

CHAPTER 3: SPORT MANAGEMENT TRAINING FOR EDUCATORS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the Twenty-first Century, in a world arena marked by fast and dramatic development and changes on all terrains, it is inevitable that these developments would impact the role and the required skills, behaviour, attitudes and competencies of the contemporary school sport manager, especially when considering the diversity within different South African schools. These changes are - amongst others - necessitated by the transformation and movement within the South African educational landscape (Mentz, 2003:53; Coleman & Glover, 2010:13; November *et al.*, 2010:786-788) and will undoubtedly impact on the required roles of the contemporary school sport manager. Other changes, including changing labour forces, technologies, and environmental factors, have made organisational change and development a critical factor towards realising effectiveness (Cunningham, 2006:253). The proliferation of change in all aspects of work has led to the intensive study of this topic, within and outside the sport context, as well as increasing awareness of the need to manage or run a school as a business or enterprise. The general perception of schools being viewed as such requires closer examination, since it implies that consistent pressure is exerted on school sport managers to perform several functions that are critical to the overall success of the school. As a result thereof, school sport managers are expected to develop more business and enterprise related competencies.

In recent years considerable attention in research has been given to the competencies of sport managers both abroad and in South Africa. Research on international level includes, amongst others, that of Parkhouse and Ulrich (1979:218); Medalha (1982); Montour (1982); Ulrich and Parkhouse (1979; 1982); Paris and Zeigler (1983); Ellard (1984); Parks and Quain (1986); Lambrecht (1987; 1991); Brassie (1989a; 1989b); Kjeldsen (1990; 1992); Cuneen (1992); Baker *et al.* (1993); Chen (1993); Cheng (1993), Quarterman (1994; 1998); Kikulus *et al.* (1995); Doherty and Danylchuk (1996); Toh (1997); Danylchuk and Chelladurai (1999); Ammon (2000); Li *et al.* (2002); Horch and Schutte (2003); Skinner *et al.* (2004); Quarterman *et al.* (2005).⁴⁵ Well-known exponents like Jamieson, Jennings, Parkhouse, Zeigler, Olafson, Parks, Pitts, Paton, Zakrajsek, Schneider and Stier published divergent research findings about competencies of sport managers and the study of sport management within the United States of America. Related research on a local level includes the work of Gouws (1993; 1994); Hollander (2000); De Villiers (2003); Hollander

⁴⁵Although it is not the intention of the researcher to map the field, various older references are used to indicate the development of a specific topic or field of study and also the importance thereof in the context of the study. In a number of instances, old sources are deemed the original source and was quoted or used by subsequent newer experts in a specific field or topic

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et al. (2007); Bloemhof (2008) and Burger *et al.* (2008). Most studies conducted abroad focused on the competencies of sport managers in clubs and federations, volunteer workers, intercollegiate and interuniversity athletics directors, the managerial roles of sport managers and proposed curricula for the training and development of industry related sport managers. However, there is a vacuum in the South African sport management literature regarding school sport management and competencies of sport managers. What is especially lacking is a scientific description of the competencies and requirements for the training of school sport managers tasked with providing school sport and school physical activity programmes.

Gerber (2000:6, 127,128); Buitendach and De Witte (2005:27); Burger and Goslin (2005:1-2; 11) and also Bloemhof (2008:282-283; 295-296) say school sport managers are currently going through a learning curve. This is brought about by increased media exposure that has compelled schools to seek and adopt a professional approach towards competitive school sport in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. Although independent (private) schools are relatively more affluent than public schools, the latter, in particular ex-model C schools, have in the past ten years entered the competitive sport arena by utilizing sport as a means for generating revenue through events, attracting sponsorships and marketing the school through the achievements of athletes and sport teams (Hollander, 2000:46; David, 2005:126; 2008:110-125). For the sake of sustainability, this state of affairs not only requires specially trained personnel in the field of sport management (Terblanche & Malan, 2002:114; Woolf, 2008:52; Ferkins *et al.*, 2009:245), but also implies that school sport is a business. It can be thus be derived that the role, responsibilities, skills, behaviour, attitudes and competencies of the school sport manager bear relation to that of the manager of a small business.

The fast changing world requires a significant change in the view, approach and perspective of management (Corlett, 1997:250; 254-255; Mullins, 2005:66; Hitt *et al.*, 2007:18; Bagley, 2008:378; Birkinshaw *et al.*, 2008:826; Cunningham, 2009:409; 421; Ferkins *et al.*, 2009:248; Hitt *et al.*, 2009:18; 34-36; Louw, 2010:15; Hitt *et al.*, 2011:8-16). Subsequently, in the context of the professionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) and commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90) of sport, unique demands for purposeful management effort are made on the school sport manager. These need to be executed in close in collaboration with the principal and their top management in order to adapt to the inherent change and effectively manage sport in schools. More and more sport managers are therefore beginning to realise the value of a future-directed and evidence-based approach.

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Reconditioning or renewal is regarded as a challenge to improvement (Amis *et al.*, 2004a:15-19; 2004b:158-160; Roberts, 2006:685-687; Birkinshaw *et al.*, 2008:825-831). If a school does not adapt to its ever changing environment, it is in danger of not providing a service that can enable learners to develop in a self-reliant and holistic way. The existing vacuum in South African sport management literature regarding the field of study of school sport management and competencies of sport managers, specifically a scientific description of the competencies and requirements for the training of school sport managers for the provision of school sport and school physical activity programme, needs to be addressed (cf. par. 1.2.2, p. 5).

After the various sectors in the sport industry and specialist school sport management competencies have been identified and briefly described in Chapter Two (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98), the question of the management training specifically required for the school sport manager arises. In other words: What are the management competencies required from the school sport manager, specifically in the broad context of the sport industry in a diversity of schools in the South African education system? In addition the question of the structure of the sport enterprise arises in order to determine what defines the sport enterprise as an enterprise.

In order to understand sport as an enterprise, it is of the utmost importance to be mindful of the fact that sport and specifically school sport can only in its structured form as an enterprise, either amateur or professional, be seen as such (Thibault *et al.*, 1994:218; Sander, 2008:AI; Burnett, 2010d:1,2; 2010a:13; Eckard, 2010:45). To describe sport as an enterprise in essence, it is necessary that the role, responsibilities skills, behaviour, attitudes and competencies concerning the management of school sport and school sport related activities and programmes have to be understood in the context of the whole (Acosta Hernandez, 2002:4, 158), and even more so against the backdrop of a lack of qualified school sport managers and PE specialists (Singh & Surujlal, 2010:108, 118).

Inglis and Maclean (2005:15) maintain that the management of sport is full of complexities and presents various challenges to the sport manager. A better insight into the managerial competencies and requirements of the school sport manager can therefore possibly be included in a content framework for the orientation training of the school sport manager. Applying this would offer the possibility to create a framework through which further research can be undertaken in order to define the South African requirements in the context of the problem and goal of the studies. For this purpose school sport as an enterprise should be explored in more detail.

3.2 SCHOOL SPORT AS AN ENTERPRISE

3.2.1 Introduction

Organisations, especially business organisations, have been part of societies for many centuries. More than ever before, modern society depends on business organisations to meet the changing needs of all its members. All these organisations, whether private or state, large or small, profit-seeking or non-profit, provide in the complex needs of society. As diverse as these organisations are, they all strive to achieve their unique mission and goals by applying the same or equally successful management principles to ensure sustainability as an enterprise or business. For the sake of this study, the focus is on school sport as an enterprise and the utilisation of scarce resources within society to provide the best possible service and/or product to the community.

In Chapter Two it became clear that during the nineteenth and early twentieth century sport became institutionalised (cf. par. 2.4.2, p. 79). This phenomenon caused sport and sport related activities such as amateur, professional and recreational sport as well as other leisure-time activities, to be organised into communally organised structures. Of course, school sport has also become structured accordingly and in view of the communally organised structures and phenomenon referred to previously, the complexities and goals of the concerned groupings can be managed more effectively. However, school sport management is still in its infancy. Where the structures were initially placed in the context of amateur sport, the creation of professional sport and sport-related activities and programmes increased the need for professional management not only of the sport organisations and sport enterprises (Koski, 1998:23), but recently also of school sport, as was continuously noted and outlined already in previous paragraphs. The objectives and goals of sport organisations and enterprises (inclusive of school sport) have become increasingly complex and the need for structured management has become increasingly essential.

More than a decade ago an editor for the magazine *Financial World*, rightly observed:

“Sport is not simply another big business. It is one of the fastest growing industries in the USA, and it is intertwined with virtually every aspect of the economy... [Sports are] everywhere, accompanied by the sound of a cash register ringing incessantly” (Ozanian, 1995:30).

From this one can clearly deduce that sport as a fast growing industry and enterprise is all around us, influencing all spheres of life, intent on increasing the wealth of all involved. This is a universal principle still applicable in contemporary society on a global scale and subsequently also to South Africa. Commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90) has further increased the value of sport to

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economy. Market forces manifest in school sport and athletes are seen as popular, marketable commodities (Klein & Jones, 2001:29) which can be used to offer economically influential people the opportunity to cement their societal position and to increase the market value of schools. All of this despite widespread concern that these practices border on child labour and trade (Jansen, 2011:5). For the sake of sustainability, this state of affairs requires specially trained personnel in the field of sport management (Terblanche & Malan, 2002:114; Woolf, 2008:52; Ferkins *et al.*, 2009:245). There is also a growing concern that school sport managers have yet to adopt the correct approach to school sport. As a result of the current state of affairs in school sport (cf. par. 1.2.4, p. 9; 3.2.1, p. 117), the school sport manager should adopt a more professional approach towards school sport in the diverse South African school context. This needs to happen concurrently with yet separate from offering opportunities for mass participation, since managing school sport as a business, enterprise or organisation has become the order of the day.

When the increase in the need for management is called to the attention of the sport enterprises, the question that arises is: What constitutes a sport enterprise? What are the characteristics needed in a sport enterprise in order to be classed as an enterprise. In this regard, various authors agree that an enterprise has different characteristics which justify the classification of various organisations and institutions as an enterprise. Du Toit, Erasmus and Strydom (2010:3) indicate that an enterprise in South Africa can be defined as an institution of mixed capitalistic (mixed market) nature that generates a profit by satisfying the numerous needs of the community. This requires an entrepreneur (school sport manager) to use resources such as people with specific skills, abilities, etc. (human resources), money (capital or financial resources), raw materials (physical resources) and knowledge (information resources) in various processes and apply them to the enterprise. This then leads to output in the form of products, services or social contributions that are delivered to the society or community. Through this there is not only an attempt to satisfy the needs of the society, but also to make a contribution to the society. Du Toit *et al.* (2010:3) provide a detailed definition of an enterprise, and Marx *et al.* (1998:17) point out the importance of an enterprise to accept all the risks attached to its activities (fire, theft, injuries and so forth). Bovee *et al.* (2007:32) emphasise both the opportunities a mixed economy offers for wealth creation and the element of risk attached in relation to the potential reward.

Apart from the attempts of Marx *et al.* (1998); Bovee *et al.* (2007) and Du Toit *et al.* (2010) to describe an enterprise, other authors like Basson *et al.* (1990); Kotter (1990); Roberts and Grabowski (1999); Acosta Hernandez (2002); Bush (2003); Bush and Coleman (2003); Hannay (2003); Morley and Hosking (2003); Cameron and Green (2004); Oplatka (2004); Bergknapp

(2005); Caselli (2005); Dym and Hutson (2005); Harrison (2005); Urban (2005); Slack and Parent (2006); Theron (1992; 2007); Hoy and Miskel (2008) as well as Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012) have all written extensively on the nature of an enterprise and express divergent opinions about what constitutes an enterprise, and the characteristics of an enterprise. However, it is important to establish precisely what an enterprise is. The researcher should thereafter be able to discuss school sport as an enterprise.

3.2.1.1 What is an enterprise?

Du Toit *et al.* (2010:1, 6, 27) describe the business enterprise as an institution in the capitalistic order which, in pursuit of a profit, tries to provide in the multiple needs of the community. They also emphasise the importance of the environment and point out that the enterprise and the environment in which it exists are interdependent for their survival. The enterprise receives input from the environment in the form of resources processed by the enterprise. This process, especially in the management of sport and sport related activities and programmes, includes the total management process. Services are marketed, human resources trained, financing is obtained, good leadership ensures quality service and good control ensures that the needs of the client are satisfied.

In the case of a sport enterprise or an enterprise that manufactures sport-related products, capital input like sponsorships or direct capital, is procured from the community in order to provide sport participation and recreation as a service to the community through the means of managerial and other processes (Copeland *et al.*, 1996:35). Human resources are obtained from the community in the form of coaches, events and facilities managers, school sport managers, referees and also financial experts (Morrow & Chelladurai, 1992:136-138). As a consideration the community in turn receives sport and sport-related services or products made available for consumption.

Chelladurai (2005:63-68); Thibault and Quarterman (2007:215), Hellriegel *et al.* (2008:6); Stier (2008:33) and David (2011:125) clearly state that different enterprises occur in society, including, but not limited to, sport stores, which market and sell sport-related goods. State enterprises and local authorities also offer sport and recreational services to the community, while semi-state enterprises, as for example universities, colleges and schools, offer sport participation to the students as service. Lastly, non-profit sport enterprises like sport clubs offer sport participation as a service to members (De Sensi *et al.*, 1990:33). These institutions and enterprises have mainly come into existence because of the needs of the society for a variety of related products, including outdoor adventure camps, hiking tours and health and fitness programmes, to name but a few.

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Compared to other areas of social life and leisure activities like art, culture and/or charity, sport as a sub system of society has rather well-observable contours due to a high degree of external and internal organisation all associated with formalised structures (Kurscheidt *et al.*, 2003:5). Moreover, rules, norms, performance, excitement, play and competition are key issues and principles throughout the sport system, even less formal sporting activity, and thereby engender quite homogeneous system typical mechanisms of socioeconomic transaction. Over the past three decades, sport has globally seen a significant structural shift towards economic logic by fast commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90) and professionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82). Increasingly, government and non-profit structures are thus supplemented or replaced by for-profit enterprises, in particular in Europe where the public portion of the sport system is traditionally higher than in America (Kurscheidt *et al.*, 2003:5). By its very characteristics and present state of evolution, sport is an inherently interdisciplinary object of investigation, therefore equally interesting for social and economic analysis and even exhibits an increasing overlap of both spheres, while still generating considerable social benefits. Herein lays the inherent interdependency of the sport enterprise on the environment in which it finds itself.

The enterprise and the environment in which it finds itself are interdependent for their mutual continued existence. Together they form a complex, dynamic business environment in which change continuously determines the success and failure of an enterprise (Krotee & Bucher, 2007:4-6; Palmer & Hartley, 2009:4-7; Worthington & Britton, 2009:4-6). Because these variables more often than not cannot be controlled by management, according to Oliver and Britain (2001:409-411), it is the responsibility of the management team to ensure that an enterprise adapts to changes by means of pro-active action. Knowledge of the continuously changing environment is therefore a prerequisite to utilise opportunities and offer resistance to potential threats.

When modern sport and recreational enterprises are measured against the above-mentioned expectations in an enterprise, one has to conclude that sport and recreational enterprises also include the above aspects. Whether they are managed effectively at present, is an open question.

If one therefore wants to find an answer to the question whether school sport may be regarded as an enterprise, one has to measure school sport against the following background expressed in answers to these questions:

- Does school sport offer a product or service?
- Does school sport comprise different environments?

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- Are there set processes to be followed and adhered to?
- Should different functions be performed?
- Are goals and objectives established or set?

In relation to the current study, when seen in the context of the preceding paragraphs and measured against the various descriptions of an enterprise, organisation or business, as well as answers to the questions, school sport can most definitely be regarded as an enterprise. This finding correlates with the view of and both empirical findings and evidence in a study by Baker (1991:33); Gerber (2000:127, 128) and more recently a study conducted by Breed (2008:5,34,86,123,171). In schools, sport (Parks *et al.*, 2007a:11) becomes a service offered through which opportunities for participation in sport and sport related programmes and activities are created (cf. par. 2.2.3, p. 31; Fig. 2, p. 36). In order to create opportunities for participation, the top management of a school and the school sport manager should work together to achieve the set goals and objectives of the school. Schools could also make use of facilities and structure activities like events and games (Li *et al.*, 2001:7; Eschenfelder & Li, 2007:18) to ensure participation. The purpose or intent is not profit, but service.

From the preceding paragraphs it is clear that school sport as an enterprise (organisation or business) is regarded as an institution of the mixed market economy system, which offers a service in order to satisfy various and numerous needs of the community. This is done by taking certain inputs from the environment (like capital) with a view to deliver certain outputs (like products, services or social contributions) to the society or community. Inevitably, based on what was said earlier, one has to further assume that an enterprise does not exist in a vacuum and enterprises and institutions, as for instance a school, come into existence because of the needs of the society for certain products and services. Coupled with that, one can come to the conclusion that school sport as an enterprise also presupposes an interrelationship and interdependency between the school and society. This aspect will become clearer in the next paragraphs.

No enterprise exists in a vacuum, and a crucial aspect of understanding the business environment lies in understanding the networks of formal and informal relationships that exist between an enterprise and its various stakeholders. The further interdependency between the enterprise and the society becomes clear when the enterprise takes inputs from the environment, while the needs of the environment are in turn met by the enterprise. This interdependency can be seen as an *interaction* between the enterprise and the society with multifarious stakeholders. When inputs from the environment are adapted into a product, a service or a social contribution, it should not

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only be seen as a physical adaptation or transformation of the inputs, but the total managerial process should also be included. Any product that is manufactured should be marketed and personnel should be appointed and trained while finances should be obtained in order to purchase the raw materials and machinery for the production-process.

From the above it is clear that enterprises, including sport enterprises, are dependent on the environment in which they find themselves for continued existence. No sport enterprise will continue to exist if the society does not have a need for the products or the services provided by an enterprise. The interdependency between sport enterprises and the environment means that the enterprise is continuously exposed to the changes in the environment (Koski, 1998:8-11). A change in the environment in turn implies that it will have an impact on the functioning of the enterprise.

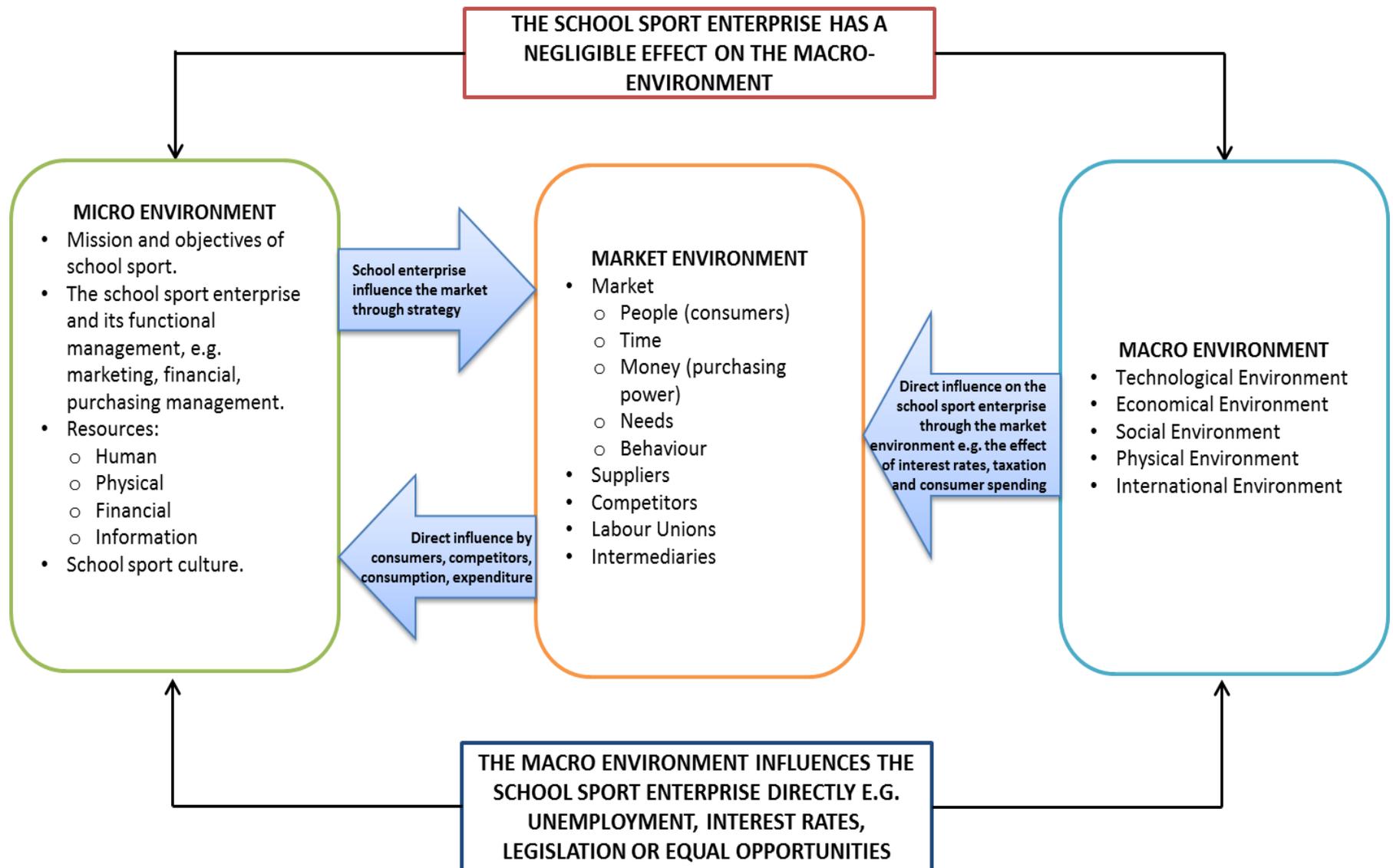
Effective management entails amongst others the identification of and analysis or scanning of environmental influences (Hunsaker, 2005:164) on sport participation. Hence, when the environment of school sport as an enterprise is studied, three different environments, namely the macro-, micro- and the market environments can be identified (Hollander, 2000:81; Chelladurai, 2005:63-68; Steyn, 2007:12-23). Each of these environments presupposes a defined area within which school sport as an enterprise can function, and they are not only in frequent interaction with one another, but also have a direct influence on the functioning of the sport enterprise (Dess *et al.*, 2008:50). Naturally the three environments with related influences on each other have consequences and implications for the management of school sport. In Figure 8 (cf. p. 124) the three environments, with related influences on each other is shown. It is also necessary to focus on the fact that the environment of the sport enterprise is as complex as the environments of other enterprises. The business environment of the school sport enterprise in its most general sense can be described as everything that surrounds a system (Palmer & Hartley, 2009:4). The business environment of the school sport enterprise includes all the variables (internal and external) which influence the successful management of school sport. Understanding the multifaceted environment and its effects on the operations of the school sport enterprise is of vital importance to the study and practice of business in the context of the undertaken study. Subsequently, the interrelationship between the environments of the sport enterprise will now be examined.

