybody that I've seen a very good hockey player who has strength and speed"* (P1:441-441).
  - *"Report typing is important"* (P2:154-154).
  - *"Cricket statistics…even in football"* (P2:154-154).
  - *"Match analyses"* (P2:154-154).
  - *"How to send a fax. Because very often you phone and nobody answers. Send a fax"* (P2:154-154)
  - *"Send a fax or an email; then you've got proof"* (P2:154-154)
  - *"Like how to write a notice"* (P2:154-154)

- **Time management**
  - *"So if we cannot manage that time"*(P1:5-5; P1:211-211)

The responses outlined above correlate with the literature overview and were thus summarised as

administrative activities, office management and time management. The listed responses about general school sport management competencies have a clear meaning, are relevant to the management of school sport, and for that reason, no detailed discussion and explanation of responses were provided. All the responses served as practical guidelines to deal with general school sport management and were valuable for inclusion in the questionnaire to identify the competencies required to manage school sport and ultimately, develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12; 6.3.1, p. 432).

A closer examination of Figure 21 (cf. p. 375) reveals that functional competencies can be regarded as another building block for the identification of competencies required to manage school sport, and as such the development of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3, p. 12; Chapter 7). Earlier the functional school sport management competencies were associated with those activities that take place in succession and interchangeably within the context of a strategy, and are used to achieve the goals and objectives of the school (cf. par. 3.6, p. 154). The leading functions from responses that were cited by most of the respondents can be summarised as: (i) Human resources (HR); (ii) Marketing; (iii) Finances; (iv) Operations; (v) Purchases; (vi) Public relations and; (vii) Law and legal. Furthermore, it should also be kept in mind, that findings and responses from this category supported views expressed earlier in the literature review (cf. par. 4.4, p. 212). In the ensuing sections, codes related to each of the functions will be discussed. Hereafter human resources will come under scrutiny.

6.2.3.3 Human resources

As was stated earlier, the human resources function entails the creation, maintenance and utilisation of a skillful and well-motivated labour force in order to realise the objectives of a sport enterprise (cf. par. 3.2.1.1, p. 119; 3.6.5, p. 169). In relation to the current study, school sport managers thus play a critical role in the day-to-day functioning of sport at the school and, as has been stressed throughout this research report, are required to manage the rich, rapidly developing sport environment at schools (Zeigler *et al.*, 1988:3; Zeigler & Bowie, 1995:4; Parkhouse & Pitts, 2005:5). School sport managers are managing school sport according to the unique needs and requirements of the institution and play a crucial role in the institution in which they function. They work in a wide variety of settings and are required to perform several functions that require advanced knowledge, skills and attributes in order to manage sport in the school effectively (Billing, 2000:5; Hollander, 2000:108). Goslin (1996:208) reviewed literature on human resource

management and revealed that appropriately trained employees were regarded as one of the major success variables for maintaining standards of service in any organisation. It is thus imperative that the school sport manager should have related experience, be trained, as well as comply with the requirements of his/her position (Ulrich, 1997:5,13,17,24-28). Results from the qualitative analysis of this study confirmed the findings of Goslin (1996:208) and other views expressed in literature.

The majority of responses related to human resources referred to the important role of the school sport manager to ensure that people and learners are properly trained and to oversee all the sporting codes. *"Training perhaps of coaches or umpires"* (P1:13-13); *"through workshops teachers can be taught or informed about that legislation that has been passed, which is a policy"* (P1:64-64); *"run a proper training programme"* (P2:141-141); *"some form of technical training in the code of sport"* (P2:154-154); *"design and implement activities based on the needs of the learners at that particular school"* (P3:81-81); *"Human resource management is part of that they will be able to manage coaches, including officials, manage parents which can be a major challenge but it must be done and then manage the participants"*(P4: 148-148); *"That's correct, that's correct That's part of the coaching management, is sending them to a coaching clinic or organise a coaching clinic for the staff for that sport code. That's the manager; you must oversee all the coaches, all the sporting codes"* (P4:248-248). These responses were to a certain extent in accordance with the need expressed for training (cf. par. 6.2.3, p. 372; 6.2.7, p. 408).

Other responses from participants implicated that the school sport manager should have knowledge of different aspects related to the management of school sport and should thus be a holistic person who is able to coordinate and develop sport programmes that are geared towards the needs of learners, and can also teach children basic skills and physical education. *"He must be knowledgeable, sport management can be…it's very multi-disciplined"* (P4: 394-394);); "*Then we know that now we' have the holistic person that when he comes to a school he knows how to put the programme, he knows how to execute the programme, he knows how to evaluate the programme…you know all the risks within the programme"* (P5:168-168); "C*oordinated netball programme it would mean it would have leagues, it would have development, it would have you know?"* (P1:13-13); "S*ports programme for funding the school, marketing, professionalizing the school, or whether it is your extra-mural sports"* (P2:16-16); *"Running programs or managing programmes that are geared towards social issues and addressing the social issues and the social behaviours"* (P3:81-81); *"Knowing how to put the programs, knowing how to execute those*

programs, knowing how to do the follow-ups in terms of those problems and knowing the challenges within the environment where they are, to be able to have some mass participation and also excellent programming in terms of being training in the sport management requirements" (P5: 110-110 "T*each children basic skills of throwing"* (P1:92-92); "*Physical Education. Which you must teach at school"* (P1:92-92).

Some responses highlighted the importance of policy. Policy in this context not only referred to school policy, but also a sound policy for selection of teams in line with school policy. Examples hereof are: *"We resolve it by saying, number one, we are the custodians of the children, there's a policy in the school under which the school operates and those policies guide the ways all of us have to interact with the children"* (P2:58:58); *"You got to understand the school policy and the school selection policy also. It's easier if the educator is managing the sport; the coach. "I just carry the bags"*(P2:163:163). A related response also included reference to attendance of workshops as part of school and sport policy. *"Through workshops teachers can be taught or informed about that legislation that has been passed, which is a policy"* (P1:64-64). The preceding response to some degree indicated consistency with responses that emphasised the importance of training as was also reported in a previous paragraph, and the expressed need for training (cf. par. 6.2.3, p. 372; 6.2.7, p. 408). Responses related to policy were significant for the understanding of the importance of human resources in the day-to-day running of sport in a school and the role of school sport managers to comply with set policy to guide the way one interacts with learners. These responses linked up with the argument from the literature study that policy has a particular focus and emphasis on guiding actions and steps that serve as a measure of control (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151), which, consistent with the literature overview, can be regarded as one of the fundamental tasks of management (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151). In short, responses related to policy, ultimately also served as a fundamental guideline for managing conflict and parent interference as implied by one respondent (P2: 58-58;163-163;167-167).

One respondent also emphasised the need for talent identification, but questioned the knowledge and competence of school sport managers to actually identify talent and direct training in accordance with their specific needs and actual weaknesses that should be worked on, e.g. *"We've got the standard (inaudible 00:58:31). People train in the one year ETA courses…training so that children are taught proper training needs. What that I really want to touch on is that educators are very often responsible for talent identification, yet we have no knowledge of talent identification"* (P2:343-343). *"How do I identify…(inaudible 00:59:23-00:59:27) but really I could be*

going back to a primary school and looking at the child I don't really know how to judge the child. His coordination, his agility and so, which is crucial to me (inaudible 00:59:39). Like I said, we pick up the things now that the child is fifteen years old" (P2:347-351). The tone of this particular response signified a frustration by the respondent about the lack of knowledge and properly trained school sport managers, which is consistent with the aims of this particular study, to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12; Chapter 7).

Concerning the implementation and development of programmes, three respondents provided valuable insight and advice, but also warned about the role of the school sport manager as significant other to ensure a love of sport and as such lifelong participation. One respondent recommended the use of experienced people at grassroots level to teach the fundamentals to learners. "*There is needs down below. And very often that is the problem that we have in all our sports, we take our most experienced people and we place them at the top where they should be at the front level where we are teaching fundamentals"*(P2:123-123). Another respondent emphasised an approach of mass participation and involvement, but warned against the consequences of winning at all costs *"Mass involvement, mass participation, and to me it's essential. You must strive to win, but it's not…winning shouldn't be everything. It's obvious: we need to win, but it should not be winning at all costs"* (P4:346-346). This particular approach and emphasis on winning shouldn't be everything and mass participation for enjoyment, also coincided with the viewpoint of Potgieter (2013:6) who quoted Plato as saying: "*To conquer yourself is the most important and noblest of triumphs"*. The third respondent, ascended to the preceding views, but explicitly pleaded for an approach to focus on basics so as to ensure a love for sport, yet implicitly hinted upon an approach of encouragement, based on the needs of learners and not to over train learners "*When he starts the programme, he must start the programme with the entry level, basic level, basics"* (P5:148-148); *"He must know that he cannot start with a vigorous programme, he must start with basics, entry level - so that the kids must love sport. Because if you start too bad, the kids will shy away"* (P5:156-156).

One respondent reported that an important competency related to human resources was the school sport manager's ability to manage groups *"A group of children not only in the class but also on the sports field* (P6:230-230) and viewed human resources as *"The processes, interview skills* (P6:230-230). The same respondent held the view that human resources was an important principle in the management of school sport: *"Another principle is your human resources should be able to manage that in mind purposefully and not only manage it for their own purpose, so it's*

purposefully" and further stated that: best practice is always human resources, you can go wherever you want to people will make out of nothing a big programme if their human resources is there, if their motivation is there, if people is there, they will get going - and you will see it. If a principal moves from one school to another school you can see the school changes. A good example is the principal that was with school xxx which is now with school xxx, private school, same principle. What's happened? And the principal picks up sport and use sport as a vehicle. So human resources best practice" (P6:316-316). The significance of the preceding response lies therein that best practices can be implemented in schools and is imperative for the development of a sport management programme for educator training. It was acknowledged that each school is unique and therefore it can be assumed that best practices that work in one school will not necessary be effective in another school. Put simply, what works in one school, may not be effective or appropriate in another. That said though, given the purpose of the qualitative section of this report, to identify themes that contribute towards the development of an appropriate instrument for the quantitative phase of this research (cf. par. 1.4.6, p. 17; 5.9, p. 333), best practices also served to provide a substantial theoretical framework and a broader picture and overview of the undertaken study. In this way, the researcher was able to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. The theme of best practices in the management of school sport is also a case in point for further research to investigate specifically the fundamental nature and value of best practices in school sport management.

In sum, what is evident from the above mentioned responses related to human resources, is the fact that these responses from respondents on human resources coincided with the views of Marken (2000:43); Lipiec (2001:143-144); Surujlal *et al.* (2003:50); Kriemadis and Papaioannou (2006:118) and Hollander (2007a:39) from the literature study that the most precious and valuable asset in any contemporary enterprise of the 21st century are precisely their human resources – the people who forms the enterprise (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169). Stated differently, human resources play a critical role in the day to day functioning of sport in a school. Interestingly, these views were elaborated on significantly and thus supported the data obtained from the quantitative section of this research (cf. par. 5.9, p. 333; 6.3, p. 431).

Above and beyond codes assigned to human resources, codes were also assigned to responses from respondents that represented their viewpoint and perceptions about marketing as functional competency.

6.2.3.4 Marketing

Although the importance, value and uniqueness of marketing is acknowledged, it has to be stated, that responses related to marketing as functional competency should all be seen against the backdrop of new societal trends and developments in school sport that are currently overshadowing school sport (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70). As outlined in the literature overview, the marketing function is concerned with the process of planning and execution of conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of ideas, goods and services in order to sell the sport product and/or service to the consumer (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; 3.6.1, p. 155).

Responses related to marketing management covered respondents' viewpoint and perceptions about the competencies underpinning marketing management. To a large degree, responses related to this code indicated consistency with the literature that specifically promoted and highlighted two perspectives, namely: marketing through sport and marketing of sport (cf par. 3.6.1, p. 155). The following responses and examples from respondents serve to substantiate the preceding view:

"Most definitely, if you don't do that at your school, the school is left behind. Those children will go to…the parents will take their children to what they perceive the better organised sport, that has access to more resources, access to the media… We are…I'm telling you now this school, in the country per capita, there is now school that performs as well as we do in terms of getting children from one level to the next level. We don't get a single bit of publicity, in this area it is Afrikaans newspapers. They will write about school xxx's under fourteen (inaudible 00:35:58-00:36:00). Here we have swimmers that go to South African teams…and we won't get a bit of publicity. We don't get any sponsorships" (P2:187-187).

"Also I think the marketing from my side is because of affluent schools, they are able to recruit raw talent from former disadvantaged schools and so forth. And now if you do correct marketing…they…you can give these youngsters an opportunity of bursaries to be able to enhance academic and sports and the same time. Because now they've got an assistant, but if you don't got a marketing tool that is a difficult position. That is what we get with the township schools, they cannot you know, execute what they are supposed to do because they don't have resources" (P5:247-247).

"Secondly, in terms of extra-mural activities, this is what we are doing." And also to influence the

parents to say, "Education goes hands and gloves with extra-mural activity." Because now what we see today when the principal say, "They are judging me with the matric result", which is not true. The school that are doing quite well academically, they are doing quite well also in sports. And also we know that now…uh, the what you call…gene for life is there and people must be aware of all this exercises because right now I think we are the fifth country in the world in terms of obesity" (P5:255-255)

"Marketing in sport where both the marketing of the sports product or product through the medium of sport" (P6:57-57).

"Better understanding of marketing, uhm…for example in a…even in a school…(sighs). You know, it goes two ways, you know? The school needs to be able to market themselves as a school…or a school of destination or choice, a school of choice. But in terms of marketing sport at the school I think it is important that the sports specialist should be able to do that (P3:457-457).

"Need to have an understanding of how to market, you know, physical activity and physical education and health and wellness to not only learners but to other educators as well" (P3:209-209).

"I think from my side I'll say we've got two worlds within xxx. We've got school that are doing quite well in terms of marketing themselves academically and sports wise. And now we've got schools that are being pressurised by authorities that now you give academic first priority, sports…it's an extra-mural activity…less. And we can even see from Department point of view, you got hundred and twenty to two hundred schools, you got only one sports coordinator from the district…"(P5: 267-267).

"You get Nutrition Week for example. So how is the sports, a specialist, a physical education specialist going to use that week to maximise the convention of sport within for example Nutrition Week. So what happens when you eat? What happens when you eat and when your exercise: if you consume a certain amount of carbohydrates, what happens to that carbohydrates that I had at lunch"? (P3:461-461). (Example of marketing of sport).

The following response from one of the respondents was disturbing and is of particular importance in relation to the current study, when he referred to *"developmental sport processes at school"* and

explicitly stated, "*Children no longer enjoy sport, and then people go and do unnecessary training, the over-training that takes place. There's the use of supplements and wanting to fast track children into it. Then there is the expectation and also the fact your federations disregard and disrespects schools and school structures. Again, our experience..."* (P2:179-179). This response also correlated with the viewpoint of Myburg (2013:1), a reporter of *Rapport,* a local Sunday newspaper. An implication of the response from this respondent was the fact that he alluded to the fact that the school sport manager plays an important role to market sport to learners given the changing environment and state of school sport in relation to societal perspectives concerning professionalization (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) and commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90) of school sport. Another related view was expressed by another respondent that was convinced that the marketing of sport at the school, i.e. marketing of sport, referred to previously, should be done by a dedicated, specialist school sport manager. The significance of these responses, even though they may seem to be individualised responses, in relation to the current lies once more therein that a need is expressed for a competent, specialist school sport manager responsible to manage school sport. So, the expressed need is in line with the purpose of the current research report to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

One respondent in particular, considered marketing vital, but expressed an explicit difference between affluent and less affluent schools concerning their ability to market the school through sport based on resources available. Given the lack of resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 407) marketing was thus seen as a challenge, "*Also I think the marketing from my side is because of affluent schools, they are able to recruit raw talent from former disadvantaged schools and so forth. And now if you do correct marketing…they…you can give these youngsters an opportunity of bursaries to be able to enhance academic and sports and the same time. Because now they've got an assistant, but if you don't got a marketing tool that is a difficult position. That is what we get with the township schools, they cannot you know, execute what they are supposed to do because they don't have resources* "(P5:247-247); "*We know that now marketing within the school, it's quite vital because we got a lot of challenges this nowadays"* (P5:259-259). Upon a closer look, it is also obvious that this particular response can be explained from the conflict theory, described earlier (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53). Another respondent elaborated quite comprehensively about marketing in the context of professionalization (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) and commercialisation of school sport (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90). ..."*If you look at schools, schools in the same trend especially certain schools where they go out and they recruit players, participants, they pay their schools fees and whatever fees. So they contract them, the play for the school and I still…you know even in universities' concept is*

you're actually, technically busy with slavery because you are exploiting the talents of the kid, exploiting in order to generate publicity and you hold this carrot of, "One day you could earn a lot of money." ... So there is a lot of pressure out there and remember a school is a follower. He is not a designer. And the schools are following the professional ethos of sport. Not all of them, but those of them that can do it they do that. That's why you get the school xxx, that's why you get the school xxx and the…what do they call themselves…the school xxx and other schools - because they really utilise sport as a…I would think more publicity than commercial" (P6:267-267).

The preceding responses from respondents concerning marketing epitomise the unique South African context and situation in relation to school sport and the expressed need for resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408). Responses are also of particular significance to the current study. The perception that marketing of school sport focuses mainly on one perspective, namely marketing of sport, may be explained from a South African historical context, but care must be taken not to adopt a one-sided approach with an overemphasis on previous differences and lack of opportunities and resources seen as stumbling blocks to adapt to change and as such adopt a professional approach towards competitive school sport in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. Fact of the matter is that 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. Hence, as was stated previously, for the sake of sustainability, the preceding state of affairs, alluded to by respondents in relation to marketing, requires specially trained personnel in the field of sport management (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; par.1.3, p. 12), but, and here in lies the crux of the matter for me, concerning the current study, in order to perform multiple functions, the school sport manager needs to be adequately prepared and equipped for critical areas to ensure that the needs of all stakeholders are satisfied. In brief, the preceding responses from respondents should be noted and acknowledged when a context- and content specific sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools are developed. Put differently, the developed programme should be developed for affluent and less affluent schools, participating in and on different levels of sport (mass participation, competitive, elite, etc.)

Closely related to marketing is the function of public relations. Hence, in the following section, responses that represented the respondents' viewpoints and experience about public relations will be presented.

6.2.3.5 Public relations

As was outlined previously, is public relations seen as the planned and sustained process of communication between a sport business and its public for the purpose of obtaining, maintaining or improving good relations and building networks (cf. par. 3.6.2, p. 160). Concerning the current study, would public relations thus refer to having their finger on the pulse in relation to the various stakeholders involved with and concerned about sport in the school, utilising different means of communication (written and spoken) in the day-to-day functioning of school sport.

A quick glance at the codes assigned to this particular category, to a certain degree indicated a close relationship and consistency with responses of two previous categories, namely communication (cf. par. 6.2.3.2, p. 385) and marketing (cf. par. 6.2.3.4, p. 391). Examples of such responses were: *"There needs to be a relationship between the two"* (P2:175-175); *"I have good relationship with the volleyball coach so we talk about things"*(P2:167-167); *"They need to network. I think there needs to be a network* (P3:678-678); *"There are quite good programmes, but I think those programmes are enhanced where there's a good relationship in school structures and the federation* (P5:430-430). It seems from these responses that good relationships and networking were regarded as the two most important aspects concerning public relations, while the importance of communication (cf. par. 6.2.3.2, p. 385) should also not be left out of account.

Apart from the preceding codes associated with the functional competencies required by school sport managers, were responses about respondents', viewpoints and perceptions about the financial management competencies required to manage school sport also captured (cf. Fig. 21, p. 375)

6.2.3.6 Financial management

According to the literature review is the financial function concerned with the acquisition, application and administration of funds, as well as the reporting on financial matters (cf. par. 3.6.3, p.163).

Responses about finances were recorded and included:

- *"It is the role also of colleagues like to go to schools and check whether there is a budget for school sport and whether they are buying"*(P1:291-291)

- *"They should have basic understanding of budgeting"* (P3:433-433)
- *"Income and expenditure, she should be able…he should be able to do that"* (P3:445-445).
- *"And budget it within a particular amount that is allocated to sport"* (P3:429-429)
- *"For parents to keep a kid in the first team, because there are a lot of tours. And that's where the professional sport manager comes in. He's also the guy that must get the sponsors, that's part of his job"* (P4:314-314)
- *"Less affluent schools survive with sponsors"* (P4:478-478)
- *Raising funds"* (P5:233-233)
- *"He must now have the skills of accounting for example, how does the figures"…(P5:25-25)*
- *"Business of sport. Where sport should be managed as business, it doesn't mean you should make money out of sport, but it…that… The sport environment is a business environment. You will struggle in a school to access money for sport, because the core business in education and training…and I believe that now the schools receive some sort of sport budget. But to access money is a business enterprise"* (P6: 57-57).
- *"Financial resource"* (P6:11-11)

From the preceding responses from respondents, in coherence with the literature overview (cf. par. 4.4, p. 212; 4.6.3.4, p. 257), it can be inferred that the contemporary school sport manager should be able to manage different budgets (cash, capital etc.), draw up a budget, has a basic knowledge and understanding of accounting and related concepts such as income and expenditure and also to handle money of sport related activities. Another significant aspect concerning responses related to finance was the fact that one of the qualities associated with a school sport manager, which is crucial, is their ability to generate income by means of fundraising and sponsorships. Lastly, it can be concluded that the above mentioned responses also linked up with the argument from the literature study that school sport can be seen as a business (cf. par. 3.2, p. 117). The importance of a close association between a budget and purchases was also implied by some respondents. In the next section competencies associated with purchases will be discussed.

6.2.3.7 Purchases

One aspect from the theoretical framework developed from the extensive literature review regarding the management of school sport, did not come to the fore from the interviews, namely responses about the school sport management competencies related with purchasing (cf. par. 3.6.4, p. 166). From the literature review it was established, that the purchasing function is

primarily concerned with the supply of equipment and services at the right time, place and price of the right quantities as well as the procurement thereof in accordance with the budget. The assumption was that the respondents regarded purchases as part and parcel of the financial function and not as a separate function as reflected in the literature review (cf. par. 3.6.4, p. 166). However, for the purposes of the quantitative section, based on the literature review, was purchases considered as a separate function, and thus regarded as one the qualities associated with the school sport manager (cf. par. 3.6.4, p. 166; Fig. 12, p. 199; Table 17, p. 245; par. 3.6.9, p.195; 4.8, p. 283).

The next competency identified in the literature review which forms a significant part in armoury of the contemporary school sport manager, is the sport law and legal management competencies (cf. par. 3.6.7, p. 179; Fig. 12, p. 199; Fig. 21, p. 375).

6.2.3.8 Sport law and legal management competencies

In connection with the current study, the sport law and legal management function entails factors that may prevent unwanted legal action, liability, negligence and contracts in school sport (cf. par. 3.6.7, p.179; Fig. 12, p. 199; Fig. 21, p. 375). A synopsis of respondents' viewpoints and perceptions about the competencies underpinning the sport law and legal management competencies a school sport manager should possess of, revealed consistency with the responses of a previous code assigned to the category of fundamental school sport management competencies, namely governance (cf. par. 6.2.3.1, p. 376). The consistency signified a relation between the understanding of the concept of governance, the role of government to implement policy and measures to prevent unwanted legal action, liability, negligence and contracts in school sport as well as the competencies required to manage school sport in compliance with related policy and measure prescribed by law. Recorded responses about sport law and legal management competencies required by the school sport manager include amongst other: *"The policy for school sport* (P1:30-30); "*I think in terms of the training also people need to learn about the Children's' Act"* (P2:62-62); "*They need to have a thorough understanding of sport and the law"* (P3:213-213); *"When a particular athlete or when that manager or coach is looking after children, uhm, and trying to manage their well-being, and they aren't adequately trained, then who is ultimately responsible…?"* (P3: 242); *"A school sport manager must manage the coach to make sure that this is managed and that the legal requirements are adhered to"* (P4:51-51); *"Legal aspects in sport"* (P6:57-57). It seemed from these responses that failure to comply with and implement sport law and legal aspects related to governance (policy, acts, constitution, etc) were

regarded as concerns for the management of school sport, but also the most critical competencies required managing school sport.

Another functional area school the school sport manager needs to manage is the operations management area.

6.2.3.9 Operations management

Operations management focuses on managing the delivery of the school's services more effectively. It includes aspects like the sport facilities (planning, design, use, scheduling, and operation of the buildings, and the grounds, fields, acreage) owned or utilised by the school), maintenance (upkeep, care and support) of facilities, risk (safety and security) associated with the facilities, projects and events (the management of resources to establish an event or a project (cf. par. 3.6.8, p. 190). Responses related to operations management reflected respondents' viewpoints and experience and are discussed in more detail in the next paragraphs.

When comparing the competencies related to operations management (cf. par. 3.6.8, p. 190; Table 18, p. 265) to the responses and views express by respondents, the following findings were significant:

- The majority of the respondents regarded the management of facilities and events as the most important operations management competency school sport managers should possess. This finding, however was in stark contrast to the findings of the quantitative section (cf. par. 6.3.2, p. 454). In general, respondents associated the management of facilities with the preparation and maintenance of fields (marking, cutting the grass), safety and security, emphasising the importance of basic first aid knowledge and the availability of a first aid kit, manage equipment and risk, while event management entailed, risk, accommodation if required when hosting an event, and medical. Quotes from respondents such as those listed below, support the preceding views:
  - *"Have an understanding of event management"* (P3:205-205)
  - *"Have an understanding of facility management because you know they play on particular grounds"* (P3:205-205)
  - *"Management of facilities and events"* (P4:152-152)
  - *"The school must have proper facilities that are not causing injuries to the participants, you know? That is one of the risks that we know"* (P5:136-136)

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- o *"Basic facility management so that he can assist the general workers at the institution or the school. To say, when they are playing rugby he must know how to cut the grass at a certain level. When it's hockey time they must know how to cut the grass, because now hockey and rugby they've got two different turfs. But you might find that an ordinary general worker might not know all those norms and standards of how the fields must look like"* (P5:233-233)
- o *"We must be very careful is when you do the lining of these fields it must be the correct measurements"* (P5:233-233)
- o *"If there is a big event, they know how to manage the event from the chalk point of the view, from medical point of view, from the facility itself, from accommodation point of view and so forth and so forth"* (P5:13-13)
- o *"Your facility management, your event management"* (P6:57-57)
- o *"A safety issue, say first aid is a problem and it's very important"* (P2:158-158)
- o *"Responsibility for that, simple signing in or out of things"* (P2:273-273)
- o *"How is it…? Ja! And when it is administered it needs to be done in a safe manner"* (P3:421-421)
- o *"They must have somebody who at least know that he won't inflect a lot of injuries to the youngsters, at least to have a basic first-aid "* (P5:45-45)
- o *"The one that is doing sport management; he must have first aid, basic first aid"* (P5:130-130)
- o *"Risk management"* (P4:152-152)
- o *"The school must have proper facilities that are not causing injuries to the participants, you know? That is one of the risks that we know"* (P5:136-136).
- o *"All the risks within the programme"* (P5: 168-168).

- The least used and less important competencies identified by the respondents were the ability to draw up a playing schedule or roster for leagues, keeping a timetable (calendar) of important events, bookings and transport. Remarks from respondents to substantiate the preceding views of respondents are indicated below.
  - o *"There is a league to be played for a certain code of sport it would mean there must be something like a roster, you know?"* (P1:9-9)
  - o *"Times for games also in the coordinated or directed manner"* (P1:13-13)
  - o *"A timetable for when the sporting events are, booking the logistics ground, uh, the programme itself. Whether it is transport, whether it is equipment. And then ensuring that*

coaching staff is put in place, ensuring that coaching takes place, ensuring that matches are confirmed, that matches take place. That there is feedback to the children that the performances are highlighted, so basically normal management function in the context of sport" (P2:12-12).

- o *"Responsibility for that, simple signing in or out of things. If those systems are not in place (inaudible 00:51:10). We are here because we have competition for facilities, we need to book facilities"* (P2:273-273)

- o *"If it's a manager he must know how to manage and you know do all the bookings"* (P5:5-5).

Only one respondent associated project management with operations management *"Training should include that as well. Because if… I should say Project Management"* (P1:151-151), while one remark by a respondent with regards to a code of ethics for non-educators (outside coaches) involved with school sport which was disturbing was *"There is not such code of ethics which exists when you are being coaches. And so how do you hold them accountable? And that becomes…that's an issue that we've been grappling with. If we've got good people that we put in place at school, on what code of conduct and under what conditions of employment. But if he touches a child, a girl, what happens? Whereas you can get struck off the role of educators, what happens to the coaches? So these things need to be put to mind"* (P2:62-62). *"More importantly, I mean, are those people the outsiders whereas your educators are subject to a code of ethics, there is not such code of ethics which exists when you are being coaches. And so how do you hold them accountable? And that becomes…that's an issue that we've been grappling with. If we've got good people that we put in place at school, on what code of conduct and under what conditions of employment"* (P2:62-62). Although this particular response to a large degree bear relation with the fundamental competencies associated with governance (cf. par. 6.2.3.1, p. 376) and the functional competency of sport law and legal (cf. par. 6.2.3.8, p. 397), it can also be associated with the management of risk, because risk management is not only concerned with the reduction of exposure to risks which lead to a loss of assets or profit, but also presupposes protection of participants (cf. par. 3.6.7, p. 179). The significance of this particular response was situated in a concern that served as a forewarning to avoid related envisaged problems in advance and to devise specific guidelines and a code of ethics (conduct) specifically for non-educators such as outside coaches, parents, spectators, umpires and so forth involved with school sport. Consequently, despite being echoed by only one respondent, was this particular theme also included in the instrument developed for the quantitative section of this research (cf. Annexure D, on CD; par. 5.9, p. 333; 6.3, p. 431), because of its relevance within the context of this research.

The development of a code of ethics for non-educators involved with school sport can also be the focus of future research.

To sum up, the preceding viewpoints and experience of respondents, not only correlates with the views of Gerber (2009:149), but is also consistent with data obtained from the quantitative section of this report (cf. par. 6.3, p. 432). The data from the interviews also supported an understanding of the complexity of operations management and was also in line with the literature overview (cf. par. 3.6.8, p.190).

6.2.4 Synthesis

Various management competencies were identified in previous sections of this research report (cf. Chap. 2-4). In this chapter up to now, the presentation and discussion of the interview data about the viewpoints and perceptions of respondents related to the qualitative section of this research was provided. Two pertinent themes were identified, namely competencies and needs (cf. Fig. 21, p. 375; 6.2.3.1, p. 376). When managing school sport, fundamental, functional and specialist competencies will have to be obtained (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195; Table 18, p. 265; par. 4.8, p. 283). So the viewpoints and perceptions of respondents, together with supporting quotes and examples associated with fundamental and general school sport management competencies was presented. In addition, responses and substantiated evidence concerning competencies linked with the traditional functional sport management areas, as well as specific operational management areas was seen to. Traditional functional sport management areas briefly discussed, included human resources management, marketing management, public relation management, financial management, purchase management, sport law and legal management (cf. Fig. 21, p. 375; par. 6.2.3.1, p. 376 -6.2.3.8, p. 397). These areas were followed by the presentation and discussion of respondents' viewpoints and perceptions about specific operational school sport management competencies (cf. Fig. 20, p. 374 Fig. 21, p. 375; par. 6.2.3.9, p. 398). In the next section, respondents' viewpoints and perceptions in accordance with the literature review and proof with quotes from respondents regarding the specialist school sport management competencies required to manage school sport (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195; Fig. 20, p. 374), will be discussed briefly, followed by the identified needs (cf. Fig. 20, p. 374; 22, p. 409).