3.2.2 Interrelationship between the sport enterprise's environments

In the process of transforming inputs into output, the school operate in a multifaceted environment which affects and is affected by their activities. This environment of the school can be further

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subdivided into the macro-, market- and micro-environment which tend to be not only complex and volatile, but also comprises influences which are of both a general and immediate kind and which operate at different spatial levels. Each of the environments thus influence and play a determining role in the continued existence of the school that primarily exist in the sport education sector of the sport industry (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98) in relation to the undertaken study. For all that, the school and the community where in it finds himself, is not a self-sustaining and closed entity, but are mutually independent. Together they form a dynamic and complex environment where continuous change ultimately not only determines the weal and woe of sport, but also the continued existence of school sport (cf. Figure 8, p. 124).



Adapted from Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:106 Smit *et al.*, 2011:65

Figure 8: Composition of the School Sport Enterprise

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Because the environmental variables (macro and market) cannot be controlled by the school and an understanding of the environments and its effects on business operations is of vital importance to the study and practice of business, it is the responsibility of the school sport manager, more than ever before in contemporary society of the twenty first century, to give serious thought to the environments in which they work and to adapt to change. This means that the school sport manager should continuously be involved in the analysis and understanding of the various social and other forces that impinge on the leader and the organisation like a school being managed, adapting to change by means of effective management. The school sport manager cannot simply forget that there are human beings at the very core of the managerial process, people whose purposeful behaviour can bring about the goal realisation of the entire organisation, often the result of change. Subsequently, it requires the school sport manager to act pro-actively sometimes and look ahead into the future to predict, fore see and take into account possible changes that could influence the operation of the school. Hence, knowledge of the continuously and ever changing environment by means of sustained environmental scanning and reconnaissance can be regarded as a pre requisite to utilise opportunities and make head against possible threats. So, a change on the terrain of technology like the Internet, presents the school sport manager an opportunity to obtain information about the latest and newest coaching methods, techniques and trends. This together with a periodical identification and analysis of possible strengths and weaknesses of the school's sport and related products, programmes and services should ultimately ensure and enhance both the effective functioning and existence thereof. Neglect to do precisely this, could on the other hand, counteract the continued existence and success of the school. Together with the interdependency and mutual influence of variables from different systems of the school environment, the variables of the different systems are frequently busy to influence the functioning of sport in schools to reach the set vision, mission, goals and objectives.

Further, each person in the school, and each individual outside the school with whom the school sport manager makes contact, is inescapably unique and possesses many and varied interests. Additionally, human nature being what it is, conflict is inevitable as all the participants function and interact in the immediate (internal or micro) and external environments. Such a conflict phenomenon exists because people by their very nature exhibit behaviour that is often characterised by a lack of rationality.

Summing up, the school sport manager should prepare him/herself for changes in the environment by scanning the environment, through strategic response such as a change in strategy, or by restructuring in order to become more flexible and adaptable. This could mean amongst other the

following: (i) the school sport manager should plan to assist the larger community (market environment) by assuming some direct responsibility for society's welfare over and above his/her own immediate professional task; (ii) the market environment relates to the still broader social environment of an educational institution like a school typically functions; (iii) the school sport manager should create an awareness of Tofler's (1970) concept of future shock - our collision with the future-that everyone needs to understand as thoroughly as possible; and (iv) the school sport manager should be clear, precise and concise in what they say and do. In relation to the development of a sport management programme can it thus be stated that it is necessary for the school sport manager to be able to manage strategically implicating amongst other the ability to understand the influence of variables in different environments (macro, market and micro) and to conduct a SWOT analysis⁴⁶ which ultimately enhance or counter the existence of the school.

After the characteristics of school sport as an enterprise - as it manifests in society have been described, it is necessary to focus on managerial capabilities and competencies of the school sport manager. The development of management theories on closer inspection turns out to be a further perspective through which the description and delineation of the current role of the school sport manager within the educational system in a diversity of South African schools can be described and delineated. In this way, a contribution can be made to determine the needs and competencies required by educators to manage school sport effectively according to the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4). This could pave the way for the researcher to develop a sport management training programme for school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 5; Table 33, p. 495). In order to do this, it is essential initially to obtain a better understanding of the nature of management.

3.3 THE NATURE (ESSENCE) OF MANAGEMENT

Based on evidence provided in studies by Extejt and Smith (1990) and Johnson and Podsakoff (1994), Kreitner (2009:34) comes to the conclusion that so much information on management theory and practice exists today that it is difficult, if not impossible to keep abreast of all of it. Although Williams (2011:20) concurs with the view of Kreitner (2009:33), when he too acknowledges the relative newness of the study of management, he observed that the seeds of many of today's management ideas is found throughout history.

⁴⁶ For purposes of this study a SWOT analysis refer to the analysis and identification of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

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When reflecting on the systemic change in the nature of work and organisations, it is the belief of Williams (2011:20) that it was not until the last two centuries that systematic change in the nature of work and organisation created a compelling need for managers, implicating the need to study management as an area of academic interest and study. In this regard Kreitner's (2009:33) opinion that management as an area of academic study is essentially a product of the twentieth century is well and ably supported by scholars like Trinkaus (1992:25) and Van Fleet and Wren (2005:44) who maintain that only three universities in the USA, viz Pennsylvania, Chicago and California offered business management before 1900. Yet, despite the continuous change, proliferation and profusion of management as a field of study, management has been practised a long time (Roth, 2000:1; Dixon, 2003b:4; Daft & Marcic, 2009:30; Robbins *et al.*, 2011:49; Schermerhorn, 2011:30; Schermerhorn, 2012:32; Robbins *et al.*, 2013:43). Put more simply, examples of management thought and practice can be found throughout history, and can be traced back to ancient civilisation. As for example, in 5000B.C. in an early instance of managing information, which is part of the control function, Sumerian priests developed a formal system of writing (scripts) that allowed them to record, and keep track of the goods, flocks and herds of animals, coins, lands and buildings that were contributed to their temples, while a thousand years after the Sumerians, the Egyptians recognised the need to make plans, obtain and mobilize human and material resources, co-ordinate interdependent jobs, keep records, submit written requests, report their progress, consult staff for advice before making decisions and take corrective action as needed.

Another important event that marked the development of management theory was the industrial revolution in the 1700s. The industrial changes it brought about, helped management theory develop and by the turn of the twentieth century, management was on a "*rapid and continuing path of development*" (Schermerhorn, 2011:30; 2012:32). Even the planning and the management of sport and sport related activities is certainly not a new phenomenon (Parks & Zanger, 1990:7) and are found in epic poems like the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* (Swanson & Spears, 1995:343) and earlier efforts by the ancient Greeks to stage athletic festivals and competitions as early as 776 B.C (Stier, 2008:12; Mechikoff, 2010:69). To recap, organised endeavours directed by people responsible for planning, organising, leading and controlling activities have existed for thousands of years. Regardless though of what these activities or individuals were called, or how crude the management techniques by modern standards were, someone had to perform those functions, facing problems that are still around today.

Turning the focus more pertinent to contemporary society and in relation to the undertaken study, scholars like De Villiers and Crous (1998:353); Slack (2000:48); Steyn (2002:251); Bush and

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Thurwill (2003:vii); Thurwill *et al.* (2003:191); Botha (2004:239); Parker (2004:214); Hunsaker (2005:5-6); Torkildsen (2005:369-370); Van Niekerk and Van Niekerk (2006:86); Amis and Slack (2008:349, 354, 367); Hannagan (2008:9, 702); Stier (2008:8); Ghillyer (2009:30); Jones and Hill (2009:14); Kinicki and Kreitner (2009:7) and Louw (2010:6) all maintain that it is the normal inclination that efforts, time attention, involvement and commitment of management are focused and directed on yesterday's problems first and foremost rather than on tomorrow's opportunities. Yet, too often still schools during their planning make use of concepts and techniques based on and developed during an epoch when the past could easily be projected in the future, and in so doing ignoring the value of an increasing recognition that effective leadership and management (strategic) are vital if schools are to be successful in providing good learning opportunities for learners (Van Tonder, 2004:6-8; Lombard & Grosser, 2008:561; Van der Mescht & Tyala, 2008:224; Mncube, 2009:85; Bush *et al.*, 2011:31-33;38). There is also emerging evidence that high quality leadership makes a significant difference to school improvement, learning outcomes, achievements and results of schools on all levels. Management teams often also make the mistake to concentrate only on distinct components, sections, divisions and smaller detail, instead of on sport in the school in totality (Slack, 2000:48-50).

By implication, concentrating on school sport in totality thus indicates a more philosophical approach to managerial thought and in particular the management of school sport. Stier (2008:91) elaborates on this philosophical approach to management thought as a modern phenomenon, which gradually evolved and represents a significant distancing from earlier mechanistic thinking associated with the management of school sport. In addition, Stier (2008:91) is further of the opinion that on the one hand, the realm of values and value judgements play an important role in contemporary management and management thought of school sport, while on the other hand, a great deal of emphasis is placed on group dynamics and the social dimension of groups in school sport. Subsequently, the researcher concurs with the view of Stier (2008:91) and also authors such as MacMillan and Tampoe (2000:21-22); Mentz (2003:11); Van Niekerk and Van Niekerk (2006:84,98); Parks *et al.* (2007a:325-327); Rossouw *et al.* (2007:1); Hambrick and Chen (2008:40); Dyck and Neubert (2009:259-260); Bamford and West (2010:5-9); Ehlers and Lazenby (2010:1) together with Volberda *et al.* (2011:6-15) whom all stipulate that the time has come that only those who pro actively strategically manage sport in schools, will succeed to address the demands of actual change effectively. Most definitely this view also holds sway in a diversity of South African schools.

Although the notion of strategic management is entirely new to most South African schools according to Thurlow (2003:189-191), the management of sport and by implication strategic

management of school sport is neither a new phenomenon (Stier, 2008:12), nor is management a twentieth century concept (Stier, 2008:84). As a result then of the foregoing stipulation and views expressed in this paragraph by various authors and scholars, the school sport manager performs a key role in the management of school sport. Even the more so where it seems that schools in South Africa are in a time of crisis and leaders with a long-term perspective are required in the present circumstances. Hence the school sport manager should master different models and methods to manage school sport successfully amidst continuous change (Birchall, 2004:180-192). This would necessarily require insight and knowledge of the origin of management and the different management models. Through knowledge and insight of the origin of management and the different management models a perspective could be obtained of both the field and schools of management thought or perspectives. This in turn would enable the researcher to infer a management model for school sport specifically (cf. par. 3.6.8.1, p. 191; Fig. 11, p. 196). Ultimately, the proposed school sport management model, can be used to give direction to the dissemination of competencies identified earlier needed by the school sport manager to be successful.

3.3.1 Major schools of management thought

Various persons have in the past already attempted to describe not only the concept (management), but also the evolution thereof (Hersey *et al.*, 2008:1,2,5; DuBrin, 2009:21; Robbins *et al.*, 2011:32). Management is, however, a key element of any sport and sport related activities programme and should be based on sound principles during the implementation and use thereof in order to be effective and meaningful. It is very clear from the literature that the concept management have its roots, evolution and philosophies firmly established in the history of the past and theoretical points of departure or views. As such, Kreitner (2009:34) emphatically states that no universally accepted theory of management exist, while Kinicki and Williams (2009:41) describe two overarching perspectives or theoretical points of departure about management to which the concept management is not only exposed, but also shapes the understanding of management theory and practice. Be that as it may, but the school of management thought or management approaches become apparent when the practical experience of researchers and scholars are historically researched. Through this the researcher endeavours to provide a better understanding of the present development of management and guide to action, a source of new ideas, clues to the school sport managers' decisions as well clues to the meaning of outside events. It is thus envisaged that a merger of the schools of management thought could offer a complete view or total image of management theories and perspectives as they are embraced in contemporary society today. Put simply, management history could help one to understand the actions and decisions

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taken by today's school sport managers and what they do, amidst current and new developments and to avoid repeating mistakes of the past. In conclusion, with reference the foregoing, one is inclined to agree with the view of Kinicki and Williams (2009:40) when they expressed the hope that managers should adopt the approach of learning to make managerial decisions based on evidence, hence avoiding the mistakes of the past. Applied to the management of school sport, the researcher would thus share a similar view as Kinicki and Williams (2009:40), proposing that school sport managers should have a thorough knowledge of the history of management as well as the essence and nature thereof, seen from different perspectives or schools of thought.

The nature and essence of management can be seen from a phenomenological perspective on the basis of various schools of thought or perspectives. To this end, Kinicki and Williams (2009:41) describe two overarching perspectives about management, namely a historical and a contemporary perspective. Examples of a **historical perspective** include three viewpoints-classical, behavioural and quantitative. Examples of a **contemporary perspective** on the other hand also include three viewpoints - systems, contingency and quality management. Table 3 (cf. p. 131 below) presents a summary of the major and related events, proponents and focus in the management movement.

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Table 3: Summary of major and related events, proponents and focus in the management movement

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE			CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES		
CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT (1895-1947)	BEHAVIOURAL VIEWPOINT (EARLY 1700S-CURRENT)	QUANTITATIVE VIEWPOINT (1940-1960)	SYSTEMS VIEWPOINT (LATE 1960S-EARLY 1970S)	CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT (1960S-LATE 1970S)	QUALITY MANAGEMENT (1950S)
Emphasise ways to manage work more efficiently, focusing on the development of general and universal principles that managers can use in the various management functions that they might have to deal with.	Emphasise the importance of understanding human needs and behaviour of both males and females and of motivating and encouraging employees toward achievement. The focus was on human needs and social factors involved in the workplace	Emphasise the application to management of quantitative techniques such as statistics, optimisation models, information models and computer simulations	Regards the organisation as a group (set) of interrelated parts (activities) that work together towards the attainment of one goal or common purpose. It presupposes an interrelatedness and interdependency between and of the different parts	Emphasise that there is no best way to manage. Managers' approach, based on research of different available techniques and principles of management should be adaptable and vary according to situations and circumstance. Different problems and situations require different solutions.	Not a theory as such, but more a way of thinking to add value to products and services which can be distinguished from competitors
Viewpoints: Scientific management Administrative management (principles) Bureaucracy	Viewpoints: Early Behaviourism Human relations movement Behavioural science approach	Viewpoints: Management Science Operations Management	Proponent: Chester Barnard Von Bertalanffy Cast Rozensweig Boulding	Proponents: Woodward Larsch Fiedler Lawrence Lufthans	Viewpoints: Quality Control Quality Assurance Total Quality Management (TQM)
Scientific Management (1895-1916)	Early Behaviourism (early 1700s to 1920)	Management Science (1940-1950)	Example of use in school sport management: School sport, irrespective of the size of a school is run as a system utilizing different inputs such as maintenance of the sport facilities, marketing, finances and human resources to create opportunities and a safe environment that can be used to provide school sport and sport related activities (output).	Example of application in school sport management: Function for prospective parents and talented sportsmen and women can be held inside or outside depending on weather. Events and games to be moved or cancelled in the advent of unforeseen circumstance like rain, lightning, unavailability of officials or a bomb threat.	Quality Control
Proponents: Frederick W. Taylor (father)	Proponents: Hugo Munsterberg (father)			Weaknesses/criticism Creates the impression	Proponent: W. Stewart

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE			CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES		
CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT (1895-1947)	BEHAVIOURAL VIEWPOINT (EARLY 1700S-CURRENT)	QUANTITATIVE VIEWPOINT (1940-1960)	SYSTEMS VIEWPOINT (LATE 1960S-EARLY 1970S)	CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT (1960S-LATE 1970S)	QUALITY MANAGEMENT (1950S)
<p>of scientific management) Frank and Lillian Gilbreth Carl Barth Morris Cooke Henry Lawrence Gantt</p>	<p>of industrial psychology) Mary Parker Follett Elton Mayo</p>			<p>that management is much harder than it looks. Managers need to look for key contingencies that differentiate today's situation or problems from those of yesterday Requires more time analyzing problems, situations and employees before taking action to fix them Research (reading) to identify key contingencies to become a better manager can be time consuming and leaves no room for creativity and imagination.</p>	
<p>Emphasis: Focus on scientific study of work methods to increase efficiency of production methods used and to enable workers to increase productivity creating the opportunity for them to earn higher wages.</p>	<p>Emphasise the use of psychologists to use psychological tests for employee selection, learning theory concepts for employee training and studies of behaviour for employee motivation (Munsterberg). Focus on more democratic organisations with managers and employees working together cooperatively (Follett). Draws attention to the importance of human's feelings and attitudes and how managers can use good human relations to improve worker productivity (Mayo).</p>	<p>Focus on using mathematics and rational science based techniques such as linear programming, network analysis, decision trees and computer simulations to aid in problem solving and decision making.</p>	<p>Weaknesses/criticism Long on intellectual appeal and catchy terminology. Well short on verifiable facts and practical advice. Too general, abstract and specific.</p>		<p>Quality control refers to a strategy for minimizing errors by managing different stages of production.</p>

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE			CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES		
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<p>Examples applied to school sport: School sport managers who works on a commission basis when employed in the role of a marketer. Management of hurdles assistance during an athletic meeting where the school sport manager strive to put in place and have the hurdles ready for all items in the shortest possible way and time to ensure the smooth running of the whole meeting. Maintenance done on the playing surface of the school's sport facilities where the tasks can be broken into smaller tasks and different workers allocated and trained to complete a specific task and role to complete the maintenance task on time</p>	<p>An example for use of early behaviourism would be where school sport managers from different sport codes (departments) work together on a joint project such as a sports day and fundraising to develop a new sporting facility for the school like a clubhouse or entertainment area.</p>	<p>Examples for use in school sport management are inter alia to estimate the effect of a change in school fees on a school's market share or whereby an athlete's previous performance in the 800m for instance is used to predict their performance in the 1500m</p>			<p>Quality Assurance focuses on the performance of workers, urging them to strive for zero defects</p>
<p>Criticism/weaknesses Too mechanistic- view humans as a cog within a machine. Ignores the societal context and workers' needs. Increase conflict and sometimes violent clashes between managers and employees. Exploited workers, because it presupposes</p>	<p>Criticism/weaknesses Too much emphasis on a happy worker being a productive worker. Recent analyses of Hawthorne studies have generated debate about the validity of the original conclusions.</p>	<p>Criticism/weaknesses Data is based on human estimates, which can be unreliable.</p>			<p>Total Quality Management (TQM) (1980s) is a management philosophy devoted to a comprehensive approach dedicated to continuous quality improvement, training and customer satisfaction.</p>

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE			CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES		
CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT (1895-1947)	BEHAVIOURAL VIEWPOINT (EARLY 1700S-CURRENT)	QUANTITATIVE VIEWPOINT (1940-1960)	SYSTEMS VIEWPOINT (LATE 1960S-EARLY 1970S)	CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT (1960S-LATE 1970S)	QUALITY MANAGEMENT (1950S)
that all workers have the same needs and dispose of the same values and ability. Absence of proper structures, organograms and hierarchical structures for the management activities of an enterprise.					
Administrative Management (1916-1947)	Human Relations Movement (theory of human needs -1930-1950)	Operations Management (1950-1960)			Proponents: W. Edwards Deming Joseph M. Duran Phillip Crosby
Proponents: Henri Fayol (father of modern operational management theory) Chester Barnard Mary Parker Follet.	Pioneers: Abraham Maslow (hierarchy of needs) Douglas McGregor (Theory X and Y).	Focuses on managing the production and delivery of an organisation's products or services more effective through the use of operations management tools and techniques such as quality control, forecasting and project management.			
Emphasis Concerned with managing the total organisation, by focusing on what managers do and what constituted good management, organising, coordinating, controlling and purveyance (planning future work activities). Application of rules and activities and different functional areas of management (commercial, technical, financial, security, accounting, and managerial)	Concerned with human motives to perform optimally and in turn would motivate workers to higher productivity based on their opinion of a needs hierarchy (Maslow). Focus on avoiding the trap of self-fulfilling prophecy: That is the idea that if a manager expects a subordinate to act in a certain way, the worker may in fact very well act that way, thereby confirming the manager's expectations: The	Weaknesses and criticism leveled at the quantitative viewpoint relate amongst other to a widely held belief that the quantitative viewpoint is important, but should rather be seen as aids to management and not a viewpoint or approach to the theory or development of management.			

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE			CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES		
CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT (1895-1947)	BEHAVIOURAL VIEWPOINT (EARLY 1700S-CURRENT)	QUANTITATIVE VIEWPOINT (1940-1960)	SYSTEMS VIEWPOINT (LATE 1960S-EARLY 1970S)	CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT (1960S-LATE 1970S)	QUALITY MANAGEMENT (1950S)
	prophecy that managers made are fulfilled (McGregor).				
Examples of use of admin management applied to school sport include amongst other the use of the four fundamental management tasks, namely planning, organising and leading to ensure for instance that goals are established, structures, organograms, and hierarchical structures for the management of school sport are in place.					
Criticism and weaknesses: Rigid and functional approach creates impression that the management process is more orderly than it really is, because it negates the human element in the management process. Little or few guidelines are provided for the use of human behaviour as catalisator for change and to increase productivity.	Criticism and weaknesses are amongst other that the human relations movement views are vague and simplistic. Critics also do not believe that supportive supervision and good human relations will lead automatically to higher morale and hence better job performance. Warning by authors that the two labels of theory X and Y may be seen only as polar extremes representing an either/or style, whereas in real-life a blend of the two theories is more likely to provide the best prescription for effective management .				
Bureaucracy (1895-1920)	Behavioural Science approach (1960s –				

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CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT (1895-1947)	BEHAVIOURAL VIEWPOINT (EARLY 1700S-CURRENT)	QUANTITATIVE VIEWPOINT (1940-1960)	SYSTEMS VIEWPOINT (LATE 1960S-EARLY 1970S)	CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT (1960S-LATE 1970S)	QUALITY MANAGEMENT (1950S)
	current)				
Proponent: Max Weber	Proponents Argyris Herzberg McClelland Vroom Likert Barnard				
Emphasis: Has at the heart of Weber's thinking of a bureaucracy as a specific form of organisation. In essence, Weber preached the need for (and potential dangers of) authority and rationality in working with organised groups of people.	Emphasis: A correction to the sterile approach used within scientific management based on the use of scientific research to develop theories about human behaviour that can be used to provide practical tools for managers to manage organisations. Predominantly use psychology, but sociology, anthropology and economics, together with other disciplines are also used to understand employee behaviour and interaction in an organisational setting.				
Example of use in school sport management: Larger and more affluent schools appoint more school sport managers to perform specific tasks and more functional areas get established in the school, providing a clear hierarchy of authority and division of labour.	Example of use in school sport management: School sport managers in their role as a leader uses the principles of organisational development or behaviour like needs of learners, motivation, personality and behaviour, together with moral and psychological				

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HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE			CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES		
CLASSICAL VIEWPOINT (1895-1947)	BEHAVIOURAL VIEWPOINT (EARLY 1700S-CURRENT)	QUANTITATIVE VIEWPOINT (1940-1960)	SYSTEMS VIEWPOINT (LATE 1960S-EARLY 1970S)	CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT (1960S-LATE 1970S)	QUALITY MANAGEMENT (1950S)
	aspects to lead and guide learners participating in sport to adulthood and holistic development.				
Weaknesses and criticism: Use of people in positions of authority, because of social status, and not ability. Ignore or does not take into account the influence of gender.	Weaknesses and criticism: Focuses on human behaviour and the factors used to motivate workers to fulfil their full potential and to obtain maximum productivity, yet negates external factors such as increased competition, social and economic changes, advances in information technology and globalisation. Treats all organisations as similar.				