6.2.5   Specialist school sport management competencies

As pointed out previously, specialist school sport management competencies can be seen as those scientific areas that points towards a strong sciences of nature orientation that focuses mainly on the physical aspect of the athlete. Given the all-encompassing nature of the sport management for school sport and the diverse needs of South African schools, these different specialised competencies could nevertheless contribute to the theoretical, practical and professional aspects of educator training (cf. par. 4.8, p. 283).   Specialist competencies include those competencies associated with Human movement and sport and recreation as well as sport medical services. In spite of the fact that Human movement and sport and recreation competencies can be seen as a specialist competency, is the role that education plays to introduce the youth of South Africa to sport and recreation of paramount importance, and every potential educator needs to be trained in this aspect. Stated in another way, even though the competencies related to Human Movement, sport and recreation (PE) is seen as specialist competencies, they can be regarded as compulsory for educators to obtain. Furthermore, PE is a curricular offering which resides as a key deliverable of DBE, and in accordance to Curriculum stipulations must be offered to all learners (Naidoo, 2012a:8). Moreover, the quality of sport and recreation is directly linked to effective management, hence the focus of the research to develop a sport management programme for educator training. To this end, the importance of acquiring Human movement and sport and recreation competencies are thus not only crucial, but are entirely in line with the NSRP that emphasises the importance of education and training in the sport sector and the expressed need from respondents during the interviews for a specialist PE educator and training for school sport managers (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418).   The data from the interviews thus supported the importance of a sport management programme for educator training, directly in line with the aim of this research (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). Consistent with the qualitative data, the data from the questionnaires also supported the preceding views (cf. par. 6.3.3, p. 492). In the next section the recorded viewpoints and perceptions of respondents with regards to the specialist school sport management competencies will be presented. In the first place the Human movement, Sport and Recreation competencies will be the order of the day and secondly, the sport medical services will be reviewed.

6.2.5.1 Human Movement, Sport and Recreation competencies

I raised the issue of Human Sport movement, Sport and Recreation as specialist school sport management competency earlier, when it was labelled as the competencies related to performance aspects of participants in school sport and sport related physical and recreational activities (cf. par.

3.6.9, p. 195; Table 18, p. 265; par. 4.8, p. 283). In order to implement an effective and successful school sport and sport related physical activity programme (PE), as has often been argued in the current research report, a well-trained, competent person responsible for the management of sport is required. Worded as follow, one respondent equated an educator responsible for sport with one who teaches Afrikaans and English: *"Have and educator who has…like they do with Afrikaans and English, they should also do Sport Management and then taught different sporting codes"* (P1:72-72).

All the respondents' viewpoints and perceptions regarding the specialist school sport competencies associated with human movement and sport and recreation proved to be of immense value and paramount importance for the development of a measuring instrument for this study. Moreover, the views expressed coincided with the aims of this research report (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12), was consisted with the literature study that the competencies required to manage school sport are multifarious and that a specialist is required to manage school sport (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; 2.2.3, p. 31; 2.3.3.6, p. 67; 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.8, p. 283). Furthermore, the responses reiterated the need for a NSRP that emphasises the importance of education and training in the sport sector (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, p. 101), on the one hand, yet on the other hand also recognise the important role that education plays to introduce the youth of South Africa to sport and recreation, given the current state of affairs regarding obesity and other health related concerns as a result of a lack of sport and physical activity. Consistent with the preceding, a need for a specialist PE educator was expressed (cf. par. 6.2.7.5, p. 420).

From the responses from the respondents, it seemed evident and obvious that sport influences the manner in which *children can acquire more knowledge* (P1:88-88) and that a link exist between a successful school sport manager and educator: "*Well beaters in sport, are always well beaters in the education."* (P1:88-88). In addition to the preceding, one respondent shared the opinion that school sport management training should be *compulsory for primary school educators* (P1:109-109), while the role of a school sport manager is of paramount importance to ensure that learners *enjoy participating in sport, have fun* P1:425-425; P3:549-549), *love sport* (P5:156-156) and, *just play* (P2:183-183). In relation to the role of a school sport manager, the response from one of the respondents captured the importance of a clear message to learners regarding the reasons for participating in sport well, when he responded as follows: *"Mass involvement, mass participation, and to me it's essential. You must strive to win, but it's not…winning shouldn't be everything. It's obvious: we need to win, but it should not be winning at all costs"* (P4:346-346). Another related

response was: *"A child should play sport and learn to his or her ability even if she does not win, but the child must enjoy playing sport. And then out of that, we'll get a champion. Ja, the love of that particular sport will grow within a child and then the child will aspire to be somebody in that particular sporting code. Then a champion comes out of that"* (P1:425-425). The significance of the responses related to the reasons for participation was an implied message and warning that the school sport manager should not disregard the educational value of sport, but must also have a sound knowledge of *"Education didactics"* (P2:54-54), "E*ducation and sport education"*(P6:43-43). Quite clearly, these responses were especially of value because it originated from the practitioners themselves and not from outside the education profession and also correlated with the literature review (cf. par. 1.1, p.1; 1.2.2, p. 5-1.2.5, p. 10; 2.2.3, p. 31; 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.6.4, p. 276).

From the responses from the various respondents in relation to the specialist school sport management competencies, it was also abundantly clear that respondents assigned importance to the "E*ducational value of sport in themoral development* "(P1:76-76) and the role played by the school sport manager to teach learners basic skills such as *throwing, catching* (P1:80-80; 92-2; 211-211) and *hand eye coordination* (P5:152-152) that are of particular importance to certain sport codes, rules of the game (sport) involved with (P2:154-154). Other related responses from the respondents included amongst other the importance "*To develop motor skills"*(P1:109-109), teach learners "*Tactical skills and technical know-how of sport"*, e. g. Football (P1:384-384; P5:25-25), importance of promoting "*Health and wellness"* (P3:85-85), preventing *Obesity* (P1:179-179) and basic knowledge and understanding of "*Exercise Physiology"*(P3:146-146; 475-475), *Exercise Psychology* and *Exercise Science* (P5:45-45) and "*Injury prevention"* (P3:158-158). Apart from the preceding competencies, respondents also emphasised the importance of *talent identification*(P1:441-441; P3:734-734), "*Tracking and managing talented athletes* (P3:722-722; 734-734), "*Basic knowledge of physical education"* (P4:402-402)as well as *"Sport science and nutrition*(P4:406-406). One respondent also mentioned the importance of *Sport history* (P6:47-47). Interestingly enough, what was also of significance in relation to the competencies associated with human movement, sport and recreation, was the relationship between learners and school sport managers and the key role they play to help shape and form learners, which inevitably impacts on learners. Responses indicated a clear difference in the way learners are approached and/or addressed by educators in their role as school sport managers and school sport managers (outside coaches) who do not hold a qualification or knowledge of education, and more specifically the developmental stages of development of learners (including physical development), the role of the school, individual in a school, the school in the community and the community in the bigger society.

What was further evident is that high level, well known provincial, national and international players are not always good coaches. Responses from three respondents, in particular serve as example:

"So our learners that are coming through the schooling system, they are too big and they don't play sport. So some of them are going to be educators, so you'll find some resistance that they won't be really so willing to take part even though they have to take part" (P1:183-183).

"The relationship and the way you handle your kids is very different to the way you handle and work with the kids in class. Many people can't make that difference. And you see a lot of unhappy kids playing sport, not wanting to play the sport because of the approach of the individual"(P2:45-45).

"I'm the educator that's coaching at school, all our other coaches are outside federation coaches - and there's difference in the way we approach children. There is a difference in the way we address children. And we find their very good technically in terms of their code but in terms of the development stages the learners are going through and so on…" (P2:50-50).

"That is very very important. Because I can again stipulate I see it daily; we've got guys that played provincial, who played cricket, but they can't coach at school level. They can't gel with the kid, they can't stand the kid. Their programmes are designed for adults. Not for the developing stages of a child. They don't understand the long term participant development. They don't understand the growth stages" (P2:127-127)

"The other thing is education; people need to understand the education, what education is all about, the development phases of the child, not only physical but also social, also psychological development. They need to understand phases of development, which includes physical development. And then this person should understand not only education but the role of the school in the community. So what is the role of the school? And this becomes sociology. What is the role of the school and the individual in the school? The school in the community? And the community in the bigger society" (P6:43-43).

In concluding, summing up, viewpoints and perceptions are entirely in line with the literature review and the NSRP. Further, responses served as a forewarning for important aspects to keep in mind when developing a sport management programme for educator training and also indicates,

consisted with the purpose of this research, that a proven gap exists to capacitate school sport managers with the required and necessary competencies to ensure effective programmes and structures on all levels and for all sporting codes. Specialist school sport management competencies associated with human movement, sport and recreation are of the utmost importance for the future of school sport and should be a compulsory module of a sport management programme for educator training. That said though, the appointment of a specialist PE educator, could alleviate problems and provide meaningful assistance. The next section deals with the analysis and interpretation of the school sport medical services associated with the specialist human movement, sport and recreation competencies.

6.2.5.2 Sport medical services

In Chapter Three reference was made that sport medical and emergency services competencies are linked to a broad spectrum of clinical and scientific aspects regarding the practice of sport and exercise, and include amongst other the physical preparation and rehabilitation as well as psychological manipulation of athletes (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195). Concerning the views and perceptions of respondents about specialist school sport management competencies, related to sport medical services, most of the respondents felt that a school sport manager (specialist physical education educator) should have certain basic skills or knowledge about sport medical services, which, worded as follow by one respondent is: "*Part and parcel of sport management*" (P4:378-378). Another respondent held a different view though, because for him the competence required, depended on the level of participation *"The more levelled and higher level of or more complex the environment the more specialised…I would think then you specialise in a specific field"* (P6:234-234.243-243). More specifically, directly in line with the literature overview (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195; Table 18, p. 265; par. 4.6.4, p. 276; 4.8, p. 283), respondents identified the following competencies: (i) Psychology *"Understand the psychological makeup of teenagers and children"* (P2:127-127; P5:224-224); (ii) Physiology *"Specialist should have been able to have identify that: well physiologically"* (P3:146-146; P3:469-469; P4:402-402); (iii) Basic understanding of dietary and nutrition requirements *"They must have basic understanding of dietary requirements, because a physical education specialist should have an understanding of anatomy and physiology"*(P3:469-469; P4:378-378; 402-402; P5:5-5; 25-25; 224-224); (iv) Do simple health risk assessment *"I think that a specialist needs to be able to do a simple health risk assessment"* (P3:138-138; 146-146); (v) Basic skills or knowledge about sport injuries *"I mean if you're a sport manager, then you need to have certain basic skills or knowledge about let's say sport injuries"* (P4:378-378); (vi) Biokinetics; (vii) Sport Conditioning *"I think it's not just managing; you need to have the background skills:*

sport conditioning, bio-kinetics etcetera, etcetera…sport science, nutrition" (P4:378-378) and; (viii) Exercise Science *"He must know exactly the peak period, the low period of the athletes, when to…the recovery period, you know?"* (P5:25-25).

In sum, to recap, respondents viewed the specialist school sport management as important, but failed to clearly differentiate between those competencies previously associated with, or done by a specialist PE educator. One can, however not disregard issues raised concerning the role and importance of a school sport manager to introduce the youth of South Africa to sport and recreation as well as the complexity of the task at hand to ensure learners are educated and have developed holistically. Further, the more specialised and more complex the sport environment and particular needs of learners becomes, the more focused and the more specialised these specialist human movement, sport and recreation competencies become.

6.2.6   Synthesis

In essence sport management is utilising the human resources, financial resources, information resources and facilities (physical resources) as a combination, and using these strategically to obtain the particular objective of the organisation. Respondents mainly based their views regarding competencies required to manage school sport on this understanding of sport management. Viewpoints and perceptions of respondents concerning the first theme of the qualitative data analysis confirmed the views of the literature and indicated that the competencies required to manage school sport comprise core (fundamental and general) competencies, functional competencies and specialist (human movement sport and recreation and sport medical services) competencies. ***Core components*** of a school sport management programme for educator training that came to the fore were amongst other sociology of sport, a philosophy for sport, sport as a business and history of sport.   The management of school sport also requires a thorough understanding of the context of school sport, which is the educational context and is regarded as a fundamental principle to manage school sport. Seen in the educational context, a key principle is to manage sport in the philosophy of "sport for all". Implicated herein is mass involvement and participation, in which one strives to win, but winning shouldn't be everything. Though it is obvious that one needs to win; it should not be winning at all costs.   That said though, increased competition and media exposure have compelled schools to adapt and adopt a professional approach towards competitive school sport in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. Subsequently, schools are faced with a dilemma and challenges where they have to decide between marketing of sport or marketing through sport, and also on their philosophy of

sport and level of participation. This means a movement from amateur to total professional, away from the educational context of sport, presupposing a total move toward the professionalisation and management of school sport whereby learners are contracted at school already and means the focus, the goal post has shifted.

It is thus imperative that the needs of schools are seen against the backdrop of an approach on a continuum from social-recreational sport participation to competitive participation to elite participation, based on the decision of a particular school and the purpose of sport at the school. Next, the needs identified by respondents from the qualitative data are discussed.

6.2.7   Needs

Responses of the second theme that emanated from the interview schedule, namely needs, were all related to the interview question about the specific needs in the school with regard to the management of sport (cf. Annexure D, on CD). The respondents indicated several needs related to the management of school sport. A grouping was done on the strength of an analysis of the responses from respondents, and the following groups of responses were identified: responses in relation to resources, infrastructure, compulsory PE, funds, training, governance, specialists and support. The needs are presented in Fig. 22 (cf. p. 409) and will hereupon after be briefly discussed. In the first place, the needs associated with resources are discussed.

6.2.7.1 Resources

Responses were recorded that referred to a lack of resources to serve the needs of a diverse group of role players involved with and within school sport. Resources in relation to the current study include the people who convert the natural (physical), financial and information resources into products and services. The success and effectiveness that a school can achieve when managing school sport largely depends on the ability and competence of the school sport manager (human resources in its employment (cf. par. 3.2, p.;117; 3.3, p. 126; 3.4, p. 140; 3.6.5, p. 169; 4.6.3.4, p. 257) and the ability to convert the resources (physical, financial and information) in accordance with the goals and objectives for school sport. The indication of a need for (lack of) resources must be viewed together with the need for capacity and facilities like administration offices, sports fields, administrative and sport equipment, administrative furniture and community centres, to name but a few (cf. par. 6.2.7.7, p. 421). Sufficient resources (physical, human, financial and information) and the effective management thereof, were further identified as

Figure 22: Needs of School Sport Managers

requirements for the effective management of school sport (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151; 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.6.4, p. 276). Responses that covered the expressed need for resources were consistent with the preceding viewpoint from the literature and these responses were likewise, after an analysis, classified into the following groups:

- **Physical resources**

Perceptions and viewpoints associated with the expressed need for physical resources include, amongst others, a *"Need for facilities"* (P2:150-150; 207-207; P5:81-81; 136-136; P6:287-287; 291-291; 307-307). More specifically, responses related to facilities, reiterated the need for sport field*s* *"Certain schools that don't even have bigger property to put extra playing fields like netball, cricket, rugby fields around that premises, that's one of the risks"* (P5:122-122); *"No dedicated sports area, no field, nothing - eighty percent. So resourcing is a huge, huge, huge challenge"* (P6:299-299). Other responses related to facilities included a need for *"Buildings such as ablution blocks and showers"* (P5:81-81) and *"Access to community facilities, as for instance Virgin Active and FitnessPlanet"* (P5:196-196). Respondents also reported a definite need for equipment like balls and apparel *"They need proper equipment and apparel"* (P1:275-275; P2:146-146; P3:622-622; 658-658; P5:122-122; P6:299-299), as well as "*Office equipment as for instance computers, printers and laminating machines"*, in particular when hosting provincial, national and international tournaments (P5:362-362; P6:287-287; 291-291; 307-307).

- **Human resources**

Human resources play a critical role in the day-by-day functioning of a sport facility such as a school (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169; 6.2.3.3, p. 386). Expressing the need for human resources, the majority of respondents emphasised the importance of human resources in the management of school sport. The identification of a need for human resources can be seen as both a problem and a challenge which can be viewed together with previous sections (cf. par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412; 6.2.7.4, p. 418; 6.2.7.6, p. 421; 6.2.7.8, p. 423), where human resources were regarded as the most critical resource. The wide-ranging nature of the responses, viewpoints and perceptions regarding their specific needs that also manifested in other codes assigned to needs of school sport managers, may be indicative of the importance of human resources. Further, this particular emphasis on the wide ranging problems and challenges associated with a need for human resources, coincided with the viewpoint of Billing (2000:5) that viewed the personnel in a company "...*Constitutes the primary resource of most sport organisations"*. Human resources as the most critical resource and is thus

directly in line with the views of Gibb (2000:59,65) and Chelladurai and Medalla (2006:1,31). Further, consistent with the argument of Chelladurai (2001:21; 2006:xiii) from the literature study (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169), the significance of responses related to the need for human resources was situated in an assumption that the client (learners, parents, etc.) is part of the human resources (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169) and must also be managed to ensure the needs are met and client satisfaction is created. Personnel is a common element that should be managed in all schools involved with sport. Human resources is the link between management and the customers and the way in which school sport managers (staff) deal with customers (learners, parents, visitors, etc.) can reflect on management.

- **Financial resources**

The need for financial resources was in agreement with the need for specialists (6.2.7.4, p. 418) and should thus also be viewed together with the section on specialists and previous sections such as facilities outlined earlier in this paragraph (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408), training (cf. par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412), support (cf. par. 6.2.7.8, p. 423) and infrastructure (cf. par. 6.2.7.7, p. 422). Responses in relation to the need for finances included a need for money, because of no money being available to travel or to buy food. A related response was echoed as follows by one respondent, who regarded the lack of financial resources as a problem: *"Financial resources is another one, there is no money for travel. I mean some of these kids don't eat, how can you ask them money for a bus to go and do sport while they are hungry"* (P6:299-299). Another respondent expressed his need for financial resources based on a problem associated with the high cost of school sport; something which concerns more established (affluent) schools as well. He worded it as follows: "*When you look at transport costs these days most of our schools in the country do not have the facilities. Our established schools are fine, they do have the facilities; they are backed-up with facilities. Other schools don't have facilities and access to community facilities is a major problem, a cost. The cost of it, and then an expensive sport such as cricket… So schools can no longer afford it. Even some of the established schools as well"* (P2:207-207).He continued saying: "*Now we don't have a cricket pitch or a cricket field so I hire facilities, so it costs me about R500 a day. Now I got to get transport to there and I got to supply lunches, so it costs me per game about R1500. We are fortunate in the sense that we have more access to…we are not rich but we have the resources to be able to do it"* (P2:216-216).

One other comment of particular interest was the repeated reference by a respondent to the need for a specialist school sport manager and PE educator. However, linked to this view (cf. par.

6.2.7.4, p. 418), was an identified problem related to schools being under- resourced in general, not only township, rural, and less affluent schools, but also more affluent, elite schools who solve this particular problem by using cheap labour in the form of old scholars, school leavers who are not interested in further studies, or a non- specialist educator.   The following quotes from respondents serve as case in point*:*

"The second problem uhm in my opinion is the fact there is no qualified person, and I'm solely… You know, what the trend I've noticed is that because there is no money to pay for physical education specialist they hire somebody who is safe out of matric (P3:622-622).

"I think the problem is that first of all our schools are under resourced. In term…because there's no, again no physical education subject and a physical education specialist pushing for the subjects you know in schools. The schools are under resourced in terms of equipment and apparel to conduct physical activity adequately in schools" (P3:622-622).

"And then I would think when it comes to your more elite schools is really to resource a sport manager for your sport and that's why they go the teacher way" (P6:299-299).\

Concluding, these particular responses related to resources, are supported by findings of a study by Hollander (2007a:33-44). The significance of these particular responses and those outlined in ensuing paragraphs (cf. par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412; 6.2.7.4, p. 418; 6.2.7.5, p. 420) was that they substantiate the rationale of the research (cf. par.1.1, p. 1; 1.2.5, p. 10).

6.2.7.2 Training

By far the most responses from respondents concerning specific needs were associated with a need for training (cf. Fig. 22, p. 409). Responses from this section referred to the judgements, ways of thinking and experiences of respondents about the need for training of school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. So responses assigned to training (cf. Fig.22, p. 409) were all related to interview questions about respondents' viewpoint and perceptions regarding training (Annexure D, on CD). Interview questions, amongst other, involved respondents' viewpoint and perceptions concerning the role of sport management training in the education landscape and compulsory sport management training to all trainee educators, main focus disciplines of sport management training, importance of practical training, problems

encountered during practical training and the most important competencies an educator as school sport manager should be trained in (cf. Annexure B, on CD).

Responses associated with the need for training included *"You need some training to do it perfectly"* (P1:396-396). *"The skills, training that there needs to be done is a definite need"* (P2:236-236). *"We need to create a space for people to get capacitated and improve the resources"* (P2:331-331). *"You know, we need to get trained people to manage sport. I know it's a problem in less affluent schools; that's where you have a problem, but that's what we have to aim towards. It's to get the teachers in the class and to get a school sport manager, it can be a teacher that's appointed but then it mustn't be dual-functioned, it should not impact on what he's supposed to do, his academic"….*(P4:136-136). Responses further indicated a need for clear guidelines and policy regarding *"Systems for training to be in place"* (P2:281-281) and responsibility for sport management training and the provision of resources (physical, financial, human, information). In the words of one respondent: *"We were supposed to run training for teachers through the federation, but the manner in which it is organised is so always uncertain. Whereas we've got the training structure in cricket, every province has it but now the national Education Department wants us to organise it. But then you get outside service providers, we got outsider cricket coming doing it. We do the arrangements and we get the people. Because to me to rearrange a range of courses, is to say, "If you want to do the course this is the method by which you will get…the fees will be paid. Will there be time off for me to go and do something?"* (P2:326-326). The same respondent expressed a strong viewpoint about the quality of capacity building programmes of the DBE for school sport managers, describing them as *"Haphazard and so crappy that people never get to do it" (P2:322-322). He also said: "We are in charge of schools and we don't wanna work with the federation, we don't wanna work with parents…"* (P2:244-244). Other responses in relation to the need for training included a need for a qualified person. "The second problem uhm in my opinion is the fact there is no qualified person, and I'm solely… You know, what the trend I've noticed is that because there is no money to pay for physical education specialist they hire somebody who is safe out of matric" (P3:622-622). *"Not even a qualification, they don't even have tertiary education. They went out of matric, you know, they worked for NGOs and I think the knowledge that…you know? The RPL thing around that? But what knowledge do they have about stretching and physical…you know, the risks that's implicated?"* (P3:642-642). *"They are not qualified to do it"* (P3:650-650). The preceding viewpoint and perception was consistent with the stating of resources as a problem (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408), the need indicated for specialists (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418.; 6.2.7.5, p. 421) and findings from studies by Vosloo (2007:209) and Van der

Merwe, Malan and Willemse (2012:5;14-15;22) that school sport managers are not qualified and should be trained.

Even though most of the respondents were in agreement that sport management training should be compulsory for all aspirant educators as part of their initial educator training (P2:37-37;86-86; P3:170-170;174-174;823-823, P4:378-378; P6:53-53), some respondents expressed their concern about parents, outside coaches and current educators who have not or will not be able to be trained as school sport managers, because of a lack of resources (P1:227-227; P2:236-236;322-322)   The value of these concerns for the development of a sport management programme for educator training was that they served as valuable input, advice and an early warning or reminder to avoid related problems and concerns in advance before the development and implementation of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418).   Cognisance was therefore taken of these problems and concerns, and in accordance with the rationale of the research to devise and develop a sport management programme not only for initial educator training, but also for current educators, parents and other role players involved in and with sport. In other words, although the developed sport management programme was aimed at initial educator training, provision was also made to allow for training of non-educators and existing educators with no formal sport management training as part of their initial educator training.   It was further recommended that the sport management programme for educator training be offered as a short course to non-educators and existing educators with no formal sport management training (cf. Chapter 7, 8).

In consistency with the implied problem of lack of specialists such as school sport managers and PE educators (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418; 6.2.7.5, p. 420, a need was indicated for the training of school sport managers and specialist PE educators, even students or trainee educators   *"And I think this is where we need to go: is training people as physical education specialists"* (P3:117-117).   Other related responses included   *"And the Education Department needs to make the post available for physical education teachers, apart…aside from Life Orientation. Because they're just going to take the…they're going to do the same thing that they're doing, like maths and history and whatever they are doing in the Life Orientation programme*" (P3:129-129).   *"University also now need to come onboard and start retraining like physical education teachers"* (P3:134-134).   *"We need to start investing in universities to start pushing out physical education"* (P3:670-670).   *"That's for the less affluent… I believe and it's my experience: more and more principals phone in and say, "Listen I need someone to organise my sport, do you have a student for me?"* (P4:140-142).

"Where do we get a Phys Ed educator? Nobody is training physical education trainers anymore, that's the problem" (P4:378-378).

Responses also included references to the main focus disciplines of sport management training. These included amongst others, health education (P3:594-594); fundamentals of teaching and education (P2:127-127); psychology (P2:127-127); management (P2:111-111; P3:271-271); record keeping (P2:269-269); financial management (P2:111-111); manage human resources and equipment (P2:269-269); sport code specific coaching such as mini-cricket (P2:119-119); organising and planning events (P3:181-181; 254-254); conduct related to authority, control and discipline (P2:141-141); Human movement or PE (P3:574-574; P4:378-378; P5:37-37); motivation of learners to increase sport participation (P3:565-565), because as one respondent expressed himself: *"To get the whole school participating, it's a challenge especially public schools in the township* (P5:247-247), and talent identification (P2:343-343). Most of these main focus disciplines of sport management training served as fundamental guidelines for the development of a measuring instrument to determine the competencies required to manage school sport and some were regarded as an addition to the competencies identified in literature (cf. par. 3.6.9, p. 195, Table 18, p. 265); yet also served as valuable input for the development of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. Chapter 7).

Most respondents viewed practical training as an inextricable part of sport management training that is of paramount importance to the learning experience of students, and that could go a long way to determine whether students will pass or fail a subject. The aspect of training being more practical than theoretical (content based) received by far the most support from respondents (P1:125-125;137-137; P2:86-86;115-115; P3:381-381; P4:176-176; P5:168-168;200-200; P6:65-65;77-77;86-86). Based on their experiences with practical training, the respondents were of the opinion that practical training should be more practical. It should be more practical than too content-based, be continuous for the duration of a course and should not only be hands-on, integrating theory and practice, but also provide a tacit, real life experience, supervised and suitably assessed and/or evaluated (P1:141-141;171-171; P2:115-115; P3:287-287 P4:188-188; P5:200-200; P6:90-90;98-98). Regarding the format and form practical training should take, responses like "*authentic learning*" (P3:287-287)*, "I'm a very big supporter of experiential learning"* (P4:176-176),*"Observation*" (P6:73-73) and "*Internships"* (P5:204-204;P6:77-77). One respondent in particular was specifically against practical training and examination without any follow-up and some sort of portfolio of evidence for the number of hours coached for instance in cricket,

supported by some kind of monitoring structure before certification (P2:115-115). Respondents further demanded that training should be practice-based and resource backed (supported) *"It should be more practical. It should be more practical than too content-based"* (P1:125-125). The respondents were specifically against theoretical training only offered by some colleges: *"When they come here we find they know almost let's say 20% or 30% theory, and when you go to practical: none, it is non-existent. And this colleges they don't care, as long as they give theory training"* (P5:200-200) and the abuse or misuse of students placed in industry to undergo practical training (P6:106-106). One final response of particular importance concerning the practical training of students that should be seen as a sound warning and challenge, relates to clear communication, explanation of the purpose of training, build a good relationship as well to make the experience worthwhile and consider this person as a golfer. In the words of the respondent: *"Meaning he's not a guy who needs to do his photocopies, that needs to answer the telephone now and then, bring the coffee, and carry around papers to other offices etcetera, etcetera…*(P6:106-106).

The significance of the responses associated with training in relation to the development of a measuring instrument was that both theoretical training and practical training must be an important component of a sport management programme for educator training to ensure the required competencies for school sport managers. Practical training is part and parcel of any training and as such it was also important to determine the specific training needs of educators to ensure that the developed programme was in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. A contentious issue like practical training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools can't be subjected to management practices and competencies according to personal interpretation, judgement and lack of experience. This category of responses, as well as previous categories (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408; 6.2.7.3, p. 416; 6.2.7.4, p. 418; 6.2.7.8, p. 423), specifically pointed out a lack of school sport management training and a need for context, topic and practice-orientated training initiatives.

6.2.7.3 Governance

A bird's eye view of the responses related to the need for governance to a large degree indicated consistency with the responses of other categories, like for example resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408), infrastructure (cf. par. 6.2.7.7, p. 422) and support (cf. par. 6.2.7.8, p. 423). This consistency signified a relation between the role of government in school sport to draft policies and to ensure the implementation and the compliance to policy and procedures through legislation and

governance with the provision of adequate resources to provide opportunities for wide spread participation in school sport (cf. par. 2.2.3, p. 31). On closer examination, the leading needs associated with governance that were cited by most of the respondents, can be summarisedas a need for clear policy guidelines and directives for school sport, and a need for recognised school sport structures and bodies on all levels of school sport (local, district, regional, provincial and national). The need expressed for governance also bears relation to the literature study (cf. par. 2.2.3. p. 31) and was also consistent with findings from the quantitative section of this research (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431).

Responses in relation to policy referred to a need for policies and directives from the DBE regarding the responsibilities, duties and hours of work for educators (P2:90-90; 94-94). More specifically, in relation to school sport, the need was expressed for policies and directives driven by the National and Provincial government and district offices to compel and commit educators to take responsibility for one sport, to ensure sport is delivered in accordance with their demands and needs regarding participating codes, and ultimately that educators need to have proof and evidence for involvement in sport for a specified number of hours (P2:94-94; 236-236; 331-331). Another response in relation to school sport policy referred to a need for safety, because*"Crime in our communities means that it is not safe to stay after school hours"* (P2:224-224). Other related responses included the need for policy and directives to: (i) *"Put in place incentives for people"* (P2:257-257; 261-269); (ii) Establish (have) a *sports calendar"*(P2:291-292); (iii) Ensure that a coordinated sport programme is put in place (P2:203-203; 220-220); (iv) Offer different interschool competitions for different levels of competition on a strength versus strength basis in accordance with different seasons for different sport codes (P2:224-224; 207-207; P4:334-334) and; (v) Encourage mass participation (P4:39-39; 495-495; 499-499; P5:37-37).

Responses in relation to structures included the following response from a respondent: *"If we can have proper structures that are recognised like the way USSASA used to be. If we can have structures and the structures must not only be at national level* (P5:358-358).

The relevance of the recorded need for governance for the development of a measuring instrument to determine the competencies and needs of a school sport manager, which enabled the researcher to develop a sport management programme for educator training, was that these responses are proof of the indication of the importance of governance as a competency required by

school sport managers to ensure the effective delivery of school sport in accordance with policy and legislation.

6.2.7.4 Specialists

The responses in relation to questions regarding training (cf. par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412) included the need for specialists. In consistency with stating lack of human resources as a problem and challenge (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408), and identifying specialist competencies for school sport managers (cf. par. 6.2.5, p. 402; 6.2.5.1, p. 402) a need was indicated for specialist trained school sport managers (cf. par. 6.2.7.5, p. 420). During the interviews, respondents were unanimous in their opinion that a dedicated, knowledgeable, specialist school sport manager was needed to manage sport in the school (P1:433-433; P2:119-119; P3:409-409; 670-670; P4:47-47;97-97;281-281;495-495; P5:49-49;63-63;156-156; P6:48-48). One respondent even subscribed to my opinion, given the professionalisation of school sport and increased media exposure (cf. par. 1.2.2, p. 5; 2.4.3, p. 82), that a dedicated, specialist school sport manager (sport coordinator/sport director/overall school sport organiser) should not be in a class at school. In other words, school sport and teaching should be seen as two different activities at school. Further, it should nonetheless be clearly stated, that this does not mean a school sport manager should not also be involved in coaching, or for that matter be an educator. Put differently, the designated school sport manager should be able to fulfil his/her responsibilities during office hours from eight till two, without the added burden of being also responsible to teach. So, if an educator is a dedicated specialist school sport manager he/she must manage sport in the school, or what can be referred to as their job allocation/description (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169) and that is detrimental to the academic development of kids in the school. The following quotes substantiate the views and perceptions mentioned about a specialist school sport manager responsible for the management of sport only:

"I was involved with a school and was on the school board. And that was the first thing I did was to get them to appoint a school sport manager, to make sure we've got a professional trained manager who's able and willing to do what he needs to do to keep the teachers in the class" (P4:116-116).

"I think you must make a distinction between a school sport manager and coach. You need to have a dedicated manager who manages his coaching staff, that's the way to go because coaches can be parents" (P4:55-55).

"So, if you train a coach there should be… a part of that training should be management, but in the school sport system or any sport system there must be a dedicated manager. And not a teacher…a teacher cannot be a school sport manager, after hours maybe, but we all know what happens. During the school day eight to two their managing tasks and after that they do the coaching and that's detrimental to the academic development of our kids" (P4:64-64).

"The teacher…you cannot teach and be a school sport manager. You need to dedicated school sport manager…and that's my opinion" (P4:112-112).

"Currently, except for the schools whose got dedicated school sport managers, it's the problem of the untrained people that must fulfil this function and they do it in the hours, in school hours. This is problematic; it's a negative impact on the academic function of the school. We all know that we can't point fingers at the teachers, it must be done. Because they are involved in the coaching after hours, you cannot organise an excursion or tournament in the evening" (P4:431-431).
"To me that's why I am a very, I try to push for the appointment of school sport managers. To get the teachers to do the teaching and to get the school sport manger to do the school sport managing" (P4:435-435).

"They've got a school sport manager; they've got one sport scientists, three bio- kinesthecists, working on full-time bases. But that just shows me how professional it has become in (background noise) school sport. Because in a close facility I was involved with school xxx, it's a primary school, they've got a full-time school sport manager" (P4:443-443).

"They get the finances and they pay these guys to keep the teachers in the class and to provide a professional service to advantage or our clients" (P4:452-452).

One respondent also expressed his concern regarding outsiders as specialist school sport managers who are not subjected to a code of ethics and do not hold a professional qualification in education (P2:62-62). The significance of the expressed concern for the management of school sport was situated in that it served as a forewarning to pay particular attention in advance to the fact that there is also a need for the sport management training of non-educators. This particular identified need may well serve as a directive for future research to be undertaken.

Some respondents, in coherence with the rationale of the research (cf. par. 1.2.5, p. 5) also

mentioned the importance of compulsory sport management training as part of initial teacher training (P2:45-45;86-86; P3:17-17; P4:47-47;64-64). Another comment of interest and importance was an indication of the main focus disciplines of sport management training that proved valuable for the development of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. Chapter 7). These include amongst others: "*Possibly the marketing of school sports, you know? Particular in the townships and the poorer communities they don't get enough exposure in the media and therefore there is no real interest*" (P2:236-236). "*There needs to be some sort of implementation of uhm…or some sort of module implemented in schools to increase sport participation and thereby increase the amount of elite athletes that is sort of pushed out of the school system*" (P3:565-565). "*I think you must make a distinction between a school sport manager and coach. You need to have a dedicated manager who manages his coaching staff, that's the way to go because coaches can be parents*" (P4:55-55), implicating human resource management (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169).

Respondents were unanimous in their expressed need for specialists and provided valuable information. One respondent felt strongly about the importance of a division of duties of educators, regarding sport and academics (teaching). Furthermore, responses related to the need expressed for specialists indicated consistency with responses of a previous category about a need for training (cf. par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412). It was evident that the reference to consistency found expression in the relationship between the need for training and appointment of competent, qualified, specialist school sport managers to manage school sport in a changing education landscape in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Hence, the significance of the above mentioned responses was that they substantiate the rationale of the research (cf. par. 1.2.5, p. 5).

6.2.7.5 Compulsory PE

It is indisputable that quality education should be the focal point of development in developing countries. In quality education, PE and school sport are essential components to ensure a holistic approach (Doll-Tepper & Mailliet, 2003b:1; 2003a:26; International Council of Sport Science and Physical Education, 2003; United Nations, 2003; Van Deventer, 2010:1). Craig (1991:22) claims that education is a political enterprise. Therefore, although PE is viewed as both a theoretical and a social construct, it is also a political construct, because political interests determine the form that it assumes (Fisher, 2003:137; Kirk, 2003:171; Klein, 2003:153; Van Deventer, 2010:1).

Worldwide PE is in a political crisis because it does not constitute an object of interest for national policies (Klein, 2003:154). In South Africa, limited participation in school PE is becoming a major

concern (Van Deventer, 2002b:103-104; Draper *et al.*, 2010:12,19; Van Deventer, 2010:1), and the status of PE is often a heated topic for discussion and debate (Rajput & Van Deventer, 2010:148-150). So, consistent with the views of Van Deventer (1998/99; 1999; 2000b; 2000a; 2002b; 2002a; 2005; 2008c; 2010; 2011b; 2011a; 2012), respondents expressed a need for PE as "*a standardised subject*"(P3:574:574), and in line with the required competencies (cf. par. 6.2.5.1, p. 401) regarded PE as *one of the fundamental principles schools should have* (P5:37-37). However, as already argued, a lack of resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408) and a need for funds, as will become evident in the next section, could have a significant impact on the implementation of PE as a standardised subject and the appointment of a specialist PE educator and/or school sport manager (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418).

6.2.7.6 Funds

Responses recorded specifically referred to a lack of money to serve the diverse needs of learners, and to concerns that parents are paying too much *"My main worry is, eh, how much are the parents paying? Whether the coaches that they hire…? Because they require more money than other ones that are making their sporting programmes successful"* (P1:227-227). Another respondent in particular alluded to a need for funds to enable schools the opportunity market their school through sport and the difference between bigger and smaller schools regarding funds required. *"Bigger schools can afford to pay for the supplements in newspapers; they can afford sending out newsletters and having websites and so on"* (P2:236-236). A further related response concerning needs for funds, should be seen against the backdrop of concerns expressed regarding the high cost of sport, and in particular of transport *"The other problem you have with managing is the high cost of sport. When you look at transport costs these days most of our schools in the country do not have the facilities"* (P2:207-207). The indication of a lack of funds should inevitably be viewed together with the need for support (cf. par. 6.2.7.8, p. 423), capacity and facilities like a cricket pitch or a cricket field, ablution blocks and showers (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408; 6.2.7.7, p.422). The identification of a need for funds can thus be viewed together with the previous section of resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408) where the need for resources was expressed and regarded as fundamental to the management of school sport. So, as was mentioned earlier, sufficient resources (physical, human, financial and information) and the effective management thereof, were further identified as requirements for the effective management of school sport (cf. par. 3.4, p. 140; 3.5, p. 151; 3.6.5, p.169; 6.2.7.1, p. 408).

6.2.7.7 Infrastructure

In order to implement a sport and sport related physical activity programme and provide sustainable service delivery in a variety of sports and recreation activities, it is inevitable that adequate infrastructure of acceptable standard be available (Cairnduff, 2001:9). During the interviews, respondents were unanimous in their opinion that schools do not have facilities, and that access to community facilities is a major problem (P2:150-150;207-207; P5:37-37;118-118;136-136; P6:287-287;291-291;299-299;307-307); yet only one respondent explicitly expressed a need for infrastructure *"They need a good infrastructure at the school"* (P3:658-658). Various other needs implicating a need for infrastructure, but of a wide-ranging nature were recorded like: *"Eh…how much they give to them or whether they give them resources as in your playing balls, attire, you know such things"* (P1:275-275). *"Standardise those things"* (P2:257-257). *"Put in place incentives for people, you can't always pay people to do it"* (P2:257-257). *"Modify sport so that…in certain codes they want you to modify…so children play cricket but there is more than one game taking place on the facilities"* (P2:232-232). *"School sport programmes are not set. Fixtures are drafted and the fixtures don't necessarily take place"* (P2:203-203). *"Fit into structures of federations which requires: in order to play in division A you must have eight teams…that is a major problem"* (P2:203-203). *Hire computers or hire printers for them, laminating machines ...but we are able to help the provincial structure"* (P5:362-362). *"Our biggest challenge: we must now start making the gymnasiums"* (P5:77-77). *"Proper facilities, ablution block, showers and so forth*" (P5:81-81). *"Certain schools that don't even have bigger property to put extra playing fields like netball, cricket, rugby fields around that premises, that's one of the risks"* (P5:122-122). *"They don't have areas where they can practice this, because we know we are quite limited. We've got Virgin Active; we've got Fitness Planet and in terms of schools only the elite schools like when you go to school xxx(?) or you go to school xxx, where now they've got those facilities"* (P5:196-196). *"Your challenge is transport, scholar transport"* (P5:283-283). *"Students are exposed to sport at schools, in public schools, mainly black school, are exposed to about two week of athletics, about three weeks of netball and about four weeks of soccer. That's the sum total. So their sport experience in their community, in their schools is very low. Limited facilities, limited coaching, limited competition"* (P6:287-287).

Synthesising, it can therefore be deduced that respondents have indeed a need for infrastructure, but have wide-ranging viewpoints and perceptions concerning infrastructure, which to a large extent also bear relation to the expressed need for resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408), support (cf. par. 6.2.7.8, p. 423) and governance (6.2.7.3, p. 416). The most essential need for facilities,

infrastructure and utility structures at schools seemed to be sport fields, ablution blocks, showers and change rooms. At the majority of schools a need for additional facilities was mentioned by the interviewees, including change rooms, storerooms, extra playing fields (space) and gymnasiums. The lack of facilities at schools was another concern, as the majority of potential participants in sport are learners. With the reality of having a large number of learners per class, and where the culture is having only one soccer and one netball team, in particular in township, rural and less affluent schools, the access of learners to organized sport is very limited. Added to the lack of facilities, there is a definite lack of transport, which is further compounded by the high costs of school sport. The needs expressed for facilities and infrastructure stemmed from the usage of existing facilities of which a need for use of community facilities, in addition to existing facilities, was the most prevalent. Other needs related to infrastructure includes, amongst other, support, establishing structures for school sport in accordance with structures of sport federations, obtaining structured league profiles to assess the effect and sustainability of existing sport programmes, standardisation of policies and procedures, setting and provision of school sport programmes, availability of (access to) office equipment such as computers during Inter Provincial Tournaments (IPTs), the introduction of sport and recreation activities like aerobics, basketball and handball, and procedures and policies for the provision of financial assistance and incentives.

6.2.7.8 Support

The need for support was echoed by responses and bears a close relation with the expressed need for resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408) and infrastructure (6.2.7.7, p. 422) *"Individual stock who are committed to school sport and who don't get support"* (P1:344-344). A rather unexpected need regarding the need for support mentioned by some respondents was a need for parent support *"Parental support"* (P1:344-344; P5:37-37), while one respondent equated high performance and success in sport to support from the principal and good management of sport *If there is support from the principal, then you'll see the school, their performance will go high"* (P1:318-318). The expressed need for parental support was already identified as a problem in a study by Van Vuuren (2008:281) and coincided with the view of Cox-Petersen (2011:243) and findings from a study by Van Niekerk (2012:90) who states that the time has come for parents to acknowledge and realise their parenthood and responsibility to educate their children. As a result thereof they should support the school and their children, and also get involved in the school and activities offered. Parents are important role players of their children's school and their viewpoints and perceptions must be taken into consideration in the development of a sport management programme for educator training, in order to ensure involvement and ownership. A lack of support

from the DBE was identified as a problem, and as such some of the responses of this section implied that they wanted the education authority to provide more guidance and support to all role players.The extent of attention from the respondents to this particular aspect signified a need for more support from the DBE as a leading partner to deal with sport in schools (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408 to 6.2.7.4, p. 418; par. 6.2.7.7, p. 422).

In summary, it can therefore be said that the needs listed for the development of a sport management programme for educator training served a dual purpose. In the first place, the needs facilitated an understanding of the complex nature of such a programme, and as such specific needs had to be included in the developed measurement instrument, namely a questionnaire to determine the competencies and needs required by school sport managers (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4) to manage school sport in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.   Effective management of school sport is not an easy or simple requirement to accomplish, more so given the unique South African context repeatedly referred to in this report (cf. Ch. 2), but needs dedicated support and commitment from all role players, the development of related competencies (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431; Ch. 7), and the allocation of sufficient resources (physical, finances, human, information) to ensure success.   Secondly, these needs can be considered as requirements for a successful strategy to develop a sport management programme for educator training and thus be regarded as specific points of departure for the development of a programme for sport management training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.

Over and above responses representing respondents' viewpoints on and perceptions about the required competencies for school sport management and training of educators as school sport managers, some general responses were recorded that allowed for gaining additional data and yielded new insights.

6.2.7.9 General comments

As stated in the previous paragraph, the purpose of this particular question in the interview schedule (cf. Annexure D, on CD) was to allow the respondents an opportunity to provide additional data on aspects regarded as important to respondents, but not covered during the initial interview.

Some general responses were recorded which covered respondents' viewpoints and perceptions

about aspects not previously mentioned. More specifically, some respondents referred to key principles related to the management of school sport. Examples hereof are: *"The management aspect is of utmost importance"* (P3:678-678). *"There are a couple of key principles, and the first one is that it must be sport for all, I believe the school system must give the opportunity to everyone to participate. So it must be managed in the philosophy of sport for all"* (P4:27-27). *"The management principles of planning, organising, directing and control, those management principles"* (P6:15-15). *"Sport cannot be offered if it cannot be managed"* (P6:24-24). *"So the movement from being a volunteer amateur in an organisation where the management of sport is a professional environment and a business. The movement from amateur to professional is a total move toward to the professionalisation and the management of sport as well"* (P6:24-24). *"So to manage sport in a school, you asked me about principles; I would still say that one of the principles is that you need to understand exactly what is your objectives and outcomes"*(P6:30-30). Another comment of interest was the repeated reference to *"mass participation, enjoyment and love for sport "*that was associated with a philosophy or purpose for sport participation*. Mass involvement, mass participation, and to me it's essential. You must strive to win, but it's not…winning shouldn't be everything. It's obvious: we need to win, but it should not be win at all costs"* (P4:346-346) *"It's taking away the enjoyment of the sport. I believe that the children must just play and that it is actually shortening the lifespan of our sport people"* (P2:183-183) *"So that the kids must love sport"* (P5:156-156). *"Schools should ensure that their children play sport"* (P1:425-425).

Responses were also recorded in support of a commitment by management, and the importance of school sport managers to set an example. *"A committed management in a school* (P6:316-316). *So our learners that are coming through the schooling system, they are too big and they don't play sport. So some of them are going to be educators, so you'll find some resistance that they won't be really so willing to take part even though they have to take part* (P1:183-183). *"The relationship and the way you handle your kids is very different to the way you handle and work with the kids in class. Many people can't make that difference. And you see a lot of unhappy kids playing sport, not wanting to play the sport because of the approach of the individual"* (P2:45-45). In addition to the previous responses, one respondent stipulated that you must have *"Willing teachers, number one, and who are dedicated and committed"* (P5:37-37), while another closely related response, was also echoed in support of voluntary involvement opposed to compulsory involvement in and with school sport:

"But there are too many people who are forced to do sport at school and therefore they don't do

justice and they don't provide the right opportunities, the right climate for the children to be able to achieve. Ensure rather that it is something that you want to do" (P2:28-28).

The significance of the above principles (recommendations) stated for the development of a measuring instrument for the quantitative section of this research was situated in the identification of specific themes on the one hand, and on the other hand in that they provided practical guidelines, recommendations and specific approaches for school sport management as well as recommendations aimed at a personal level which would be helpful in the development of a sport management programme for educator training.

To conclude, it was not only positive, but rather unexpected and surprising when some respondents expressed their wishes, appreciation and approval at the end of the interview. These included responses like: *"My only wish is it should not only be a study, it should…it should eh…go on further to assist in ensuring South Africa has a very good school sport policy, where we will become world beaters"* (P1:450-450). *No, I think we've covered everything. I think it is a very relevant research. You have an amazing thing; I'm really looking forward to the results. This isnot just for the tape; it can have a major impact on the landscape of sport management* (P4). The significance of these particular responses was that they substantiate the rationale of the research (cf. par. 1.2.5, p. 5.) and are an indication of the level of cooperation received from the respondents (cf. par. 6.2.2.3, p. 371; 6.2.2.4, p. 371).

6.2.7.10 Conclusion: interview analysis

Responses of the qualitative analysis from the interview were all related to the questions in accordance with the interview schedule (cf. Annexure, B, on CD). Of particular importance however, is the fact that even though not all questions were discussed (answered) per se, answers to these questions also provided valuable input. So, the results of the qualitative analysis from the interviews were in agreement with related themes from the literature overview and in particular with the theoretical framework from the management of school sport (cf. par. 4.8, p. 283; Fig. 15, p. 289) and the aims of the study in relation to the qualitative section of this report (cf. par. 1.2.3, p. 12 5.8, p. 328). Additional data were also recorded according to the purpose for the inclusion of interviews in this research.

An implication of the responses in connection with the competencies required to manage school sport, was to ensure a clear understanding of the fundamental competencies required to manage

school sport. Some of the competencies required were derived from respondents' responses regarding their understanding of sport management. A clear understanding of sport management was necessary, because of the vario us semantic and conceptual nuances about the nature of the concept. The existing perception that racial and cultural differences and the unique South African political context, implicating a focus towards diversity, should be seen as key drivers for the development of a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, may be explained from a historical South African context. Care should nevertheless be taken not to adopt a one-sided approach with an overemphasis on only differences as distinguishable aspect of diversity in relation to sport management and the development of a sport management programme in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. The indication of uniqueness as an understanding of diversity and the South African context was of value if related to the identified needs associated with creativity and wide-ranging competencies required to manage school sport. A balanced perspective about the complex nature of diversity and sport management in the unique South African context and situation is imperative for a sport management programme to deal effectively with the diverse needs of South African schools, because of the inherent potential of diversity, and more specifically in relation to the study under view, a one-dimensional, one-sided, bias sport management programme, to either unite or to divide people.

Viewpoints and perceptions of respondents related to and in support of a clear understanding of the concept of sport management (cf. Annexure B, on CD; par. 1.2.1.1, p. 2) were also in line with the requirement from the literature overview about a clear conceptualisation as a point of departure or precondition for the management of school sport (cf. par. 1.2.1.3, p. 4; 1.2.2, p. 5 to 1.2.5, p. 10; 6.2.7.9, p. 424), which was also briefly touched on in the previous paragraph. In addition, responses about respondents' understanding of sport management (cf. Annexure, B, on CD) also brought some perspectives to the fore and enabled the researcher to deduce competencies required for the management of school sport. The competencies and needs identified for the management of school sport from the quantitative data (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431), the responses from the interviews revealed a broad understanding of sport management, which was to some extent in accordance with the stated reasons for concept clarity (cf. par. 1.2.1, p. 2). Hence, the data from the interviews supported an understanding of school sport management as more complex than mere management or coaching.

A need for policy guidelines and systems to be put in place, as well as a need for clear guidelines and directives with regard to the role and responsibilities, duties and hours of work of various role players involved with and in school sport, and concerns whether involvement in and with school sport should be compulsory or voluntary, were expressed by the respondents (cf. par. 6.2.7.3, p. 416). The role of the government to interfere (intervene) to serve its own purpose or interests was also implied by respondents. It was thus clear that the preceding needs and concerns were in accordance with the initial phase of the theoretical framework to account for legislative and guiding directives for the implementation of a sport management programme in the unique South African context (cf. Ch. 2).

No code of ethics for non-educators involved with school sport (P2:62-62), resources for training and offering school sport and sport related physical activity programmes (P1:227-227), inexperience of students who do practical training (P2:141-141), lack of resources (financial) of less affluent schools to afford a school sport manager and/or train one (P4:124-124) and the responsibility (ability) of training institutions to provide in the training needs of society (P3:670-670) were indicated as concerns and problems related to training and the successful management of school sport (cf. par. 6.2.7, p. 408). The data from the interviews signified a connection between concerns and problems and the needs and competencies indicated as required to manage school sport successfully (cf. par. 6.2.3, p. 372 to 6.2.7, p. 420). Identified needs and competencies were also in relation to implicated principles to manage school sport. These principles in turn were further linked to the interview responses that referred to a change in mindset and a shift of goalposts (cf. par. 6.2.7.9, p. 424) and the view school sport management as a process that requires dedicated, committed, volunteers with love and passion for sport in the changing education landscape (cf. par. 2.3, p. 37; 2.4, p. 70). Inevitably, the additional data obtained from respondents regarding principles, concerns and problems to manage school sport, elaborated significantly on the specific needs and competencies that were identified in the quantitative section of this research (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431).

The literature overview highlighted the important role of training as part of a process to increase knowledge, skills, awareness and competency levels to deal effectively with the management of school sport (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; 2.5, p. 98; 3.6.9, p. 195; 4.6.4, p. 276). However, a significant lack of and need for training especially for specialists such as school sport managers and PE educators was reported by respondents in both the qualitative (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418; 6.2.7.5, p. 420) and the quantitative (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431) data analysis. It was evident from the viewpoints and perceptions

of respondents that the lack of and need for training to manage school sport received the most support by far from the respondents during the interviews (cf. Fig. 22, p. 409; par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412; 6.2.7.4, p. 416; 6.2.7.5, p. 420) and that specialists such as school sport managers and PE educators should be appointed. This viewpoint of respondents was consistent with the views of Ono and Ferreira (2010:60,71) who recommends continuous professional development of educators. Additional aspects about training, consistent with the literature, were provided by the data from the interviews, and were confirmed by the results from the quantitative data analysis (cf. par. 6.2.7.2, p. 412; 6.2.7.4, p. 418; 6.2.7.5, p. 420), namely:

- To include in-depth pre-service and in service training programmes as part of the training of students in sport management;
- The demand for content, context, practice-based training including both theory and practical training, given the changing education landscape concerning trends such as professionalisation and commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82; 2.4.6, p. 90);
- The demand for experienced and competent specialists;
- The demand for trainee school sport managers to teach and study at the same time (internships/apprenticeships);
- The importance of correct placement and briefing of students who do practical training, as well as the importance of supervision, feedback and assessment;
- The demand for HEIs to train specialists such as school sport managers and PE educators; and
- The provision of infrastructure to support practical training.

A lack of support from the DBE and other role players (stakeholders) involved with and in school sport (cf. par. 6.2.7.8, p. 423) in relation to the management of school sport, and specifically regarding the provision of resources (cf. par. 6.2.7.1, p. 408), training (6.2.7.2, p. 412), specialists (cf. par. 6.2.7.4, p. 418), and infrastructure (cf. par. 6.2.7.7, p. 422) was an aspect that was particularly highlighted from the data from the interviews. It was remarkable that this aspect occurred in both categories of problems experienced (cf. Annexure B, on CD) and needs to manage school sport (cf. par. 6.2.7, p. 408). The lack of support in relation to the aforementioned was thus both regarded as a problem and indicated as a specific need.

The data about the identification of problems, although not discussed separately (cf. Annexure B, on CD, p.),[93] related to practical training and the management of school sport, provided new insights in addition to the data obtained from the quantitative data (cf. par. 6.3, 431). Incidences that were turned into racial issues, limited resources (physical, human, financial and information), lack of specialists and a content, context specific programme for school sport management, as well as a reluctance to make PE a separate standalone subject and the appointment of a dedicated, committed PE educator were identified as problems from the qualitative section (cf. par. 6.2.7, p. 408). The recording of the research topic best practices and challenges from the interviews also contributed to the exploration of the research topic, for example to get the whole school to participate in sport (mass participation), growing obesity in schools (P3:586; P5:283-283), friction and tension between volunteers who previously managed sport and the training qualified professional currently evolving to manage sport (P6:24-24), and a shift (P6:29-30*) in goal posts regarding the purpose of sport in accordance with educational principles (physical development of the child, movement, participation in sport for life and health) to sport as a profession (promising, talented learners who excel in sport, contracted at school already.)*[94]

The stipulation of a movement from amateur to professionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82; 6.2.7.9, 424), and that sport is seen as a business, was not only consistent with the literature overview (cf. par. 3.2, p. 117), but also from responses from the qualitative data (cf. par. 6.2.7.9, p. 424) and were therefore also significant for the description of the field of study for school sport management (cf. Fig. 13, p. 252; par. 4.6.2, p. 250; 4.6.4, p. 276). Several examples of best practices and wide-ranging recommendations were implicitly recorded for consideration to be included as themes in the developed questionnaire. These examples were also kept in mind when the sport management programme for educator training (cf. Chap 7) was developed. All and all, the identification of extensive practices and recommendations was a valuable significant contribution to the determination of competencies and needs required to manage school sport as determined in the quantitative section (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431).

It can be concluded that, despite the fact that different questions yielded similar responses, views and perceptions, the qualitative data from the interviews not only confirmed some of the data (cf. par. 6.3.2, p. 454; 6.3.3, p. 492)from the quantitative section, but made additional data possible,

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[93]Responses to the questions: What problems are encountered during practical training of students? What problems do schools experience to manage sport?, served a dual purpose in the sense that it was assumed that the identified problems implicitly and also explicitly indicated a need

[94]Cf. also par. 2.2.3 p. 31; 2.3.1. p.36; 2.3.2, p. 37; 2.4.3, p. 82 ; 2.4.6, p. 90

elaborated on related aspects, and yielded a more in-depth account of the management of school sport in the study population of schools. Furthermore, the qualitative data were in coherence with the literature overview and coincided with the viewpoint of knowledgeable academics and experts from the field of study of sport management, who in essence accentuated the development of a school sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools as generic applied training in school sport management, combined with coaching. Taking into consideration the gaining of additional data and new insights from the qualitative data, apart from the initial purpose to identify themes during the interpretation process which would contribute towards the development of an appropriate instrument for the quantitative phase of this research (cf. par. 5.7.4, p. 324; 5.9, p. 333), it would thus appear that the inclusion of interviews as a data-gathering method in this research was justified.

The following section describes the second stage of the empirical section, namely that of the quantitative data analysis obtained from the questionnaires (cf. Fig. 16, p. 318; par. 5.9.1, p. 334; 5.9.3, p. 339).

6.3   ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

The quantitative data referred to the recorded data of the structured questionnaire and were presented according to the various sections and subsections of the questionnaires (cf. par. 5.9.3.2, p. 339; Annexure D, on CD). Firstly, the quantitative data were presented in either table format or by means of charts and other graphics. That is to present data visually for a quick understanding. Each presentation of data provided an indication of numerical scores and percentages according to related categories in order to provide an overview of the particular grouping of data. Secondly, the visual presentation of data (tables, charts, and graphics) in numbers and percentages enabled the researcher to offer an analytical description and interpretation of data by means of descriptive statistical procedures.

The SCS of the North-West University Potchefstroom Campus assisted in the design of the questionnaire and also with the organising, analysis and interpretation of data. The gathered data from the questionnaire were statistically converted by means of the SAS (Sas Institute Inc, 2010; 2011) computer software program. A two-stage statistical procedure was followed in this regard (cf. par. 5.9.6, p. 350). Where the required competencies and needs of school sport managers in a diversity of South African schools were determined by means of a structured questionnaire, based

on the literature and the results of a semi-structured interview, SAS (Santana, 2009:3,7) offered the researcher the opportunity to present data visually and graphically. On the whole, the aforementioned analysis and interpretation procedures formed part of the overall process to make inferences, and to draw conclusions to formulate findings and recommendations in accordance with the research aims. The results are discussed in the same order as the questions in the questionnaire (cf. Annexure D, on CD). Firstly, biographical information about respondents and their involvement in and with school sport as configured in the questionnaires will be presented. Next, demographical information regarding schools and of relevance to this study will be discussed. Both the biographical and demographical information (cf. Annexure, D, section B, on CD) enabled the researcher to obtain a picture and overview of the study population (cf. par. 5.9.2, p. 335). After the biographical and demographical sections, information about the perceived current school sport management requirements are discussed, as well as specific needs regarding the management of school sport, and lastly information about specific training needs.

However, before this can be done, it is necessary to present an analysis and interpret the information that came forth from the questionnaire. The profile (description) of the study population is presented in the next section (cf. Annexure D, on CD).

6.3.1 Profile (description) of the study population

In section A and B of the questionnaire a profile of the study population (respondents) was drawn. As was stated in the previous paragraph, the profile (description) comprised biographical and demographical information. *Biographical data* include the gender, age, home language, position, years' experience in education and involvement at their current school, academic qualification as well the nature of involvement in school sport and years' experience on different levels of school sport. *Demographical information* on the other hand, focuses on number of learners, composition of the school, type of school, community from which learners come, socio economic status of parents, number of educators and learners participating in sport, the school sport managers' ability to manage school sport in a multi-cultural setting, diversity in school sport and the school sport manager's role in decision-making concerning the management of sport in the school. Next, the biographical data will be discussed.

6.3.1.1 Biographical data

In section A of the questionnaire (cf. Annexure D, on CD) respondents were required to answer questions regarding their gender and age, which would enable the researcher to compile a profile of the study population as well as to draw comparisons between different groups relevant to this study (cf. par. 6.3, p.431). Firstly, the gender of the participants will be looked at.

- **Gender (Question 1)**

In Graph 1 (cf. p. 434 below) the gender composition for this study in shown.