(Roth, 2000; Dixon, 2003b; Kinicki & Williams, 2009; Rue & Byars, 2009; Cole & Kelly, 2011; Robbins *et al.*, 2011; Schermerhorn, 2011; 2012; Robbins *et al.*, 2013)

From Table 3 (cf. p. 131), it can therefore be deduced that a review of the more popular new contemporary management ideas of the 1980s show that many of them represent new wine in old bottles. The total number of bottles remain the same, but each is refilled with new contents (Huczynski, 1993). It can therefore be argued that the whole search for management principles in the 21st century is not designed to maximise profit, but to legitimise the manager's role. Major events affected management discipline from the nineteenth century to the present. But the discipline did not develop and mature at the same rate in all parts of the world. Similarly, it did not develop from a series of discrete happenings; rather it grew from a series of major and minor events. In sum, whereas most of the early approaches to management focused on managers' concerns inside the organisation (cf. Fig. 8, p. 124), contemporary approaches starting in the 1960s began to look at what was happening in the external environment (cf. par. 3.2.2., p. 122) outside the organisation and tend to focus on customer satisfaction (Williams, 2011:19). As indicated in Table 3 (cf. p. 131), there is little doubt that significant changes occurred in the twentieth century in all facets of organisations and the manner in which they are managed, reinforcing the central theme that future organisations such as the school for example in relation to this study, will be more fluid and less rigid than in the past. These projections proclaim and suggest that schools of the future will have to adapt to their employees, not the other way round. Only time will tell if these predictions, do, in fact come true. One thing for certain is that the rate of change will continue to accelerate and both schools, and more specifically in the context of the current study, school sport managers will be required to adapt to these changes and challenges.

3.3.2 Synthesis

The best way to predict the future is to create it, Peter Drucker, according to Kinicki and Williams (2009:40) said. The purpose of the description of the evolution of management perspectives to the extent possible to give the contemporary school sport manager not only the tools to create their own future as a manager, amid challenges, but also to view different approaches to see which one works best. Through studying the theoretical perspectives of management as outlined in the previous paragraphs and discussions, the contemporary school sport manager will: (i) be able to understand the present (Christensen & Raynor, 2003:68), and which in turn will help current and future school sport managers appreciate where they are now and continue progress towards better management; (ii) be guided to action; (iii) be given a source of new ideas and; (iv) be given clues to meaning of outside events (Kinicki & Williams, 2009:41) that could affect both the school and the school sport manager.

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Recent extensions of historical viewpoints include the systems and contingency viewpoint, as well as TQM. Other more recent contemporary innovations in management include the shift to a learning organisation, which goes hand-in-hand with the transition to a technology driven workplace. Important new contemporary management approaches include re-engineering, outsourcing (contracting out of selected functions or activities to other organisations that can do the work more cost efficiently, for example the tuck shop to parents or a selected supplier), diversity management, evidence-based management and management by best seller. All these approaches require the school sport manager to value the human resources for their ability to think, build relationships, working as a team for reward, share knowledge, which is quite different from the scientific management perspective of a century ago. In addition, the 21st century contemporary school sport manager is required to be a team member, facilitator, teacher, sponsor, advocate, and coach, apart from being comfortable transacting business in multiple languages and cultures, as well as fostering cooperation and a win-win approach to interpersonal dealings; yet anticipating, seeking and channelling change and conflict. Problems are seen as opportunities for learning and continuous improvement, while information is shared and access to information is increased in an effort to promote continuous lifelong, learner driven learning.

Challenges fundamental to development and improvement of competencies and skills required were described with relation to the management of school sport. These competencies and skills support the need for a sport management training programme for educators in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p.12; 6.2.7, p. 408; 6.3.1, p. 432). In order to keep their lives more than mildly interesting, school sport managers need to accept challenges like managing for competitive advantage - to stay ahead of rivals, manage for diversity in race, ethnicity, gender and so on, managing for globalisation, information technology, ethical standards and happiness as well as one's own life goals. Accepting these challenges requires the school sport manager to seek an ideal state that transpires to be an emotional zone somewhat between boredom and anxiety in the view of psychologist, Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1975; 1990; 1996; 1998; 2003). Boredom, he says, may arise because skills and challenges are mismatched. In other words, a high level of skill with a low level of challenge, such as answering a the telephone call from a prospective new learner's parent, while anxiety could arise when one has low levels of skills, such as lack of proper training as school sport manager, but a high level of challenge, as for instance in relation to this study, to manage school sport in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.

Upon thorough investigation of management perspectives or approaches endorsed by various 21st century authors, management gurus and researchers, already outlined in previous paragraphs (cf. par. 3.3.1, p. 129) and indicated in Table 3 (p. 131), the school sport manager could in an eclectic way take part of the preceding approaches or viewpoints and apply different principles, thought and views to put together a successful sport programme.

3.4. MANAGEMENT AS PHENOMENON

Society, and for that matter schools in society could neither exist as we know them today nor improve without a steady stream of managers to guide them. Peter Drucker emphasised this point when he stated that effective management is probably the main resource of developed countries and the most needed resource of developing ones (Certo & Certo, 2009:6). In short, all societies desperately need good managers. Management therefore is part and parcel of society, and is regarded by several authors as acts or chains of events. In existence it is tantamount to human, financial, physical and information (knowledge) resources being utilised to try and achieve the goals and objectives of an enterprise (Stoner *et al.*, 2001:6). In a similar way, the management of school sport can be regarded as the utilisation of resources (material, money, labour and information (knowledge) on the basis wherefrom the goals of the school could be reached. How well the school sport manager charts its course and achieves its goals and objectives depends on how well they outline and perform key functions during the course of executing and fulfilment of their duties determines whether the school is successful. Subsequently, it is imperative that all school sport managers thoroughly understand the importance of effective and efficient management.

To summarise, Gebelein *et al.* (2010:157-257) and Hughes *et al* (2011:165) share the view that the main task of the manager is to ensure that things happen and are done effectively and efficiently, with and through other people to ensure results are obtained. This task shows relevance to the implementation of management principles, as for example a division of resources according to a hierarchical order.

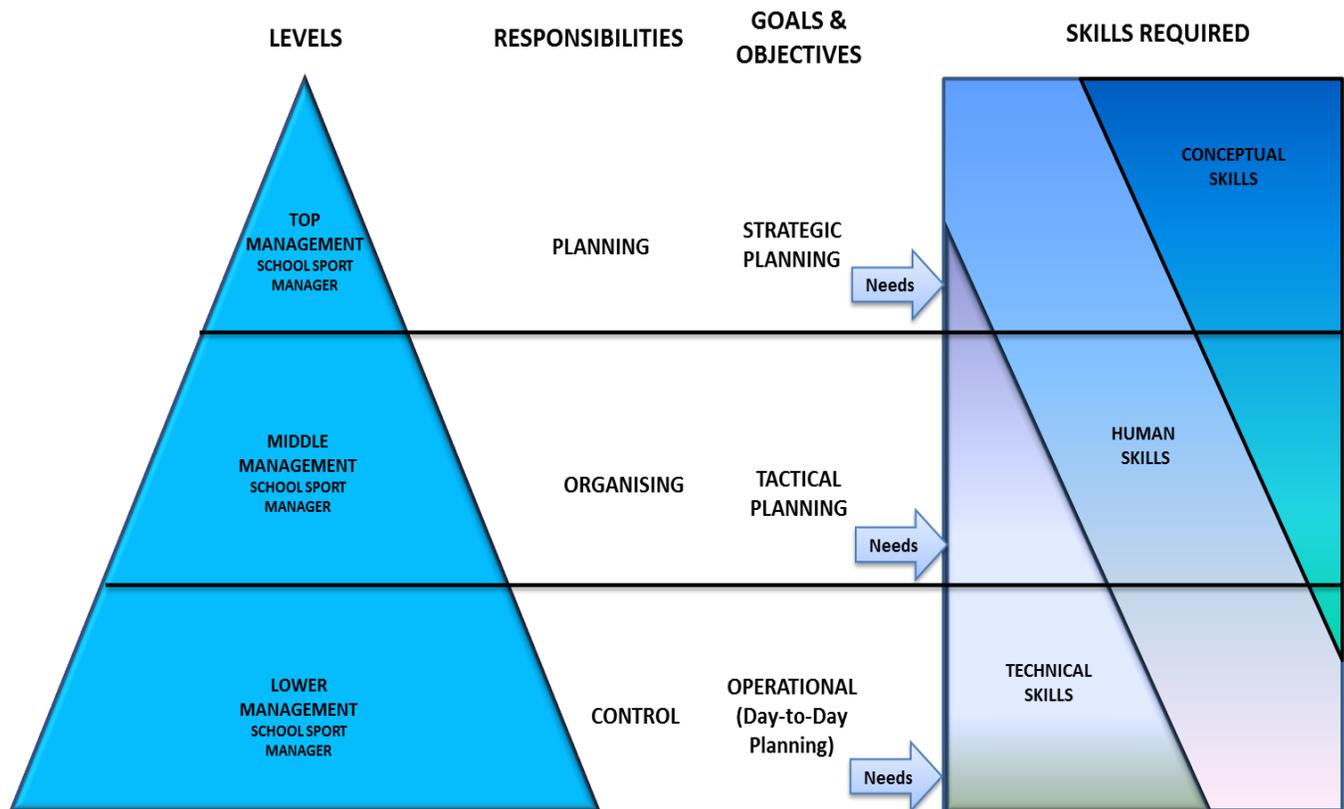
The act of management point to the existence of an organisation system wherein human actions are integrated (Hunsaker, 2005:10). The classification of the different management tasks and functions does not necessarily mean that management in its normal course occur according to a strong, rigid hierarchical order, sequence and preset timetable and are inextricable associated to one another. Added to this the intertwinement of management implies that each function tends to naturally leads to others, managers could engage in a number of functions simultaneously and

involvement of human resources that one come across at different levels in an organisation (Armstrong & Stephens, 2005:4; Jones & George, 2011:11; Kurtz, 2011:255).

3.4.1 The relationship between levels of management and competencies required to manage school sport

Managers can be classified in two ways: according to their level within an organisation and according to their area of management, namely functional or specialist (Hughes *et al.*, 2011:171; Smit *et al.*, 2011:10). In the ensuing paragraphs, different levels of management and the coherence of the respective different levels of management, goals as well as competencies will be explored, while functional and specialist management functions will be looked at later in this chapter.

An important determinant of the school sport managers' job is the hierarchical level. In connection with this Robbins *et al.* (2011:31, 37) indicate that levels of management have a significant influence on managers' functional successfulness. Authors like Lussier and Kumbal (2004:12-14); Chelladurai (2005:113-114); Jordan and Kent (2005:39); Bovee *et al.* (2007:236-237); Goodman *et al.* (2007:9-12); Quarterman *et al.* (2007:348-349); Thibault and Quarterman (2007:321-324); Rees and Porter (2008:3); Hoye *et al.* (2009:110; 115-118); Jones and George (2009:9-16); Daft (2010b:27) and Hughes *et al.* (2011:171) further come upon a resolute distinction between the different levels of management in an organisation by using different names for levels of management. Through this the mentioned authors also highlight the importance of the relation between different jobs, functions, tasks or roles across the hierarchical level of management and the primary focus of performance and time spent on each of the four functions of management in their endeavour for attainment of the organisational goals by using resources in an effective and efficient manner. To illustrate and explain the coherence of the respective levels of management, goals as well as competencies, Figure 9 is hold up.



Adapted from Parkhouse, 2055:65; Certo and Certo, 2009:14

Figure 9: Levels of Management

Each level of management have at one's disposal their own management responsibilities, skills and competencies in the hierarchical structure of an organisation (Mintzberg, 2003:209-219). This point of view of Mintzberg is further supported by a recent study of more than 1 400 managers in the USA by Kraut *et al.* (2005:122-129) who examined how the manager's job differs across these three hierarchical levels and found that the primary focus changes at different levels. For first-level (lower level) the main concern is facilitating individual employee performance. Middle managers, though, are concerned less with individual performance and more with linking groups of people, such as allocating resources, coordinating teams, or putting top management plans into action across the organisation. For top-level managers the primary focus is monitoring the external environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) and determining the best strategy to be competitive. Applied more specifically in relation to the current study, one could argue that depending the type and size of a school, the responsibilities and tasks of the school sport manager differ and thus also the required competencies and skills the school sport manager have at their gift (Robinson & Newman, 2005:65-66). Subsequently, it follows that competencies and skills required on different levels will

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impact on a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, and can thus be seen as a crucial aspect that should be kept in mind when the afore said programme is developed (cf. par. 7 5, p. 547).

Although a considerable number of literature is available about the competencies a sport manager in general should dispose of, there is insufficient knowledge and empirical evidence available with regards to the competencies required for the management of school sport in a diversity of South African schools (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4; 1.4.6.1, p. 18; 5.9.2, p. 335; 6.3.1, p. 432). In the global context, Toh (1997:80-89) identifies governance, budgeting, risk management and communication as some of the most important competencies what a school sport manager should possess, while Barber and Eckrich (1998:310-321) in a study to examine the evaluation procedures employed by Division I, II and III Intercollegiate Athletic administrators in the evaluation of their cross country and basketball coaches, labelled technical skill development, fundraising skills, programme success, public relations, coach-player relationships, administrative skills, role model and support of the student athlete as valuable skills and behaviours for performance evaluation and successful management of athletes. Jamieson and Toh (2000:34) on the other hand, identified 12 separate areas of competency, including management techniques and business procedures. Related research on a local level includes the work of Gouws (1993; 1994); Gerber (2000); Hollander (2000); De Villiers (2003); De Villiers and Bitzer (2004); Hollander *et al.* (2007); Bloemhof (2008) and Burger *et al.* (2008). While Hollander (2000:273-278) distinguish between functional and general management competencies for different sectors of the South African sport industry, De Villiers (2003:195-198) as well as De Villiers and Bitzer (2004:25-38) agree with the view of Hollander, but further distinguish between different levels of management. Gerber (2000:119-128) on the other hand analyses the management competencies of the school sport manager based on a case study, in only one school in the light of functional management competencies, whereas Bloemhof (2008:282-285) determines and debates the position of primary schools in relation to principles identified by the American Sport Education Programme with regard to the role, place and state of sport within the South African educational system. Through the identified principles in relation to the position of South African primary schools, the author made an attempt to use evidence to form a set of coherent policies for primary school sport programmes. It could therefore be stated that apart from the contributions by Gerber and Bloemhof, all other research neglects to focus on school sport specifically, and thus, for that matter, a scientific description of the competencies and requirements for the training of school sport managers. Inevitably, this lack of literature and empirical support is in accordance with the aims of this research, namely to develop

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a sport management training programme for school sport managers (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1; 1.2.2, p. 5 and 1.3.2. p. 12) and is part of Chapter Seven of this study.

From the preceding, it is quite clear that the contemporary school sport manager needs to be properly trained to demonstrate the required skills and competencies so highly priced, regardless of the specific school in which one is employed or the type of position one holds. Informed by a notion of Katz (1955:34-35; 1974:94),⁴⁷ authors like Pastore *et al.* (1996:374); Quarterman (1994:130; 1998:149-150); Bridges and Roquemore (2004:23-26); Lussier and Kumbal (2004:7-9); Robinson and Newman (2005:65); Goodman (2007:10); Krotee and Bucher (2007:13-15); Quarterman *et al.* (2007:348-349); Certo and Certo (2009:12-15); Kinicki and Williams (2009:27-28); Daft (2010a:8-10); Hughes *et al.* (2011:174); Jones and George (2011:13-16); Kurtz (2011:256-257); Robbins *et al.* (2011:36); Smit *et al.* (2011:15-17) and Williams (2011:14-15) have all identified three essential attributes or skills of contemporary managers as conceptual, interpersonal and technical skills. With regard to conceptual skills of school sport managers, the school sport manager should be able to view school sport and its parts within the context of a holistic unit (Certo & Certo, 2009:14; Jones & George, 2011:14; Smit *et al.*, 2011:15) (cf. also par. 2.3.3.1, p 46), while interpersonal competencies in the most simplistic way means that the school sport manager should be able to work with and through the people, and dispose of good human relations (Doherty, 1997:276-277; Lussier & Kumbal, 2004:9).⁴⁸ Technical skills on the other hand refer to the know how in terms of what tasks are assigned to the school sport manager and further implies the utilisation of quantitative methods to take managerial decisions (Cleave, 1993:142; Jordan & Kent, 2005:41).

In the school, a middle-level school sport manager (cf. Fig. 9. p. 142), such as the soccer organiser, would have to be competent in preparing an annual report or budget for soccer in the school. They should also be able to teach others who are involved with soccer how to prepare such reports (Robinson & Newman, 2005:65). Lower level school sport managers (cf. Fig. 9, p. 142) use their technical skills when they show learners new techniques when practising sport and how to use and set up equipment required for the pursuit of practising sport. From the preceding it could further be deduced, that the lower level school sport managers should also use their

⁴⁷ Katz was a researcher and first noted the skills required by administrators in 1955. (See (Certo & Certo, 2009:13, 561). In 1974, he found that through education and experience managers could acquire three principal skills-technical, conceptual, and human. (See also (Fletcher & Baldry, 2000; Harris *et al.*, 2001; Gupta, 2005; Parks, 2005; De Vries, 2007; Tice, 2007)

⁴⁸ Cf also (Quarterman, 1994; Lussier & Kumbal, 2004; Quarterman *et al.*, 2005; Goodman *et al.*, 2007; Quarterman *et al.*, 2007; Kinicki, 2008; Kinicki & Kreitner, 2009; Kinicki & Williams, 2009; Lussier, 2009; Daft, 2010a; Daft, 2010b; Lussier & Achua, 2010; Robbins *et al.*, 2011; Robbins & Judge, 2011; Williams, 2011)

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technical skills to answer questions from learners, and otherwise provide guidance and direction (Hughes *et al.*, 2011:174). Finally, although technical skills are especially important for lower level school sport managers, and become less important at higher levels of the school sport management hierarchy, most top executives started out as technical experts (Kurtz, 2011:256).

Hellriegel *et al.* (2008:214-216) emphasise that decentralisation of management in any organisation is of utmost importance. Hersey *et al.* (2001:68; 2008:56) as well as Lussier and Achua (2010:46, 70, 80-100) use the behavioural science approach (cf. par. 3. 3.1, p. 129; Table 3, p. 131) to emphasise that the absence of related aspects like authority, power, acknowledgement, recognition and respect does not easily ensure coordination and cooperation. For the effective and efficient functioning of school sport it is important for each school sport manager employed on a specific management level to know and understand exactly what their respective roles and functions are. It is vital, because a manager could or should in one case act as the leader, while in another case or situation s/he is the subordinate and should accept the guidance, direction and leading of others.

It is evident from the preceding paragraphs, as shown in figure 9, that school sport managers at different levels all use all three of the skills identified in the foregoing paragraphs. However, as shown in figure 9, school sport managers at the different levels (top, middle and lower) use them to different degrees. Because lower level school sport managers as supervisors spend most of their time directing [(i.e. motivating, leading, and communicating (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151)] subordinates (learners participating in sport), they use technical skills more often than do top- or middle managers. Conversely, top-level managers (cf. par. 3.4.1.1, p.146) will use fewer technical skills, and will spend far more time using conceptual skills (e.g. developing and implementing long-range goals and monitoring resources used by the school) and interpersonal skills. In other words, as one moves from lower level to middle management to top management, conceptual skills become more important and technical skills less important (cf. Fig. 9, p. 142). The supportive rationale is that as school sport managers advance in the school, they become less involved with the actual coaching of sport or technical areas as such and more involved with guiding school sport as a service to the community and learners as a whole, to achieve the goals and objectives of the school. Human skills, however, are extremely important to school sport managers at top, middle and lower (supervisory) level. The common denominator of all management levels, after all, is people. It is against the background of the preceding that each of the different levels of management will be investigated and subsequently, a possible organogram or hierarchical structure for the different levels of managing school sport will be presented (cf. Fig. 10, p. 149).

3.4.1.1 Top Management

Top management represents the relatively small group of managers who lead the organisation and with whom the final authority and responsibility rests for performing the management process successfully. Oosthuizen (2007:82) emphasises the responsibility of top management to take overall responsibility for the direction of an organisation, while Robinson and Newman (2005:66); Daft (2010b:27) and Smit *et al.* (2011:10) focus on the fact that top management is responsible to develop and define the organisation's reason for existence or mission, and long term goals and objectives. They determine long term goals and objectives and give direction to the future plans of the organisation through long term- or strategic decision-making (Becherer *et al.*, 2006:1-13), while they are also responsible for communicating an entrepreneurial spirit that can help the company innovate and keep pace with rapid change. Besides the preceding responsibilities, top management also provides strategy, goals and policies and exercise control through reporting together with supervision of middle managers. This presupposes that participatory management stands central to decision-making (Acosta Hernandez, 2002:91; 167-168; Lussier, 2009:15) and that the school sport manager should be able to manage strategically. At the school the principal, deputy principal (s) and overall sport coordinator (sport director) in collaboration with the school governing body could form the top management of the school (cf. Figure 9, p. 142). They would be responsible for setting goals, defining strategies for achieving these, monitoring, and interpreting the external environment. Top management of schools would also concern themselves with general environmental trends, the school's overall success and also determine the school policy. It is the task of the school sport coordinator in collaboration with each sport organiser and all learner representatives to plan the long term school sport policy and present it to top management for final approval and authorisation. Depending on the organisational structure and needs of a school's strategic plan, the governing body member who has sport as portfolio, could also form part of the sport committee (cf. Figure 9, p. 142).