A total of 189 respondents from 55 schools completed the questionnaire of which 185 indicated their gender. Of the 185 respondents, 107 (57.8%) were male and 78 (42.2%) female, as illustrated in Graph 1. This could be an indication that the environment within the sport industry, and more particularly, the sport education sector (cf. par. 2.5.1, p. 102) where the management of sport in the school takes place, is well balanced between gender groups. These findings regarding gender are however not consistent with findings by Hollander (2000:150); Vosloo (2007:197) and Vosloo *et al.* (2009:629), who found that the sport education sector is a male-dominated environment. Findings from the current study are also not consistent with recent studies by Van der Merwe (2011:150,164,191); Van der Merwe (2012:46) and Van der Merwe *et al.* (2012:13), who found school sport dominated by the presence of females. Hence, looking back in history where sport has always been male dominated (cf. par. 2.3.1, p. 37; 2.3.3, p. 45), this might be a legacy that has changed. In South Africa in particular, change could be the result of the introduction by government of gender equity policies and legislation that have been introduced to address transformation as well as research by a noted expert like Burnett (1999b; 2001b; 2001a; 2002a; 2002b; 2004; 2006d; 2006g; 2007d; 2007c; 2007b; 2009b)

Graph 1: Gender
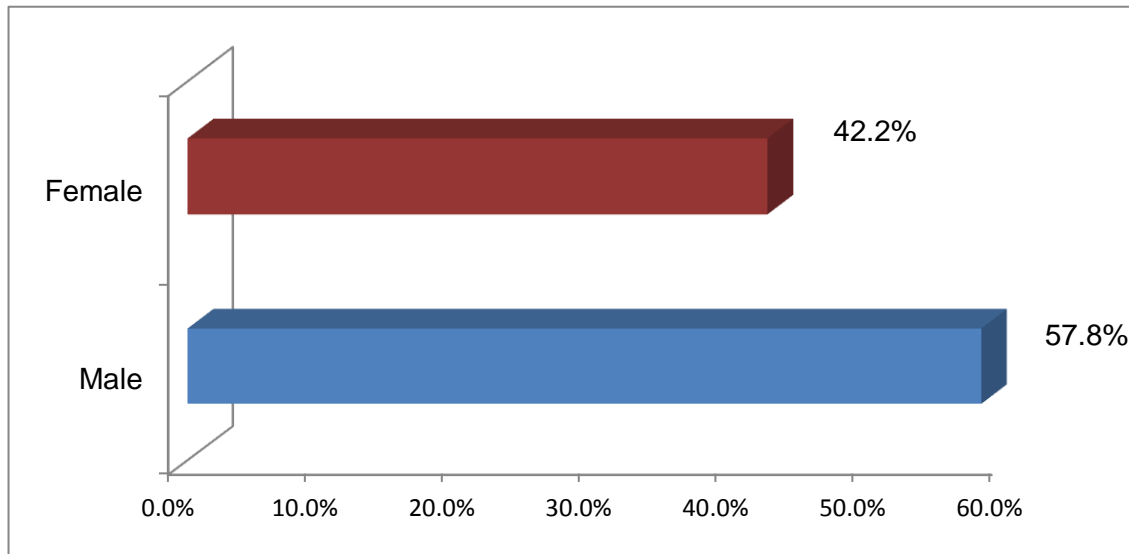
- **Age (Question 2)**

With regard to age, only 160 respondents indicated their age. The average age of these respondents was 43 years, with the youngest being 22 years old and the oldest 71. The average age of respondents indicated that they were in the mid-life transition phase. This phase is heralded by crises and transitions which may culminate either in dissatisfaction and personal disquiet or a sense of accomplishment and minor stability, as well as to become involved,trying to leave a legacy (Humangrowth, 2013). All in all, the average age of respondents indicates that they are reasonably experienced educatorswho would like to leave a legacy and are committed to change. As such they would thus be able to provide meaning and substance to the findings of this study.

- **Language (Question 3)**

The majority of the 181 respondents who answered this question speak Afrikaans (n=118; 65.2%), while 44 (24.3%) speak English and 12 (6.6%) Xhosa. It is evident that respondents' home languages cover a broad range of home languages, which is consistent with the label of South Africa as the rainbow nation and the 11 official languages spoken in South Africa.

- **Position in school (Question 4)**

In Graph 2, the current positions of educators in their respective schools are indicated.

Graph 2: Position at school
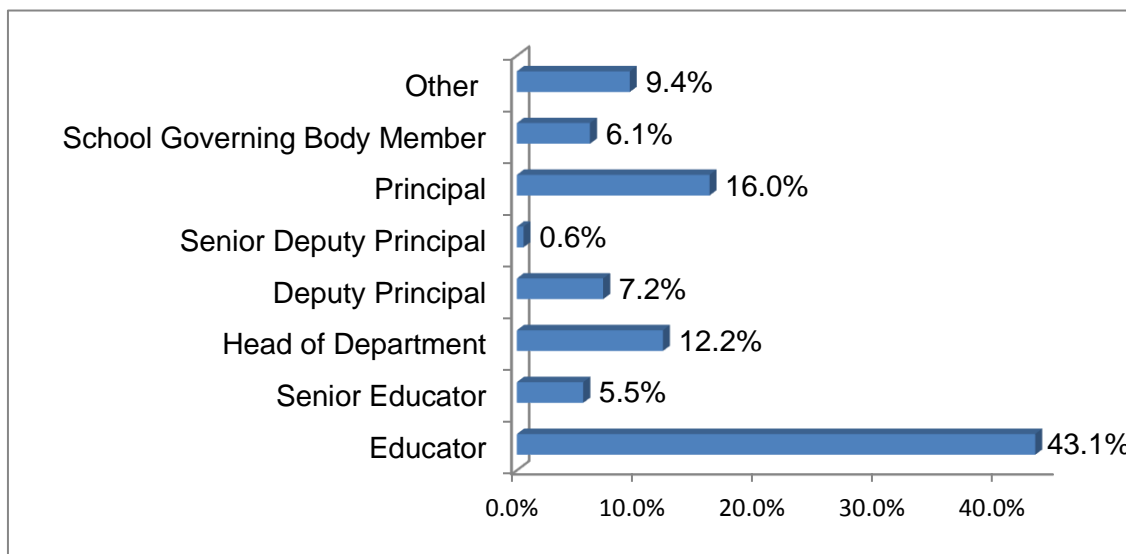
From Graph 2 it is evident that from the 181 respondents who indicated their current position in their school, 17 (9.4%) do not hold a position as an educator at the school. This could mean that they are not appointed and paid by the DBE or the SGB to teach learners academically, but are used exclusively for sport. These people are remunerated from the school fees paid by parents. With regard to the other 164 respondents, 78 (43.1%) are educators, 22 (12.2%) heads of departments, 10 (5.5%) senior educators,[95] 13 (7.2%) deputy principals, 29 (16.0%) principals and 11 (6.1%) are School Governing Body Members or appointed by the SGB. In relation to the core business of a school, namely academic teaching and learning, it can thus be said that educators are involved on the lower level of management (cf. par. 3.4.1.3, p. 147), the heads of departments are regarded as middle management and deputy and senior deputy principals and principals are seen as top management (cf. par. 3.4.1.1, p. 146; Fig. 9, p. 142). Furthermore it can be said that although the majority of the respondents were educators involved on the lower level of management, they represented all the different groups and levels of management.

- **Years teaching experience (Question 5)**

Length of service according to Hackett (1996:6) may present a yardstick to measure organisational stability. On average the 171 respondents who answered this question had 17.6 years of experience in education, which indicates a significant length of service. The most experienced

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[95]Senior educators in the context of this study refer to level 1 educators, who based on their years teaching experience are regarded as senior educators

respondent had 46 years of experience, while the least experienced respondent had only just started a career in education. These figures correlate with the relatively high age of the respondents as indicated in an earlier paragraph, and further indicates that the duration of services found presented a balanced movement of departures and influx. Hacket (1996:6) states that a notable core of experienced workers should be maintained, yet there should also be fresh entries to avoid stagnation. The findings are consistent with this theory in that respondents on average had eight years' experience at their current schools.

- **Years involvement at current institution (Question 6)**

Apart from their years of experience in teaching, respondents were also required to indicate their involvement in their current position at a particular institution. The respondents varied in the number of years that they had been employed in their current position at a particular institution. However, on average, the 175 respondents had eight years' experience in their current position at a particular school. When compared with their average age, it can be deduced that the most respondents have been teaching for quite some time. It would thus appear that respondents attain some degree of stability as they get older. The preceding conclusion might therefore possibly give an indication of the respondents' involvement as school sport managers (cf. par. 6.3.1.1, p. 433; Graph 5, p. 439; 6, p. 440). However, it is necessary first to take a closer look at the highest academic qualification obtained, since it could give an indication of the training required.

- **Highest academic qualification (Question 7)**

A whole range of results was produced by this question as indicated in Graph 3 (cf. p. 437). In terms of respondents' highest qualification (cf. Graph 3, p. 437), one (0.6%) had no qualification and one (0.6%) had a qualification lower than Grade 12, while 13 (7.1%) only had Matric (Grade 12). In terms of undergraduate qualifications, 122 (67.0%) of the respondents had an undergraduate qualification, of whom one (0.6%) had a one year diploma, 13 (7.1%) had a post-school certificate, five (2.8%) had a two year diploma, 12 (6.6%) had a three year diploma, 45 (24.7%) a four year diploma and 59 (32.4%) had a degree. Only 45 (24.7%) of the respondents had obtained a post-graduate qualification, of whom 39 (21.4%) had an honours degree and six (3.3%) had a master's degree. Interestingly, no respondent held a doctorate. The level of education indicates that the respondents are well educated, but do not have time to engage in further study. The results also indicate that most respondents have a formal tertiary qualification, which is a requirement in order to be working in the teaching profession. Fifteen (7.3%) had a

secondary education qualification only. In retrospect, the substantial majority of academic achievers lent belief to the development theories of numerous scientists who expound on the self-actualising needs. The average age of respondents, 43, previously referred to mid-life transition respondents thus (Meyer *et al.*, 2003:369; Ashford & LeCroy, 2009:544,564,592; Humangrowth, 2013:1) indicates that during this life phase career changes are on the cards and there is an inclination to be retrained, broaden the knowledge base and develop interpersonal and personality traits, so as to be effective in the work environment. Job satisfaction and goal attainment are heightened in the quest for re-education, notwithstanding the constraints of inequal opportunities and standards. However, in the current study, the field of study in which qualifications were obtained is more important. This particular aspect is discussed next (cf. p. 438 below).

Graph 3: Highest academic qualification
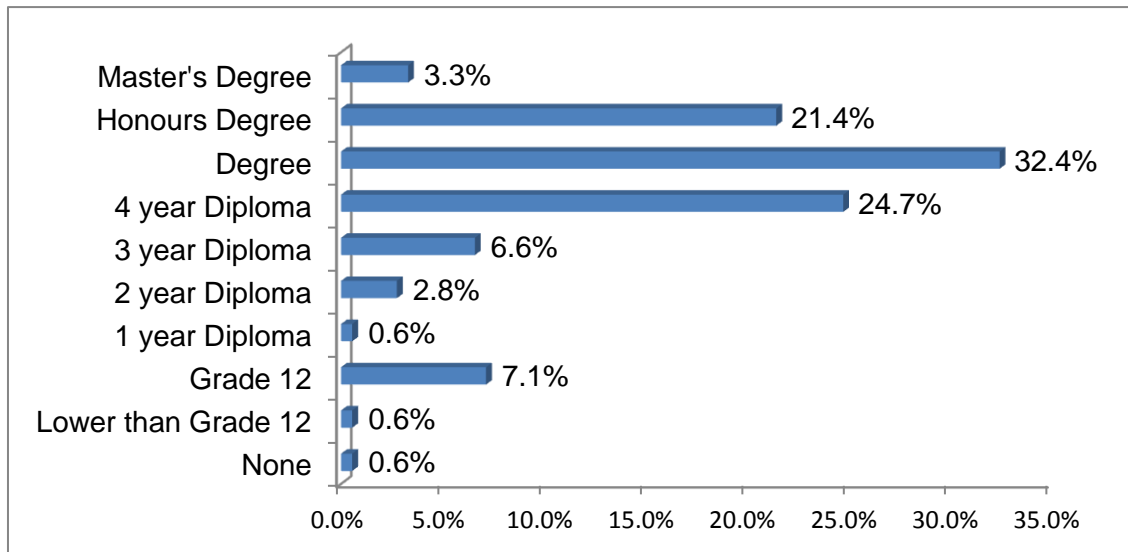
- **Qualifications obtained (Question 8)**

Qualifications obtained by respondents were of particular importance for this study. Particular qualifications obtained by respondents regarding a particular field of study are illustrated in Graph 4 (cf. p. 438 below).

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Graph 4: Specific qualifications obtained
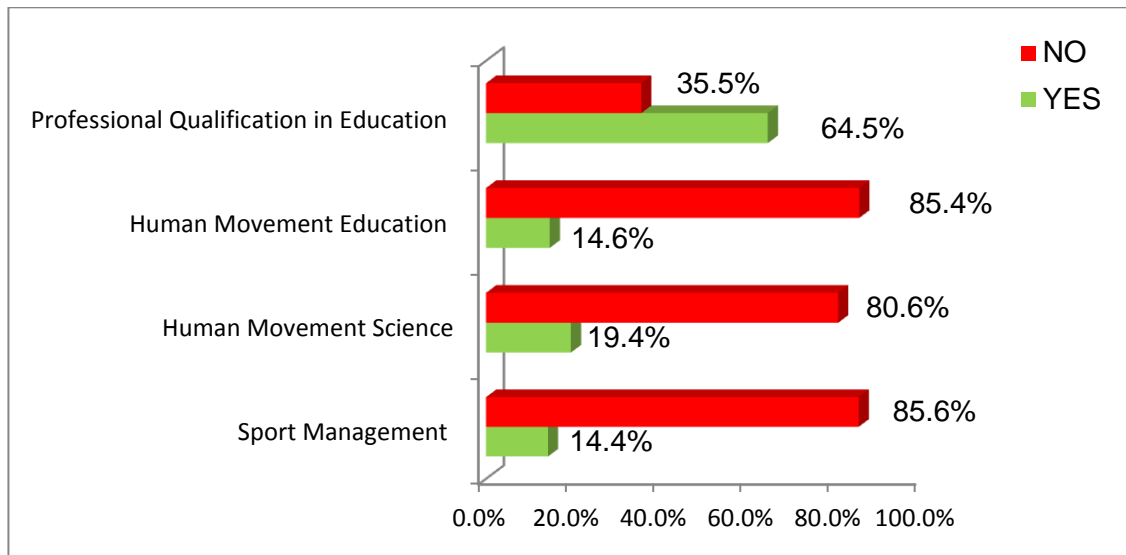
The only significant qualifications obtained by respondents, were the 89 (64.5%) of the 138 respondents who had a professional qualification in education,[96] that is an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE); National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE), Postgraduate Higher Education Diploma in Education (PHEDE), 4 year Higher Education Diploma (HED), Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) and a Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE).

The responses from respondents regarding their qualifications in the field of study of sport management, human movement science and human movement education were of particular significance for this study. Responses from respondents were rather alarming and consistent with the need identified by this research to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2 p. 12). The majority of the 102 respondents, namely 87 (85.3%) had no sport management qualification, while 83 of 101 respondents (80.6%) had no qualification in human movement science and 82 (85.4%) of 96 respondents had no qualification in human movement education.

Given the low percentage of respondents with a sport background, there is a need to develop a sport management programme for educator training that includes training in the management of sport specifically as well as human movement. Statistics provided in the preceding paragraph,

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[96]A professional qualification in education refers to a qualification that includes at least two recognized school subjects/learning areas of which one has to be on either level 1 or level 2

correlate with findings from respondents that indicated that Human Movement, Sport and Recreation Management Competencies are amongst the most important competencies required by school sport managers to be more effective in their positions (cf. par.6.3.1.1, p. 433; Table 31, p. 489). Additionally, the views expressed in this paragraphs are consistent with findings by Du Toit *et al.* (2007:249); Vosloo (2007:208); Vosloo *et al.* (2009:637); Du Toit and Van der Merwe (2011:25; 2012:8); Van der Merwe (2011:258,263) and Van der Merwe *et al.* (2012:4,5) and the literature study (cf. par. 1.4.3, p. 14).

- **Current involvement in sport (Question 9)**

The current involvement in school sport is illustrated in Graph 5

Graph 5: Current involvement in sport
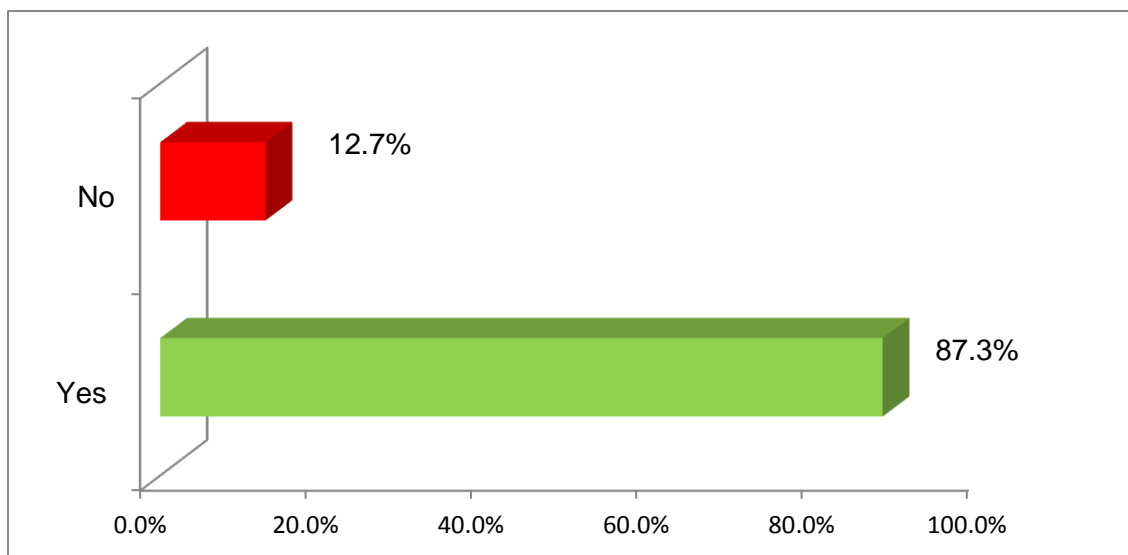
By far the majority of the 173 respondents who answered this question, namely 151 (87.3%), are currently involved with sport at a school. Remarkably, only 22 (12.7%) of the respondents are currently not involved in sport at a school. A possible explanation for this state of affairs could be that these respondents are principals, senior deputy and deputy principals (cf. Graph 2, p. 435), who are at top management level (cf. par. 3.4.1.1, p. 146; Fig. 9, p. 142) and are only involved in sport in a supervisory capacity. This high percentage of respondents involved in sport at a school illustrates the need that exists for a sport management programme for educator training in South Africa. With modern trends such as professionalisation, commercialisation and privatisation (cf.

par. 2.4, pp. 70-98) impacting on school sport, education and training should be provided to these individuals to become successful school sport managers.

- **Capacity of involvement (Question 10)**

Respondents were required to indicate their capacity of involvement during the completion of the questionnaire (cf. Annexure D, Question 10, on CD). Through this the researcher attempted to establish whether there was a statistical significant difference between the competencies required by different school sport managers (cf. par. 6.3, p. 431).[97] The capacity of involvement by respondents is indicated in Graph 6.

Graph 6: Capacity of involvement
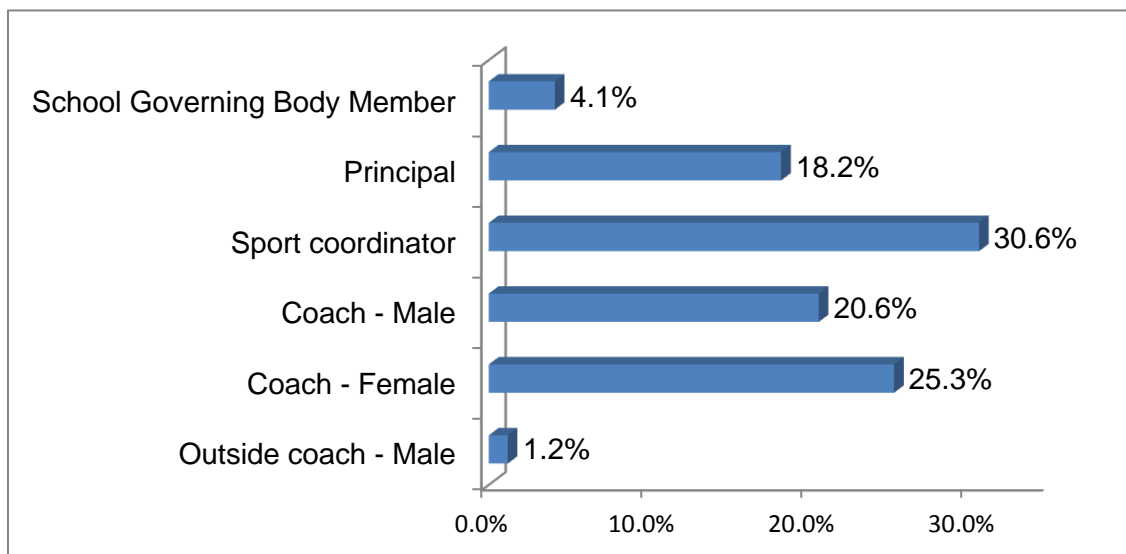
The majority of the 170 respondents who indicated their capacity of involvement in school sport, namely 52 (30.6%), are sport organisers, while 43 (25.3%) are female coaches,35 (20.6%) are male coaches and 40 (23.5%) are involved in another capacity, as indicated in Figure 6.10. Thirty one (18.2%) of these 40 respondents are involved in sport as principal, seven (4.1%) serve on the SGB and two (1.2%) are outside male coaches.[98] These figures correlate with those mentioned in

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[97] In this study, no statistical method, technique or analysis were used to calculate (determine) the particular statistical (effect size) or practical significance of results (views/opinions). Significance (significant) refer to the extent of differences and in the context of this study significant can be seen as meaningful, or making a difference, that is the researcher having to think about a possible solution if it reaches drastic measures

[98] In the context of this study, outside coach refers to someone who is not appointed by the DBE or the SGB to teach learners academic subject matter, but used exclusively to coach sport and is remunerated from school funds

section 6.3.1.1 (cf. p. 433) regarding current involvement in school sport, where it was indicated that the majority of respondents are currently involved in school sport. This indicates that the majority of respondents are educators who are involved in school sport managing school sport on a full-time basis. The fact that respondents comprise a broad range of school sport managers (cf. par. 1.4.6.1, p. 18), and are currently involved in school sport, improved the reliability and the validity of data, since these respondents were better equipped to respond to the questions posed.

- **Coaching qualifications and experience (Question 12)**

Information that came to the fore from coaching qualifications and years of experience on a particular level, was used to determine the need for training, because it has implications for the school sport manager and the development of a sport management programme for educator training. The coaching qualifications and experience of school sport managers are illustrated in Graph 7 (cf. p. 442 below)

A large number of respondents (65) did not indicate whether they had a coaching qualification. Of the remaining 104 respondents who answered this question, only 61 (49.1%) had a coaching qualification on level 1, which is seen as the introductory or basic level of coaching. With regard to level two, three and four, only 39 (38.6%), 14 (19.0%) and five (6.9%) of respondents who answered this question, respectively had a level two, three or four qualification. The responses to this question are of particular significance for the development of an intended sport management programme (cf. Ch. 7) in the sense that one could deduce that school sport managers are not qualified as coaches. This is of particular concern, both from a legal and an educational perspective. It also has implications for the school sport manager who, consistent with the literature, is required to ensure that unqualified coaches are properly trained and equipped and empowered, otherwise they could be held liable for injuries to learners during games or events (cf. par. 3.6.7, p. 179). The fact that they were not trained and do nothave a coaching qualification would then be held against them. Concerning the intended programme, these results thus emphasise the need for a sport management programme as well as that the school sport manager should also be trained to train others. Consequently, this particular aspect should be kept in mind when a programme is developed.

Graph 7: Coaching qualifications and experience

	Qualified	Unqualified	Years Experience 1-5	Years Experience 6-10	Years Experience 11-15	Years Experience 16-20	Years Experience 21-30	Years Experience 31-40	Years Experience 41+
Level 1	49.19	50.81	43.4	16.32	7.55	13.21	13.2	3.78	1.89
Level 2	38.61	61.39	36.36	21.21	15.15	0	21.21	6.06	0
Level 3	17.95	82.05	8.33	41.67	8.33	16.67	16.66	8.33	0
Level 4	6.94	93.06	0	0	40	0	20	40	0
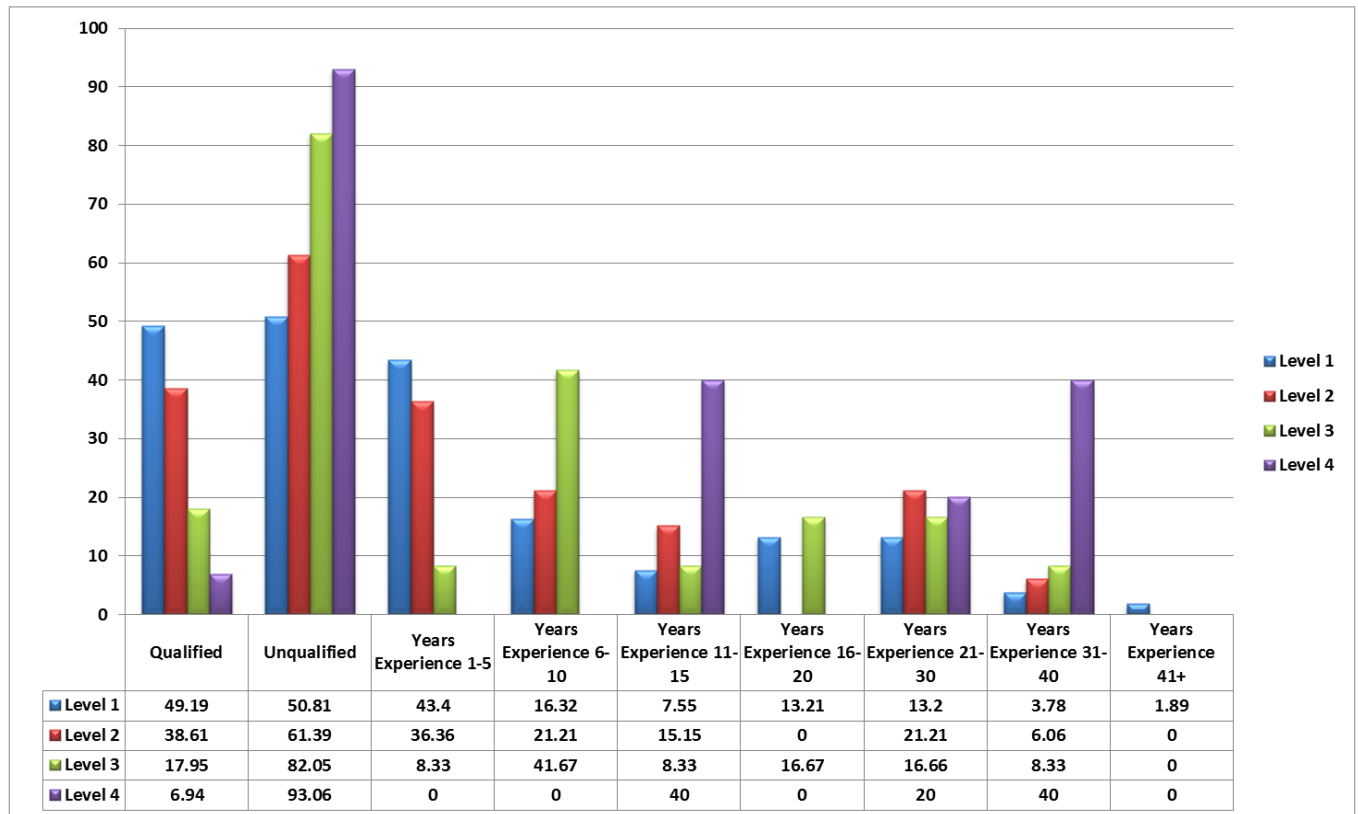
Apart from the coaching qualifications and experience of respondents, the involvement of respondents in sport as coaches, players or managers, other than at school, will be considered now.

- **Involvement (experience) elsewhere (Question 13)**

Over and above respondents' involvement in school sport at a particular school, respondents were also required to indicate if they were involved in school sport (playing or managing) other than at school. In this way the researcher endeavoured to obtain a more holistic view of the study population. On the basis hereof implications for the management of school sport could be obtained, and the effect on the sport management programme for educator training be determined in the sense that involvement in school sport other than at the school, could impact on the level of competence required by different school sport managers and as such the intended sport

management programme.[99]   Therefore the involvement of respondents elsewhere (playing or managing) other than at school is depicted in Graph 8.

Graph 8: Involvement (experience elsewhere)
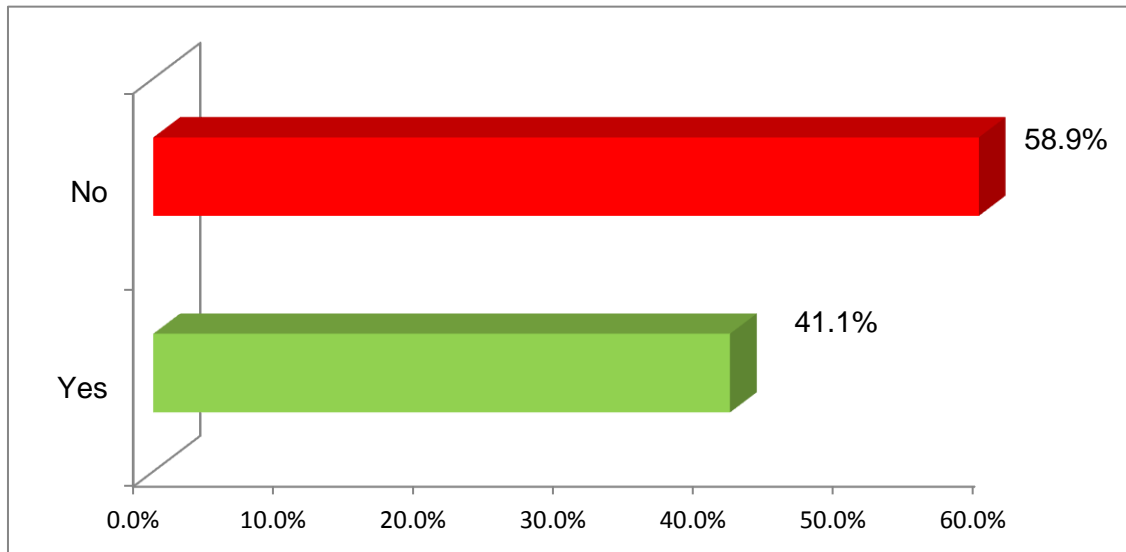
In relation to respondents' involvement elsewhere it is remarkable that more that half of the 180 respondents who answered this question, namely 106 (58.9%), are currently not involved in sport elsewhere. These results would thus indicate that some respondents also have experience other than at school which could stand them in good stead when managing school sport. A possible explanation for the majority of the respondents not being involved may be attributed to a large (heavy) workload brought about by the education system in South Africa (cf. par. 2.2.1, p. 26; 7.2, p. 509), while a large portion of respondents hold positions as heads of departments, deputy- and senior deputy principals, as well as principals of schools (cf. Graph 2, p. 435).

In sum, the majority of the respondents were males (57.8%), which implied that the recorded responses were mainly from the perspective of male school sport managers. This particular aspect will nonetheless be looked at more closely later in this chapter (cf. par. 6.3.2.2, p. 461). It is also evident from the captured responses about school sport managers in their current position at the school as professional educators, that respondents are experienced, but in general lacked training as school sport managers, despite experience as coaches, which once more is consistent with the

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[99]For the purposes of this research a generic sport management programme for educator training was developed (cf. par. 7.5, p. 547), but a sport management programme for educator training on different levels of competence and involvement, could be a possible theme for future research

identified need for a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). Of further importance is the fact that the age and language of respondents vary, that their position at the school are representative of different levels of management (cf. Graph 6, p. 440) and their capacity of involvement in school sport indicate that respondents comprise a broad range of school sport managers (cf. Graph 5, p. 439; 7, p. 442). From the preceding it can therefore be derived that respondents are diverse in nature and as such should be able to express views from a diversity of South African schools. In this way, it can be said that the sport management programme developed for educator training, is in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12; Ch.7).

The responses to sections B – D of the questionnaire are presented and discussed in the following part of this chapter. First, section B, the demographical data, is reflected upon.

6.3.1.2 Demographical data

Together with section A of the questionnaire, section B of the Questionnaire (cf. Annexure D, on CD), which sought to obtain demographical information regarding schools, enabled the researcher to draw a profile of the respondents and substantiated the context provided in Chapter 2 of schools in South Africa. In addition comparisons were drawn between different groups relevant to this study (cf. par. 6.3. p. 431). Because only principals had to complete section Section B, the results indicate a large number of missing responses. In total 29 principals completed the questionnaire (cf. par. 6.3.1.1, p. 433). In addition, not all the information on each questionnaire was completed in full and in some cases it appears as if information regarding the school required in Section B of the questionnaire (cf. Annexure D, on CD) was obtained from the principal by respondents, hence the differences in total responses at each item. The data are presented per question (subsection) to reflect the responses of question items according to the questionnaire for the purposes of related analysis and interpretation. Only the main aspects of relevance to section B are briefly described according the different question items. Firstly, the number of learners in the selected schools will be looked at.

- **Number of learners (Question 14)**

The results for this question, indicated in Graph 9 (cf. p. 445 below) show that 38 (84.4%) of schools have fewer than 700 boys in their school, while 43 (89.6%) of schools have fewer than 700 girls in their school. The majority of these schools 15 (33.3) have fewer than 300 boys in their

school and 11 (24.4%) fewer than 500, while 20 (41.7%) have fewer than 300 girls in their school and 10 each (20.8%) have fewer than 500 and 700 respectively in their school. It could thus be said when the figures for boys and girls are taken together that most of the schools in this study can be regarded as schools of average size. Next, the composition of the school is discussed.

Graph 9: Number of learners
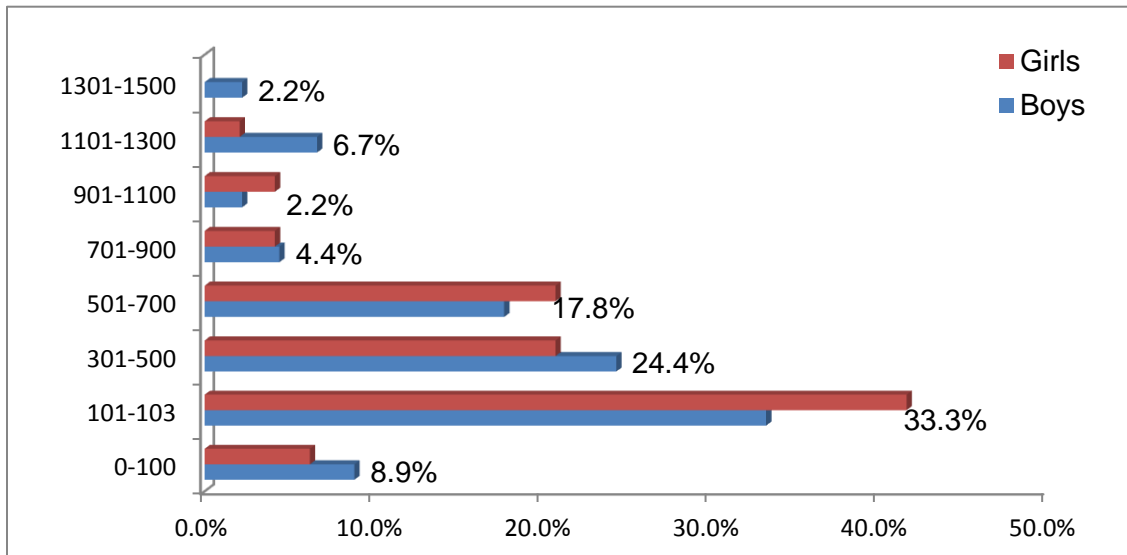
• **Composition of school (Question 15)**

Apart from the number of learners, the composition of the school, also contributed to draw a profile of the study population. The various compositions of schools are depicted in Graph 10.

Graph 10: Composition of schools
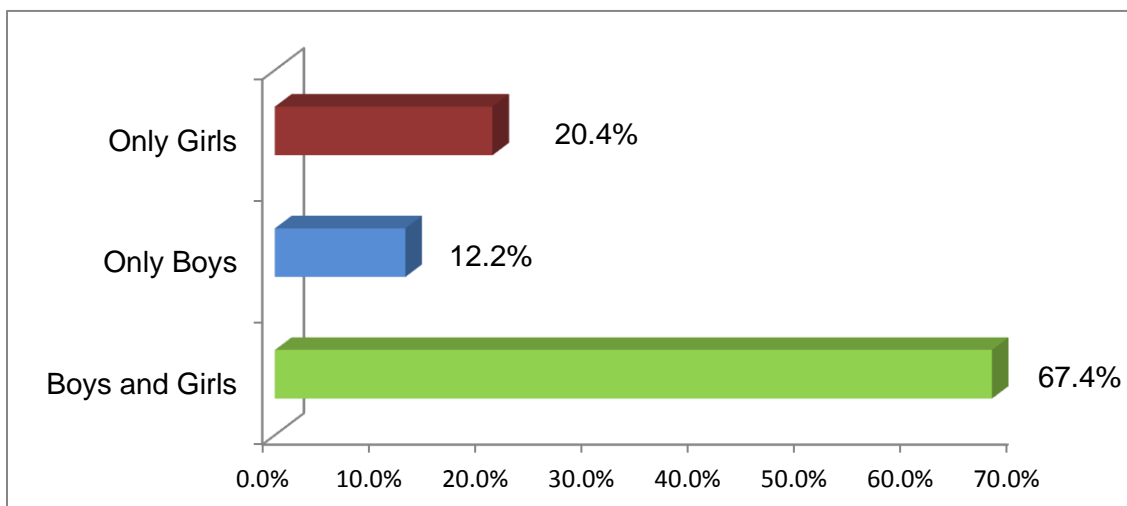
As can be seen from the results, the majority of the schools in the study population, that is, 39 (67.4%) consist of boys and girls. Ten schools (20.4%) have boys only and six (12.2%) have girls only. Results further show a relationship with the results of question 14 and confirm that most schools in the study population are of average size.   The classification (type) of schools was also important to this study.

- **Classification (type) of schools (Question 16)**

In terms of the current study, question 16 set to establish the types of school (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4) and was consistent with the aims of this study to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. The results of question 16 are reflected in Graph 11 below

Graph 11: Classification of schools
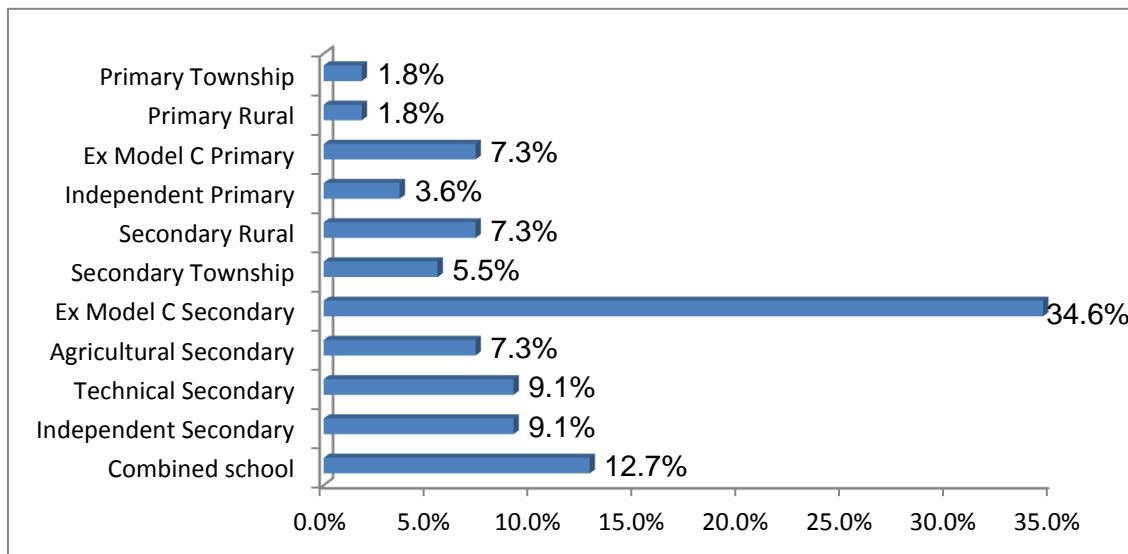
Ex Model C secondary schools constitute the majority of schools: 19 (34.6%), followed by seven secondary combined schools (12.7%), and then secondary idependent and secondary technical schools with 5 (9.1%) each. Other schools indicated include secondary agricultural, secondary rural and primary Ex Model C with four (7.3%) schools each. Secondary township schools constituted three (5.5%) schools and secondary independent primary schools two (3.6%). Primary rural and township schools were represented by one (1.8%) each. The distribution of schools are thus representative of a diversity of schools and is in accordance with the aims of this research to

develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; par. 7.5, p. 547).

- **Background (socio-economic status of the area around the school) (Question 17)**

Most of the respondents, 33 (66%) indicated that their school was situated in a historically advantaged community. From Graph 12 (cf. p. 447) below it can be seen that 17 (34%) of schools in the study population were situated in a historically disadvantaged area. In general terms it would mean schools situated in a historically disadvantaged community could be characterised by poverty, crime, anti-social behaviour and a severe lack of resources and equal opportunities. Even though this question can be seen as being subjective, the data draw a parallel with the results of question 18.

Graph 12: Background (socio-economic status of the area around the school)
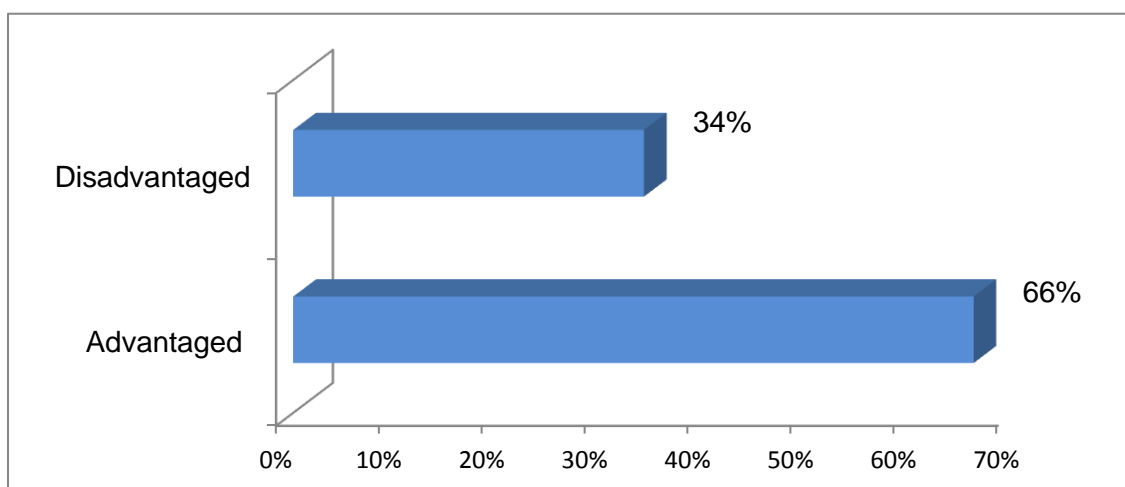
- **Socio economic status (Question 18)**

Again, this is a relative subjective question as opinions may differ between respondents as to what the difference in income groups implies. It was nonetheless believed that this particular question could provide valuable information regarding the profile of schools and the diversity of needs required. The socio-economic status of the different schools is therefore presented in Graph 13 (cf. p. 448 below).

Most of the respondents, 28 (56%) indicated that parents from the school fall in the average group, while nine (18%) and 13 (26%) indicated that their parents fall in the above average and below

Graph 13: Socio-economic status
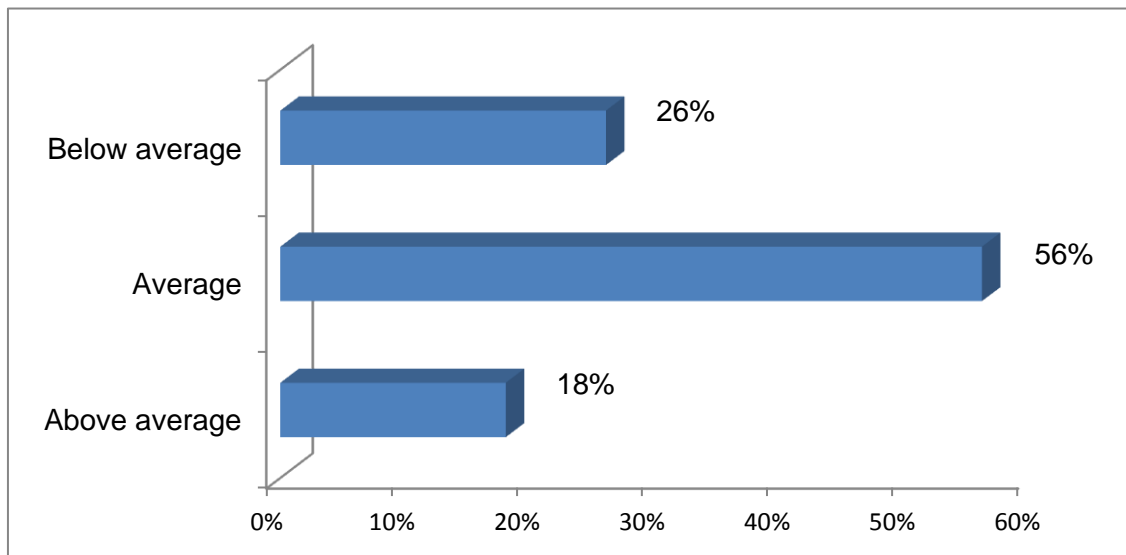
average income group respectively. The large percentage of respondents whose parents fall in the below average income category can also be attributed to the fact that this survey was done in both rural and urban surroundings. Rural surroundings are often characterised by socio-economic challenges. Results from this question nonetheless bear relation to the results from question 17 (cf. p. 447). All in all, it could be said that the socio-economic status of schools is reasonably well spread and represented, as is also evident from question 16 (cf. p. 446).

- **Number of educators (Question 19)**

In the next question respondents were required to indicate the number of educators currently enrolled at the school. In terms of educator numbers, the majority of schools, 21 (46.7%) had fewer than nine male educators and 16 (35.6%) fewer than 20. A small proportion, three (6.7%) had fewer than 40 male educators and two (4.4%) each had fewer than 30 and 50 male educators respectively, while only one (2.2%) had more than 50 male educators (cf. Graph 14, p. 449 below). The number of female educators in schools was more wide ranging in nature. So, 18 (36.7%) schools employed fewer than 20 female educators and 10 (20.4) had fewer than 30 female educators. In the the remainder of the schools, the number of female educators varied from fewer than 10, six schools (12.2%) to fewer than 70, one school (2.0%). Taken together, the results from this question show a relationship with the results of question 14 and confirm that most schools are of average size. The schools that participated in this research were thus fairly representative of small as well as larger schools.

Graph 14: Number of educators
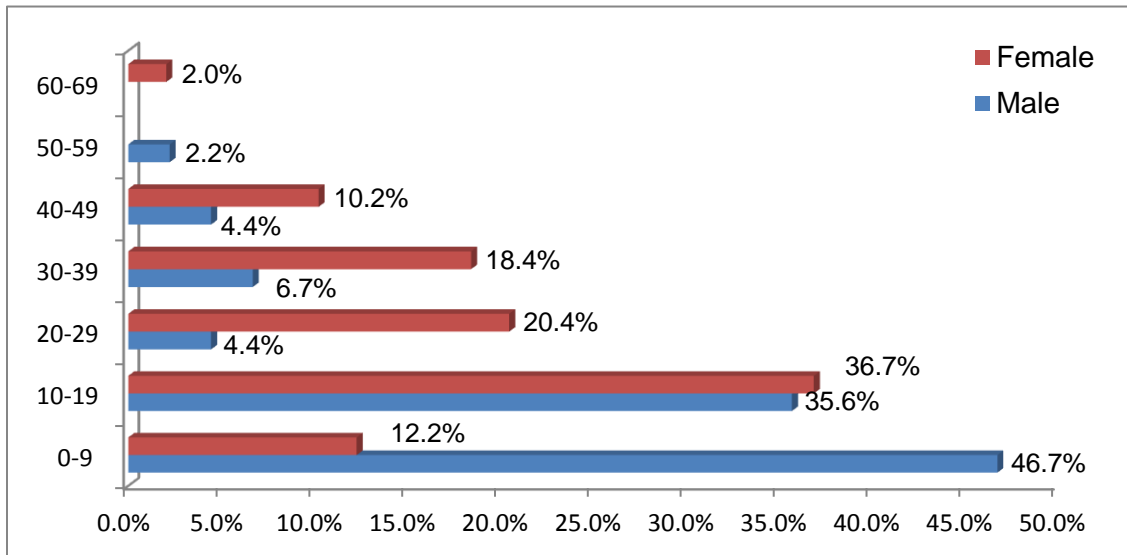
- **Number of learners who participate in sport (Question 20)**

The next question dealt with the number of learners who participate in sport. The aim of this question was to determine whether learners participate in sport and thus support the need that was identified by the researcher to develop a sport management programme for educator training. Findings from this question are depicted in Graph 15 below.

Graph 15: Number of learners who participate in sport
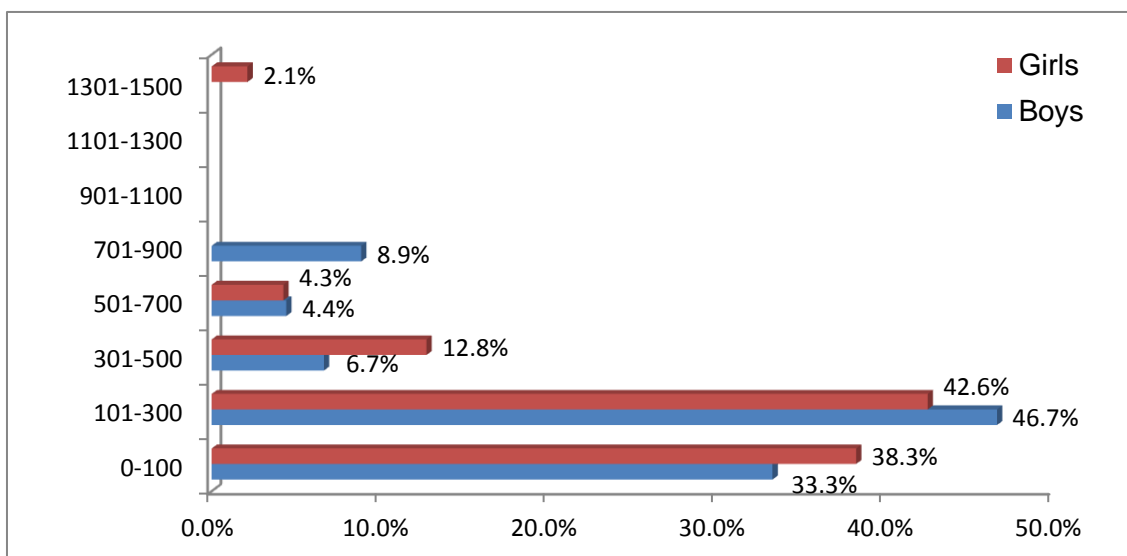
Results from this question yielded interesting responses as no respondent indicated the number of boys who participate in sport as more than 900. Only one respondent (2.1%), which in all likelihood, is a girls only school, indicated the number of girls who participate in sport as more than 1300. Actually, the results further indicate that in 15 schools (33.3%) fewer than 100 boys participate in sport and in 21 schools (46.7%) fewer than 300 boys participate in sport. In three schools (6.7%) fewer than 500 boys participate, in 2 schools (4.4%) fewer than 700 and in four schools (8.9%) of boys participate in sport. Regarding girls participation, 38 schools (38.3%) have fewer than 100 girls who participate in sport, 20 schools (42.6%) fewer than 300 girls and in six schools (12.8%) fewer than 500 girls participate in sport. From these results, it can thus be inferred when compared with the number of learners (cf. Question14; Graph 9, p. 445) that a large portion of learners still participate in sport. These findings thus support the need that was identified by the researcher for a sport management programme for educator training, because only well trained and qualified school sport managers would ensure a positive experience and continued participation in school sport. However, it also means that a sport management programme for educator training should also provide for different levels of participation, such as league, competition and social (mass participation). This particular aspect is discussed in the next section.

- **Level of participation (Question 21)**

To ensure that the sport management programme for educator training provides for the diverse needs of South African schools, it was imperative to establish the level of sport participation. Graph 16 below (cf. p. 450) provides the results obtained from this question.

Graph 16: Level of participation
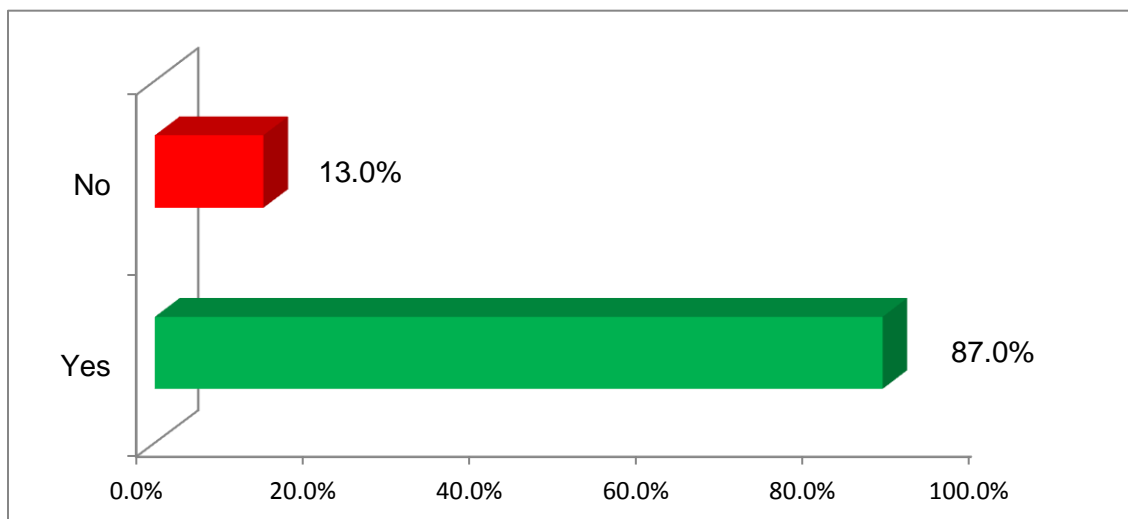
From the responses obtained from respondents regarding the level of participation, it was evident that by far the majority of respondents, 47 (87%) indicated that their school participates on a league/competition basis. Consistent with literature regarding the professionalisation of school sport (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82), it can thus be inferred that in accordance with the needs identified for this research to develop a sport management programme for educator training, the developed programme should indeed provide for the diverse needs of South African schools when participating in sport. Whether it is affordable for all schools to adopt a more professional approach to school sport remains to be seen and could possibly serve as a case in point for further research.

Table 24: Biographical information about the school related to diversity

ITEM NR.	QUESTION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE (%)
22	**Ability to manage multicultural sport in the school setting**		
	Yes	47	87.0
	No	6	11.1
	Unsure	1	1.9
23	**School sport managers reflection of diversity as part of the SMT**		
	Yes	40	74.1
	No	10	18.5
	Unsure	4	7.4
24	**Extent to which SMT make use of participative decision making regarding the management of sport in the school**		
	Always	7	20.4
	Most of the time	3	61.1
	Sometimes	33	5.5
	Never	11	13.0
	Unsure	0	0
25	**Use of shared decision-making within the changing education landscape regarding management of sport in the school**		
	Always	14	25.9
	Most of the time	31	57.4
	Sometimes	2	3.7
	Never	6	11.1
	Unsure	1	1.9
26	**Participation of diverse role players in decision-making concerning management of school sport**		
	Always	9	16.7
	Most of the time	29	53.6
	Sometimes	9	16.7
	Never	7	13.0
	Unsure	0	0

Over and above questions 14-21 of section B that were included in the questionnaire to compile a profile of schools specifically in this study population, the last few questions (question 22-26) dealt with diversity in school sport management. The aim of section B, question items 22-26, was to

collect general information about diversity in school sport management in the changing education landscape in order to determine the extent of diversity in school sport management and was an extention of the theme of diversity advocated in this research. Table 24 (cf. p. 451 above) summarises the responses of section B, question items 22-26.

The information about diversity in the management of sport in a school was analysed and interpreted according to Table 24 and is discussed in the following paragraphs.

- Ability to manage multicultural sport in the school setting (Question 22)

- The results from this question indicate that respondents are convinced that school sport managers at their school are able to manage multicultural sport in the school setting. In actual fact, the results revealed that 47 schools (87.0%) are of the opinion that they are able to manage multicultural sport in the school setting. These results thus suggest that specific training in this regard is not required.

- School sport managers 'reflection of diversity as part of the SMT(Question 23)

- More than half the schools in this survey, namely 40 (74.1%), are of the opinion that representation of school sport managers in the schools management team reflects diversity. In relation to the current study, it can be inferred that clear directives from applicable legislation were adhered to and as such it would be possible to manage sport in the school successfully with due consideration and cognisance of the changing education landscape and the diverse needs of learners. Further, as a result of the diversity of schools' management team as reflected in the position at their school (cf. Graph 6, p. 440) and their capacity of involvement (cf. Graph 10, p. 445), it could be said diversity management should be an important part of the programme for educator training.

- Use of shared decision-making within the changing education landscape regarding management of sport in the school (Question 24)

- Respondents' views to this question show a whole range of results. Most of the respondents who participated in the survey are of the opinion that their school uses participative decision making most of the time when managing the sport of the school. To be more precise, 33 schools (61.1%) actually make use of participative decision making most of the time, and 11 (20.4%) schools always use participative decision making regarding the management of sport in the school. Only seven (13.0%) never and three (5.5%) sometimes use participative decision-making. On the whole it can be deduced that decision-making is seen as democratic and inviting – a direct consequence of being part of a democratic country where emphasis is

placed on a democratic and participative approach to management (cf. par. 3.3, p.126; 3.4, p. 140; Table 3, p. 131).

- Use of shared decision-making within the changing education landscape regarding management of sport in the school (Question 25.

- The results from this question yielded interesting responses as only one respondent (1.9%) indicated he was unsure whether shared decision-making must be used within the changing education landscape and six (11.1%) indicated that shared decision-making must never be used in their school. More encouraging though was the fact that 31 (57.4%) schools most of the time and 14 (25.9%) always were of the view that shared decision-making must be used in the changing education landscape. These results thus correlate with the findings of question 24.

- Participation of diverse role-players in decision-making concerning management of school sport (Question 26).

The results of the last question in section B once again show a relationship with the results of questions 24 and 25 and confirm that diversity, participative decision making and a democratic, participative approach are indeed part of a democratic country and the emphasis placed on a democratic and participative approach to management. The results of this question clearly reveal that in nine (16.7%) schools diverse role-players always participate in decisions concerning the management of sport in the school and 29 (53.6%) schools this is the case in most of the times. The number of schools, namely nine (16.7%), who only sometimes make use of diverse role-players and seven (13.0%) who never make use of diverse role-players could be a cause of concern and would thus suggest that further training with regard to involvement of diverse role-players and a better understanding of diversity and a democratic and participative approach to the management of school sport is required.

In concluding Section B of the questionnaire, it can be said the majority of schools had a combined total of fewer than 700 learners which implied that responses were mainly from the perspective of schools of an average size. These responses however are consistent with the number of educators employed by the different schools. It also came to the fore that schools were representative of the different kinds of schools recognised by the Schools Act (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4). Thirty three of the schools are situated in a historically advantaged area and most parents from the schools in the study population fall in the average socio economic status class, which implies that participation in sport, with parental support, was possible. It was further evident that when

parallels are drawn between the number of learners and those who participate in sport, that a large number of learners still participate in sport one way or another. These findings were thus consistent with the identified need for a sport management programme for educator training to ensure participation in sport. It was also clear that respondents were of the opinion that they were capable to manage multicultural sport in the school setting, as well as that diversity was considered important and applied to and reflected in school sport in the changing education landscape.

In the following part of this chapter the responses to sections C and D of the questionnaire are presented and discussed.

6.3.2   Section C: School Sport Management Competencies

In section C respondents' conceptualisation of school sport management and indicators of competencies required for the management of school sport are analysed. In the previous paragraphs (cf. par. 6.3.1, pp. 432- 454) data on aspects of school sport management, namely biographical and demographical information were examined to draw a profile of respondents. The interpretations of mean scores, frequencies and rank order were provided and discussed at each subsection. In section C, following the descriptive stage, the different question items were analysed to identify constructs in relation to the research theme, after which constructs were also ranked to understand their significance in the research (cf. par. 5.9.6, p. 350).

A four-point Likert scale was used in this research to determine the extent of knowledge and understanding of respondents in relation to the school sport management competencies and needs required to manage school sport, in accordance with the aims of this research (cf.par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4). The interpretation of low and high values from the recorded responses was done according to procedure stated in par. 5.9.3.2 (cf. p. 339). The four-point Likert scale of the questionnaire was merged into two main groupings to facilitate and support an analysis of more specific interpretations with reference to either low or high values. A mean score of more than 2.50 was interpreted as of a high positive value (some extent and great extent), while a mean score of less than 2.50 was interpreted as a low or negative value (no extent and little extent). The mentioned high and low mean values of reference were selected as markers within the four-point scale to serve as specific indicators of either low (negative) or high (positive) values for each question item. The afore-mentioned procedure was applied continuously for the interpretation of both section C and D of the questionnaire.