3.4.1.2 Middle Management

It is the task and responsibility of middle management to translate and implement received policy and plans formulated by top management. According to Oosthuizen (2007:83), middle management is responsible to implement the goals and objectives and broad, general strategies of an organisation by developing functional goals and objectives and related policy which lower level managers have to execute (Robbins *et al.*, 2011:31). Added to the preceding responsibilities, suitable plans and programmes should be developed in collaboration with lower level management. Based on the afore-mentioned, it can be deduced that middle managers generally are more concerned with the near future rather than with long-range planning (Daft, 2010a:12).

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Subsequently, it goes without saying that the middle manager's job has changed dramatically over the past two decades. Many organisations sought improved efficiency by laying off middle managers and slashing middle management levels. Traditional pyramidal organisation charts were flattened to allow information to flow quickly from top to bottom and decisions to be made with greater speed (Daft, 2010a:12). Yet even as middle management levels have been reduced, the middle manager's job has taken on a new vitality. Rather than managing flow of information up and down the hierarchy, middle managers create horizontal networks that can help the organisation act quickly. Research shows that middle managers play a crucial role in driving innovation and enabling organisations to respond to rapid shifts in the environment. As Ralph Stayer, CEO of Johnsonville Sausage said: "*Leaders can design wonderful strategies, but the success of the organisation resides in the execution of those strategies. The people in the middle are the ones who make it work.*" (Haneberg, 2005:15).

From the preceding paragraphs it should be evident that middle management is responsible for different divisions or departments of an organisation. Daft (2010b:27) implicitly describes this position as mediator (go between) management, while Smit *et al.* (2011:11) believe that managers on this level constitute functional heads who are responsible for medium-term planning, organising functional areas; leading by means of the departmental heads, and controlling the management activities of the middle managers' own departments. Considering the set-up of sport at a school, "functional managers" in relation to school sport would be the organisers of the different sport codes, like rugby, hockey, netball, chess and swimming, because they are ultimately responsible to implement the functional goals, objectives and related sport policy of the school. They should, in collaboration with the captains and coaches of the respective teams, compile suitable plans, procedures, programmes, guides, manuals, and strategies for each different sport and present these to the sport coordinator (sport director) for approval. The overall school sport coordinator (director) would be responsible for the organisers of the different sport codes who report to him/her and give an account of whether the set goals with regard to sport and sport related physical activities have been accomplished or not.

3.4.1.3 Lower Level Management

Lower level or first line management is, according to Stoner *et al.* (2001:16, 17) the smaller segment or part of an organisation which is concerned with and responsible for the day-to-day problem solving and activities of an organisation to ensure profitability. Following the plans of middle and top level managers, lower level managers create detailed schedules, operating plans and short term operating decisions, directing the daily tasks of non-managerial staff, who are of

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course, all those people who work directly at their jobs, but do not oversee the work of others (Kinicki & Williams, 2009:17). More specifically lower level managers answer questions, encourage, monitor, and reward the performance of their workers and teach new employees how to do their jobs (Williams, 2011:8). In contrast to the long-term plans of top managers (three to five years) and the intermediate plans of middle managers (six to eighteen months), the plans of lower level managers typically produce results within two weeks (Casey & Trotman, 2008:D1). In an organisation lower managers commonly include foremen or forewomen and supervisors bound up with a division like the production division. No doubt in a school with relation to school sport, the different coaches of the respective sport teams would execute the set policy and also perform a supervisory function pertaining to volunteer workers. So, the coach of the first rugby and hockey team (lower level) would for example be under the supervision of the rugby- and hockey organiser (middle level) respectively, who should then report to the overall sport coordinator or director (top management). It is also obvious that lower level school sport managers like coaches are operating employees who, because of their hard work and potential, are promoted into management. In fact, many of today's middle (sport organisers) and top level managers (sport coordinators or directors) regard lower level management (coaches) as a stepping stone and the beginning of their career of climbing the ladder to the top (Hughes *et al.*, 2011:171), since coaching as a lower level school sport manager could be a valuable experience for training, and a testing ground of one's management ideas.

On closer inspection of the preceding paragraphs, it turned out that the school sport managers find themselves in a situation where they are inevitably part of management as a human activity. They have a task to perform; a specific kind of work with different activities which remain inconspicuous. Taken together, the management tasks lie in the interdependency on one another and are influenced by the different levels of management. It is the role, task and responsibility of each manager on each level of management in a diversity of schools to thoroughly take cognisance of the activities and actions required from them as well as the set goals and task of the school as a whole. To illustrate and explain the coherence of the different levels of management, goals as well as competencies, Figure 9 is presented (cf. p. 141). Based on the preceding paragraphs, to illustrate the hierarchical structure for the different levels of managing sport in a school, Figure 10 is presented on the following page.

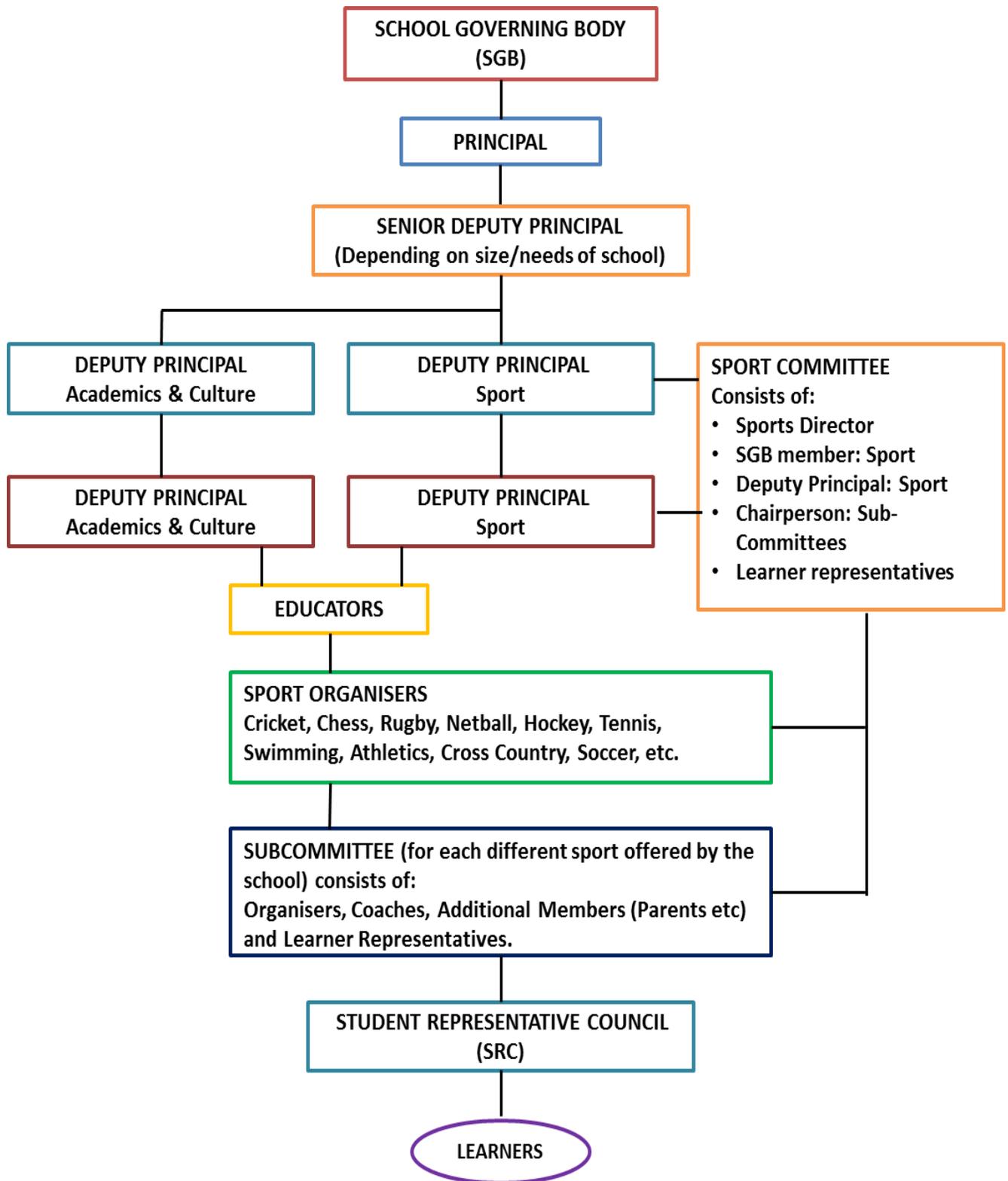


Figure 10: Organisational structure for school sport

3.4.2 Synthesis

Various management theorists and authors regard management as actions of events, or a logical sequence of decisions. In existence it boils down to the fact that human, financial, physical and information resources are utilised in an attempt to achieve the goals of the organisation (Kurtz, 2011:254). In a similar way the management of sport (Gouws, 2001:254), can be regarded as the process by which resources (material, money labour and information) are utilised through decision-making and leadership provided by key personnel so that a sport organisation functions effectively and efficiently in achieving the goals for which the organisation exists.

Management involves four fundamental functions or activities, which are regarded by the most management theories (cf. par. 3.3.1, p. 129) as activities that involve planning, organising, leading (direction) and control within school sport (cf. Figure 8, p. 124). Other important facets of management include problem solving, motivating and decision-making. It is further of the utmost importance to realise that these reduced activities or actions do not occur in a tidy, step-by-step sequence, but presuppose a successive, interchangeable and simultaneous application thereof during the management activity. This then would mean that the management action is a process, rather than a single event or happening.

A philosophy for school sport and sport and related products, activities, services and programmes should realise that it is paramount to success to cater for the needs and welfare of the human beings who make up the organisation. Functions performed by school sport managers take place at various levels of the school sport organisation and are practised by all school sport managers, regardless of their level or function. The contemporary school sport manager also needs special qualifications, skills (technical, interpersonal and conceptual) that take into account various philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of management. These skills, combined with the appropriate measure of knowledge, sound judgement, political savvy and a value orientation called management competence, can be acquired through both training and development, and experience (Kinicki & Williams, 2009:204; Kreitner, 2009:52). School sport management training and development in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools should be a national priority in South Africa to enable school sport managers to effectively lead any programme or school, achieve success and satisfaction. Such training should also enable school sport managers to meet various challenges, especially the challenge of the economic and managerial empowerment of all South Africa's disadvantaged or less affluent people regardless of race, sex, ethnicity, age or ability. As a result hereof, and since it is the all-encompassing aim of this research

report to develop a sport management programme, it is crucial to take cognisance of all the aspects discussed in the preceding paragraphs.

A need for further training and development of school sport managers further implies and recognises the need for strategic management. In the context thus of the management of school sport, the activities of management referred to in an earlier paragraph, should much rather be executed within the context of a strategy. If this happens, Thibault *et al.* (1994:218-219) consider it to be strategic actions or strategic management of school sport. This opinion of strategic actions as activities within the context of a strategy implies that the focus is placed on the role of strategic management in the management of educationally justified school sport. It would further mean that trends could possibly be exposed through which guidelines for the development of a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools could be provided. Next, a brief summary of the competencies underpinning the four fundamental school sport management activities, namely planning, organising, leading and control is presented.

3.5. SUMMARY OF FUNDAMENTAL SCHOOL SPORT MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES

School sport managers should be thoroughly trained in the competencies required for planning, organising, leading and control actions. *Planning* refers to the process of describing in advance what to do, how and when to do it and who is to do it (Krotee & Bucher, 2007:8-8; Robbins *et al.*, 2013:30-31). Planning is regarded as the starting point of the general management process in school sport and the focal point around which the management activities are centred (Goslin, 1996:214; Hoye *et al.*, 2009:96-98). More specifically, planning focuses on the objectives that need to be set and the strategies and actions taken (Acosta Hernandez, 2002:190-192; Schermerhorn, 2012:11). Examples of planning competencies which the school sport manager should master are to formulate a vision, mission and goals for sport in the school in accordance with those of the school as a whole. The school sport manager should also be competent in formulating and implementing plans to achieve organisational goals and objectives that were set (Boronico & Newbert, 1999:103-104; Ferreira, 2009:182-184). Lastly the school sport manager should be able to make use of strategic planning to take strategic decisions (Hill & Kikulus, 1999:20-23; Slack & Parent, 2006:257-262) regarding the goals and objectives specifically for school sport, based on information which came to the fore during the analysis and scanning of the various environmental factors.

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In simple terms, *organising* can be seen as putting the plans into action to facilitate the attainment of its objectives (Oosthuizen, 2006:93). More comprehensively it would thus mean the process of assigning tasks, allocating resources (human, physical, financial and information) in a coordinated way so that one can work towards a common goal and purpose (Chelladurai, 2005:188; Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:192; Schermerhorn, 2012:11). In relation to the sport management training for educators, it would thus mean that the school sport manager should be able to arrange the planned activities for school sport, through which set goals and objectives are to be attained, into interrelated groupings and place them in an organisational structure. Together with this the school sport manager should be able to formulate job descriptions as well as to develop and implement the relevant channels of communication and span of control for sport in the school.

Nieman (2006:21) sees *leading* as a fundamental management principle that can take the organisation to “new heights”. Leading can be described as the process of guiding and coordinating people’s actions and ideas in a certain direction (Robbins *et al.*, 2013:31). Leading therefore presupposes the motivation of people, selection of the most effective communication channel and the resolving of conflict. When leading school sport, the school sport manager is trying to influence the behaviour and appearance of others involved with sport on different levels in favour of the goals and objectives of both sport in the school and the school in the broader context (Soucie, 1994:2-3; Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996:293). Leading or giving guidance and direction requires school sport managers to dispose of the ability and characteristics to take the lead in school sport and to give guidance, to inspire (motivate) others to work hard and to accomplish the set goals. To give guidance and direction, and to take the lead, school sport managers should display particular attitudes to influence other school sport managers and members of staff to voluntarily contribute to the goals and objectives for sport in a specific school. Examples of these attitudes are innovation, loyalty, responsibility and social participation. Coupled with their ability to influence others to co-operate in the quest to accomplish the set goals and objectives of sport in a school, the current and aspirant school sport manager should also have knowledge of and be properly trained in different leadership models. They should be afforded the opportunity to leave their stamp on both learners and other school sport managers in their quest to cultivate and nurture their own or unique leadership approach. When the relevant training in this regard takes place, the school sport manager should further also be trained in the application and use of different leadership roles (interpersonal, decision-making, information) and skills (conceptual, interpersonal and technical). Reaching the set goals and developing school sport towards them, also implies the implementation of some kind of control.

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The fourth and final management function is *control*, which essentially involves setting standards, monitoring (measuring), comparing (evaluating) set and actual performance, and taking corrective action if and when needed (Haggerty, 1988:53; Lussier & Kumbal, 2004:10; Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:228; Robbins *et al.*, 2013:31). With regard to control and evaluation as management action, the school sport manager should obtain all competencies pertaining to the implementation and utilisation of control mechanisms developed specifically for sport in a school. Examples of these competencies are to prepare an agenda for a meeting; to lead a meeting; to give direction and guidance to the course or run of a meeting if and when required to do so; to analyse and interpret financial statements; to make comparisons between financial statements; to prepare a budget for school sport and compare the current or actual state of affairs and performance with reference to the set vision, mission, goals and objectives. Apart from the afore-mentioned aspects which should be included in a sport management training programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, one should also be able to have a meaningful conversation individually with subordinate school sport managers to establish goals and objectives both personally and for sport in the school, and to evaluate these goals and objectives as well as performance. In short, all these competencies require a salient and unique expertise regarding control as management activity.

Measured against the four management actions or tasks discussed in the preceding paragraphs, it could be reiterated that school sport is undoubtedly an enterprise in its own right. The rapidly changing circumstances, particularly in organised school sport, make it essential to follow these management processes to ensure that school sport will be managed in accordance with the demands and needs of an enterprise and of all consumers involved with schools in their pursuit to practise sport.

Besides the four fundamental management tasks or actions where management decides what must be done, how it must be done, when it must be done and whether assignments have been carried out, certain management functions of school sport can also be distinguished. These functions are particularly important in the management of school sport. That being said, the focus of control in a school, and more specifically in relation to this study in school sport, is normally on those functional areas of school sport which execute or perform activities to achieve the set goals and objectives of an organisation like a school. In the context of school sport, it is the physical resources (for example the stadium, sport fields and apparatus and equipment), human resources (for instance primary, secondary and tertiary consumer), financial resources (like sponsorships and donations) and information resources (as for example marketing information) which should serve

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as focus of control. Ultimately these areas, i.e. Key Performance Areas (KPA) bring to pass the success of sport in a school. It is thus imperative for the school sport manager to manage these internal resources of the school. Where these resources are grouped into different functions which are performed within the context of a strategy, it follows that the activities underlying the management process, namely planning, organising, leading and control, would form an integral part of the execution and application of the functions to be discussed in ensuing paragraphs. Subsequently, where the study under question focuses on a sport management training programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, it is essential to analyse the functional management areas of school sport in order to identify sport management competencies which are essential for training of school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.

3.6 FUNCTIONAL MANAGEMENT IN SCHOOL SPORT

In the previous paragraphs the management process was studied to identify possible sport management competencies which are regarded as important for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Training focus areas for training of school sport managers are thus of particular interest, as well as possible desirable learning outcomes that came to the fore, pertaining to the development of a sport management training programme for school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 5, Chapter 7).

Because sport and sport related enterprises, and more specifically in connection with this study, the management of school sport, like any other enterprise, also disposes of functional management areas. Parks *et al.* (2007a:189) share the widely held belief that these universally accepted functional management areas should also be reflected upon to identify possible sport management competencies required by school sport managers to manage school sport effectively and efficiently, in a continuous endeavour to reach the set goals and objectives for sport in the school. It is further imperative to note that the competencies underlying the management process (cf. par. 3. 5, p. 151) as advocated by Fayol should be seen in the context of the functional management areas for school sport. This implies that planning, organising, leading and control and evaluation should be performed as integrated management tasks within the management of the financial resources (financial management area). Likewise, the human resources for school sport should be properly planned and organised. Leading, guidance and direction should be offered and the necessary control be exercised, and if and when required, corrective steps and measures be taken. Although each of the functional management areas is managed separately, they all still function together

collectively within the broader context and strategy of the school to accomplish the desired goals and objectives of the school.

The management contemplates division of school sport in different functions or areas thus further assumes that KPAs should be identified by the contemporary school sport manager. These areas are those aspects and issues of the management of school sport which (Stoner *et al.*, 2001:563) should be managed effectively, efficiently and appropriately to ensure success. On the grounds of the reconnaissance of the micro, macro and market environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122; Fig. 8, p. 124), KPAs should be determined and addressed. At the management of school sport, the KPAs for example when hosting a hockey tournament or festival during the holiday could include the players, officials, marketing, security and facilities. From the preceding, one could thus deduce that the planned activity, through which the goals and objectives of the school are to be attained, should be placed in coherent structures and appropriate control should be exercised. However, to do this, it is essential to set specific criteria or standards whereupon performance could be measured (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997:136). All of this invariably supposes strategic management. Hence, apart from strategic management, together with human resource management and financial management, the school sport manager should also pay attention to other functional management areas like marketing, purchases, public relations, information and administration and operations. Each of these will be looked upon briefly. Subsequently, marketing as function of the school sport manager within the context of competencies required for the school sport manager in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, will be looked upon more closely.

3.6.1 The marketing function

As the business environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) is becoming even more complicated, and the needs of customers are becoming increasingly sophisticated, there is a need for enterprises to consider carefully the way they examine and carry out the marketing of the enterprise (Kriemadis & Terzoudis, 2007:28). A widely accepted definition of marketing is the one used by the American Marketing Association (AMA), who describes marketing as the “*activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners and society at large*” (Lancaster & Massingham, 2011:3). More specifically in relation to the present study, the marketing function in schools with regard to sport, presumes the process through which sport as a product or service is introduced to learners (Pitts & Stotlar, 2007:70-71). From the preceding, it can thus be inferred that marketing deals with the identification and satisfying of learners’ needs by creating and directing the flow of goods and services from the school to the learner (customer). In broad outlines, marketing entails an in depth

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study and analysis or scanning of the sport environment to obtain valuable and necessary marketing information in order to take a grounding decision regarding sport and related products and/or services which the school would be able to offer to the consumer at a specific place at a specific price (Chalip, 1992:87; Kim & Kim, 1995:209; Gray & McEvoy, 2005:229; Mullin *et al.*, 2007:11; Shank, 2009:3; Kotler & Keller, 2012:5). The consumer should thus obtain sufficient information regarding the product or service to take an informed ('buying') decision. In this process, the school sport manager should also (Berrett & Slack, 1999:114-115; Sullivan, 2004:128) keep in mind possible competition to make head against possible opportunities and threats - with due consideration to the internal strengths and weaknesses of the school. This would imply that the school sport manager should have in place the necessary marketing strategies to satisfy the needs of consumers. In so doing, the school sport manager should, however, always keep in mind the basic principles underlying the marketing of school sport.