Section C of the questionnaire aimed to obtain information about respondents' conceptualisation of school sport management and the competencies required to manage school sport. Section B consisted of the following sub sections: Fundamental sport management competencies (questions 1.1.1 – 1.1.34); General sport management competencies (questions 1.2.1-1.2.11); Functional sport management competencies (questions 2.1.1-2.7.7) and Specialist sport management competencies (questions 3.1.1-3.2.8). In accordance with the procedure stated in par. 5.9.6 (cf. p. 350) the new identified (retained) constructs were ranked in descending order. The identified competencies related to the different constructs together with the ranking order provided the researcher with valuable insight regarding the management competencies to manage school sport and were used to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 5; Ch. 7). For each group (overall, gender, position in school and type of school) an analysis of responses according to their ranking based on their means were done. Comparisons were drawn between different groups of the study population and the findings will be included in the sport management programme for educator training in the South African context. To conclude this section a summary of the responses that obtained the 11 highest and the four lowest means are provided. In the next section responses by the overall study population of the different construct items (cf. par. 5.9.2, p. 335, Table 21, p. 345) are discussed.

6.3.2.1 Responses by the overall study population

In Table 25 below (cf. p. 456) the results of construct competencies ranked in descending order according to their mean score by the overall study population are illustrated.[100] From Table 25 it is noticeable that all the responses revealed school sport managers in the practice to view the different competencies as high positive values. The different sub sections or constructs of the questionnaire yielded high mean value scores with the mean values ranging between 2.66 for the price and place marketing competencies (cf. par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344; Table 21, p. 345), and 3.72 for the public relationships competencies (cf. par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344, p. Table 21, p. 345), which indicates a high positive mean. No responses yielded a low negative mean (that is a mean value score less than 2.5). In order to provide an overview of the responses, a discussion of the responses in descending order in accordance with their mean value score follows. An analysis of Table 25 revealed that of the 11 highest means, ten responses were recorded with means ≥3.38, while the next eight responses recorded means ≥3.08 and the last four means ≥ 2.66. This ranking was also

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[100]Cf. Table 21, p. 345 for a detailed discussion of question items included for each construct

used to determine possible core, fundamental and elective modules for a sport management programme for educator training (cf. Ch. 7).

Table 25: Overall School Sport Management Construct Competencies

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
1	Public relationship competencies	184	3.72	0.41	1.20	4.00
2	Fundamental Communication competencies	184	3.60	0.47	1.57	4.00
3	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	183	3.59	0.55	1.00	4.00
4	Managing Human behaviour competencies	181	3.57	0.50	1.00	4.00
5	Fundamental Governance competencies	184	3.52	0.54	1.00	4.00
5	Basic Fundamental Management Competencies	184	3.52	0.55	1.11	4.00
7	Strategic Planning Competencies	183	3.51	0.54	1.13	4.00
8	Information Management Competencies	183	3.46	0.59	1.00	4.00
9	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	180	3.41	0.61	1.00	4.00
10	General sport administration competencies	184	3.38	0.63	1.00	4.00
11	Financial control competencies	181	3.35	0.73	1.00	4.00
12	Human Movement specialist competencies	182	3.26	0.68	1.00	4.00
12	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	182	3.26	0.67	1.00	4.00
12	Operational Risk management competencies	182	3.26	0.78	1.00	4.00
15	Networking Competencies	183	3.24	0.67	1.00	4.00
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	182	3.22	0.78	1.00	4.00
17	Sport Medical services specialist competencies	182	3.16	0.76	1.00	4.00
18	Purchase management competencies	182	3.13	0.75	1.00	4.00
19	Product and promotion marketing competencies	184	3.08	0.74	1.00	4.00
20	Strategic financial planning competencies	183	3.07	0.74	1.00	4.00
21	Sport law and legal management competencies	182	3.01	0.84	1.00	4.00
22	Operational facility management competencies	182	2.92	0.83	1.00	4.00
23	Price and place marketing competencies	183	2.66	0.81	1.00	4.00

In section 3.6.2 (p. 160) it was indicated that public relations is a planned and sustained process of communication between a sport business (school) and its public for the purpose of obtaining, maintaining or improving good relations and building networks. Two clear construct competencies could be identified from the responses, if the mean is used as indicated in Table 25 (cf. p. 456). The two groups of construct competencies identified were public relationships and networking. According to Table 25 public relationships was the most important construct competence (cf. par.

5.9.4.2, p. 344; Table 21, p. 345) among all the role-players (that is the whole study population) with a high mean value of 3.72, while networking was only ranked 15th with a mean value of 3.24. These responses reflect an approach of professionalism among all role-players in school sport that addresses the challenge to build the school's sport image and retain relationships with different stakeholders, which ultimately impacts and has an effect on the management of sport in the school (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82). Furthermore, these responses also pointed to a positive stance among school sport managers towards the continuous need to improve their effectiveness and reprioritise their goals to ensure high satisfaction levels of all involved in school sport (cf. par 2.2.3, p. 31). It can also be said that the identified importance of public relationships and networking is well supported in literature by authors such as Terblanche and Malan (2002:113,127); MacKenzie and Singh (2007:58,66); Quatman and Chelladurai (2008a:652; 2008b:339) and Palmer (2013:1-2) who belief that school sport managers should stay abreast of new developments in building relationships and networks with customers to ensure high operational efficiency, capability a competitive advantage. Further, good public relationships and social networks could serve as a veritable nexus for advancement of knowledge and collaboration among a diversity of stakeholders in school sport and boundaries of traditionally bounded disciplines related to the field of study of school sport management (Quatman & Chelladurai, 2008b:357) as well as lead to the development of strategies for facilitation of a continuous growth in cohesive collaboration among scholars in the the field of school sport management (Quatman & Chelladurai, 2008a:674).

The response with the second highest mean (3.60) was communication (cf. par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344; Table 21, p. 345) and was consistent with the findings of Hollander (2000:157) and Gerber (2009:146) who identified communication as the most used and important competency. This response can also be viewed together with the responses from respondents regarding the construct competency of information management (mean 3.46). Furthermore, the high means of these responses signalled a signicant awareness and acceptance among respondents concerning the fundamental role of communication (written and oral) using different means such as a computer to ensure that information is obtained and disseminated. In addition this finding also correlates with the literature that regards communication as the building blocks and organisational blood (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169; 6.2.3.1, p. 376) of any organisation. It would thus be obvious that communication should be included in a sport management programme for educator training.

The extent to which respondents viewed maintenance and housekeeping competencies received a high mean of 3.59 and also correlates with findings from Steyn (2012:97) who indicates that

maintenance and housekeeping of a facility is rated extremely important. It was rather interesting to see that this particular construct competency was so highly rated by respondents, because maintenance and housekeeping are normally associated with the upkeep, care and support of facilities, which in most schools is done by members of staff (ground staff) who are paid and burdened with the responsibility to ensure that the facilities of the school are what is envisaged and expected of them to deal with the management of sport facilities specifically in the changing education landscape where the products and facilities of a school are seen as a vital marketing tool (cf. par. 2.3, p. 37; 3.6.1, p. 155). In conclusion it can thus be said that respondents' views regarding housekeeping and maintenance reflect that currently school sport managers are not required to perform these tasks, but that they need to perform them and will need the necessary competencies to perform them, because as Hollander (2007a:38) opines maintenance of a facility is an indication of how well it is managed and to what extent adequate services could be delivered to the community.

Responses that indicated human behaviour competencies (cf. par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344; Table 21, p. 345) and governance competencies as distinctive of a school sport manager attained high means of respectively 3.57 and 3.52. Basic fundamental management competencies and strategic planning competencies, on the other hand received a high mean score of 3.52 and 3.51 respectively. Opinions about all of the preceding mentioned competencies were also consistent with literature which indicated that planning, organising, leading and control were all associated with fundamental management tasks, while strategic planning and governance (structures that govern sport on different levels, policies and procedures) were all regarded as part and parcel of the contemporary school sport manager (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151).

The high mean of 3.46 for the responses which considered health, wellness and fitness competencies as part of specialist competencies of a school sport manager, was an indication that health, wellness and fitness should be accepted as an integral part of their respective schools, given the changing education landscape which compels schools to seek and adopt a more professional approach towards competitive school sport in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. The preceding view should also be seen against the backdrop of increasing obesity and health related risk factors prevalent in schools, and initiatives by the government to give sport in schools its rightful place in society, and use school sport as a means to win more medals at international events such as the Olympic Games.

Over and above the preceding construct competencies, respondents also rank general sport administration competencies (mean 3.38) amongst the ten most important competencies a school sport manager should have. This particular response can also be viewed together with the information management competencies (mean 3.46) which indicated a belief that administration is often associated with the day-to-day office management like conducting meetings, managing information as well as time management. Based on the literature which indicated that record keeping and obtaining and disseminating information are seen as general competencies a school sport manager should have (cf. Table 18, p. 265), one can therefore conclude that sport administration competencies should also form an integral part of a sport management programme for educator training.

The last ranked construct competency of the first 11, namely financial control (mean 3.35), bears relation to the use of measures to report on financial matters. More specifically this construct item concerns the drawing up and management of budget. The budget however, cannot be managed without keeping financial records. The preceding statement thus supports the fact that these two financial competencies were included as part of the financial control construct competency and were rated among the 11 most important competencies the school sport manager should have. Hollander (2000:172) and De Villiers (2003:180) both agree that managing a budget and keeping financial records are vital competencies, and they therefore also included them in their posed curriculum on the training of sport managers. By keeping financial records and managing the budget, the school sport manager should be able to manage the finances of the respective allocated sport code (s) in the school. This relates closely with the literature (cf. par. 3.6.3, p. 163) where Case and Branch (2003:29); Horch and Schütte (2003:74,76); Hoye *et al.* (2009:202); Ko *et al.* (2011:180) and Kaiser and Schütte (2012:310-311) amongst other, clearly state that the success of school sport can be directly linked to the ability to manage its finances successfully.

The responses relevant to the competence constructs of Human Movement competencies, attract, retain and develop human resources, risk management, networking, events and project management, sport medical services, purchase management and product and promotion marketing competencies with means that ranging between 3.08 and 3.26 were also regarded as high positive indicators for the successful management of school sport. Accordingly, the construct competencies (aspects) identified must be considered for inclusion in a sport management programme for educator training. These competencies could possibly be included as fundamental

modules, whereas the construct competencies referred to in the previous paragraphs, could be seen as fundamental modules (cf. par. 7.5, p. 547).

A further analysis of Table 25 reveals that of the four lowest means, four responses yielded a mean of ≥ 2.66. The response with the lowest mean (2.66) was the price and place construct competency which is an indication that respondents do not consider the commercial side of marketing the school's products, services and facilities to be important. Given the changing education landscape and increased media exposure, this view of respondents could be a crucial mistake, because marketing the schools' products, services and facilities is an important stream of income. It could thus be recommended that training in this regard could contribute to the realisation of maximum sustainability of the school and its products, services and facilities.

It was rather surprising to observe from Table 25 that the constructs of strategic financial planning (mean 3.07) and operational facility management competencies (mean 2.92) recorded such low means. Responses in connection with these construct competencies should therefore be interpreted together with the responses related with the construct price and place marketing competencies, discussed in the previous paragraph. The last of the constructs which yielded a rather low mean value, compared to the other constructs was the sport law and legal management competencies. One possible explanation for this could be that respondents consider sport law and legal management as a specialised field which fall outside their field of expertise and should as such be dealt with by experts. It would thus presuppose that school sport managers, according to their own judgement, do not require this specific competency in their everyday life. These findings were also in stark contrast to findings by Hollander (2000:175) who reported that basic sport law and legal competencies were regarded as very important. Following recommendations by Singh (2001; 2002; 2003; 2004b; 2005; 2006a; 2006b); Singh and Goslin (2001); Singh and Surujlal (2009; 2010) and Oosthuizen (2011) it is imperative that the contemporary school sport manager should have a thorough knowledge of sport law and the statutory and legal aspects in respect of sport to prevent the proverbial sword of Damocles continuously dangling over their heads. Hence, congruent with the preceding views, it can be recommended that sport law and legal management should also be included in a sport management programme for educator training as an elective module.

In conclusion, from these findings it could thus be deduced that the five most important construct competencies for all school sport managers are public relationships, fundamental communication,

operational maintenance and housekeeping, managing human behaviour and fundamental governance competencies. Comparing these findings to other researchers' findings related to competencies needed in the sport industry, Hollander (2000:158,177) found in his study focusing on the competencies a sport manager should have, that to manage strategically, communicate effectively, manage time effectively, and manage information were the main general competencies, and competencies subjacent to the management of marketing, communication and public relations, human resources, facility, events and projects as well as legal aspects were the most most important functional management competencies required. Possible reasons for these differences could be that Hollander's (2000) research focussed on a much broader labour market (including various individuals in the sport industry), whereas this study only included a section of the sport education sector (cf. par. 2. 5, p. 98; Figure 3, p. 101) namely school sport managers, and also made use of data reduction to identify construct competencies (cf. par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344).

Gender is the next group that needs to be attended to when examining the competencies required by school sport managers.

6.3.2.2 Responses of school sport managers according to gender

In order to make a worthy contribution to the school sport management field of study, the aim of this study was to develop a sport management programme for educator training in a diversity of South African schools. Four different groups (categories) were identified for this study to ensure that the developed programme would be in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). In the previous paragraph (cf. par. 6.3.2.1, p. 455) the overall view of all school sport managers regarding competencies required to manage school sport, was dealt with. In the ensuing paragragraphs a brief discussion based on gender, position in school and classification (type) of school will follow. Firstly the construct competencies based on gender are listed in descending order, according to their mean values in Table 26 (cf. p. 462), after which a brief discussion follows.

Table 26 shows that both males and females responses scored a high mean for the different competency constructs with a mean ranging between 2.61 and 3.67 for males and between 2.73 and 3.79 for females.

Table 26: School sport management construct competencies based on gender

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	MALE					
1	Public relationships competencies	104	3.67	0.46	1.2	4.0
2	Fundamental Communication competencies	104	3.58	0.47	1.6	4.0
3	Fundamental Governance competencies	104	3.57	0.50	1.0	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	102	3.56	0.51	1.0	4.0
5	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	104	3.55	0.55	1.1	4.0
5	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	103	3.55	0.59	1.3	4.0
7	Strategic Planning competencies	104	3.52	0.55	1.1	4.0
8	Information management competencies	104	3.48	0.52	1.0	4.0
9	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	102	3.40	0.61	1.0	4.0
10	General Sport administration competencies	104	3.36	0.64	1.0	4.0
11	Financial control competencies	102	3.33	0.77	1.0	4.0
12	Operational Risk management competencies	103	3.25	0.79	1.0	4.0
12	Human movement specialist competencies	102	3.25	0.68	1.0	4.0
14	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	102	3.21	0.68	1.0	4.0
15	Networking competencies	104	3.16	0.73	1.0	4.0
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	103	3.14	0.81	1.0	4.0
17	Sport medical services specialist competencies	103	3.13	0.76	1.0	4.0
18	Purchasing management competencies	102	3.06	0.80	1.0	4.0
19	Product and promotion marketing competencies	104	3.04	0.73	1.0	4.0
20	Strategic Financial planning competencies	103	3.01	0.73	1.0	4.0
21	Sport law and legal management competencies	102	2.96	0.85	1.0	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	103	2.84	0.85	1.0	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	104	2.61	0.83	1.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	FEMALE					
1	Public relationships competencies	77	3.79	0.35	2.6	4.0
2	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	77	3.64	0.51	1.0	4.0
3	Fundamental Communication competencies	77	3.63	0.48	2.0	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	76	3.57	0.50	2.0	4.0
5	Strategic Planning competencies	76	3.48	0.53	2.0	4.0
6	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	77	3.46	0.56	2.0	4.0
6	Fundamental Governance competencies	77	3.46	0.60	1.5	4.0
8	Information management competencies	76	3.44	0.68	1.0	4.0
9	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	75	3.43	0.63	1.0	4.0
10	General Sport administration competencies	77	3.39	0.64	1.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	FEMALE					
11	Financial control competencies	76	3.38	0.69	1.0	4.0
12	Networking competencies	76	3.34	0.57	1.9	4.0
13	Operational Project and event management competencies	76	3.33	0.72	1.0	4.0
14	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	77	3.31	0.65	1.0	4.0
15	Human movement specialist competencies	77	3.27	0.68	1.0	4.0
16	Operational Risk management competencies	76	3.26	0.79	1.0	4.0
17	Purchasing management competencies	77	3.23	0.68	1.0	4.0
18	Sport medical services specialist competencies	76	3.20	0.77	1.0	4.0
19	Strategic Financial planning competencies	77	3.14	0.76	1.0	4.0
19	Product and promotion marketing competencies	77	3.14	0.76	1.0	4.0
21	Sport law and legal management competencies	77	3.07	0.83	1.0	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	76	3.03	0.79	1.0	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	76	2.73	0.78	1.0	4.0

A closer examination of Table 26 further reveals that of the highest 11 means, 10 responses were recorded with means ≥3.33 for male respondents. The highest mean score of 3.67 (rank 1) of the public relationships construct resulted from the responses of 104 males who supported the importance of retaining a good relationship with different stakeholders in school sport to some and to a great extent. The second most important construct competency male respondents thought they should have was fundamental communication competencies (mean 3.58), while the third most important construct competency male respondents indicated they needed were fundamental governance competencies (mean 3.57). Apart from the mentioned construct competencies male respondents also rated managing human behaviour competencies as fairly important, scoring a high mean of 3.56.

Shared with basic fundamental management competencies (mean 3.55), the male respondents were also of the opinion that they should also dispose of operational maintenance and housekeeping construct competencies (mean 3.55). Currently other construct competencies that are seen as important by male respondents include strategic planning (mean 3.52), information mananagement (mean 3.48) and general sport administration (mean 3.36). It would also seem as if male respondents didn't do a lot of financial control, therefore the financial control construct competencies (mean 3.33) were only ranked the 11th most important competency school sport managers should have. The high means of all the aforementioned construct competencies that vary from 3.33 to 3.67 clearly indicate that male respondents did not single out any particular

construct competency. These responses rather represented a view from the respondents that supported all of the aforementioned competencies as part of the requirements for the school sport manager to manage school sport efficiently. It can thus be inferred that all of the preceding constructs are important and should accordingly be included in a sport management programme for educator training. These construct competencies can be considered fundamental or compulsory modules that must be included in the intended programme.

A sport management programme for educator training should also include operational risk management and human movement specialist construct competencies, which were identified by male respondents as the 12th and 13th most needed competencies with a mean of 3.25 each. The construct competency to attract, retain and develop human resource competence received a high mean of 3.21 from male respondents, and support from male respondents for this particular competence was also supported by literature. Human resources were referred to in literature as the most critical and valuable asset in any business which has an ongoing impact throughout one's life to ensure that goals are achieved and strategies delivered (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169). As a result of this importance it can therefore also be confirmed that human resource management should be included in a sport management programme for educator training, together with the competency constructs of networking (mean 3.16), operational project andevent management (mean 3.14), sport medical services specialist (mean 3.13), purchasing management (mean 3.06), as well as product and promotion marketing (mean 3.04).

From Table 26 (cf. p. 462) it is observable that the responses from males indicated that the majority of them did not regard some construct competencies of particular importance, despite the fact that these responses still yielded a mean score that varied between 2.61 and 3.01. These responses can also be interpreted together with the responses related to those by the overall group of respondents, and resulted from responses which supported the importance of strategic financial planning (mean 3.01), sport law and legal management (mean 2.96), operation facility management (mean 2.84) and price and place marketing (mean 2.61) to a little extent and to some extent.

When comparing the 11 most highest ranked construct competencies identified by females, it turns out that no significant differences could be found that could possibly assist the researcher in developing a sport management programme for educator training. The high mean scores from females were in the range of 2.73 and 3.79. Findings from female respondents correlate to a large

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extent with those of their male counterparts with the same 11 construct competencies identied by both male and female. The only major discrepancies that existed between the two different groups were their ranking and high mean score. Consistent with the view of males, female respondents also ranked the construct of public relationships competencies (mean 3.79) as the most important for the contemporary school sport manager, while the construct of managing human behaviour was ranked fourth, yielding a high mean value of 3.57, compared to 3.56 by males. Congruent with the male respondents, female respondents were also of the opinion that information management (mean 3.44), health wellness and fitness (mean 3.43), general sport administration (mean 3.39) and financial control (mean 3.38) construct competencies should be viewed as the least important of the first 11 highest ranked construct competencies from 10 responses.

By further examining the data from Table 26 (cf. p. 462), it is also evident that the only significant differences between male and female respondents were with regard to the importance of the operational maintenance and housekeeping, fundamental communication, strategic planning, basic fundamental management and fundamental governance construct competencies. Whereas male respondents ranked fundamental communication construct competencies second, female respondents ranked this construct competency third with a high mean score of 3.63. Male and female respondents considered the importance of operational maintenance and housekeeping competencies to alter between some extent and a large extent, with men respondents ranking this construct competence as the fifth most important (mean 3.55) and female respondents ranking this construct competence as the second most important (mean 3.64). These findings demonstrate the notion that views change from time to time and could also possibly find expression in the gender stereotype of domesticity where women are coerced into acting in a feminine manner, taking up most of the domestic responsibilities often associated with housekeeping and maintenance, thus fulfilling the role as caretaker (Burnett, 2007c:280).

Other noticeable differences in opinion was noted in the views of males and females regarding the fundamental governance, strategic planning and basic fundamental management construct competencies. Of these fundamental governance was rated the third most important by male respondents (mean 3.57) and only the sixth most important by female respondents (mean 3.46). A possible explanation for the preceding finding could be encapsulated in the acceptance of governance and leadership widely associated with the myth of physical prowess displayed by men, whereas women have been alienated by the chauvinistic portrayal of power, leadership and organisational life as a male domain, forever carrying the image of the private domain of

domestication embodied by the consciousness of the good wife (Burnett, 2007c:276). In relation to this study, it would imply that governance is associated with male respondents' view that control of sport is the domain of males, and they were thus regarded as more important than female respondents. This view manifests and is reflected in this study, where the majority of respondents were males. Research evidence by Burnett (2007d:258,270) supports the preceding finding that women have limited access to power structures and leadership roles. Strategic planning was rated seventh by men (mean 3.52) and fifth by females (mean 3.48), while basic fundamental management was rated fifth by men (mean 3.55) and sixth by females (mean 3.46). These findings suggest that both males and female hold the view that these construct competencies lie at the heart of any school sport manager.

Quite significantly, the responses according to the four lowest means also did not reveal any discrepancy, as can be observed from Table 26. Once again, as was the case with male respondents, the four construct competencies rated as the least important were strategic financial planning (3.14), sport law and legal management (mean 3.07), operation facility management (mean 3.03) and price and place marketing (mean 2.73). It would therefore be fair to say that no outstanding high or low mean scores were recorded for the mentioned construct competencies. The implication of the mean distribution was that responses recorded were spread evenly for both ends of the rating scale. It can be deduced that a mixed response was recorded concerning the relevance of these construct competencies for school sport managers in the study population. Additionally it could therefore be recommended that these construct competencies be taken up in the sport management programme for educator training that will be discussed in Chapter Seven as possible elective modules (cf. par. 7. 5, p. 547).

To conclude this section, no significant differences were found in the responses from males and females regarding the different construct competencies, except for a difference in ranking and mean score among a few constructs. These responses by male and female respondents further all yielded a high mean score of ≥ 2.50 and signified the importance of all the construct competencies with regard to the management of school sport and the use of these construct competencies among school sport managers of different gender. Construct competencies can therefore all be viewed as significant concerning the development of a school sport management programme for educator training in the schools of the study population.

The next section of this research involved a closer look at the responses of respondents based on their position in sport at their current school.

6.3.2.3 Responses of school sport managers according to management level (position held)

Mention has already been made of the intent of the researcher to make a worthy contribution to the sport management field of study, the aim being to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf par. 1.3. 2, p.12; 6.3.2.1, p. 455) in the South African context. Addressing the possibility that responses from respondents would vary between different groups of the study population (cf. par. 1.4.6.1, p. 18; 5.9.2, p. 335), a comparison was made to enable the researcher to determine competencies and needs of school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Different groups identified included, amongst others, different levels of management in school sport. In section 3.4.1 (cf. p. 141) it was indicated that three levels of management are found within school sport, namely top, middle and lower (cf. Figure 9, p. 142). Subsequently, an analysis of differences between the means of different levels of management from the study population aims to indicate whether these differences are sufficiently significant to have an effect in practice (cf. par. 6.3.1.1, p. 433, Note 97, p. 440). For purposes of this comparison, the respondents were divided into four groups, namely: (i) Female coach; (ii) Male coach; (iii) Sport coordinator (sport director); and; (iv) Principal. In accordance with the literature, these groups were regarded as representative of each level of management, that is coaches (lower), sport coordinator/sport director (middle) and principal (top)[101]. A comparison of the research findings based on the calculated mean score for each of the three levels of management is presented in Table 27.

Table 27: School sport management construct competencies based on management level (position held)

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	MALE COACH					
1	Public relationships competencies	36	3.63	0.44	2.0	4.0
2	Fundamental Communication competencies	36	3.52	0.40	2.6	4.0
2	Managing human behaviour competencies	36	3.52	0.48	2.1	4.0
4	Fundamental Governance competencies	36	3.48	0.45	2.5	4.0
5	Strategic Planning competencies	36	3.43	0.51	2.4	4.0

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[101]Cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141; Fig. 9, p. 142

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	MALE COACH					
6	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	36	3.40	0.68	1.3	4.0
6	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	35	3.40	0.62	2.0	4.0
8	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	36	3.38	0.59	2.1	4.0
8	Information management competencies	36	3.38	0.52	2.2	4.0
10	General Sport administration competencies	36	3.20	0.72	1.4	4.0
11	Human movement specialist competencies	35	3.15	0.78	1.5	4.0
12	Financial control competencies	35	3.14	0.90	1.0	4.0
13	Operational Risk management competencies	36	3.11	0.87	1.0	4.0
14	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	36	3.09	0.73	1.4	4.0
15	Purchasing management competencies	35	2.98	0.87	1.3	4.0
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	36	2.94	0.91	1.0	4.0
17	Product and promotion marketing competencies	36	2.92	0.76	1.7	4.0
17	Networking competencies	36	2.92	0.75	1.4	4.0
19	Sport medical services specialist competencies	36	2.90	0.88	1.3	4.0
20	Strategic Financial planning competencies	36	2.88	0.79	1.6	4.0
21	Sport law and legal management competencies	35	2.72	0.96	1.0	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	36	2.63	0.93	1.0	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	36	2.49	0.82	1.2	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	FEMALE COACH					
1	Public relationships competencies	43	3.71	0.40	2.6	4.0
2	Fundamental Communication competencies	43	3.57	0.48	2.3	4.0
2	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	43	3.57	0.61	1.0	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	43	3.44	0.62	2.0	4.0
5	Strategic Planning competencies	43	3.41	0.53	2.1	4.0
6	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	42	3.40	0.67	1.0	4.0
7	Fundamental Governance competencies	43	3.39	0.60	1.8	4.0
8	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	43	3.38	0.56	2.0	4.0
9	Financial control competencies	43	3.35	0.75	1.0	4.0
10	Operational Project and event management competencies	43	3.29	0.77	1.0	4.0
11	Information management competencies	43	3.27	0.75	1.0	4.0
12	Networking competencies	43	3.26	0.62	1.9	4.0
13	Human movement specialist competencies	43	3.24	0.77	1.0	4.0
14	Operational Risk management competencies	43	3.23	0.83	1.0	4.0
14	General Sport administration competencies	43	3.23	0.65	1.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	FEMALE COACH					
16	Sport medical services specialist competencies	42	3.21	0.77	1.0	4.0
17	Purchasing management competencies	43	3.20	0.67	1.0	4.0
18	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	43	3.17	0.75	1.0	4.0
19	Strategic Financial planning competencies	43	3.14	0.73	1.0	4.0
20	Product and promotion marketing competencies	43	3.06	0.82	1.0	4.0
21	Sport law and legal management competencies	43	3.03	0.84	1.0	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	43	3.00	0.82	1.0	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	43	2.69	0.80	1.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	SPORT COORDINATOR (SPORT DIRECTOR)					
1	Public relationships competencies	52	3.80	0.44	1.2	4.0
2	Fundamental Communication competencies	52	3.71	0.45	1.6	4.0
2	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	52	3.71	0.44	1.6	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	50	3.65	0.50	1.0	4.0
5	Information management competencies	51	3.63	0.54	1.0	4.0
6	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	52	3.62	0.55	1.1	4.0
7	Fundamental Governance competencies	52	3.58	0.63	1.0	4.0
8	Strategic Planning competencies	51	3.57	0.57	1.1	4.0
9	General Sport administration competencies	52	3.53	0.63	1.0	4.0
10	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	51	3.44	0.56	1.0	4.0
11	Networking competencies	51	3.43	0.60	1.0	4.0
11	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	51	3.43	0.62	1.0	4.0
13	Financial control competencies	51	3.42	0.70	1.0	4.0
14	Operational Risk management competencies	51	3.35	0.76	1.0	4.0
15	Human movement specialist competencies	52	3.33	0.58	1.0	4.0
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	51	3.31	0.70	1.0	4.0
17	Sport medical services specialist competencies	52	3.26	0.67	1.0	4.0
18	Purchasing management competencies	52	3.22	0.70	1.0	4.0
19	Product and promotion marketing competencies	52	3.15	0.73	1.0	4.0
19	Strategic Financial planning competencies	52	3.15	0.74	1.0	4.0
19	Sport law and legal management competencies	52	3.15	0.70	1.0	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	51	3.06	0.76	1.0	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	51	2.74	0.79	1.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	PRINCIPAL					
1	Public relationships competencies	28	3.76	0.36	2.8	4.0
2	Fundamental Governance competencies	28	3.72	0.34	3.0	4.0
2	Managing human behaviour competencies	28	3.72	0.32	3.0	4.0
4	Strategic Planning competencies	28	3.71	0.32	2.9	4.0
5	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	28	3.69	0.38	2.7	4.0
6	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	28	3.65	0.41	2.7	4.0
6	Fundamental Communication competencies	28	3.65	0.48	2.4	4.0
8	General Sport administration competencies	28	3.59	0.43	2.8	4.0
9	Information management competencies	28	3.59	0.46	2.7	4.0
10	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	28	3.51	0.53	2.2	4.0
11	Financial control competencies	28	3.48	0.53	2.3	4.0
12	Human movement specialist competencies	28	3.41	0.51	2.1	4.0
13	Operational Risk management competencies	28	3.36	0.64	2.0	4.0
14	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	28	3.32	0.58	2.3	4.0
15	Networking competencies	28	3.31	0.66	1.8	4.0
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	28	3.29	0.78	1.5	4.0
17	Sport medical services specialist competencies	28	3.25	0.75	1.6	4.0
18	Sport law and legal management competencies	28	3.19	0.77	1.6	4.0
19	Purchasing management competencies	28	3.16	0.67	2.0	4.0
20	Product and promotion marketing competencies	28	3.15	0.70	1.8	4.0
21	Strategic Financial planning competencies	28	3.08	0.78	1.3	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	28	2.94	0.83	1.2	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	28	2.70	0.93	1.2	4.0

When interpreting Table 27 from top to bottom, this will provide the reader with the total number of responses per construct competency. When reading the data horizontally across the table, they will provide the reader with the rank, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum score for each different group. An analysis of individual responses according to management level (position held) in school sport as indicated in Table 27 (cf. p. 467) revealed that no low mean score (≤ 2.50) was recorded for the different construct competencies. The construct items of section C attained means ranging from 2.49 to 3.63 (male coach), 2.69-3.71 (female coach), 2.74 to 3.80 (sport coordinator/sport director)[102] and 2.70 to 3.76 (principal), which indicated a clear stance from

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[102]Cf. also par. 3. 4.1, p. 141; Fig. 9. p. 142. The name used for the overall sport organizer/ supervisor etc. differs depending on the size and nature of the school. For a discussion of this part, reference will be made to sport coordinator, i.e. the person that oversees all the different sport codes. This person will be regarded as a middle level manager, although in some cases this person can be seen as part of top management level

respondents with respect to the stated construct items in the questionnaire. The construct competency of price and place promotion marketing was the only construct item with a relatively low mean ranging from 2.49 (male coach), to 2.74 (sport coordinator), but is still seen as a high or positive value. This particular construct competency was also regarded as the least important by all the respondents in this group.