As articulated in the previous paragraph, in relation to school sport, the marketing function in schools is generally recognised as the process through which learners are introduced to the school's sport products and services, after their needs have been identified. Presumably, the preceding view entails, that satisfying the learners' (customers') needs are at the heart of the sport marketing function in schools, as it is with marketing in any other context (Sullivan, 2004:128). More importantly, based on the definition of sport marketing by Shank (2009:3), "*Sport marketing is the specific application of marketing principles and processes to sport products and the marketing of sport products through association with sport*", one could assume that sport marketing encompasses two clear perspectives. Firstly, from the marketing through sport, and secondly, from the marketing of sport perspective. In relation to the current study, it would thus mean that marketing through sport deals with sponsorships, where a company will sponsor a team, an individual, an event or a sport facility of the school and by doing so, they are marketing themselves and/or their products through sport. Furthermore, consistent with the view of Gray and McEvoy (2005:229) who argue that by marketing through sport the individual is "*using sport as promotional vehicle*", schools often use their sport results to attract prospective learners, and more specifically, talented sportsmen and -women to their school (cf. par. 2.2.1, p. 26; 2.3.1. p. 37; 2.3.3, p. 45; 2.4.6, p. 90). From the marketing of sport perspective, different sport codes, for instance netball, soccer, hockey, rugby, cricket and athletics, equipment, kit and services such as physiotherapy, psychological counselling, parking and events can be marketed. Equipment, kit and services such as physiotherapy, psychological counselling, parking and events can all be marketed with different sport codes such as netball, soccer, hockey, rugby, cricket and athletics. In relation to the current study, it is crucial for the school sport manager to dispose of the ability to apply both perspectives

in the marketing of the school and the sport. Facilities of the school need to be marketed to ensure maximum usage, while sport should be marketed to ensure maximum participation.

Marketing can therefore be seen as the bridge between the school and the environment whereby the school and its market are brought together. Input in the vision, mission and strategies of the school is furnished through marketing; the resources of the school and the needs, desires, demands and preferences of the market (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) are correlated (Hansen & Gauthier, 1992:27; Fullerton, 2010:36, 64). It can be stated that the activities of sport in the school revolves around the marketing function.

3.6.1.1 The marketing process

Understanding how an individual makes a decision to participate in sport or sport related activities and programmes is critical to the school sport manager who wants to make customer-oriented marketing plans (Kang, 2002:173). From this it can be inferred that an understanding of how an individual makes decisions also requires an understanding and knowledge of the marketing process. The marketing process in school sport presupposes that learners and other consumers of school sport have different needs, desires, demands and preferences which should be satisfied by means of a purchasing transaction (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011:33-34). In a school, amongst others, sport participation is introduced to learners at a specific price, at a suitable place, by means of communication to current, prospective, promising and talented learners. When learners decide to participate or are lured to a specific school through various incentives, they accept the offer. It should nonetheless be made very clear that learners as well as other consumers are under no circumstances whatsoever compelled to purchase the sport product or – service (Hatfield *et al.*, 1987:136-137). It is precisely here where the school sport manager fulfils an important role when tasked to convince the consumer to purchase sport and sport related products and services. This is done by the school sport manager who disposes of a marketing strategy for school sport within the broader context of the school as a whole. It can therefore be deduced that the school sport manager should be able develop, formulate, compile and implement an effective and suitable marketing plan for the school.

Marketing plans serve several critical roles within an enterprise, as for instance a school. Cohen (1998:3) comments that a marketing plan “*allows everyone to see how their actions fit in with the actions of others*”, while Stotlar (2005:4) says it is beneficial for school sport managers and participants in sport to think of a marketing plan in terms of an analogy to which he simply refers to as a corporate “*game plan*”. More comprehensively, a marketing plan can be seen as a

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comprehensive framework, for the identification of the enterprise's marketing goals and objectives (Blann & Armstrong, 2007:199). Although authors and exponents like Sullivan (2004:138); Gray and McEvoy (2005:249); Pitts and Stotlar (2007:91-92), together with Mullins and Walker (2010:20) differ with regard to the broad framework of the marketing plan, they are unanimous, that it is the blueprint for action or the game plan and the road map to the successful marketing of an enterprise. The marketing plan of the school should for this reason enable the school sport manager to develop strategies, determine goals, objectives and priorities, as well as to compile schedules and budgets (Gray & McEvoy, 2005:249). Nonetheless, before any decisions regarding the preceding strategies, goals, objectives, schedules and budgets could be taken, it is advisable and recommended that the school sport manager should conduct proper market research within the context of the internal strengths and weakness of the school, to determine the desires, demands, preferences and needs of consumers, as well as possible opportunities and threats. This then supposes that the school sport manager should obtain an understanding of the implementation of marketing research to obtain the relevant information required to influence decision making regarding the marketing strategy for a target market.

After careful consideration has been given to the information obtained through the conducted market research, the school sport manager should account for different variables (marketing instruments), integrated in a marketing strategy that is aimed at the consumer, and ultimately to influence their decisions. Central then to the marketing plan are the variables (marketing instruments) which are used by the school sport manager to influence decision-making of the consumers of school sport. The following four marketing variables (instruments) influence the decisions of consumers in school sport, namely: (i) the sport product or -service; (ii) the place where the sport product or service is offered or made available; (iii) the method or way of communicating the market information (promotion); and (iv) the price of the sport product or -service (Blann & Armstrong, 2007:199).

In the school durable or physical products, like sport apparatus, equipment, apparel (clothing), facilities and amenities are made available for use by the consumer (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98), while services like sport participation on different levels are offered. Where the sport products dispose of unique characteristics, the marketing thereof would necessarily also be distinctive. The school sport manager should therefore have the ability and competence to offer appropriate sport products and services to satisfy the demand and needs of all consumers of school sport. This assumes that the product or service rendered should be of the highest quality and comply with the expectations of consumers, while the price is also acceptable in relation to the service provided. Furthermore,

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the school sport manager should also be able to position the product or service through a promotion strategy in the minds of the target market (Shank, 2009:189). In other words, the consumer should be properly informed and introduced to the place where the product or service is going to be rendered. It would thus mean that the school sport manager should be properly trained in the competencies that bear relation to the planning, implementation and evaluation of the marketing process of the school (Milne *et al.*, 1996:419-432). Ultimately, the implication hereof, is that current and aspirant school sport managers should obtain a thorough theoretical and practical understanding of the utilisation of the four marketing instruments (also called the four P's of marketing), namely product, place (distribution), price and promotion (marketing communication decisions) which form the key to unlocking the target market.

From the preceding it is clear that the school sport manager should have the necessary theoretical knowledge of the different market segments and target market as well as the practical expertise for identification of principles and criteria for meaningful market segmentation and target market selection. The *market segment* is the homogeneous group of sport and sport related consumers who (Mullin *et al.*, 2007:130; Fullerton, 2010:63) have similar wants, needs or demographic profiles towards whom a sport and sport related product, services, activities and programmes are targeted. The target market on the other hand, assumes a specific group of consumers in the market segment (Lancaster & Massingham, 2011:77). Selecting the target market is the process envisioned by Blann and Armstrong (2007:205) as "*picking the players*" who will allow the marketing plan to be a success. So, promising and talented young sport men and women aged between 6 and 19 (school going learners) are targeted by the school sport manager and are regarded as the target market, to increase the market value of the school and to optimise sport performance and results. This situation brings about a change in behaviour of consumers, which inevitably leads to the coming into being of behaviour patterns. Learners who initially participated in sport, could maybe lose interest, while other learners are now motivated to perform even better in order not to lose their place in the team. On the other hand, targeting promising prospective and new athletes could also motivate and lure those learners who previously did not participate in sport at all, to start participating in sport.

Besides the competencies required in the utilisation of the marketing instruments, current and aspirant school sport managers should also have the necessary knowledge in respect of behaviour patterns of consumers before and during decision-making when sport and sport related products and services are purchased. This assumes knowledge of the individual (needs hierarchy, attitudes, perceptions, learning readiness, personal traits and characteristics, and life style) and group factors

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(family, reference groups, opinion formers and cultural groups), which impact on the behaviour of consumers as well the process through which consumers go before a decision to buy or not to buy sport and sport related products and services (Arthur *et al.*, 1997:225-226). These aspects should however not only be theoretically obtained, but should also be utilised as instruments in the practical creation of a marketing strategy to identify and recruit targeted promising athletes. The school sport manager should therefore be able to market the sport and sport related products, services, activities and programmes of the school in an effective and efficient manner. According to Blann and Armstrong (2007:211-212) advertising, personal sales, sales promotion and publicity are important and valuable aids at the disposal of the school sport manager.

Recapitulating, it should be pointed out that all the competencies highlighted in the preceding paragraphs, should eventually be utilised to put into place an overarching marketing strategy for sport in the school through which the marketing of sport and sport related products, services, activities and programmes of the school can be undertaken in an effective and efficient manner. However, the principles (profitability, consumer orientation, competition, community, cooperation etc.,) which might influence the strategy should be kept in mind throughout. A sport management programme for educator training thus presumes that current, aspirant and future school sport managers should be properly trained in the compilation, implementation and evaluation of a marketing strategy for school sport. These overarching outcomes thus also imply various specific outcomes and competencies, as pointed out in previous paragraphs.

When the sport and sport related products, services, activities and programmes of the school, are marketed, it presupposes that these are produced or made available for use. Subsequently, a situation such as this means that school and the environment in which it is situated are in constant close contact with each other (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122). When this is the case, it is necessary to take and communicate the correct information to the consumer and related environment. It would in other words mean that the school and the school sport manager are assigned with and compelled to make a definite and concentrated effort, not only to comply with their corporate social responsibility, but also to develop and keep in place a good public relationship and understanding with the environment (society/community).

3.6.2 Public Relations

Public relations assume, *inter alia*, the establishment of a positive image of the school. In this regard Stoldt (2007:243) states that public relations comprise a deliberate, planned, continuous and persistent process of communication between the enterprise and the public to bring to pass,

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maintain and improve good relations. For Skinner *et al.* (2010:6) the purpose of public relations is to bring about mutual acceptability, goodwill and cooperation for the benefit and survival of the school. From this it can be inferred that public relations focus on the utilisation of communication techniques and aids in an endeavour of the school to portray or reflect positive images and messages to the public in order to inform them regarding the school's point of view about issues of concern and interest. Relationships with the public have to be nurtured and managed professionally to be successful. Quite often it is vital to create news about the school, its sport products and services or people.

The school should thus always strive to maintain the good favour or patronage of the community and environment in which it finds itself in everything which the role players do and set out to do (Duncan, 2002:7; Hoy & Miskel, 2008:31-33; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012:21). Authors like Hall *et al.* (2007:66-73); L 'Etang (2008:23); Van Rensburg and Cant (2009:38, 50; 119-134) as well as Gregory (2010:6-8) agree and are further of the opinion that public relations have three main goals to fulfil:

- The school should distribute information about itself to the public;
- It should try to change the actions, feelings and conduct of the public through powers of persuasion; and
- The actions and attitudes of the public and the school who wants to be at the service of the public should be coordinated.

School sport would to a large extent be able to perform the above-mentioned functions in the sense that various activities are executed to bring about positive relations with the public and the community in which it finds itself. It is important to mention that all these activities bear relation with the management of public relations, namely planning, organising, leading and control, and they are performed within the context of a strategy (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151; 3.6, p. 154) by the school sport manager. As was already mentioned, communication is pivotal in the planning and execution of the public relations programme of the school, and as such the school sport manager could endeavour to reflect, present and portray the image of the school to the public through their involvement in sport days, meetings, and participation of learners in sport. So doing, there are various means of communication media at the disposal of the school sport manager to perform this task. Examples of these are the spoken word, printed media (newspapers, magazines, internal publications, year papers), electronic media (Internet, web pages), visual and audio media (radio,

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television and video) as well as special occasions or events like press conferences, visits to prospective learners, open days, exhibitions and functions.

The school sport manager should therefore have the necessary knowledge and competencies to integrate, apply and use these communication media with the public relations programme of the school in general, but also more specifically to the benefit of sport in the school. This would thus mean an understanding of the theoretical aspects concerning the features, characteristics, advantages, disadvantages of each of the different forms of media, the way to utilise it as well as the effect or impact thereof on school sport.

Apart from a grounding knowledge of the different means of communication, the school sport manager should also be equipped and empowered to utilise publicity in the public relations programme of the school, specifically for sport. Aspects like the features of publicity, means to obtain publicity (unique special events or occasions like yearend functions, prize giving, award ceremonies, communication messages, press releases, donations and sponsorships), together with piloting of a communication campaign, are further aspects which could be built into a training programme for school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Through this the school sport manager would obtain the required competence to compile and implement a public relations programme for school sport.

Lastly the public relations programme should pass clear judgements about the manner in which the school meets its responsibilities towards interest groups inside and outside the school. These interest groups include learners, parents, educators, stakeholders, and suppliers, owners/shareholders in the case of independent schools, competitors and the broad community. In this regard the social responsibility of the school is specifically mentioned, outlined earlier in connection with the ethical aspects against the mentioned interest groups (Cassidy, 2005; Covell, 2005:132-133; Cassidy *et al.*, 2009:31-39; 68-82; 149-160; Andrews, 2011:166; Kennett-Hensel *et al.*, 2011:142; Smit *et al.*, 2011:467).

When the marketing plan for sport in the school is ready, it would mean that aspects regarding the product, price, place and communication were well-thought-out. Together with the mentioned aspects, particular attention should be paid to the financial side of the enterprise, as this is one of the key aspects whereupon the functioning of school sport revolves.

3.6.3 Financial function

Like in any other enterprise, in the pursuit of school sport, the school should also dispose of assets like for example sport fields, apparatus, equipment and buildings which can be regarded as essential for the practice of sport and the continued existence of the school (Gerber, 2000:86; Hollander, 2000:122; Hollander, 2007a:32; 35-37; 40-44; Fried, 2010:1). Together with this, other resources like labour and services, coupled with means of communication (Lim *et al.*, 1994:58-60; Hall *et al.*, 2007:291-302; Hoye *et al.*, 2009:241), are required by the school for the practice of sport in order to ensure future success and the effective as well as efficient functioning of the school and sport. Where a school, and more specifically school sport as an enterprise, disposes of its own unique ways to generate and obtain the required money and funds, it is consequently important, given the relation between the unique product and service offered by the school (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155) and generation and obtaining of funds, to look at the financial function in the context of the school and school sport in more detail.

In school sport the financial function assumes the flow of funds in the school; the purposeful financing of all activities and the management thereof. Various sources of income are available to be explored and used by the school, namely gate income, sponsorships, donations and sales of supporters' articles and memorabilia, souvenirs, refreshments, special events like for example a golf day, as well fundraising efforts and projects like raffles and Club 100 (Lardinoit *et al.*, 1998:60-62; Hoye *et al.*, 2009:205-206). The maintenance of the sport fields, printing of admission tickets and programmes during games and events, coupled with the payment of honorariums to outside coaches and bonuses for good performance and results (Copeland *et al.*, 1996:33-34; De Schriver & Mahoney, 2007:289) could be seen as expenses or an outflow of money. Costs involved with large capital items such as facilities, apparatus, equipment, vehicles, etc., constitute an important part of the financial expenses of the school. Management of cash flow is also important.

The in- and-out flow of the funds of the school specifically has to do with the manner in which funds are obtained (financing), the utilisation of funds to obtain assets (investment) and the administrative reporting (recording) of all the financial aspects of the school, and naturally implies financial management (Mason, 1997:203-206; Smith, 2008:203). Effective and efficient financial management according to Naidu *et al.* (2008:164); Odden and Picus (2008:29) as well as Du Toit *et al.* (2010:442) necessarily includes the efficient analysis, reporting, planning, control and evaluation of funds, the financing or capital structure, as well as the assets of the school.

It should nevertheless be emphasised that the different functional areas of management, as was the case with the external environment of the enterprise (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122), cannot not be seen in isolation of one another. These functions are thus also interrelated and interdependent. In other words, financial management in school sport should be seen within the context of the different variables of the environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) as well as the other functions of management like for example human resources, marketing, purchases and operations. Therefore, in order for the school sport manager to fully understand the essence of financial management, it is it imperative for school sport managers to acquaint themselves with and have a good understanding of different concepts frequently used in financial management. Examples of such concepts are balance sheet, asset and financing structure, capital, income, costs (expenses), profit and income statement (Daft *et al.*, 2010:240-253). These and other related aspects such as profit margin and profit relation would enable the current and prospective school sport managers to understand financial analysis, planning and control, as well as to implement measures and practices for sound financial management, not only in the context of school sport, but also in their general lives as citizens of South Africa.

3.6.3.1 Financial analysis, planning and control

Financial analysis, planning and control presuppose that the school sport manager should understand the general financial position of the school in a definite effort and attempt to reduce financial risks. Gouws (1994:119); Roos (1996:83); Mason(1997:207); Gerber (2000:51-52; 89); Gerrard (2004:162); Robinson and Newman (2005:65); Krotee and Bucher (2007:335); Stier (2008:234) and Mull *et al.* (2009:124) propose that the school sport manager should determine trends regarding the financial strengths and weaknesses of school sport, where after corrective actions, steps and measures (if required) should be taken. Translated into the current study in relation to school sport this would mean that the school sport manager should determine and formulate financial priorities and policy concerning purchases of equipment, apparatus and apparel (clothing and shoes), capital expenses such as the building of change rooms, a synthetic athletics track and an AstroTurf hockey field. Coupled with these competencies, the school sport manager should also be able to develop a sound financial policy and thereafter obtain authorisation from the SMT. Hence, the school sport manager should be able to prepare a budget for the respective teams and sport they are responsible for. A well prepared, realistic budget would not only afford the school sport manager the opportunity to make calculated forecasts and predictions, but also to compare and control (cf. par. 3.5, p. 151) the actual situation (results) with the anticipated (budget) results. In simple terms, the school sport manager should be able to prepare a budget and control

income and expenses as well as manage all other financial matters regarding the sport and allocated teams.

Apart from the execution or task of financial analysis, planning and control, financial management in the school to a lesser extent also presumes asset management or investment.

3.6.3.2 Asset Management

In more affluent schools, and also independent schools in particular, the management of assets means that school sport managers are often required to manage current sport facilities, equipment and apparatus, as well as to take decisions in collaboration with the SMT in connection with the purchasing of property and investment of capital (Hoye *et al.*, 2009:210; Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:487-497). This state of affairs presupposes that school sport managers should manage assets of the school to the best interest and advantage of the school as a whole. Examples hereof are the utilisation of property or part of land as a manner of investment, to hire out for example the cricket, rugby, hockey and soccer fields, the school's swimming pool as well as netball and tennis courts to local clubs, sport federations and sport academies, or to buy new property for additions to existing facilities. Together with this, the school sport manager should thus be able to compile a capital budget on the basis of which assets could be bought, maintained and kept in a good condition. This would therefore mean that the school sport manager should obtain the required financial resources and financing.

3.6.3.3 Financing

Lastly the school sport manager should be trained in the different ways to obtain the required financing. Where there are different options of financing available in financial markets and institutions, it is necessary for the school sport manager to have both a good knowledge of and a good relationship with different financial institutions, as well as an understanding of those aspects which might have an influence on short and long term financing decisions (Copeland *et al.*, 1996:33; Gerrard, 2004:162-181; De Schriver & Mahoney, 2007:283-286; Hoye *et al.*, 2009:205-214). Added to these competencies the school sport manager should also be able to identify those factors which influence the long term financing, optimal capital structure and cash flow management.

Where school sport to a certain extent is unique regarding the possibility to market itself through the sport products and services offered by the school, regarding these as opportunity to advertise, is one way to generate income (Staurowsky, 1996:401-404; De Schriver & Mahoney, 2007:288).

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As a matter of fact, as touched upon previously, increasing and intensified competition and increased media exposure to a large extent have compelled schools to use sport, well known sport personalities and talented athletes to attract learners as well as to market the school. Where the school is able to utilise this advantage, it inevitably tasks the school sport manager with the ability to identify possible sponsors, prepare an application for a possible sponsorship and to be trained in the skill to negotiate with prospective sponsors for a sponsorship.

That said, the school sport manager is often confronted by different challenges in the school regarding financial aspects. So the school sport manager more often than not does not dispose of sufficient funds and resources to ensure the optimal functioning and practice of sport. Given the unique circumstances and diversity of schools in South Africa, less affluent, remote and rural schools in particular pose challenges to the school sport manager to ensure that sufficient funds and resources are obtained for the optimal functioning of sport in the school. Subsequently, Barber (2001:389); Dixon (2003a:76); Armstrong (2008:211); Hoy *et al.* (2009:217) and Gebelein *et al.* (2010:122) recommend that school sport managers put in place a realistic, but also innovative budget philosophy which presents the opportunity for sport and related programmes, activities and services to grow. Through this, one could assume that the school sport manager should have the necessary knowledge and understanding to obtain different ways of financing. Thus, the school sport manager should be able to identify possible sponsors and donors, as well as to generate funds through projects, like golf days, fundraising efforts and various other ways and means - for example, branding. Inevitably, this assumes that the school sport manager should also be able to determine which equipment, apparatus and apparel (to name but a few) should be purchased for the practice of sport in the school.

3.6.4 The purchasing function

Just like the general public daily do purchases, it is obvious that schools should also do purchases to provide products and services, execute the administration of the school and ensure that the facilities are maintained and kept in good condition. This function of the school could be extraordinarily complex in certain cases and situations, but should ensure that goods and services are delivered or offered at an acceptable price, of high quality, in the correct quantity, in good time and at the correct place.

The activities of purchases presuppose various actions which should be performed, like for example the selection of suppliers, arrangement for transport of items, determination of the correct price, quality and place of delivery, as well as the storage of the required goods or items.

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Execution of the mentioned activities thus assume that the school sport manager and/or purchaser in the case of a school where educators or staff are assigned various responsibilities, should dispose of the ability to utilise management resources as for instance, a policy regarding internal purchase matters, ethical aspects, suppliers and a well-prepared, thought out and realistic budget in relation to available funds. Together with this, the school sport manager should make use of purchasing techniques like negotiation, research concerning purchases and price analysis in a quest to effectively manage purchases of sport equipment, kit, apparel, apparatus and stock of the school, to be used for sport.

The importance of the purchasing function for school sport lies therein that purchases of stock can be regarded as one of the biggest expenses of an enterprise such as a school, and coupled with that is the fact that the school sport manager is often 'hampered' by limited resources available (cf. par. 3.6.3, p. 163) to provide in the increasing demands, needs and desires of consumers (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122). Provided that purchases of stock for school sport are done effectively and efficiently, by the school sport manager, sport would then be offered to learners and the community as a unique, affordable product or service. This situation therefore would suggest that the school sport manager should know exactly which products or services are required in the market at a certain time. As a consequence thereof, school sport managers should give heed to which funds are available; the current and prospective school sport manager should therefore be competent to effectively manage the sport finances of the school (cf. par.3.6.3, p. 163). It further means that the school sport manager should be able to understand the principle of a budget and the relation between a budget and cash flow.

The management task of purchases presumes that the school sport manager should be able to undertake planning, organising and control of purchases. *Purchase planning* entails setting of purchase goals and objectives for sport which support the goals and objectives of the school as a whole. This is done on different levels of management, namely on strategic (top management), tactical or middle (preparation of the global purchases budget, long term planning) and operational (lower management) where purchases are done on the short term (cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141). Each of these levels requires specific competencies regarding purchases for school sport, and was already discussed earlier in this chapter (cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141).

In the context of school sport there is no purchasing division as such, but various persons are assigned specific tasks and responsibilities regarding purchases. This state of affairs brings about a unique situation in school sport and consequently also results in different structures responsible

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to take care of the purchasing function in schools, in accordance with the diverse needs and size of schools in the South African context. For the purpose of this study the different structures for school sport will thus not be discussed; a general structure for school sport was already presented earlier in Fig. 10 (cf. p. 149). It should suffice to say that the school sport manager should take note of the various factors that could play an important role in the decision where to purchase the school's equipment, apparatus, apparel and other items associated with and related to the provision of a product or service, for example refreshments, programmes, tickets for admission, trophies and the like when hosting an event or meeting. These factors include the hierarchical level of the designated person responsible for purchases, value of items purchased, situation in connection with the suppliers market, the size of the school, perception of top management regarding purchases and the integration of purchases- and material flow-activities (Moore *et al.*, 2008:538; Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:522).

What purchases for school sport do however require, is that persons should be carefully selected and placed to execute the respective purchasing activities. As was indicated in an earlier paragraph, school sport managers responsible for purchases relating to sport, should be able to implement a cycle for purchases, determine quantities for purchases, select appropriate suppliers, fulfil their role as negotiator and determine when to do purchases (timing of purchases). Each of these has a funded theory that should be attained by the school sport manager applying it in a practical way in the management of school sport.

Last, but not least, *control* of purchases, as is the case with any functional area of management in school sport, also determines the extent to which set goals and objectives for purchases are achieved or not. Although control as management action was already discussed in paragraphs 3.5, p. 151; and 3.6.3.1, p. 164 it is necessary to point out that control of purchases, besides that which was already indicated, should further entail aspects concerning knowledge of staff, point of view of suppliers and so more. This could be done through the determination and utilisation of various points of control and criteria, like cost savings, stock on hand, purchasing cost, workload and price efficiency (Du Toit *et al.*, 2010:513-522).

In conclusion, it can therefore be said, that a sport management training programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools should include both financial management and purchase management. Management implies the resources (human beings) required to execute and perform the different activities of management. For this very reason, the

human resource function as functional area of management is subsequently looked at more closely.

3.6.5 Human resource function

Contemporary business challenges and globalisation pressures have had a significant impact on the human resource management practices of many organisations. Concurrently, contemporary organisational discourse has revealed the need for more effective use of human resources and strategically aligned business outcomes to ensure that human resources provide a competitive advantage (Taylor & McGraw, 2006:230). In sport, we have witnessed a gradual professionalisation and commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82; 2.4.6, p. 90). This has led to the adoption of a more sophisticated, complex and strategic management approach to the management of the human resources of enterprises like sport organisations and schools, to mention but a few.

As mentioned previously (cf. par. 3.4.1, p. 141), management implies that people are required to perform and execute various activities. The most precious and valuable asset in any contemporary enterprise of the 21st century is precisely their human resources – the people who constitute the enterprise (Marken, 2000:43; Lipiec, 2001:143-144; Surujlal *et al.*, 2003:50; Kriemadis & Papaioannou, 2006:118) and not their activities, production line or stock. A study done worldwide amongst 531 executive members of staff in the human resource field and outside that by *Aligned at the Top* confirms these findings by Marken, Lipiec, Surujlal *et al.* and Kriemadis and Papaioannou that human resources are the most valuable asset of an enterprise (Ueckerman, 2007:1). The human resource function (Swanepoel, 2008:13; Stone, 2011:4) is seen as the productive use of all persons in the management structure of sport to accomplish the goals of the school and to satisfy the needs of the concerned persons (Chelladurai, 2006:xxv-xxvi; Ivancevich, 2010:4-5).

Where schools dispose of human resources, it is crucial that these resources should be properly managed. In this regard Noe *et al.* (2010:4), refer to human resource management as the policies, practices, and systems that influence employees' behaviour, attitudes, and performance, or more simply, "*people practices*". More wide-ranging, Lessing (2008:68) states that human resource management in school sport is considered as those activities whereupon the correct number of employees with the right qualifications and experience are available to accomplish the present and future objectives of the school. I nevertheless find Dessler *et al.*'s (2011:2) framing of human resource management quite clear, inclusive, all-encompassing and helpful when they opine that human resource management is the process of acquiring, training, appraising and compensating

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employees, and of attending to their labour relations, health and safety and fairness concerns. Quite simply, it thus implies that schools, like all other enterprises, should have human resources, develop these sources, hold onto and keep in place human resources in an effort to ensure the attainment of the goals and objectives set for the school (Noe *et al.*, 2010:4). Examples of resources in schools are team managers, technical officials, marketers, recruiters of sponsorships, sales staff of refreshments and tickets, staff responsible for the maintenance, clearing away and cleaning up, different sport organisers and all coaches. For all that, it is therefore imperative that a training programme for school sport managers should include human resource management as one of the areas for training. Subsequently, the provision of human resources as focus for training of school sport managers will be studied.

3.6.5.1 Human resource provision

Provision of human resources required for the practice of sport in the school, supposes that thorough planning is continuously conducted to determine which staff is required and will be required in the nearby future. Detailed and proper planning is necessary to ensure that the school has sufficient and able people to perform the different functions within the school. During the strategic management process, KPAs are determined which gives an indication of the human resources required to achieve the established goals and objectives of the school. A happy staff, like in any enterprise, would go a long way to ensure the efficient, effective and successful functioning of the school (Dessler *et al.*, 2011:14). Contemporary school sport managers in general have three kinds of human resources at their disposal, namely primary, secondary and tertiary. Their *primary resources* are the athletes who actively participate in sport, for example tennis, soccer, golf, netball and cricket, and parents. *Secondary resources* are the umpires, referees, coaches, outside coaches, officials, voluntary workers, sport medics, ground staff, emergency services and team managers, who all fulfil an indirect role in school sport. Sport media, sponsors and also donors can all be regarded as *tertiary resources*. For all that, the school sport manager should see to it that the needs, desires and demands of all human resources are satisfied and that they are happy in the tasks and duties bestowed upon them to be performed. So the coaches for instance could be sent on coaching courses and clinics to ensure that they stay ahead and also keep in touch with new and recent developments.

It is quite obvious and clear from the preceding, that proper *planning* for the use and application of human resources by the school sport manager should be done in accordance with the SMT and the desires, needs and demands of the school. The use or application of human resources bears a close relation with the level (basis) of participation, namely elite- and competition sport or merely

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social and mass participation. Although human resources normally comes from within the school's educator corps, there is currently a trend among more affluent, performance driven schools and schools with the necessary financial resources to increasingly make use of specialised and expert knowledge in so far as the level of participation is changing from merely social and mass participation to competition and elite sport (Mills & Schulz, 2009:6). Programmes of educators are often full or overloaded with educational matters related to teaching of academic subjects, and as such schools are either forced or decide voluntarily to rather make use of professional experts or voluntary workers. If educators are utilised to fulfil the human resource function regarding school sport, no planning is required in connection with the recruitment, scrutinising (screening), selection, placement and appointment, because educators are expected to be involved with and in sport by the task agreement of their appointment.

In stark contrast with appointed educators involved in sport as school sport managers, the task of the school sport manager is considerably more complex if the school wants to make use of human resources from outside the school. These resources should be managed professionally and thorough human resource planning is necessary to ensure the achievement of the set goals and objectives of the school (Goslin, 2007:2). Such planning implies first and foremost a thorough determination of needs to establish how many coaches are required and which qualifications and experience they should dispose of. According to Cuneen (1992:20); Brathwaite (2004:110); Chelladurai (2006:136-166); Hoye *et al.* (2009:140-141) and Ivancevich (2010:148, 161-165) aspects like an analysis of the post (job analysis) and a description of the post (job description) should be kept in mind.

After completion of the planning, *recruitment* could be done to hunt down suitable candidates. Recruitment, according to Cascio (2010:199) as well as DeCenzo and Robbins (2010:134) is utterly important, because enterprises compete with one another to identify, select and appoint the most and best qualified person. In the increasingly intensified competitive, professionalised and commercialised world of school sport (cf. par. 1.2.4, p. 9. and par.2.4.3, p. 82 to 2.4.6, p. 90) recruitment of sought after persons by means of advertisements in news papers and day pages, existing staff, distribution of different kinds of notices at colleges, universities, schools, direct contact with possible candidates, ex learners and use of consultants and agencies could prove of immense value.

Identified candidates are then thoroughly screened and scrutinised to determine whether they would be suitable for the position for which they are required (Snell & Bohlander, 2010:256).

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Appointment requirements concern *inter alia* years of coaching experience (Du Toit, 1986:34; Spies, 1992:103; Surujlal, 2003:70; 164-168; 259-260), educational background, experience with athletes (learners in school) and the philosophy and approach concerning coaching school sport. It is of the utmost importance that the school sport manager (Gerber, 2000:81) pays attention to the aforementioned aspects during selection and not only appoint coaches on the grounds of their previous or current record of participation in a particular sport.

Following the selection of the suitable candidate, an offer or proposal is made to the selected candidate. If the offer is accepted by the candidate, the next step is the placement of the person. Depending on the nature and requisites of the school, the suitable candidate could be exposed to a process of induction. Induction presupposes that (i) an overview of the history of the school, policy, purpose and type of product and/or service is provided to the new member of staff; (ii) a job description is given and discussed; (iii) the organisational structure is explained; (iv) benefits like pension scheme, medical aid, group insurance, cellular (telephone) and car allowance, housing allowance (boarding in hostel) and general procedures, rules, working hours, facilities, security, absence and remuneration (salary or wage) are explained (Dessler *et al.*, 2011:256-257). It is recommended and advisable to draw up a contract and contractual agreement between the appointed coach and the school to ensure written proof if any differences and disputes may arise. The school sport manager should therefore also dispose of a broad, general knowledge of legal aspects and matters concerning contracts, and should be competent to have a contract drawn up or to draw up a contract themselves.

It is quite clear from the preceding paragraphs that a sport management training programme for current and aspirant school sport managers should train and empower them in competencies subjacent to the provision of human resources for school sport. These competencies were highlighted in preceding paragraphs, but also implicitly underlined the importance of continuous development of human resources. Next, human resource development as component of the human resource function in school sport will be discussed.

3.6.5.2 Human resource development

The school sport manager should also make a significant contribution to the implementation of human resource development in the school, in particular by the provision of training (Clarke, 2000:63; Bradthwaite, 2004:115-116). Moreover, training and development, expressed in the words of Hoyer *et al.* (2009:148) is “*at the heart of an organisation that seeks continual growth and improvement*”. Where contemporary schools of the 21st century, in the unique South African

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context, are currently compelled to often make use of outside professional and expert coaches, (Surujlal, 2003:109-126; 173; 221-222; 266; Surujlal *et al.*, 2003:52; Surujlal & Singh, 2005:48; Surujlal *et al.*, 2005 88-90; Surujlal & Singh, 2006:23; Hollander, 2007a:39; Surujlal & Singh, 2007:94) the school sport manager should see to it that these coaches are qualified for the work (job) that has to be done, and to stay up to date with new developments, trends and techniques as well as undergo the required training if needed. To this end *training* is seen as a planned process to change and improve the attitude, knowledge and competency levels of an employee in an attempt to utilise the changed and improved employee to the advantage of the school (Gatewood *et al.*, 1994:403-406; Moore *et al.*, 2008:510-512; Erasmus *et al.*, 2010b:2). In the context of the current study, it could be rightly said that the person responsible for the preparation of the school's turf cricket pitch, should be trained in the latest preparation techniques in order to obtain the required competencies to prepare the pitch in the correct way. *Development* on the other hand, is concerned with the processes through which the school sport manager gains experience over a broad spectrum. Training and development therefore point to a direct relation with the obtainment of competencies. Not only the secondary human resources (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169) should be trained, but also all educators assigned to be school sport managers, who do not possess and display the necessary attitudes, knowledge or competencies. In this way training and development of human resources would be used to improve the work performance of all employees. Subsequently all human resources are made more valuable and precious for the school.

School sport managers should be able to manage the training and development of the limited human resources made available for the management of school sport (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2010:189). This entails that the school sport manager should be capable to analyse and determine the specific training requirements of the human resources assigned to sport in the school with due consideration of the goals and objectives of the school. Seen in the context of this study, it would further mean that the school sport manager should have good human relations and knowledge of human resources in order to propose, implement and identify ways for training and improvement of the human resources of the school, as well as to assess the undertaken training and the value and effect thereof for the school. To conclude the discussion of training and development appropriately, well trained human resources ultimately would not only contribute to the maintaining of standards of service in the school, but also to personal and economic growth of school managers (Skinner *et al.*, 2004:182). This in turn could play a significant role in the job satisfaction of school sport managers as well as to maintain high standards of performance, and in keeping or retaining them for the school (Dixon & Bruening, 2006:79).

3.6.5.3 Maintenance

The last important aspect of the human resource function in school sport, referred to in the previous paragraph, is concerned with the *maintenance* (retaining or retention) of the human resources which the school is comprised of. As the name implies, this aspect puts into place activities that will help retain productive employees and ensure they maintain their commitment and loyalty to the enterprise, which is essential to achieving the goals and objectives of the enterprise (DeCenzo & Robbins, 2010:33, 35). To do so requires some basic common sense and some creativity, which translated in the school sport setting, bear relation to the compensation (remuneration), labour relations, human resource administration, health and fitness, safety, well-being and wellness, coupled with support programmes. Each of these aspects requires certain competencies which the school sport manager should dispose of.

A profound knowledge of legislation and laws that bear relation with labour relations (Rossouw, 2010; Grobler *et al.*, 2011:481), in addition to the different ways in which compensation to coaches is determined - namely internal and external comparison, performance allocation (reward) and performance policy, to mention but a few (Surujlal, 2003:222; Bradthwaite, 2004:105, 117), in particular places immense pressure and responsibility on the school sport manager to ensure that human resources in the school can be retained.

Summarising, it can be stated that one of the contributions that good human resource management can make to the effectiveness of the school in general, but more specifically regarding sport in the context of this study, is to provide well-motivated and satisfied employees, i.e. if they (employees) see justice in the compensation given (Surujlal, 2006:1, 13). As such the school sport manager responsible for the human resource function in school sport is compelled to do a meticulous review of current and prospective school sport managers, and to be unambiguous when explaining what exactly is required and expected from them regarding sport in the school. At the very heart of the human resource function of school sport is the provision (making available), development and maintenance or retention of employees. Each of these fields supposes the attainment of various competencies for the effective management of administrative human resource matters, and reiterates the importance of the inclusion of human resource management in a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. These competencies were briefly touched upon in the preceding paragraphs, and will be looked at in more detail within the context of a sport management training programme for educator training in a later chapter.

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In the light then of limited number of educators (cf. par. 1.1, p. 1) involved in school sport as school sport manager, it would appear as if parents and other volunteer workers will play an ever increasing role in schools (Cunningham & Mahoney, 2004:59; Doherty *et al.*, 2004:110; Cunningham *et al.*, 2005:319; Costa *et al.*, 2006:165-166; Kim *et al.*, 2007:151; Surujlal & Dhurup, 2008:105). Parents are normally used for the sale of refreshments, tickets and programmes during games, events and meetings. One would be inclined to postulate that parents, old learners and voluntary workers should be involved to a larger extent in coaching, because there are not sufficient fit and capable coaches and funds (financial resources) available. Parents could also increasingly be involved to assist with facilities and events.

3.6.6 Facility and event management

Facility management entails a broad array of disciplines including but not limited to planning, designing, leasing, space planning, project management and building and operation management (Fried, 2010:24). More comprehensively, the management of facilities according to Stier (2008:290) refers to the use, scheduling and operation of the buildings and the grounds (turf, fields, and acreage) owned or utilised by the sport enterprise. Maintenance deals with the upkeep, care and support of these same buildings and grounds. In this sense the grounds associated with the sport entities can be thought of as outdoor facilities, while buildings are indoor facilities. Further, indoor facilities can be thought of as possessing both interior and exterior building systems. Translated and applied in the school setting, the management of facilities (physical resources), in simple terms, according to Schwarz *et al.* (2010:3) is the process of planning, organising (administration), coordinating, supervising and evaluating the safe and secure day-to-day maintenance and operation (functioning) of the facility in a financially and environmentally sound manner. By the very nature of the beast, school sport activities are also associated with some types of facilities and these activities naturally require facilities like apparatus, pavilions for spectators, a swimming pool and fields or courts (Duvenage, 1986:29; Du Preez, 1991:3, 87, 89; 324-362; Spies, 1992:94,96; Gerber, 2000:81-82; Hollander, 2007a:31-37; 40-43). Almost every school sport manager is involved in some way or another with facilities and/or equipment and apparatus within facilities. The status or state of facilities directly reflects upon the school sport manager(s) in charge and will have a significant impact on the success or failure of sport in the school, its programmes and its activities. The school sport manager might be required to be knowledgeable (or become knowledgeable) in terms of any one or more of the above mentioned facilities and as such should be responsible to take charge of and exercise control regarding apparatus and equipment during meetings and events to ensure the safety of spectators and

participants. This would be seen as one their operational tasks (cf. par. 3.6.8, p. 190; Fig. 12, p. 199).

Despite the outcomes of events being well recognised, there appears to be a lack of a clear, all-embracing definition for events (Tassiopoulos, 2010:9). An extensive literature review by Jago and Shaw (1998:29) confirms that it is unlikely that a single, all-embracing definition can be developed, as such a phenomenon includes a vast array of types of and perspectives on an event that may differ when viewed from a national, international or local level (Tassiopoulos, 2010:9). Smith and Peterson (1988:79) describe an event from an operational standpoint as abstracted segments of on-going, continuous organisational processes which can only be somewhat artificially separated from these processes, while Getz (1997:4-11) proposes that events be regarded as temporary occurrences, either planned or unplanned, with a finite length of time. Both Masterman (2004:16) and Allen *et al.* (2011:11), build on a model offered by Jago and Shaw (1998) that appears to encapsulate different interpretations and terminology of events like hallmark, mega, major and minor events referred to by various authors, like Hall (1992); Getz (1997) and Goldblatt (1997; 2011) in a ranked structure that indicates scale and size, and offers an explanation of the relationship between the various types of events. Allen *et al.* (2011:11) simply describe an event as transient, and a unique blend of its duration, setting, management and people. For all that one could thus say that an event can be any unplanned (ordinary) or special (planned) activity which differs in nature (special, mega, major, minor), status or prestige, attracts crowd and media attention, is infrequent and belongs to a particular place, or one-time, recurring, one or several days in nature; and size and scale can differ enormously.

Schools are involved with events at intra- and inter-competition levels, and events are staged in schools at local, district, regional, provincial, national and international level (cf. par. 2.2, p. 26; Fig. 2, p. 36; 6, p. 111). In accordance with the definition offered in the previous paragraph, can major school events be one-time or recurring events, one or several days in nature, and size and scale can differ enormously. Thus, the kind of school sport events referred to vary greatly in scale and profile. On the one hand there are the Youth Olympics, FIFA Soccer World CupTM, Rugby and Cricket World Cup for u/19s, and many international championships, such as those for athletics, swimming, judo, cycling, etc, which are all one-time staged as far as the hosts are concerned and are often bid for. On the other hand, there are recurring events such as the four Grand Slams for juniors in tennis (Wimbledon, Australian, French and USA Open), the Wildeklaewer Super Sport Challenge for rugby and netball and many more. In relation to school sport, a sport event is only a small part of the school's daily education opportunities in the process of the development of

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learners. According to Késenne (1998:45); Masterman (2004:24); Ammon and Stotlar (2007:300) and Wanklin (2010:109) event management focuses on the effective management of a sport event in order for participants and spectators to have a positive experience. This would further imply the management of specific rituals, traditions, meetings, incentives, conventions, festivals, shows, festivities, celebrations and exhibitions, which are planned and presented continuously to achieve specific social, cultural or corporate goals and objectives (Allen *et al.*, 2011:11-16).

For the school sport participant, effective management of sport events means that the programme and facilities are managed in such a manner that participation (Lyberger & Pastore, 1998:139; Adeniran & Ikpo, 2001:353-354; Arthur, 2004:341; Singh, 2004b:141; 151-152; Singh & Surujlal, 2009:189; 201) can take place without any negative influences like misbehaviour among spectators, and that safety of participants do not gets in among. For the spectators, this would mean that an event could be attended where the sport happenings or actions, parking, admission or access to facilities and ablution facilities (toilets) are of high quality (Kraus & Curtis, 2000:3; 12-14; Mulrooney & Styles, 2005:142; Ammon & Stotlar, 2007:294; Fried, 2010:279-286) and they dispose of the time to attend the event. Steyn *et al.* (2004); Beauchamp *et al.* (2005:265); Ammon and Stotlar (2007:300); Mull *et al.* (2009:23-25); Schwarz *et al.* (2010:133) and Allen *et al.* (2011:50) all further argue that the programme should be enjoyable and well organised. Facility management also bears relation with marketing (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155) and financial management (cf. par. 3.6.3, p. 163). According to Gladden *et al.* (2005:273); Supovitz (2005:112); Ammon and Stotlar (2007:299-300) and Goldblatt (1997; 2011) successful event management requires effective and efficient planning, marketing, financial control and many more actions related to management. This also means that spectators, supporters and the crowd should be managed if they get carried away by their experience of sport to such an extent that certain sports (Kassin *et al.*, 2008:402-403; LeUnes, 2008:229-230; Katch *et al.*, 2011:387-390; Plowman & Smith, 2011:620; 636-637; Weinberg & Gould, 2011:110-111; 537-550) are characterised by, and in fact, well-known, for accumulated aggression. A case in point, illustrating accumulated aggression in relation to school sport, is rugby and soccer. It is thus fair to say that event management also implies control over alcohol management and medical and emergency medical services.