An analysis of individual responses from the group based on level of management revealed that coaches, sport coordinators and principals viewed the public relationships construct competencies as the most important for all school sport managers (study population). Hollander (2000:164) found that the sport sector identified liaising with people, the establishment of good relationships with clients and the establishment of business relationships as very important. The mentioned competencies were implicated in the relationship construct competencies and once again findings from Hollander correlated with this study, establishing the importance of a good relationship with all stakeholders. In addition these results correlated with the literature review on public relations (cf, par. 3.6.2, p. 160) where the importance of establishing and maintaining mutually beneficial relationships in school sport, was identified.

A further aspect that came to the fore from Table 27 (cf. p. 467) was that respondents were also in agreement that the price and place marketing construct competencies are the least important competencies required for a school sport manager. The preceding thus all supported an opinion expressed earlier that school sport managers do not consider the commercial side of marketing the school's products, services and facilities to be important (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155; 6.3.2.1, p. 455). In relation to the different levels of management, findings from this study seem to correlate with the views expressed by De Villiers (2003:170) that there is no significant difference in importance regarding marketing competencies compared to management level; marketing is regarded as a specialist competency that school sport managers essentially are not involved in as such. The view of respondents with regard to the price and place marketing construct competencies as well as the product and promotion construct competencies as less important, however, contradicts the finding of Hollander (2000:162,166) and Gerber (2009:154,155) as they agree that these competencies need to be of high priority to contribute to the maximum sustainability of an organisation. Hollander (2000:163) further found that the planning, implementation and evaluation of a marketing plan in particular are of the most important competencies of individuals working in the sport industry. This reveals that school sport managers have not yet realised the commercial value of school sport and the need to increase revenue in their schools; marketing can play a vital

role in achieving this. It relates to the literature on modern trends where marketing the school's products and services manifests as an integral part of commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90) and the running of school sport as a successful enterprise. Even small rural schools could benefit from marketing. If a fee is charged for use of the sport facilities, entrance fee is charged when events are hosted, and more people visit the school, it might increase the utilisation thereof.

From Table 27 it also appears that the majority of the respondents on all three levels of management regarded fundamental management competencies as competencies a school sport manager should have to some or a great extent, with a mean ranging from 3.38 (male and female coaches) to 3.71 (principal). Not surprisingly, the ranking in terms of importance was judged differently according to management level, with principals ranking this competence as the fifth most important, while the sport coordinator regarded it as the sixth most important competency, and both male and female coaches ranked it only as the eighth most important competency a school sport manager should have. A similar trend was observed from the respondents' view with regard to strategic planning, although it was rather interesting to note that male (mean 3.43, rank 5) as well as female coaches (mean 3.41, rank 5) ranked strategic planning competencies as more important than the sport coordinator (mean 3.53, rank 8). From the preceding, one can conclude that both these construct competencies (basic fundamental management and strategic planning competencies) are regarded as highly important. However, strategic planning is regarded by the male and female coaches (lower management) as more important than by the sport coordinator (middle management). Subsequently it appears that the importance of the mentioned competencies increases as the complexity of management level increases. This finding correlates with the literature (cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141) as well as a study by De Villiers (2003:168).

When the perceptions of respondents from the different levels are compared with the different construct competencies, it is further remarkable that fundamental communication competencies are regarded as more important by lower and middle sport management levels than by top management levels, and fundamental governance competencies as more important by top management level than middle and lower management levels. The preceding views thus presuppose that different levels of management rank construct competencies different in terms of their importance. One can therefore come to the conclusion that these construct competencies are regarded as important in so far as the complexity of the management levels increases. Once again these findings are consistent with the view of De Villiers (2003:163,165) who indicates that different

levels of management view the importance of competencies differently, as the complexity of management levels increases.

A comparison of the different groups also shows that operational facility management competencies were also not regarded as very important to all groups, based on the level of management, as is evident from Table 27 (cf. p. 467), while general sport administration competencies and operational maintenance and housekeeping were also regarded as very important by female coaches (mean 3.57, rank 2) and sport coordinators (mean 3.71, rank 2), and as less important by male coaches and principals who both ranked this competency as only the sixth most important competency school sport managers should have. This finding bears relation with the views expressed by males and females in the previous section (cf. par. 6.3.2.2, p. 461).

According to Hollander's (2000:165,170) study, the scheduling of facilities, communication with users, management of equipment and the maximisation of usage are important competencies for managers in the sport industry. From Hollander's (2000:165,170) study the competencies implicated in the maintenance and housekeeping construct such as maximation of usage, management of equipment and scheduling of activities were identified as the most important competencies managers in the sport education sector (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, p. 101) should have. Maintenance and housekeeping as such were not considered very important. These findings related to the current situation in South Africa in terms of sport in schools becoming more professional and commercialised, as was mentioned in the literature review (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82; 2.4.6, p. 90). Comparing the findings of this study with those of Hollander, a possible reason for this could be that Hollander's (2000:165,170) research focused on a much broader labour market (the entire sport education sector),[103] whereas this study only included a section of the sport education sector, namely schools and more specifically school sport managers. School sport managers should be able to manage and run school sport as a business and this includes the facilities of the school. To this end, it would seem, based on evidence of this study, that school sport managers have realised the importance of the management and also maintenance and housekeeping associated with the equipment and infrastructure at the school's facilities to ensure the profitability, or at least self-sustainability of the equipment and facilities of the school according to commercial standards. A competent school sport manager would be needed to do this. It can thus be deduced that school sport managers have realised the commercial value of good

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[103]Cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, p. 101

maintenance and housekeeping, but have failed to recognise the importance of the marketing thereof to increase the usage of the school's sport facilities and products.

To summarise, not all construct competencies indicate that the importance continuously increases as the level of management increases, with most notable construct competencies being fundamental communication, information management, networking as well as operational maintenance and housekeeping. Further, all the construct competencies are important and should accordingly be included in the school sport management programme for educator training.

In the next section, the last comparison of groups in relation to type of school is dealt with.

6.3.2.4 Responses of school sport managers according to type of school

Information was collected in section C of the questionnaire about respondents' understanding of the importance of competencies of the school sport manager (cf. par. 4.6.3.4, p. 257; Annexure D, on CD). Based on this information and the constructed school sport management competencies (cf. par. 4.6.4, p. 276; 4.8, p. 283; 5.9.4.2, p. 344; Table 17, 245; 18, p. 265; 21, p. 345) a comparison was drawn between the perceptions (views) of respondents in relation to the type of school they are currently involved in. Three different comparisons in relation to type of school was done. Firstly a comparison was drawn between combined,[104] secondary and primary schools. A second related comparison dealt with public and independent schools, while the third and last comparison was done between combined, independent (secondary and primary), public (secondary and primary), township (secondary and primary) as well as rural (secondary and primary) schools. In the first place a comparison will be done between primary, secondary and combined schools. The views are presented in Table 28 below (cf. p. 475), in descending order of importance.

When comparing the competencies required by school sport managers from the different schools in the study population, namely combined, secondary and primary (cf. Table 28, p. 475) regarding their importance, the following findings were significant:

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[104]For purposes of this research a combined school was regarded as a school which have learners from both primary and secondary school in one school (cf. also par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4)

The 11 most highest ranked construct competencies a school sport manager in **combined schools**[105] should possess are: strategic planning (mean 3.83); basic fundamental management (mean 3.82); fundamental governance (mean 3.78); fundamental communication (mean 3.77); information management (3.77); general sport administration (mean 3.76); product and promotion marketing (mean 3.73); financial control (mean 3.73); operational and project management (mean 3.72); public relationships (mean 3.68) and operational maintenance and housekeeping.

The five least important construct competencies required by school sport managers are: attract, retain and develop human resources (mean 3.54); operational risk management (mean 3.45); strategic financial planning (mean 3.34); operational facility management (mean 3.33) and price and place marketing (mean 2.97).

Table 28: Comparison of school sport management construct competencies in relation to type of school (primary, secondary, combined)

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	COMBINED SCHOOLS					
1	Strategic Planning competencies	5	3.83	0.27	3.4	4.0
2	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	5	3.82	0.26	3.4	4.0
3	Fundamental Governance competencies	5	3.78	0.35	3.2	4.0
4	Fundamental Communication competencies	5	3.77	0.37	3.1	4.0
4	Information management competencies	5	3.77	0.35	3.2	4.0
6	General Sport administration competencies	5	3.76	0.33	3.2	4.0
7	Product and promotion marketing competencies	5	3.73	0.22	3.5	4.0
7	Financial control competencies	5	3.73	0.60	2.7	4.0
9	Operational Project and event management competencies	5	3.72	0.39	3.2	4.0
10	Public relationships competencies	5	3.68	0.46	3.0	4.0
11	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	5	3.67	0.37	3.1	4.0
12	Managing human behaviour competencies	5	3.66	0.36	3.1	4.0
13	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	5	3.60	0.55	3.0	4.0
14	Sport law and legal management competencies	5	3.54	0.40	3.1	4.0
15	Networking competencies	5	3.53	0.42	2.9	4.0
15	Purchasing management competencies	5	3.53	0.47	3.0	4.0
15	Human movement specialist competencies	5	3.53	0.32	3.2	4.0
18	Sport medical services specialist competencies	5	3.50	0.42	3.0	4.0
19	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	5	3.47	0.56	2.7	4.0

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[105]Cf. note 104, p. 474

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	COMBINED SCHOOLS					
20	Operational Risk management competencies	5	3.45	0.76	2.5	4.0
21	Strategic Financial planning competencies	5	3.34	0.56	2.7	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	5	3.33	0.67	2.4	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	5	2.97	0.49	2.5	3.7

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	PRIMARY SCHOOLS					
1	Fundamental Governance competencies	7	3.87	0.16	3.6	4.0
2	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	7	3.83	0.29	3.2	4.0
3	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	7	3.81	0.20	3.4	4.0
4	Strategic Planning competencies	7	3.80	0.24	3.4	4.0
5	Public relationships competencies	7	3.77	0.29	3.2	4.0
6	Managing human behaviour competencies	7	3.76	0.38	3.1	4.0
7	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	7	3.70	0.50	2.7	4.0
8	Fundamental Communication competencies	7	3.61	0.59	2.6	4.0
9	General Sport administration competencies	7	3.57	0.44	3.0	4.0
10	Human movement specialist competencies	7	3.54	0.41	2.8	4.0
11	Information management competencies	7	3.50	0.51	2.7	4.0
12	Operational Risk management competencies	7	3.48	0.50	2.8	4.0
13	Operational Project and event management competencies	7	3.34	0.82	2.0	4.0
14	Networking competencies	7	3.28	0.78	2.0	4.0
15	Purchasing management competencies	7	3.23	0.74	2.0	4.0
16	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	7	3.19	0.56	2.4	4.0
17	Sport law and legal management competencies	7	3.18	0.90	1.6	4.0
18	Financial control competencies	7	3.14	0.57	2.3	4.0
19	Sport medical services specialist competencies	7	3.13	0.90	1.6	4.0
20	Operational Facility management competencies	7	2.90	0.98	1.3	4.0
21	Product and promotion marketing competencies	7	2.77	0.81	1.8	4.0
22	Strategic Financial planning competencies	7	2.69	0.89	1.3	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	7	2.50	1.13	1.2	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	SECONDARY SCHOOLS					
1	Public relationships competencies	38	3.70	0.41	2.6	4.0
2	Managing human behaviour competencies	36	3.61	0.38	2.7	4.0
3	Fundamental Communication competencies	38	3.59	0.51	2.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	SECONDARY SCHOOLS					
4	Information management competencies	37	3.56	0.50	2.5	4.0
4	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	37	3.56	0.54	2.0	4.0
6	Fundamental Governance competencies	38	3.55	0.49	2.0	4.0
7	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	38	3.54	0.55	2.0	4.0
8	Strategic Planning competencies	37	3.52	0.52	2.0	4.0
9	Financial control competencies	36	3.51	0.55	2.0	4.0
10	General Sport administration competencies	38	3.48	0.53	2.2	4.0
11	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	36	3.38	0.61	1.8	4.0
12	Human movement specialist competencies	37	3.31	0.58	1.9	4.0
13	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	37	3.30	0.61	1.9	4.0
14	Operational Risk management competencies	36	3.23	0.73	1.9	4.0
15	Sport medical services specialist competencies	37	3.22	0.76	1.3	4.0
16	Networking competencies	37	3.21	0.59	1.8	4.0
17	Operational Project and event management competencies	36	3.18	0.74	1.5	4.0
18	Product and promotion marketing competencies	38	3.13	0.66	1.9	4.0
19	Purchasing management competencies	37	3.09	0.71	1.0	4.0
20	Sport law and legal management competencies	37	3.05	0.83	1.0	4.0
21	Strategic Financial planning competencies	37	3.01	0.79	1.1	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	36	2.81	0.73	1.2	3.9
23	Price and place marketing competencies	37	2.66	0.80	1.2	4.0

School sport managers in *primary schools*[106] on the other hand, ranked the 11 most important construct competencies a school sport manager should have as follows: fundamental governance (mean 3.87); health, wellness and fitness specialist (mean 3.83); basic fundamental management (mean 3.81); strategic planning (mean 3.80); public relationships (mean 3.77); managing human behaviour (mean 3.76); operational maintenance and housekeeping (mean 3.70); fundamental communication (mean 3.61); general sport administration (mean 3.57); human movement specialist (mean 3.54) and information management (mean 3.50).

For them, the five least important competencies a school sport manager should have are: sport medical services (mean 3.13); operational facility management (mean 2.90); product and promotion marketing (mean 2.77); strategic financial planning (mean 2.69) and price, place and marketing (mean 2.50).

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[106]Primary schools for this particular comparison include both independent and public primary schools

In the last group of this particular comparison, ***secondary school*** sport managers are of the opinion that that the 11 most important construct competencies a school sport manager should have in order to manage sport in secondary schools effectively include the following: public relationships (mean 3.70); managing human behaviour (mean 3.61); fundamental communication (mean 3.59); information management (mean 3.56) operational maintenance and housekeeping (mean 3.56); fundamental governance (mean 3.55); basic fundamental management (mean 3.54); strategic planning (mean 3.52); financial control (mean 3.51); general administration (mean 3.48) and health, wellness and fitness specialist (mean 3.38).

School sport managers in secondary schools overall shared the belief that purchasing management (mean 3.09); sport law and legal management (mean 3.05); strategic financial planning (mean 3.01); operational facility management (mean 2.81) together with price and place marketing (2.66) are not too important competencies a secondary school sport manager should have to manage sport in a school.

An analysis of the individual responses from the three related groups revealed that respondents in general viewed the 11 most important construct competencies required to manage school sport to be important to some extent and a great extent. In general respondents were in agreement with regard to the 11 most important construct competencies required to manage school sport with only differences in the ranking of importance. The most notable were health, wellness and fitness, information management, managing human behaviour, financial control, public relationships and operational maintenance and housekeeping.

Respondents from the different types of schools were unanimous regarding their views of the five least important construct competencies required to manage school sport with some notable exceptions. School sport managers from secondary and combined schools ranked the construct product and promotion marketing competency as more important than primary schools. A possible reason for this situation could possibly be that primary schools are more directed to provide for mass participation and enjoyment of sport, whereas secondary and combined schools have already noticed and conformed to new demands in school sport to increasingly market their school and its products. Other notable exceptions with regard to the five least important construct competencies included the construct attract, retain and develop human resource competencies which was ranked 19th by combined school sport managers and 16th and 13th by primary and school sport mangers respectively; purchasing, ranked of lesser importance by secondary school

sport managers (rank 19) than combined (rank 15) and primary (rank 15) school sport managers. Competency in sport law and legal management was considered more important by primary and combined school sport managers, and sport medical services specialist was seen as more important by secondary and combined school sport managers than their primary school sport manager counterparts.

It can therefore be concluded that all the different construct competencies yielded high mean scores from the school managers of the different kinds of schools. The only construct competence with a relatively low mean score was the price and place marketing construct (mean 2.50) of primary school sport managers. This response was in contrast with the identified perspective in the literature study that viewed the commercialisation of school sport as of increasing importance to primary schools (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90). The reason for this particular stance of respondents may be that the approach and implementation of commercialisation in primary schools were not affected by obvious attempts to promote and/or conform as well as give in to increasing demands to seek and adopt a more professional approach towards competitive school in primary schools. In actual fact, this view of respondents is also consistent with the findings of the qualitative data where one of the respondents held the belief that learners in primary schools should only participate in sport for fun and enjoyment (cf. par. 6.2.3, p. 372; Annexure M, on CD). Whether that is going to happen, remains to be seen.

In the next section a comparison is drawn between public and independent schools. The data are presented in Table 29 below.

Table 29: Comparison of school sport management construct in relation to type of school

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	PUBLIC SCHOOLS					
1	Public relationships competencies	46	3.69	0.41	2.6	4.0
2	Fundamental Communication competencies	46	3.65	0.46	2.3	4.0
2	Fundamental Governance competencies	46	3.65	0.41	2.5	4.0
4	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	46	3.63	0.46	2.0	4.0
5	Strategic Planning competencies	45	3.62	0.44	2.0	4.0
6	Managing human behaviour competencies	44	3.61	0.38	2.7	4.0
7	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	45	3.56	0.52	2.0	4.0
8	Information management competencies	45	3.55	0.49	2.5	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	PUBLIC SCHOOLS					
9	General Sport administration competencies	46	3.52	0.51	2.2	4.0
10	Financial control competencies	44	3.48	0.59	2.0	4.0
11	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	44	3.43	0.60	1.8	4.0
12	Human movement specialist competencies	45	3.33	0.54	1.9	4.0
13	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	45	3.28	0.61	1.9	4.0
14	Operational Risk management competencies	44	3.24	0.71	1.9	4.0
15	Networking competencies	45	3.24	0.61	1.8	4.0
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	44	3.22	0.75	1.5	4.0
17	Sport medical services specialist competencies	45	3.18	0.76	1.3	4.0
18	Product and promotion marketing competencies	46	3.16	0.69	1.8	4.0
19	Purchasing management competencies	45	3.14	0.71	1.0	4.0
20	Sport law and legal management competencies	45	3.12	0.83	1.0	4.0
21	Strategic Financial planning competencies	45	3.00	0.80	1.1	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	44	2.87	0.78	1.2	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	45	2.69	0.82	1.2	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS					
1	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	4	3.94	0.11	3.8	4.0
2	Public relationships competencies	4	3.90	0.20	3.6	4.0
2	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	4	3.90	0.12	3.8	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	4	3.89	0.14	3.7	4.0
5	Information management competencies	4	3.88	0.25	3.5	4.0
5	Sport medical services specialist competencies	4	3.88	0.18	3.6	4.0
7	Operational Risk management competencies	4	3.81	0.24	3.5	4.0
8	Human movement specialist competencies	4	3.78	0.15	3.6	3.9
9	Operational Project and event management competencies	4	3.70	0.35	3.4	4.0
10	General Sport administration competencies	4	3.50	0.48	3.0	4.0
11	Financial control competencies	4	3.50	0.43	3.0	4.0
12	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	4	3.46	0.45	2.9	4.0
13	Networking competencies	4	3.42	0.61	2.6	4.0
14	Strategic Planning competencies	4	3.34	0.91	2.0	4.0
15	Fundamental Governance competencies	4	3.33	0.90	2.0	4.0
16	Purchasing management competencies	4	3.28	0.58	2.8	4.0
17	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	4	3.25	0.87	2.0	4.0
18	Fundamental Communication competencies	4	3.21	0.88	2.0	4.0
19	Sport law and legal management competencies	4	3.07	0.71	2.3	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
20	Operational Facility management competencies	4	3.00	0.64	2.4	3.9
21	Product and promotion marketing competencies	4	2.98	0.75	2.3	3.8
22	Strategic Financial planning competencies	4	2.92	0.71	2.1	3.9
23	Price and place marketing competencies	4	2.46	0.94	1.5	3.7

The rationale for a comparison of the two basic types of schools was to establish whether the two categories of schools (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4) indeed differ with regard to competencies and needs required to manage school sport. In this way, the researcher was able to develop a school sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; 1.2.1.4, p. 4; 1.3.2, p. 12). When comparing the mean scores per category (public and independent)[107] regarding competencies, it was found that none is below 2.50, except for price and place marketing construct competencies which yielded a mean score of 2.46 in the case of independent school sport managers (Table 29, p. 479). This proves that respondents agreed to some extent (score 3) and to large extent (score 4) that they should possess the mentioned construct competencies. It was however noticeable that there was a significant difference regarding the rank of importance between the two different categories. Of these the most significant were basic fundamental management, strategic planning, fundamental communication and fundamental governance that were ranked far more important by public school sport managers than independent school sport managers. Operational risk management, operational maintenance and housekeeping, operational project and event, human movement, health, wellness and fitness and sport medical specialist services construct competencies on the other hand, was ranked of much more importance to independent school sport managers than public school sport managers. Based on the evidence of these findings it can therefore be deduced that independent school sport managers regard school sport as an enterprise and as such see themselves more in the role of executing and implementing set strategies. For this reason independent school sport managers are probably of the opinion that they could contribute to the set goals and objectives of the school if they dispose of or make use of competencies such as those associated with operational risk (manage security, manage participant and spectator's safety, etc.), operational maintenance and housekeeping, operational project and event management, health wellness and fitness (e.g. do health risk assessment, manage health and wellness of athletes, manage sport injuries), human movement specialist (e.g. apply physiological aspects of exercise,

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[107]Note that public schools for purposes of this comparison include both primary and secondary schools. Independent schools therefore also include primary and secondary schools

direct sport programmes, design training programmes, etc.) as well sport medical specialist services (podiatrics, sport vision etc.).[108] Public school sport managers on the other hand might regard these competencies as specialist competencies and are thus of the opinion that these competencies are less important. The preceding findings also corresponded closely with the description of sport as a business enterprise that referred to the basic features and trends of school sport (cf. par. 2.4, pp. 70-98; 3.2, p. 117) that school sport has become a lucrative marketing tool and increasingly attracts sponsorships, necessitating a professional approach to the management of school sport and athletes in an endeavour to improve their effectiveness and to reprioritise their goals.

In the last comparison five different identities and groupings of schools were considered by the researcher. The significance and importance of this comparison cannot be underestimated as it also enabled the researcher to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. It should however nonetheless be made clear that the purpose of this research was not to generalise the findings to a particular population or school, but to determine in a selection of schools the general trends, requirements, competencies and needs of school sport managers for the management of school sport in order to develop a sport management programme for educator training in the unique diverse South African school context (cf. par. 1.2.2, p. 5; Chapter 2). The data related to the specific competencies required to manage school sport in combined, independent, public, rural and township schools are presented in Table 30.[109]

Table 30: Comparison of school sport management construct competencies in relation to type of school (combined, independent, public, rural and township schools

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
COMBINED SCHOOLS						
1	Strategic Planning competencies	5	3.83	0.27	3.4	4.0
2	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	5	3.82	0.26	3.4	4.0
3	Fundamental Governance competencies	5	3.78	0.35	3.2	4.0

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[108]Cf. Questionnaire, Annexure D, on CD for a more detailed account of the different question items; Cf also par. 4.6.4, p. 276;Table 17, p. 245; 18, p. 265

[109]For purposes of this comparison independent, public, rural and township schools include both primary and secondary schools. Further no difference is made between public and independent rural and township schools. Public schools exclude township and rural schools included in the discussion of public and independent schools

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
4	Fundamental Communication competencies	5	3.77	0.37	3.1	4.0
4	Information management competencies	5	3.77	0.35	3.2	4.0
6	General Sport administration competencies	5	3.76	0.33	3.2	4.0
7	Product and promotion marketing competencies	5	3.73	0.22	3.5	4.0
7	Financial control competencies	5	3.73	0.60	2.7	4.0
9	Operational Project and event management competencies	5	3.72	0.39	3.2	4.0
10	Public relationships competencies	5	3.68	0.46	3.0	4.0
11	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	5	3.67	0.37	3.1	4.0
12	Managing human behaviour competencies	5	3.66	0.36	3.1	4.0
13	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	5	3.60	0.55	3.0	4.0
14	Sport law and legal management competencies	5	3.54	0.40	3.1	4.0
15	Networking competencies	5	3.53	0.42	2.9	4.0
15	Purchasing management competencies	5	3.53	0.47	3.0	4.0
15	Human movement specialist competencies	5	3.53	0.32	3.2	4.0
18	Sport medical services specialist competencies	5	3.50	0.42	3.0	4.0
19	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	5	3.47	0.56	2.7	4.0
20	Operational Risk management competencies	5	3.45	0.76	2.5	4.0
21	Strategic Financial planning competencies	5	3.34	0.56	2.7	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	5	3.33	0.67	2.4	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	5	2.97	0.49	2.5	3.7

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS					
1	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	4	3.94	0.11	3.8	4.0
2	Public relationships competencies	4	3.90	0.20	3.6	4.0
2	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	4	3.90	0.12	3.8	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	4	3.89	0.14	3.7	4.0
5	Information management competencies	4	3.88	0.25	3.5	4.0
5	Sport medical services specialist competencies	4	3.88	0.18	3.6	4.0
7	Operational Risk management competencies	4	3.81	0.24	3.5	4.0
8	Human movement specialist competencies	4	3.78	0.15	3.6	3.9
9	Operational Project and event management competencies	4	3.70	0.35	3.4	4.0
10	General Sport administration competencies	4	3.50	0.48	3.0	4.0
10	Financial control competencies	4	3.50	0.43	3.0	4.0
12	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	4	3.46	0.45	2.9	4.0
13	Networking competencies	4	3.42	0.61	2.6	4.0
14	Strategic Planning competencies	4	3.34	0.91	2.0	4.0
15	Fundamental Governance competencies	4	3.33	0.90	2.0	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS					
16	Purchasing management competencies	4	3.28	0.58	2.8	4.0
17	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	4	3.25	0.87	2.0	4.0
18	Fundamental Communication competencies	4	3.21	0.88	2.0	4.0
19	Sport law and legal management competencies	4	3.07	0.71	2.3	4.0
20	Operational Facility management competencies	4	3.00	0.64	2.4	3.9
21	Product and promotion marketing competencies	4	2.98	0.75	2.3	3.8
22	Strategic Financial planning competencies	4	2.92	0.71	2.1	3.9
23	Price and place marketing competencies	4	2.46	0.94	1.5	3.7

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	PUBLIC SCHOOLS					
1	Public relationships competencies	32	3.71	0.38	2.6	4.0
2	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	32	3.68	0.40	2.7	4.0
3	Strategic Planning competencies	32	3.64	0.38	2.4	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	31	3.63	0.37	2.7	4.0
5	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	31	3.62	0.42	2.4	4.0
6	Fundamental Governance competencies	32	3.59	0.42	2.5	4.0
7	Fundamental Communication competencies	32	3.57	0.50	2.3	4.0
8	General Sport administration competencies	32	3.56	0.49	2.2	4.0
8	Information management competencies	32	3.56	0.50	2.5	4.0
10	Financial control competencies	31	3.52	0.49	2.7	4.0
11	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	31	3.39	0.57	1.8	4.0
12	Human movement specialist competencies	31	3.30	0.54	1.9	4.0
13	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	31	3.29	0.57	2.3	4.0
14	Networking competencies	32	3.20	0.62	1.8	4.0
14	Operational Risk management competencies	31	3.20	0.69	1.9	4.0
16	Operational Project and event management competencies	31	3.16	0.77	1.5	4.0
17	Sport medical services specialist competencies	31	3.13	0.75	1.6	4.0
18	Product and promotion marketing competencies	32	3.11	0.68	1.8	4.0
19	Purchasing management competencies	31	3.09	0.63	2.0	4.0
20	Sport law and legal management competencies	31	3.07	0.78	1.6	4.0
21	Strategic Financial planning competencies	31	2.95	0.81	1.1	4.0
22	Operational Facility management competencies	31	2.80	0.80	1.2	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	32	2.66	0.84	1.2	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
RURAL SCHOOLS						
1	Fundamental Communication competencies	5	3.94	0.13	3.7	4.0
2	Fundamental Governance competencies	5	3.78	0.44	3.0	4.0
3	Public relationships competencies	5	3.56	0.64	2.6	4.0
4	Managing human behaviour competencies	4	3.46	0.47	3.0	4.0
5	Human movement specialist competencies	5	3.40	0.82	2.0	4.0
6	Information management competencies	4	3.33	0.62	2.5	4.0
7	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	5	3.31	0.92	2.0	4.0
8	Operational Risk management competencies	4	3.28	0.78	2.3	4.0
9	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	4	3.20	0.98	2.0	4.0
10	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	5	3.17	0.77	2.2	4.0
11	Operational Project and event management competencies	4	3.15	0.87	2.0	4.0
12	Strategic Planning competencies	4	3.15	0.82	2.0	3.8
12	Sport medical services specialist competencies	5	3.13	0.75	2.5	4.0
14	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	5	3.11	0.78	2.0	4.0
15	General Sport administration competencies	5	3.08	0.64	2.2	4.0
16	Financial control competencies	4	3.00	0.98	2.0	4.0
17	Product and promotion marketing competencies	5	2.95	0.89	2.1	4.0
18	Networking competencies	4	2.91	0.60	2.2	3.7
19	Purchasing management competencies	5	2.90	1.24	1.0	4.0
20	Sport law and legal management competencies	5	2.86	1.13	1.0	4.0
21	Operational Facility management competencies	4	2.83	0.83	2.1	3.9
22	Strategic Financial planning competencies	5	2.74	1.01	1.5	4.0
23	Price and place marketing competencies	4	2.33	0.99	1.5	3.7

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS						
1	Fundamental Communication competencies	4	3.75	0.34	3.3	4.0
1	Public relationships competencies	4	3.75	0.38	3.2	4.0
1	Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	4	3.75	0.50	3.0	4.0
4	Fundamental Governance competencies	4	3.73	0.38	3.2	4.0
5	Basic Fundamental Management competencies	4	3.69	0.36	3.3	4.0
6	Managing human behaviour competencies	4	3.61	0.49	3.0	4.0
7	Strategic Planning competencies	4	3.59	0.47	3.1	4.0
8	Networking competencies	4	3.50	0.72	2.4	4.0
9	General Sport administration competencies	4	3.45	0.53	3.0	4.0
10	Information management competencies	4	3.42	0.55	2.7	4.0
11	Purchasing management competencies	4	3.34	0.77	2.3	4.0

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS					
12	Financial control competencies	4	3.33	0.82	2.3	4.0
13	Strategic Financial planning competencies	4	3.32	0.84	2.3	4.0
14	Sport law and legal management competencies	4	3.29	1.24	1.4	4.0
15	Operational Risk management competencies	4	3.28	0.98	1.9	4.0
16	Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	4	3.25	0.80	2.1	4.0
17	Human movement specialist competencies	4	3.19	0.58	2.4	3.6
18	Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	4	3.17	0.89	1.9	4.0
19	Sport medical services specialist competencies	4	3.16	1.28	1.3	3.9
20	Operational Project and event management competencies	4	3.10	0.84	2.2	4.0
21	Product and promotion marketing competencies	4	3.04	0.79	2.0	3.9
22	Price and place marketing competencies	4	2.92	0.87	1.7	3.5
22	Operational Facility management competencies	4	2.92	0.79	1.8	3.6

Consistent with the previous discussions, Table 30 clearly shows that the only low mean score was yielded by responses from school sport managers in rural schools who regarded the construct price and place marketing competency as the least important of all the competencies required to manage school sport (mean 2.33). The low mean for this response indicated a negative response from the respondents and also pointed to a lack of the realisation of the potential impact of marketing the school's sport facilities and products, because as was mentioned earlier (cf. par. 6.3.2.3, p. 467), even rural schools could benefit from marketing to increase usage of the school's facilities and products. The marketing of a school's facilities and products is explicitly stated as a possible source of income, important for schools who wish to seek and adopt a professional approach to the management of school sport and of athletes (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82; 3.6.1, p. 155; 3.6.6, p. 175).