Crowd and spectator violence is a workaday occurrence in school sport. The extent hereof is illustrated by various media reports and articles.⁴⁹ Another common occurrence is misbehaviour or

⁴⁹Cf (Williamson, 2004:3; Steenkamp, 2005b:23; Steenkamp, 2005a:16; Burger, 2006:4; Anon, 2007:10; Barnard, 2008:1; Hermanus, 2008:4; Maesela, 2008:20; Scholtz, 2008:6; Viljoen, 2008:1; Williams, 2008:1; Malan, 2010:6; Pretorius, 2010:1; Staff Writer, 2010:3; Potgieter, 2011a:1; 2011c:5; 2011b:10; Beeld, 2012:10; Fourie, 2012; Harmse,

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misdemeanour, especially during soccer matches, which is often brought about and helped along by excessive use and abuse of alcohol and liquor. This clearly indicates how urgent and desperate the conation is to be part of the group and the pleasure that the “adrenaline rush” (epinephrine) and the violence associated therewith could bring about (Coakley & Pike, 2009:255-262; Crain, 2011). In order to prevent damage and violence amongst the crowd and spectators, the school sport manager should (Ammon & Unruh, 2007:355-356; Fried, 2010:306) remove those who transgress or trespass well in time. Effective alcohol management together with crowd and spectator management therefore demands that the school sport manager (Singh, 2005:96; Schwarz *et al.*, 2010:212) compiles, puts in place and implements a code of conduct for parents, coaches and spectators to take strict steps against those guilty of misbehaviour and misconduct.

From the preceding paragraphs, it is clear that facility management, not only happens and takes place on those days when activities are offered, but is considered a continuous, on-going process, which requires continuous maintenance and upkeep of the facility so that the facility does the school credit and is to the ultimate advantage of the school. Because funds in a school are often limited, facilities can be utilised to generate funds. This state of affairs has brought about the addition of scheduling as another task or responsibility of the school sport manager. *Scheduling* implies that the school sport manager should see to it that there are no clashes and that facilities, apparatus and other equipment are available to persons, institutions, federations, the like who make use of the school’s facilities (as for instance the well-equipped gym and swimming pool of the school). If necessary, a contract or mutual agreement could be concluded between the school and those who hire facilities (like the cricket field and nets). Thus *contracting* takes place and additional funds can be generated.

Consequently, the school sport manager should dispose of the necessary competence and knowledge to conclude contracts and be able to negotiate in order to make facilities available to the community for use in the best interest, and to the advantage, of the school. Effective contact and good liaison (connection) between the school sport manager, community and the school should (Duvenage, 1986:29; Spies, 1992:114, 154; Gerber, 2000:81; Vosloo, 2007:254) ensure the optimal use of facilities. It is nevertheless of paramount importance that, in the process, school sport managers should never lose sight of the fact that they are still primarily responsible for the management of their respective schools’ own games or matches, like rugby, cricket, netball, soccer

2012:1; Nel, 2012:2; Otago Daily Times, 2012; Rademeyer, 2012b:3; Sharim & Pretorius, 2012:1; Van Wyk, 2012:3; Van Wyk & Sharim, 2012:1; Viljoen, 2012:2)

or hockey. Together with this, ticket sales for admission and refreshments as well as sales of refreshments should be arranged.

Generally speaking, school sport managers need not be experts in each and every type of indoor and outdoor facility that is used by the school or programme. That is why experts are secured in the areas of facility planning, facility maintenance and facility construction. Nevertheless, it is necessary for the typical school sport manager to be generally knowledgeable in the areas of facility management, facility maintenance and facility construction in order to be able to intelligently converse with experts in these fields and to make appropriate and timely decisions. One of the biggest responsibilities of the school sport manager in this regard, is to take into account the school budget during the planning, design, construction and putting in place of the required facilities (Westerbeek *et al.*, 2005:53; 65-75; Mull *et al.*, 2009:122). If members of the community are involved with the planning of facilities, in particular, they will feel more positive about the facilities and the construction thereof (Bramwell, 1997:167; Emery, 2002:316; Waitt, 2003:195; Krotee & Bucher, 2007:306). It is nevertheless advisable to secure the services of all concerned parties and affordable experts (for example engineers and architects) in the areas of facility planning, maintenance and construction (Arthur, 2004:333-334; Stier, 2008:293; Schwarz *et al.*, 2010:60-63; 172).

Not only Priest and Gass (2009:128), but also Allen *et al.* (2011:111) are of the opinion that thorough and proper preparation is the key to any well-planned, organised and coordinated event. Only then would it contribute to the holistic development of learners and a positive experience of sport. Nevertheless, the possibility of injuries, accidents and any unforeseen happenings which might jeopardize the safety of participants and spectators, given Murphy's Law, should not be discounted. For this very reason, the school sport manager should thus also be able to manage risks.

3.6.7 Risk management

Most educational institutions in Africa have been influenced by the British system of education. One of the lasting legacies of British colonialism is the philosophy that significant benefits could be derived from participation in sport and sport related activities and programmes, and the diversity of such activities continues to grow. The central idea is that personal and social development of learners can be considerably improved through such activities (Amusa, 1999:333-334; 345-347; Grayson, 2001:5; Amusa & Toriola, 2003:242-245; Amusa & Toriola, 2006:220; Amusa & Toriola, 2008:355; Amusa *et al.*, 2008:115; Amusa *et al.*, 2009:139; Singh & Surujlal, 2010:107; Toriola,

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2010; Toriola *et al.*, 2010:332-334). Schools as educational institutions are thus in a unique position to provide several opportunities for learners to safely participate in school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes and to motivate them to remain physically active during adulthood. South African schools provide learners opportunities to participate in both intramural and extramural sports. Where the resources permit, schools also offer PE as a component within the Life Orientation (LO) syllabus as a compulsory subject. Moreover, PE as a component within LO is compulsory, but is often neglected, and it remains an open question whether PE is actually taught, and whether or not the set outcomes are achieved.

Although schools are an established health-promotion setting, in most South African schools formal PE is non-existent. Wherever PE was offered, it has been significantly downscaled. This situation can be ascribed to a lack of qualified PE specialists and limited funding available for such low priority, non-examination subjects at schools (Van Deventer, 2002b:104; 110-111; 114-115; Singh, 2004a; Naidoo *et al.*, 2009:7; Draper *et al.*, 2010:15; Van Deventer, 2010:8-10; 15; 17-21). Furthermore, the government's national agenda appears to be focused on promoting elite sport at the expense of PE (Van Deventer, 2004:115) and has stated in numerous policy documents that the emphasis is on mathematics, science and technology (Van Deventer, 2005:150-153).

Because of insufficient time and attention allocated to PE, the learners' coronary risk and fitness profiles have been negatively influenced. The inadequacy of PE specialists at schools, has negatively affected extracurricular sport and sport related programmes and activities and this has been further exacerbated by the increased reliance of learners on technology, which has promoted a sedentary lifestyle at a critical developmental phase in their lives (Van Deventer, 2004:111-112). Subsequently, health risk behaviours (problems) associated with a sedentary lifestyle, have had a major impact on learners in South African schools. Examples of some of the leading health problems among learners in South African schools (Kemp, 2008:1-4; 13; Naidoo *et al.*, 2009:7) include obesity, overweight, stunting and early nutritional deprivation.

Despite the sport development continuum referred to in an earlier paragraph (cf. par. 2.6, p. 111; Fig. 6, p. 111) being based on a sound philosophy, the government's national agenda appears to be focused on promoting elite sport at the expense of PE (Van Deventer, 2004:115), and this exerts even further pressure on learners to excel in school sport so that they feed into the club system of high performance sport. The concern about the state of play in school sport is heightened as several studies indicate that the actual number of learners participating in sport and sport related activities and programmes has increased overall. This is due to the increased access

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of learners to sport participation and to the pervasive influence of the media and sport on youth and children (Grayson, 2001:2,4 ; Singh, 2004a; Singh & Surujlal, 2010:108). Quite clearly then, the preceding paragraphs attempt to strengthen and stress the importance of the current research and are directly in accordance with the aims of the current study (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12).

Therefore an obvious question to ask is whether learners at schools are not exposed to increased risks of harm and injury by participating in school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes. Added to this, because sport is a highly child-populated domain, it is also critical to establish child-protection measures to reduce the potential for child maltreatment such as neglect, emotional, sexual, and physical abuse, (Kerr & Stirling, 2008:307) which implicate risk in school sport. In particular, one has to look at the competencies required by current and future school sport managers to comply with their responsibilities, in terms of providing a safe and secure learning environment, as well as opportunities for learners through their participation in sport and sport related physical activities, programmes, services and products offered to learners and other consumers. In a learner-centred (athlete centred) environment, it is expected that learners would be the primary beneficiaries of any improvements made to the manner in which school sport managers plan and implement safety precautions and procedures.

While the purpose of this section is not to delve into every aspect of participation in school based sport and sport related physical activities and programmes in detail, nor to establish whether outcomes are achieved or not; it is not to debate the merits of sport and sport related physical activities and programmes, implicating PE as a stand-alone subject; the purpose is to provide information about and elaborate on the circumstances that provide the backdrop for the rationale of this study, as was already touched upon briefly in Chapter One (see par. 1.2.5, p. 10). It is therefore crucial to investigate which competencies the school sport manager requires for the manner in which the expected outcomes for LO (specifically PE) are to be met, and in particular which preventive strategies school sport managers implement to ensure that learners are not exposed to unnecessary risks through their participation in sport activities.

From the preceding paragraphs one could clearly derive that the school sport manager should be able to manage risks in schools in an effective and efficient manner so as to take care of learners in their charge when participating in sport and sport related physical activities and programmes. Although school sport and sport related activities, programmes and services can be entertaining and beneficial to people's health, they can also become perilous and conceal risks. Risk has always been related to unpleasant outcomes like harm, danger, hazard and loss. In the light then

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of the backdrop of the preceding paragraphs, a risk can be defined as a potential hazard, or the possibility of danger (harm) occurring (Cloete, 2005:121). Simply stated, a risk thus implies the possibility of injury or loss which may occur during any event or activity. A risk furthermore supposes the development of a comprehensive risk management strategy for school sport managers. To this end, various authors and exponents of risk like Gray (1995:53); Body and Moiseichik (1999:119); Singh and Goslin (2001:329); Arthur (2004:330); Elliot (2004:424, 426); Young (2004:62); Appenzeller (2005:5) Demitriadi and Demitriadi (2007:23-24) Singh (1999:145; 162; 2001:81; 2004a; 2005:96; 2006a:192) together with Singh and Surujlal (2009:201; 2010:118) have universally emphasised the development of a comprehensive risk management plan for school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes, and a risk management strategy for school sport managers.

Risk management deals with the reduction of exposure to risks which could result in loss of assets or profits (Appenzeller, 2005:8-9; Clarke, 2005; Cloete, 2005:122). More comprehensively, Valsamakis *et al.* (2010:12) assert that risk management is a managerial function aimed at protecting the organisation and its people, assets and profits against the physical and financial consequences of risk. It involves planning, coordinating and directing the risk control and risk financing activities in the organisation. Implicit to this definition is, that since risk management is a management function, the risk manager will be involved in strategic decision making and thus requires a comprehensive, proactive and inclusive approach to the broad and complex activities regarding risk management. Translated in the school sport setting, risk management in school sport, according to Krotee and Bucher (2007:438), assumes protection of participants and a continuous process of identification, evaluation, analysis and control regarding supervision and operations management. Following that, it should be quite clear that the school sport manager is required to conform to certain standards and duties of care to protect others against unreasonable risks or harm. In order then to take precaution, Singh (1999:165) on numerous occasions and in various studies has repeatedly recommended that a risk management policy should be in place. Moreover, similar recommendations were made in subsequent years by Singh (2001:81; 2004a:1; 2005:96; 2006a:192); Singh and Goslin (2001:329) together with Young (2004:62), while Van Deventer (2002b:106; 2002a:438; 2004:115-118; 2005:150; 2010:1) questioned the ability of the DoE, who notwithstanding the legislative and constitutional framework for education and the efforts of the past, had no policy on the planning, provision, financing, coordination, management or quality assurance of PE and school sport and no personnel dealing with it, until as recently as June 2011 when a new policy for school sport was tabled. This scenario is further exacerbated by a lack of infrastructure, equipment, competent staff to implement and maintain proper school sport and

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sport related physical activities and programmes, as well neglect to pay heed to concerns and recommendations from knowledgeable experts and proponents of risk management in contemporary schools. This further emphasises the need for proper training for school sport managers, as was repeatedly pointed out in this chapter.

Taken together, because of international concerns, Singh (2001:80-81) identifies the following key dimensions in a content analysis of risk management principles and practices that should be included in a risk management policy to promote safety and security in school sport: (i) Supervision and instruction; (ii) Facilities and equipment; (iii) Medical care, travel and transportation; (iv) Insurance; (v) Civil (Human) Rights and (vi) Written documentation (recording and reporting). By understanding and using these risk management ideas, the current and future school sport manager would demonstrate to their customers (learners, athletes, etc) that they are proactive, care about their health and well-being and take all reasonable precautions to ensure that participants, spectators and other team members enjoy a quality experience in the safest environment possible.

Halsey (2005:151); Krotee and Bucher (2007:438); Van der Smissen (2007:58) and Priest and Gass (2009:93) distinguish two types of risk, namely risk of financial losses and risk of personal injuries. The *risk of personal injuries* is inextricably associated with sport (Cloete, 2005:121), because sport is characterised by inherent risks and dangers which may be due to its very nature. Examples of these in school sport are soccer (football), rugby, boxing, gymnastics, hockey and basketball. Schools as enterprises are however not safeguarded (protected) from *financial losses* brought about when a fire for example breaks out in the sports hall or gymnasium. The school sport manager should take cognisance of these risks thoroughly and ensure that risk protection is obtained to manage any possible loss or risk. This presumes that the school should have a comprehensive insurance plan in place.

According to Singh and Surujlal (2010:113) the purpose of insurance is to help schools protect their property and meet their legal obligations without having recourse to the scarce funds required to provide education. Risk management related to financial losses is normally associated with insurance (protection) of buildings, expensive equipment, apparatus and apparel, sport stock in storerooms and unemployment insurance. It is therefore critical that schools arrange insurance against possible financial loss as a result of theft and fire. These aspects of risk management do not fall within the management domain of school sport managers, but should rather be managed by the school itself or the department of education. As such, school sport managers should be

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informed about the extent of insurance and also understand the different categories of insurance, especially the need for liability insurance, because there is little advantage in having insurance, if the monetary amounts are not adequate or kept current. Where the school does not have expertise in insurance matters, it is recommended to engage a legal advisor (Loubser, 2000:5-31; Oberholzer, 2000:12-11; Grayson, 2001:86; Singh & Surujlal, 2010:113).

The onus for the protection and reasonable care taken for the safety and security of the school's property, welfare and protection of learners nevertheless rests with the school sport manager who ultimately should be able to manage any loss or risk. Physical sport related injuries to players during the course of a game or event are everyday occurrences. To this end, negligence and ignorance may hold various negative consequences for the school sport manager. Because learners do not have maturity and judgement, they are vulnerable and incompetent, and especially those under fourteen years of age need parental and educator (school sport manager) involvement in their care and raising (Schoon, 1994:51; 157; Tymowski, 2003:123-124; Singh, 2005:84). This implies that there are also legal implications to the involvement of school sport managers, and in particular those in primary schools, who like all school sport managers (even volunteers who undertake certain responsibilities), act *in loco parentis*, literally meaning "*in the place of parents*". As a result thereof, school sport managers have certain legal duties, responsibilities and obligations to ensure that they protect learners in their custody against hazards and liabilities as their parents would take care of them. Conversely, learners have the right to be protected (Singh & Gray, 2002:408-422; Singh, 2003:53-54; Singh, 2006a:183; 2006b:1-3; Singh & Surujlal, 2009:192; Singh & Surujlal, 2010:109; Oosthuizen & De Wet, 2011:33-34). For this very reason the school sport manager is charged with an obligation to act in the best interests of learners, as is firmly entrenched in the Constitution (Sec. 28(2), Act 108 of 1996), which provides that "*a child's best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child*" (South Africa, 1996b:28) Further on school sport managers are also required to exercise their duty of care where there is foreseeable risk of harm or injury, a breach of which will lead to liability. Understandably, the standard of care will be influenced by several factors such as the age and maturity of learners, their size and skill levels (Grayson, 2001:37, 97).

Be that as it may, the views expressed in preceding paragraphs indisputably prove that school sport managers have an ethical and legal obligation to plan and present reasonably safe school sport and sport related physical activities, programmes and services on the one hand, while on the other hand all possible precautionary measures and actions should be taken to deal with injuries and emergencies. Prevention is critical, as a wide range of injuries are litigated, and such lawsuits

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often result in schools and school districts having to pay costly damages to injured parties (Barrios *et al.*, 2007:277-279). For all that, prevention of injuries and dealing with emergencies when planning, designing and offering school sport and sport related physical activities, programmes and services assume that the school sport manager (Loubser, 2000:5-31; Singh, 2001:80; Singh & Surujlal, 2009:192; 2010:109), will address the problem of safety in the following manner: (i) Ensure all school sport managers are competent to perform their jobs, are trained to adopt existing legal standards (Carpenter, 2000:44; 52-53; 147; Halsey, 2005:154-155) as well as professionally prepared to coach or supervise sport and sport related physical activities and programmes; and (ii) Hire appropriate, qualified personnel to utilise safe teaching and coaching methods and techniques in an endeavour to provide safe environments (National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), 2004). Coupled with that, the school sport manager should be able to supervise all activities and programmes and also has the responsibility to adequately warn participants and spectators of the risk of injuries, match participants in sport, while the importance of educating the public in reducing litigation cannot be underestimated (Parmanand, 1987:5,126.336; Gardiner *et al.*, 2012:502-503; 514;533-541). Adequate supervision should therefore always be provided, even during sport practice sessions and even the more so in specialised areas such as change rooms and weight rooms or gymnasiums. Experienced school sport managers would certainly be able to attest to the significance of supervision in these specialised spaces as potentially risky behaviour manifests naturally after boisterous physical activity.

Greenberg and Gray, (1992); Singh and Gray (2002:409) and Singh and Surujlal (2010:110), concede that one of the most common areas of litigation in school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes concerns the area of supervision. As supervisor the school sport manager have a key role to play in this regard, in particular when delegating their responsibilities. When delegating responsibilities to subordinates, school sport managers have to supervise work periodically to ensure sound instruction, and that safety issues are taken care of. Some of the procedures the school sport manager could resort to in LO and PE in particular, include submission of lesson plans for inspection and evaluation of practical lessons. Further on, is it important that playgrounds are adequately supervised during recesses or breaks when many learners practise various sport and sport related physical activity skills (Spengler *et al.*, 2006:92, 134). Finally, because control and management of supervision are probably the most important issues of risk assessment since they work in concert with an appreciation of the suitability of premises and equipment, Singh and Surujlal (2010:114) recommend that experience of a school sport manager should include the ability to deal with any medical emergency and first aid in addition to the ability

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to teach or coach the sport itself. From this recommendation, one can therefore deduce that the authors allude to and emphasise that the competent school sport manager has done proper, up to date first aid training and holds a valid first aid certificate, and ensures that suitable first aid equipment is readily available in emergencies. It would further mean that the school should have a well-equipped first aid room and that emergency- and sport medical services (like an ambulance) are present during games, matches, meetings and events.

Besides precautionary measures relating to instruction and supervision, it is also the duty and legal responsibility of the school sport manager as emphasised by Singh (2004a) to ensure that safe facilities for athletes and spectators are provided and that equipment meets the minimum prescribed safety standards. This implies that the school sport manager is also responsible for a supervisory role with regard to repairs and maintenance of sport facilities and equipment. In this regard Cloete (2005:127) opines that standard operating procedures are the most efficient and effective way to reduce risks. It involves providing a step-by-step set of instructions which give detailed direction for the appropriate courses of action for a particular situation. He further asserts that standard operating procedures should be developed for risks that are both transferred and retained and decreased. Apart then from standard operating procedures, school sport managers also have to establish, implement and uphold policies, rules and regulations relating to the safe use of such facilities in order to protect learners and other school sport managers (educators) from health risks and hazards. This includes exposure to inclement weather, traffic, unsafe playing surfaces, poor lighting, and poorly maintained equipment. For schools with swimming pools, specialised safety and maintenance procedures and staff trained in life-saving are essential (National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), 2004; Spengler *et al.*, 2006:104, 109).

Repairs and maintenance of sport facilities and equipment would further mean that the school sport manager should examine equipment used in contests to ensure that it is free of defects that could cause injury. Added to that, they could do a thorough inspection prior to any game, match, meeting or event of the terrain for potential hazards such as, for example, cans, bottles, pieces of glass, hard walls, slippery floors and glass windows, and should adhere to rules, policy and regulations of the relevant school sport governing association. So rugby and netball for example demand protective padding of the goal posts, while the rugby field should be partitioned off with chevron tape to keep undesirable spectators and supporters from the field of play. It is also crucial that school sport managers enforce the association's rules and regulations upon learners so that injuries and accidents are reduced or prevented. This would mean that the school sport manager

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should have knowledge of and enforce the use of protective equipment and safety gear such as helmets, shin guards, pads, scrum caps, head protectors and mouthpieces, not only during competition, but also during practice sessions (Spengler *et al.*, 2006:80-83). Particular care should be demonstrated in the application of safety rules, as opposed to ordinary playing rules, of a sport that involves risks of serious injury in the game. This is particularly relevant in the case where laws of a game such as rugby have been amended specifically with the aim of reducing the risk of injury in a scrum, or modified rules have been introduced for younger players to protect them from harm (Loubser, 2000:5-2; 5-24; 25-41; Grayson, 2001:51).

Congruent with the views of Jordaan and Loubser (2000:8-1), Grayson (2001:53); Cloete (2005:130-131), together with Singh and Surujlal (2010:115) also endorse the view that school sport managers should always be aware of the current health and safety regulations covering the facility they use. These could be national laws (such as the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993), local laws (such as local authority by-laws), or internal regulations (such as protective footwear). The school sport manager should further ensure that learners and fellow school sport managers are aware of basic emergency procedures in case of evacuations or accidents. In terms of the Occupational Health and Safety Act (Act 85 of 1993), as well as common law principles, school sport managers should not permit damaged or defective apparatus to be used under any circumstances in their sessions. It is vital in the context of the discharge of their duty of care that measures are taken to prevent foreseeable accidents and injuries (Grayson, 2001:41; 51-60; Singh, 2006a:185; Barrios *et al.*, 2007:277; Oosthuizen, 2009:101).