Responses from rural school sport managers reflected the responses from school sport managers from combined, independent, public and township schools who all regarded the construct price and place marketing as one of the five least important construct competencies a school sport manager should have to manage school sport. Another construct competency also not regarded of much importance for the management of school sport related to the construct competency of operational facility management. This might be due to the fact that respondents might be of the opinion that the school's facilities and products could only be used for a specific purpose, and they (the respondents) had not started looking into using their school's sport facilities in particular for other

purposes such as concerts, conferences, meetings, parking and accommodation.[110] They also might not need to be financially feasible, as community facilities used are usually funded, and some of the more affluent or larger as well as independent schools' school sport managers might think that marketing and facility management is not part of their primary tasks; it could also be thought of as a specialist competence.

Overall, it can be deduced from Table 30 that responses indicated that the majority of the respondents hold the view that the identified construct competencies are all important to the management of school sport, with no significant differences between the different school sport managers regarding the different construct competencies, as the mean scores once again differed to a small extent. When comparing the rank of the different construct competencies, significant differences became apparent. So basic fundamental management and strategic planning competencies were regarded as more important by combined school sport managers than independent, public, township and rural school sport managers, while fundamental communication and fundamental governance were considered as relatively unimportant when compared with the other school sport managers. General sport administration was not considered as one of the 11 most important construct competencies by rural school sport managers, while township school sport managers were the only ones who identified networking amongst the 11 most important construct competencies required to manage school sport. Only rural school sport managers held the belief that to attract, retain and develop human resources was sufficiently important to rate amongst the 11 most important construct competencies required. Lastly, independent school sport managers were the only respondents who rated sport medical services specialist amongst the 11 most important construct competencies required by school sport managers to manage school sport.[111]

6.3.2.5 Synthesis

From the research findings, the mean scores of respondents dealing with the construct competencies were calculated and a comparison of the ranking with regard to the importance of each construct competency was drawn between different groups as indicated in Table 31 (cf. p. 489). The mean scores indicated that there were only two low or negative values (no extent and

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[110]Not all schools dispose of hostels or are situated close to larger sport stadiums

[111]Tables were used to present the various mean scores in relation to the comparison of each group. For the purpose of interpretation and discussion, it is impossible to discuss all the differences of relevance to this research among the different groups in this section. For more detail see Table 30 and other tables presented in this section

little extent) as indicated when the mean scores of the different groups were compared. So, this was proof that the respondents agreed to some extent (score 3) and a great extent (score 4); that they feel a school sport manager in their position should possess the mentioned construct competencies. From the 23 school sport management construct competencies, numerous were ranked differently with regard to importance. The difference in importance signified a difference in focus and view of respondents from the different schools. To summarise, the school sport manager construct competencies ranked in terms of mean score, overall school sport managers (that is the study population) rated the construct public relationship competencies as the most important construct (group) of competencies they required to to be effective in their jobs. Public relationships competencies included to liase with people, and to have a good relationship with parents).[112] The second most important construct competency was fundamental communication, followed by operational maintenance and housekeeping, managing human behaviour, fundamental governance, basic fundamental management, strategic planning, information management, health, wellness and fitness specialist, financial control and general sport administration (cf. par. 6.3.2.1, p. 455; Table 25, p. 456). Price and place construct competencies were seen as the least important, followed closely by operational facility management, sport law and legal management, strategic financial planning and product and promotion marketing (cf. par. 6.3.2.1, p. 455; Table 25, p. 456). No significant differences were reported when a comparison was done based on gender (cf. par. 6.3.2.2, p. 461; Table 26, p. 462).

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[112]Cf. also par. 5.9.4.2,.p. 344 ;6.3.1, p. 432; 6.3.2.1, p. 455; Table 25, p. 456; Questionnaire, Annexure D, on CD; Note, 97, p. 440

Table 31: Summary of ranking of importance by different groups of school sport managers with regard to the different construct competencies required to manage school sport[113]

COMPETENCIES	SM	GENDER		MANAGEMENT LEVEL				TYPE OF SCHOOL						
	A	M	F	MC	FC	SD	PR	PRIM	SEC	COMB	IND	PUB	T	R
Basic Fundamental Management competencies	5	5	6	8	8	6	5	3	7	2	17	4	5	14
Strategic Planning competencies	7	7	5	5	5	8	4	4	8	1	14	5	7	12
Fundamental Communication competencies	2	2	3	2	2	2	6	8	3	4	18	2	1	1
Fundamental Governance competencies	5	3	6	4	7	7	2	1	6	3	15	3	4	2
General Sport administration competencies	11	10	10	10	14	9	8	9	10	6	10	9	9	15
Information management competencies	8	8	8	8	11	5	9	11	4	4	5	8	10	6
Product and promotion marketing competencies	19	19	19	17	20	19	20	21	18	7	21	18	21	17
Price and place marketing competencies	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	22	23
Networking competencies	15	15	12	17	12	11	15	14	16	15	13	15	8	18
Public relationships competencies	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	5	1	10	2	1	1	3
Attract, retain and develop human resource competencies	12	14	14	14	18	10	14	16	13	19	12	13	18	10
Managing human behaviour competencies	4	4	4	2	4	4	2	6	2	12	4	6	6	4
Operation Facility management competencies	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	20	22	22	20	22	23	21
Operational Risk management competencies	12	12	16	13	14	14	13	12	14	20	7	14	15	8
Operational Maintenance and housekeeping competencies	3	5	2	6	2	2	6	7	4	11	1	7	16	7
Operational Project and event management competencies	16	16	13	16	10	16	16	13	17	9	9	16	20	11
Strategic Financial planning competencies	20	20	19	20	19	19	21	22	21	21	22	21	13	22
Financial control competencies	10	11	11	12	9	13	11	18	9	7	11	10	12	16
Purchasing management competencies	18	18	17	15	17	18	19	15	19	15	16	19	11	19
Sport law and legal management competencies	21	21	21	21	21	19	18	17	20	14	19	20	14	20

[113]For the mean scores of the construct competencies also refer to Tables 25-30. Also see par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344 for the different question items included or related to each construct competency. Also see Questionnaire, Annexure D, on CD

COMPETENCIES	SM	GENDER		MANAGEMENT LEVEL				TYPE OF SCHOOL						
	A	M	F	MC	FC	SD	PR	PRIM	SEC	COMB	IND	PUB	T	R
Human movement specialist competencies	12	12	15	11	13	15	11	10	12	15	8	12	17	5
Health, wellness and fitness specialist competencies	9	9	9	6	6	11	10	2	11	13	3	11	1	9
Sport medical services specialist competencies	17	17	18	19	16	17	17	19	15	18	5	17	19	12

When comparing the different construct competencies in relation to management level, it was evident that not all construct competencies continuously increase as the management level and complexity thereof increase. In general however it can be inferred that all the different sport management construct competencies are regarded as important and increase (with a few exceptions) as the complexity of management levels increases (cf. par. 6.3.2.3, p. 467; Table 27, p. 467).

The school sport management construct competencies in terms of the mean scores indicate a clear correlation between the different groups (cf. Tables 25-30). This correlation is important because it indicates the most important construct competencies according to the respondents, and could assist the researcher in prioritising the construct competencies in the sport management programme. Generally speaking no construct competence was ranked the most important amongst all the different schools (cf. par. 6.3.2.4, p. 474; Table 28-30; Table 31, p. 489). Price and place marketing construct competencies by far had the lowest ranking, together with (including an exception here and there) operational management, strategic financial planning, operational facility management and sport law and legal management construct competencies.

According to Hollander's (2000:273-274;288) study, the occupation requirements of the management competencies for the sport industry can be divided into general and functional competencies. General management competencies relate to the competencies of planning, organising, leading and control of a sport enterprise. Functional management competencies pertain to the management of marketing, human resource operations and law aspects of a sport or related business. From Hollanders' study (2000:158-175), communication and public relations, administration and office management, general management, human resources, marketing and sport law and legal competencies were identified as the most important competencies managers in the sport education sector (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, 101) should have, while facility management, financial management and event and project management were seen as the least important. These findings related to the current situation in South Africa in terms of sport becoming more professional and commercialised, as was mentioned in the literature study (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82; 2.4.6, p. 90) and to a large extent correlates with the findings of the current study. The school sport manager should be able to manage and run school sport as a business. Equipment and the infrastructure at the school should be maintained to ensure profitability, or at least self-sustainability of the school's sport facilities and products if schools want to conform to commercial standards. A specialist competent school sport manager would be needed to achieve this. Another

management area a school sport manager needs to manage is the risk management area. Risk management depends on the type of school and the sport facilities and products managed. Depending on the size and complexity of the school's sport facilities and products, the operational competencies required will vary. At some rural schools, for example, there might not be any maintenance of facilities as it might only be a bare piece of land where football matches are played. No equipment might be available for the the school sport manager to manage and keep inventory of. However, even though operational sport facility management (Gerber, 2009:150) is vital to any school, irrespective of size, as this deals with the day-to-day activities at the school and the person in charge of the school's sport facilities should possess the necessary competencies to manage these, operational facility management was not regarded as one of the most important competencies a school sport manager should have.

Finally it can be said that all the construct competencies discussed are needed by all school sport managers, irrespective of gender, management level and the type of school. By disseminating the mean scores and analysing the mean score per group, a comparison can be drawn (cf. Tables 25-30). Comparing the mean scores, it could be seen that there were no significant differences between the different groups, as the mean scores between them differed to a very small extent.

In order to develop a sport management programme for educator training in the South African context, the importance of the different needs of school sport managers ought to be discussed. The last section of the questionnaire, section D dealt with specific needs of school sport managers and will be discussed in the following paragraphs, after which a comparison will also be drawn between different groups as was done with competencies.

6.3.3   Section D: School sport management needs

Questions 1.1 to 1.24 from section D of the questionnaire determined to what extent needs were determined in relation to the manifestation of the management of sport in the school. In the next paragraphs the same sequence of comparison applied according to competencies required, namely overall, gender, management level (position held in school) and type of school, will be used.

6.3.3.1 Responses by the overall study population regarding construct needs

The data based on the overall view of respondents (that is the whole study population) are presented in Table 32.[114]

Table 32: Overall school sport management needs

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
Policy,systems and processes needs	180	3.35	0.72	1.00	4.00
Specialist needs	179	3.35	0.70	1.00	4.00
Training, resources and infrastructure needs	181	3.33	0.65	1.00	4.00
Support needs	180	3.28	0.70	1.00	4.00

It is quite evident from Table 32 that no mean score of ≤ 2.50, that is a low or negative value (no extent and little extent) was recorded in this subsection of construct items. In actual fact a high mean ranging from 3.28-3.35 was recorded for respondents who determined the various construct item needs in their respective schools. From the preceding it can thus be concluded that all the respondents were of the opinion that there was a need to some and to a great extent for the specific construct needs in their schools, and accordingly all the construct needs are important and should be taken cognisance of when a sport management programme for educator training is developed (cf. Ch. 7).

A further analysis of the gathered data in this subsection of the questionnaire revealed that of all four of the construct items related to needs (cf. Table 22, p. 345; Table 32, p. 493), the construct policy, structures, systems and processes needs (mean 3.35) were the most important construct needs among all role-players, that is the whole study population (cf. par. 5.9.2, p. 335). Shared with policy, structures, systems and processes needs, the respondents were of the opinion that a need for specialists in school sport management (mean 3.35) also existed. It must also be noted that responses from respondents relating to policy, structures, systems and processes referred to policy aspects and operational actions. The recording of a relatively high mean (3.35) signified that most aspects of the policy, structures, systems and processes needs construct that were included in the questionnaire, were concerns (needs) of participating schools not accommodated to a large extent. It was therefore obvious that a negative reaction was recorded, and signifies a desperate need for intervention by government to ensure that the necessary policies, structures, systems and

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[114]Cf. par. 5.9.4.2, p. 344; Table, 22, p. 345

processes are not only put in place, but also adhered to. Furthermore, the significant indication from respondents of this particular need that guidance and clear directives from the DBE and government were not received, implied a certain deficiency in dealing with the management of school sport. Ultimately, one can say that the identified need for policies, structures, systems and processes is to a large extent also consistent with the importance assigned to the fundamental governance construct competencies by respondents (cf. par. 6.2.3.1, p. 376). The identified need for specialists in school sport management is also in accordance with the need identified by this research to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; 1.2.5, p. 10; 1.3.2, p. 12).

Apart from the two preceding needs expressed by respondents, a need was also indicated for training, resources and infrastructure (mean 3.33) and support (mean 3.28). The high positive mean score shows that respondents indicated these construct needs to a great extent (scale rating 4) and some extent (scale rating 3) and as such signifies the importance of these construct needs. Responses to the training, resources and infrastructure once more point to the desperate situation schools currently find themselves in, and the confidence among respondents to express their view. At the same time, a need was reported for practical guidance and support with regard to the provision of resources (financial, physical, human, information) as well as practical guides and standards and benchmarks to manage school sport; hence for the competency to manage school sport.

In conclusion it can be said that these needs are also consistent with the literature review that indicated that school sport managers should dispose of the competence to provide in the identified needs of learners and other stakeholders who participate in school sport (cf. par. 2.2.3, p. 31; Fig. 2, p. 36). Comparing these findings to other researchers' findings related to specific needs in school sport, Burnett (2007e:138-139;142-146); Burnett and Hollander (2007:131-133); Hollander (2007a:33-43) and Burnett (2010b:31-39) all report similar needs, in particular when seen against the background of poverty, crime and anti-social behaviour that is prevalent in many parts of South Africa. The impact of addressing those needs further support the notion that intervention is required to meaningfully contribute to skills development and grass roots empowerment to deliver a sustainable service and participation opportunities for wide-spread participation in school sport. At the same time it also highlights the need for practical guidance and the competency to manage school sport in a diversity of South African schools, with different needs, socio-economic status and

challenges. After a brief discussion of the respondents' views with regard to the different needs constructs, the focus will now move to a comparison of the needs constructs based on gender.

6.3.3.2 Responses of school sport managers' needs according to gender

Section D of the questionnaire aimed to obtain information about the extent of specific needs required by school sport managers specifically to manage school sport. To enable the researcher to develop a sport management programme for educator training, it was also necessary to distinguish between the difference in importance regarding needs of male and female school sport managers. The data are presented in Table 33 below.

Table 33: Comparison of school sport managers construct needs based on gender

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	MALE					
	Specialists needs	101	3.38	0.71	1.0	4.0
	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	102	3.34	0.70	1.0	4.0
	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	102	3.32	0.68	1.0	4.0
	Support needs	102	3.29	0.68	1.0	4.0
	FEMALE					
	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	76	3.35	0.75	1.0	4.0
	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	77	3.34	0.61	1.0	4.0
	Specialists needs	76	3.31	0.70	1.0	4.0
	Support needs	76	3.26	0.73	1.0	4.0

As can be seen from Table 33 no needs construct received a low mean from either male or female school sport managers. The mean value score ranged from 3.29 (support construct needs) to 3.38 (specialists needs) for males and 3.26 (support construct needs) to 3.35 (policy, structures, systems and processes needs) for female school sport managers. Both male and female respondents ranked the construct support needs as the least important need required to manage school sport, while male respondents ranked the specialist needs construct as the most important, and female respondents on the other hand considered the construct policy, structures, systems and processes needs need the most important. All and all it can thus be deduced that there are no significant differences between school sport managers, as the mean scores between them differed to a very small extent. The responses from both males and females to the identified construct needs nevertheless particularly highlighted the need for training of school sport managers and are

thus consistent with the aims of this research to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

The next section of this report discusses the comparison of respondents' conceptualisation of their specific needs in relation to their level of management (position) involved with at their current school.

6.3.3.3 Responses of school sport managers' needs according to management level (position held)

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the view of school sport managers regarding their specific needs to manage school sport, the same groups were used as was explained in par. 6.2.3.3 (cf. p. 386). This section therefore aims to determine whether there was a significant difference in the needs required to manage school sport as the level and complexity of management increases. The data are illustrated in Table 34 below (cf. p. 497).

Consistent with the findings of the preceding paragraphs, Table 34 clearly indicates that all construct needs have means ≥ 2.5. An analysis of the data revealed that both male and female coaches and school sport coordinators and principals have needs to some extent and to a great extent. Rather interestingly, both male coaches and sport coordinators to some extent or a great extent experienced the need for policy, structures, systems and processes as the most important, while both female coaches and principals to some extent or a great extent viewed the training, resources and infrastructure needs as the most important. Together with policy structures, systems and processes, school sport coordinators believed that specialists needs were also required to manage school sport successfully and efficiently. Furthermore, when interpreting Table 34, all four groups showed school sport managers to view these construct needs as important. It should nonetheless be pointed out that the mean score for all four construct needs for sport coordinators was higher than those of principals and the ranking subsequently also differed.

Table 34: Comparison of school sport managers construct needs based on management level

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	MALE COACH					
1	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	36	3.30	0.67	1.6	4.0
2	Specialists needs	36	3.29	0.72	1.0	4.0
3	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	36	3.18	0.76	1.0	4.0
4	Support needs	36	3.17	0.74	1.6	4.0
	FEMALE COACH					
	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	43	3.24	0.71	1.0	4.0
	Specialists needs	43	3.22	0.77	1.0	4.0
	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	43	3.20	0.87	1.0	4.0
	Support needs	43	3.18	0.76	1.0	4.0
	SPORT COORDINATOR					
1	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	51	3.52	0.59	1.0	4.0
2	Specialists needs	50	3.52	0.65	1.0	4.0
3	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	52	3.48	0.54	1.0	4.0
4	Support needs	51	3.39	0.66	1.0	4.0
	PRINCIPAL					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	28	3.43	0.59	2.1	4.0
2	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	28	3.38	0.67	2.0	4.0
3	Support needs	28	3.37	0.63	2.0	4.0
4	Specialists needs	28	3.34	0.62	2.5	4.0

In summary it can be said that Table 34 illustrates that overall, the importance of needs increases as the level and complexity of management increase. The responses for a need expressed for training, resources and infrastructure, specialists and support are significant, since it was determined in the literature study that training, resources and infrastructure as well as continuous support are important ways to increase the knowledge, skills, awareness and competencies of school sport managers to deal effectively with the management of school sport (cf. Ch. 3 and 4).

The responses from school sport managers in relation to different types of schools are presented and discussed in the following part of this chapter, in the last comparison with regard to needs of school sport managers:

6.3.3.4 Responses of school sport managers' needs according to type of school

The rationale for including a comparison of the needs of school sport managers based on type of school was to establish:

The extent of the significance of diverse needs in South African schools for the development of a sport management programme for educator training. In other words, would different needs of different kinds of schools impact on the developed programme. The data are presented in Tables 35, 36 and 37.

Table 35: Comparison of school sport managers construct needs in relation to type of school (primary, secondary, combined)

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	COMBINED SCHOOLS					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	5	3.72	0.35	3.3	4.0
2	Specialists needs	5	3.70	0.45	3.0	4.0
3	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	5	3.64	0.50	3.0	4.0
4	Support needs	5	3.60	0.55	3.0	4.0
	PRIMARY SCHOOLS					
1	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	7	3.49	0.75	2.0	4.0
2	Support needs	7	3.46	0.73	2.2	4.0
3	Specialists needs	7	3.43	0.73	2.5	4.0
4	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	7	3.40	0.70	2.1	4.0
	SECONDARY SCHOOLS					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	37	3.36	0.55	1.7	4.0
2	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	36	3.33	0.68	1.8	4.0
3	Support needs	36	3.31	0.66	1.6	4.0
3	Specialists needs	36	3.31	0.73	1.5	4.0

The results from Tables 35-37 clearly indicate that no low or negative mean score for the different construct needs was recorded. A high mean score was recorded for respondents from the three different groupings of schools (public and independent; combined, primary and secondary; and independent, public, combined, rural and township)[115] used to determine the effect of different schools on the perceived needs required to manage school sport. Only rural sport school sport managers yielded a relatively low mean score with regard to the construct specialists (mean 2.88)

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[115]For the determination of needs, the same groupings that were used with regard to the comparison of competencies

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and support needs (mean 2.85). It may be possible that respondents held the belief that these construct needs were not important as they already had support in the form of development programmes run by government, and the need for specialists was of little importance given the size of their school, the type of learner attracted to their school. It may also simple, because they could not afford the use of a specialist and were therefore more in need of training, resources and infrastructure as well as policy, structures, systems and processes related to the school first and foremost. It was nevertheless clear that the majority of the respondents were confident that all four need constructs were important, given the high mean score. Except for the two mentioned mean scores recorded by rural school sport managers, no mean score was below 3.0. It can be deduced from these responses that these construct needs reflected that respondents were to some and a great extent of the opinion that without these construct needs they would not be able to manage school sport effectively. It can be further inferred that the importance of the needs together with the identified construct competencies, show a clear correlation with the literature study and the identified need of this research to develop a school sport management programme for educator training. In conclusion, it should nonetheless be clearly stated that needs and competencies go hand in hand: the one is like the other and is supported by the use thereof. In other words, it is no use if a sport management programme is developed and the needs of school sport managers are not given the required attention and priority it demands.

Table 36: Comparison of school sport managers' construct needs in relation to type of school (public and independent)

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	PUBLIC SCHOOLS					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	45	3.39	0.57	1.7	4.0
2	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	44	3.34	0.68	1.8	4.0
4	Specialists needs	44	3.31	0.71	1.5	4.0
3	Support needs	44	3.30	0.65	1.6	4.0
	INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS					
1	Support needs	4	4.00	0.00	4.0	4.0
1	Specialists needs	4	4.00	0.00	4.0	4.0
3	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	4	3.85	0.19	3.6	4.0
4	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	4	3.52	0.47	2.9	4.0

Table 37: Comparison of school sport managers' construct need in relation to type of school (combined, independent, public, rural and township schools)

RANK	VARIABLE	N	MEAN	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
	COMBINED SCHOOLS					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	5	3.72	0.35	3.3	4.0
2	Specialists needs	5	3.70	0.45	3.0	4.0
3	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	5	3.64	0.50	3.0	4.0
4	Support needs	5	3.60	0.55	3.0	4.0
	INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS					
1	Support needs	4	4.00	0.00	4.0	4.0
1	Specialists needs	4	4.00	0.00	4.0	4.0
3	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	4	3.85	0.19	3.6	4.0
4	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	4	3.52	0.47	2.9	4.0
	PUBLIC SCHOOLS					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	31	3.40	0.48	2.1	4.0
2	Support needs	31	3.33	0.60	2.0	4.0
3	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	31	3.32	0.65	2.0	4.0
4	Specialists needs	31	3.29	0.67	2.0	4.0
	RURAL SCHOOLS					
1	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	5	3.21	0.81	1.9	4.0
2	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	4	3.15	1.00	1.8	4.0
3	Specialists needs	4	2.88	1.03	1.5	4.0
4	Support needs	4	2.85	0.72	1.8	3.4
	TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS					
1	Specialists needs	4	3.38	0.95	2.0	4.0
2	Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	4	3.30	0.90	2.0	4.0
3	Support needs	4	3.20	1.10	1.6	4.0
4	Training, resources and infrastructure needs	4	3.15	1.06	1.7	4.0

6.3.3.5 Synthesis

From the research findings, the different needs constructs were ranked according to their mean according to different groupings as indicated in Table 38 (cf. p. 502 below). A summary of these rankings based on mean scores indicates that overall, school sport managers believed that the construct policy, systems and processes shared with specialists need were the most sought after needs required by school sport managers. This was followed closely by training, resources and infrastructure and support (cf. par. 6.3.3.1, p. 493; Table 32, p. 493). When comparing the construct needs of male and female respondents, there was no significant difference (cf. par.

6.3.3.2, p. 495; Table 33, p. 495), while a comparison based on management level (position held) clearly illustrated that overall the importance of needs increases as the level and complexity of management increases (cf. par. 6.3.3.3, p. 496; Table 34, p. 497). Finally a comparison of the different schools' needs indicated that there was no significant difference in the mean score of the school sport managers and yielded an overall high mean score above 3.0 (some extent), with the exception of the support and specialist construct needs recorded by rural school sport managers. Differences were however, evident regarding the importance of the required need constructs. Training, resources and infrastructure were seen as the most important needs required by secondary, combined, public and rural schools' sport managers, while policy, structure, systems and processes needs were of more significance to primary and township schools' sport managers. Township schools' sport managers were of the opinion that support was equally important, together with policy, structure, systems and processes. Independent schools' sport managers, on the other hand, believed that the construct support and specialists needs were of equal importance.

The statistics with regard to needs required to manage school sport closely resemble the statistics regarding the most important needs that respondents from the qualitative data feel are required to manage school sport (cf. par. 6.2.7, p. 408). In terms of these needs, respondents viewed policy, systems and processes, a specialist school sport manager responsible for only for sport and not involved in academic teaching at all, training, resources (physical, financial, human and information) infrastructure and support all as important needs required by school sport managers to manage school sport effectively. Therefore, in order to develop a sport management programme for educator training in the unique, diverse South African context, it is imperative to take cognisance of the different responses regarding the different groupings of respondents, in relation to the rank assigned to the different needs. This comparison is presented in Table 38.

Table 38: Summary of ranking of importance by different groups of school sport managers with regard to the different construct needs required to manage school sport[116]

NEEDS	SM	GENDER		MANAGEMENT LEVEL				TYPE OF SCHOOL						
	A	M	F	MC	FC	SD	PR	PRIM	SEC	COMB	IND	PUB	T	R
Training, resources and infrastructure needs	3	3	2	3	1	3	1	4	1	1	4	1	3	1
Policy, structures, systems and processes needs	1	2	1	1	3	1	2	1	2	3	3	2	1	2
Support needs	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	2	3	4	1	3	1	3
Specialists needs	1	1	1	2	2	1	4	3	4	2	1	4	4	4

[116]For the mean scores of the construct competencies also refer to Tables 32-37. Also see par. Table 22, 345; par. 5.9.4.2, p. 345 for the different question items included or related to each construct competency. Also see Questionnaire, Annexure D, on CD

6.3.4 Conclusion: descriptive statistics

The quantitative data gathered by the questionnaire were presented and analysed in the previous sections according to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). The responses that recorded high (≥ 2.51) and low (≤ 2.50) means (cf. par. 6.3.3.1-6.3.3.4, pp. 492-499) were considered as specific values of references or markers for interpretation. In order to get an overview of the most outstanding responses, this section concluded with a comparison of the responses that obtained the 11 highest and four lowest means for different groupings of relevance to this research and a summary of responses, ranked from the most important to the least important based on their mean score for different groupings of relevance to this research. The comparison and summary of the different groups of relevance to this research was done for both competencies and needs required to manage school sport in the unique, varied, diverse and politicised South African context. Based on the preceding discussions and data presented, it can be confirmed that the views and opinions expressed by respondents are indeed specific values of reference or markers for interpretation and as such provide support and evidence for the aim this report to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. In brief, the views of respondents obtained from the qualitative (cf. par. 6.2.3, p. 372) and quantitative data (cf. par. 6.3, p. 432) and the composition of the study population as described by the biographical and demographical data (cf. par. 6.3.1.1, p. 433; 6.3.1.2, p. 444) enabled the researcher to develop sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools as was stated in par.1.3.2 (cf. p. 12, research aim 5). The development of a sport management programme for educator training is dealt with in detail in Chapter Seven.

6.4   SYNOPSIS

To be able to determine the needs and competencies required by educators to manage school school sport effectively, a semi-structured interview was conducted and based on the results, the literature study and theoretical framework, a questionnaire was compiled. In this chapter, the qualitative and quantitative data from the empirical section according to the mixed methods research model (cf. par. 5.7.4.3, p. 326) were presented, analysed and interpreted. The data from the quantitative and qualitative methods were connected in the empirical section to obtain comprehensive data in accordance with the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). The literature study, with particular reference to the theoretical framework (cf. par. 4.8, p. 283; Fig. 15, p. 289),

together with the comprehensive, connected data was used as a platform (foundation) for the development of a sport management programme for educator training.

In summary, the data from the qualitative and quantitative sections provided information about the respondents' understanding of school sport management as well as their views and experiences about the sport management competencies and needs required to manage school sport that were in relation to the research aims (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12). No significant differences were found between the different categories or identified groups of school sport managers regarding the construct competencies and needs required to manage school sport effectively in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Subsequently these results indicated that one set of guidelines can be set for the training of school sport managers as part of their educator training, while the process of connecting the qualitative and quantitative data, in alignment with the literature study and theoretical framework contributed to the development of a sport management programme for educator training. In Chapter Seven, informed by the findings from the empirical section, a sport management programme for educator training, is presented and guidelines for a sport management programme for educator training is proposed, after the programme design process development process structure has been discussed.