Another key dimension of risk management principles and practices that the current and future school sport manager should apply in order to promote safety in school sport, concerns the issue of medical care, travel and transportation (Singh & Surujlal, 2010:109). With respect to medical aspects and care, it is important to give appropriate medical attention to all athletes prior to the start of a season, during the season and also after the season. This would mean that the school sport manager should have an understanding of prevention of injuries, be competent to recognise symptoms that are indicative of injury in sport, and is not only competent at training and conditioning throughout a season, but is able to utilise different training programmes, in accordance with the level of fitness and preparedness for a specific sport in the case of learners, who for example excel as an athlete in hurdles, but are also exceptional rugby players. It would further mean that the school sport manager in a highly professionalised (cf. par. 3.4.3, p. 82), commercialised (cf. par. 3.4.6, p. 90) and competitive arena of school sport should be able to apply scientific principles of coaching, exercising and injury management to elevate the level of sport

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participation. Furthermore, the school sport manager should be knowledgeable about proper post injury care and rehabilitation, since the literature (Grayson, 2001:51-52) clearly stipulates that seriously injured athletes must not be permitted to return to practice or competition without medical clearance. To this end, Singh and Surujlal (2010:116) offer valuable advice to the school, namely to consult with appropriately trained medical practitioners and to engage their services as independent practitioners or agents where required, as a school sport manager cannot be expected to be a 'Jack of all trades' and possess the necessary expertise in handling the wide range of medical conditions and emergencies that may arise in sport participation. This advice nonetheless does not discharge school sport managers of their duty and responsibility to act in the best interest of learners, their duty of care and maintenance of a safe and secure environment for the practice of sport. With respect to transport and travel, it should suffice to say that school sport managers are responsible for the provision of appropriate transport and should be aware of the liabilities involved in allowing learners to drive their own vehicles to games away from their school. Additionally, the school sport manager should ensure that all vehicles used for transporting athletes are checked for roadworthiness, while on the other hand they should also ensure that school-owned vehicles or licensed public carriers are used for transporting athletes at all times. Finally, the responsibility of providing appropriate transport could raise additional areas for consideration such as parental consent, indemnities, adequacy and competence of other parent or helper drivers, and the roadworthiness and safety of the school's minibus or hired transport (Grayson, 2001:67).

The final key dimension of risk management principles and practices recommended in all sources, which school sport managers could apply in order to identify and reduce risk, and thus promote safety in sport, relates to the use of written documentation or printed forms. Written records thus presuppose that the school sport manager should keep proper and adequate record (proof/evidence) of what has been done and to provide evidence as a solid defence against liability (Opie, 1993:3-8; 11-12; Carpenter, 2000:38; 74-75). To this end, Singh and Surujlal (2010:110) explicitly warn the school and school sport manager that any practice used to reduce risk should be verified in writing to provide any protection, because courts demand verified, written proof of safety and security measures or actions taken. The writing could take a variety of different forms, as for instance checklists, log sheets, handbooks, manuals and records of events. Documentation could include cover accident reporting, medical history, staff meetings, coach or instructor certification, hiring procedures, requests for equipment repair, and so forth. Even the documentation of the risk management plan can be regarded as important evidence. Another source of evidence is to keep up to date equipment and inventory records as well as accurate records of injuries occurring during practices and competitions.

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Besides the aforementioned records and information kept, the school sport manager also should ensure that all injuries related to sport and sport related physical activities and programmes are reported to the Department of Education; that written records on all medical treatment given to athletes are kept, and all documents and correspondence with parents and other relevant stakeholders and partners, such as appropriately trained medical practitioners and NSFs are kept in a safe place, and are also readily available. Important documents that should be obtained from parents, include, a written letter of consent which allows learners to participate in sport, as well as an indemnity form. Upon reflection, it can thus be said that the importance of maintaining adequate and appropriate documentation and records of athletes cannot be over-emphasised and stressed. The literature (Singh, 2005:96; Singh, 2006a:192; Spengler *et al.*, 2006:4-6; Singh & Surujlal, 2010:117) clarifies that over and above all other reasons for maintaining such accurate records, they provide evidence of measures taken to reduce or prevent accidents and injuries and thus enable school sport managers to defend themselves in the event of a lawsuit.

Notwithstanding what was mentioned in preceding paragraphs, it should be made absolutely clear that signing indemnity letters or forms does not discharge the school sport manager from legal duties and responsibilities. All other risks not inherent to sport, like transport of learners to and from events and games should be prevented. These include effective alcohol, spectator and crowd management (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175) to ensure the safety and security of participants and spectators. Injuries and accidents effectuated by negligence and ignorance could (Singh, 2006a:183) result in legal action and court cases, with far reaching financial implications for the school. School sport managers nevertheless find themselves in a precarious position, having to offer school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes, although they do not have the necessary competencies as has continuously been stressed thus far. Additionally they cannot afford to be in a position where they perpetually have the proverbial 'sword of Damocles dangling over their heads'. Therefore, is it imperative that school sport managers have a thorough knowledge of the statutory and legal aspects in respect of sport and also dispose of a broad expertise in the field of sport law (Singh & Surujlal, 2010:118; Oosthuizen, 2011:8-9, 11, 13). School Governing Bodies and the SMTs could engage the services of professionals, to assist them in planning and implementing comprehensive risk management plans that address the key components of safety and security in the school environment. Together with this, they should ensure that all current and future school sport managers develop an awareness of legal liability and are competent, qualified and well-trained. By doing this, schools would be demonstrating that they are proactively placing the welfare of their learners above all else. It would further help school sport managers take the lead in reducing or eliminating the risks within their respective schools. It

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can thus be said that sport law and knowledge of the four main parliamentary laws that have been promulgated to regulate the management of education and schools (National Education Policy Act, 27 of 1996, the South African schools Act, 84 of 1996, the Educators Employment Act, 138 of 1994 and the Employment of Educators' Act, 76 of 1998), and also the Child Care Act 74 of 1983, the International Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), ratified by South Africa on 16 June 1995, and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare on the child, ratified by South Africa on 7 January 2000 (Oosthuizen, 2009:28-33), should be a fundamental part of the sport management training programme for educator training.

A serious challenge that schools face, has to do with the fact that the professional preparation programmes of educators, and more specifically school sport managers, do not prepare them adequately to offer (teach/coach) or supervise school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes, and yet they are compelled to fulfil this function at schools (Grayson, 2001). As a result, principals together with the SMT and other identified school sport managers, have to ensure that such staff members undergo a thorough orientation of their job and the work environment, appropriate training and opportunities for continued education and updating of their skills and knowledge (Oosthuizen, 2011:11,13). This identified lack of professional preparation of school sport managers is thus in accordance with the need identified by this research to develop a sport management training programme for school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par.1.3.2, p.12).

Once the school has taken marketing decisions regarding the product and service, obtained the necessary and required finances to deliver the product and/or service, obtained qualified, competent, properly and well-trained human resources, and all the necessary reasonable precautionary measures have been taken to ensure the safety and security of participants and spectators, sport and sport related physical activities and programmes could be offered by the school as a quality product or service to learners.

3.6.8 Operations management

The operations function in the management of sport and related enterprises focuses on the process where the sport product or service is manufactured (produced). This means that operations management can be seen as the transformation process when the input from the environment is transformed (changed) into products for the environment. Sport in schools is provided to the society as a unique product and/or service. Where sport is delivered as a specific and unique service, primary, secondary and tertiary participants as well as the spectators mainly

make use of facilities and events (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175) to produce and consume the product. In brief, transformation of input and consumption takes place simultaneously. For this reason facility and event management (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175) is seen as the most important operations management area in school sport to increase productivity, satisfy the needs and demands of sport consumers (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98) more effectively and efficiently and also to enhance and promote the reputation of the school (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995:154). A visit to the school by learners, parents, supporters and spectators for a particular game or event, which involves their school could be seen by them as a delightful excursion which might hold in store numerous surprises. Through that, the event or game linked to various activities, the school sport manager who hosts or present the event or game offers a total service through which the reputation of the school as well as school sport can be improved, enhanced. To enhance the reputation of the school and school sport as a whole, thus implies that the school sport manager should provide a successful sport programme for the duration of the event or game.

As was already touched upon previously, to put in place a successful sport programme, the school sport could take in an eclectic way a part of each of the different schools of management thought as discussed in preceding paragraphs (cf. par. 3.3.1, p. 129) and apply it to create a successful sport programme. Such an integrated approach, in respect of the management of school sport is indeed possible. On the grounds of the different theories of management thought (cf. par. 3.3.1, p.129), the management of school sport can be seen and approached as a process during which inputs from the environment is transformed through the four fundamental management elements to offer a service and/or product to the community, in an endeavour to achieve the set goals and objectives of the school. This process implies an understanding and knowledge of the operations management model. Thus to better understand operations management within the context of school sport, the operations management model for school sport will there upon be seen through and is illustrated in Figure 11 (cf. p. 196).

3.6.8.1 Operations management model

In order to manage the activities and operations related to the delivery of sport service, the school sport manager should follow an operations management model. Firstly, the school sport manager should formulate operational strategies and objectives for school sport. These strategies should strive to (i) deliver a quality product; (ii) make it cost-effective for both the consumer and producer (Dyck & Neubert, 2009:45) and (iii) offer the service at an acceptable tempo (pace) or within a reasonable short space of time. Together with the preceding, the strategy be such that (iv) the product is adaptable to trends in society (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70); (v) a high level of reliability is brought

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to pass and (vi) the school simply offers sport experiences which are better than those of other schools. For this exact reason, the model focuses on Total Quality Management (TQM), which if recalled (cf. par. 3.3.1, 129; Table 3, 131) (Edgington & Edgington, 1993:40-42; Mawson, 1993:101-106; Edgington *et al.*, 2001:73; Edgington *et al.*, 2004:405-406; Watt, 2004:121; Krotee & Bucher, 2007:25-26; Hoye *et al.*, 2009:288) seeks to ensure that sport and sport related services and programmes of exceptionally high quality are delivered and are directed towards exceeding expectations.

The concept of TQM has its roots firmly established in the thoughts of W. Edwards Deming, as was briefly referred to in an earlier paragraph (cf. par. 3.3.1, p. 129). Stier (2008:95), amplifies his essence of TQM by implicitly stating that TQM would ensure improved performance through effective, efficient and optimum utilisation of resources (material, clients, information, finances) and aids (human resources/labour, apparatus, facilities and technology). Further on is TQM a management philosophy, which regards the needs, desires and demands of the consumer and the goals as well as objectives of the school as inseparable from one another. This state of affairs presumes that the management of school sport takes place mainly during the consumption of the service and the course of events (Chelladurai, 1992a:39; 2005:25; 2006:38).

School sport's products and/or services manifest themselves in events, programmes, projects, competition and facilities which are utilised within the transformation process (conversion process from input to output) to provide an exceptional service to consumers. During the transformation process, the school sport manager should not only analyse the risks (cf. par. 3.6.7, p. 179) adherent herein, but also manage them completely. School sport managers should also be aware of their liability when sport is offered as a service to learners. Applied in the context of the current study, it would mean that school sport managers should be empowered to utilise the inputs (material, clients, information, finances, human resources/labour, apparatus, facilities and technology) at their disposal, in order to provide products and service of high standing quality. It would thus imply that aspirant school sport managers should be thoroughly trained in the competencies required to provide products and services of exceptionally high quality.

In order to deliver quality products, it is essential for the school sport manager to perform different management activities, for instance thorough and proper research about the planned new facility and intended event(s), undertake the design of an event or facility, as well as the implementation of control processes, which determine the quality of the operations side of an event or facility (Goldblatt, 1997:31-60; 2011:79-121). Each of the activities is rather complex and the school sport

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manager should be trained in the theoretical aspects as well the practical application and know-how of the activities (competencies).

The school sport manager should nonetheless always keep in mind that the purpose of sport should find expression in the management model used regarding school sport. According to Duvenage (1986:11) the purpose of sport is the unlocking of physical ability of students. In relation to school sport, learners should be involved in all sport and sport related physical activities and programmes (extra-mural activities), physically and mentally.

Sport in schools could be utilised purposefully and applying it to education students, Duvenage (1986:11) found that if sport is used as a means to a goal, it could help with the following:

- Development of acceptable behaviour patterns;
- Proficiency in sport;
- A sense of responsibility;
- A reasonable and fair attitude;
- A worthy of human being appearance; and
- A real revelation of sportsmanship.

Informed by the preceding views, and after an exhaustive review of the research literature, it can thus be noted that sport in society, and particularly in relation to the current study, is a needs-satisfying phenomenon. It is important for learners to experience a sense of belonging and meeting this need brings learners from different backgrounds, beliefs, cultures, and the like together. In addition, participation in sport satisfies many basic human needs for those who would probably not have been able to meet even basic human needs for food and shelter without having participated in sport. It is also true that, even though recreation is important for all athletes, at the highest level of competition, the human need for self-actualisation and self-realisation may be satisfied. It is thus imperative that all goals and objectives in the sport management model should be directed to do precisely this: satisfy the desires, needs and demands of learners, and result in the holistic development of learners for all purposes of their lives. If the school sport manager could see to it that all the above mentioned criteria are met, then school sport would be educationally justifiable, and should also find sediment in all the different functional management functions laid upon the school sport manager.

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Besides the importance of satisfying the needs of learners, parents, customers and other role players, it is also important to take note of the role of school sport as bearer of culture as much as builder of culture. In South American and some European countries it is possible to distinguish a soccer culture in which people live in terms of the nature of a particular sport. The culture surrounding basketball in the USA, or of rugby in New Zealand and South Africa, is well known. People's values and norms are influenced by sport on a national, and also on a global scale. Other factors which may impact on a model for the management of school sport also include the role of political institutions and politicians who are often regarded in many countries with a fair amount of suspicion. Most countries therefore no longer have political heroes, and the substitute is sporting heroes.

There is also no doubt in my mind, that while society requires the general law of the land to apply to sport and all participating athletes, no special reason in a sporting context has yet been recognised. Judicial utterances in the cases that have come before the courts, would seem to acknowledge that with its own norms and standards, its own lore, its own language and its own perceptions of justice, equity and fair play, special considerations may well apply to the manner in which law in general interacts with school sport (Singh, 1999:47; Grayson, 2001; Cloete, 2005:4; Gardiner *et al.*, 2012:73,84,86) Inevitably, in the case of the current study, in cases involving school sport in particular (Singh, 1999:47; Grayson, 2001; Gardiner *et al.*, 2012:73,83), the approach of South African courts, much like those of other countries, has thus far indicated that a similar attitude to the one described earlier in this paragraph, will prevail in future, and that a subject area of the law peculiar to school sport will evolve from this: "School Sports Law." It is with this in mind that the law as it applies to school sport, and the responsibility of the school sport manager during the management of school sport and sport related activities and programmes regarding the day-to-day operation thereof, were reflected upon in preceding paragraphs, and should be considered when proposing the operations management model for school sport.

To recap, consistent with the views expressed and touched upon earlier, the eclectic approach to the management of school sport might be considered the offspring of management's traditional philosophical and theoretical constructs and orientations the current and future school sport manager should be able to adapt; flexible, acknowledging the interaction and mutual influences between school sport and the political, economic, family, religious and other social institutions. The nature, scope and influence of the role of the school sport manager are determined by interaction. Whereas politics played a great role in Germany in the 1930s and in South Africa in the 1960s and at present, it is now the increasing interaction between the economy and sport that is important.

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This is a direct consequence of the globalisation of sport; the scope and increasing intensity and frequency of competitions and the expansion of professionalism. Further on, sport is often a supplement for other human activities, or may even be a substitute for them. Instead of making war, not only countries and nations pit themselves against one another on the sports field, but also schools on all levels: local, provincial, national and international. This state of affairs, as has been stressed repeatedly throughout this study, requires a competent, well trained, all round school sport manager, capable to include various skills, competencies, and management thoughts or approaches as an integral part of their philosophical, theoretical and practical repertoire. As such, the model for the management of school sport should be educationally justifiable, an approach which is highlighted by the fact that school sport managers are required to have a sound knowledge of the philosophy of education, because school sport managers perform a key role in the holistic development of learners to adulthood and the provision of a sound education. Consequently, the school sport management model should nevertheless not only be in accordance with the desires, needs and demands of learners and all other consumers, but also with the diverse needs of South African schools. Subsequently, the following model for the management of school sport in the 21st century is proposed and is illustrated in Figure 11 (cf. p. 196 below).

3.6.9 Synthesis

Various management competencies were identified in the functional management areas for school sport. These competencies are directly related to the strategic management process which should be applied to the respective functional management areas and can be regarded as the core competencies which the school sport manager has to demonstrate. These core competencies can be further divided into fundamental or essential and general or basic day-to-day management competencies. *Fundamental management competencies* are those actions performed and used to achieve the organisational goals, namely planning, organising, leading, controlling and evaluating. *General management competencies* can best be described as those activities that relate to the administrative tasks which are central to the day-day tasks of the school sport manager, and could be seen as the pen and paper or computer-based actions, which have as object the support and control of all other actions within the school. When these activities are performed within the context of a strategy, they can be regarded as strategic actions or management. *Functional management competencies* imply all those competencies where the school sport manager manages functional areas, such as finances, marketing, human resources, facilities and events, risks, legal matters, law, information and the operations function of school sport. The management of these functional areas takes place in succession and interchangeably within the context of a strategy, and is aimed at achieving the goals and objectives of the school. In addition, each functional management area

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requires its own particular knowledge, competencies and attitudes. This makes the training task of the trainer of school sport managers and the development of a sport management training programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, not only complex and complicated, but also extremely difficult. To provide in the need for context-specific trained school sport managers in an intensified competitive world of school sport, in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools, a sport management training programme should take into account various options and apply different techniques of training. This aspect is dealt with at length in Chapter Seven and will not be discussed any further.

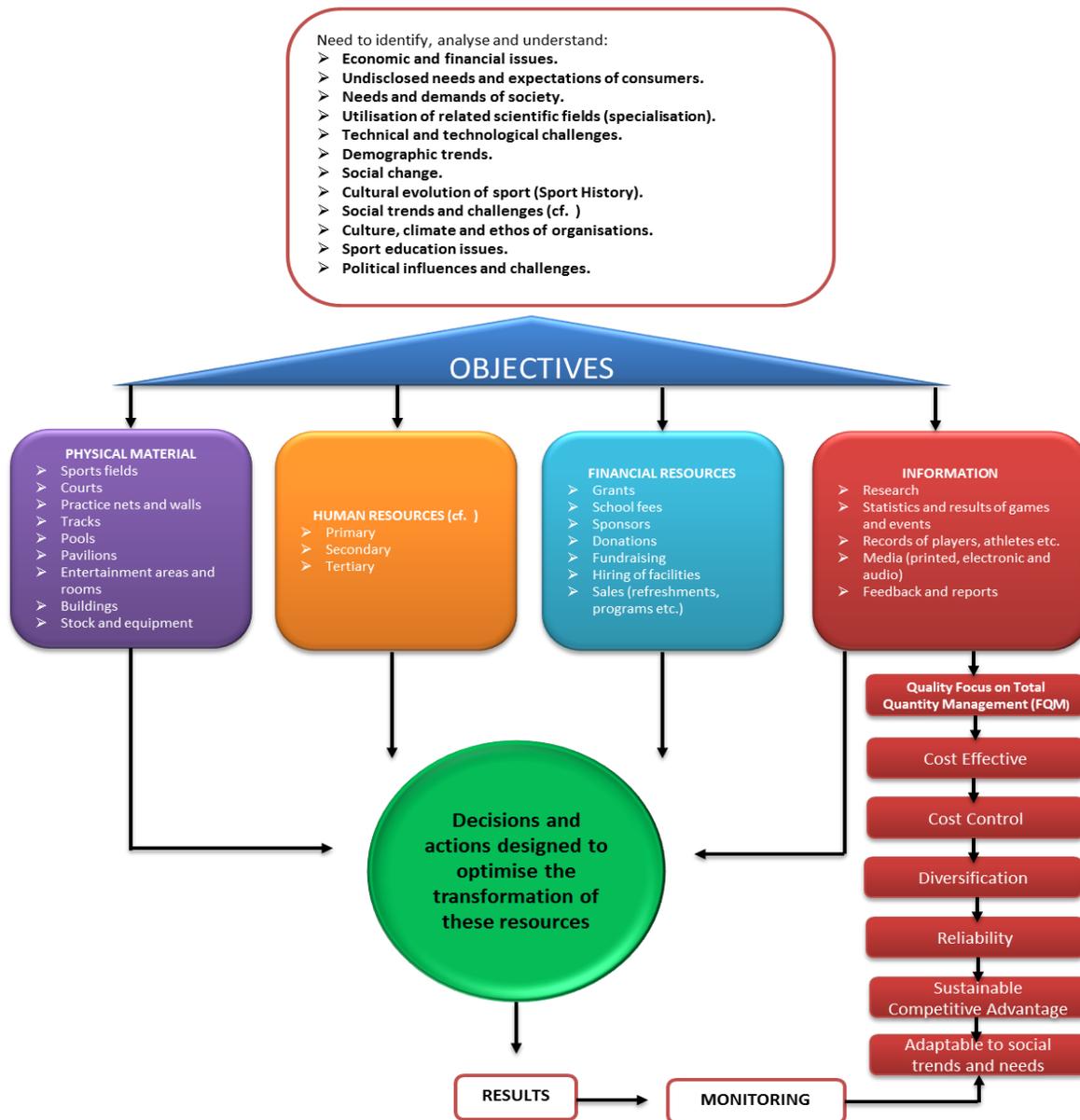


Figure 11: School sport management model

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Over and above the identified competencies in core (fundamental and general competencies) and functional management competencies (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155; par. 3.6.8, p. 190) for school sport, various human movement as well as sport and recreation competencies and competencies related to sport medical and emergency services were identified (cf. also Chapter 2). These competencies bear direct relation to the respective applied management sciences, which according to Hollander (2000:196) can be regarded as cross disciplinary sciences that include different joint (shared) disciplines. Human Movement Science is the field of academic inquiry concerned with understanding human movement and the factors which limit and enhance people's capacity to move. Important areas of application of the knowledge base of Human Movement Science are thus sport, health and physical education (human movement education or PE), public well-being, the workplace and physical rehabilitation. Human Movement Science competencies within the educational context thus refer to the way principles of movement, amongst others, are applied and taught in school sport and sport related physical activities and programmes (University of the Free State, 2009). Sport medical and emergency services are linked to a broad spectrum of clinical and scientific aspects regarding the practice of sport and exercise, and include the physical preparation and rehabilitation as well as psychological preparation or well-being (manipulation) of athletes (Gladden & Sutton, 2007:114; Perrin, 2007:120-121). The sport medical and emergency competencies are associated with different professions (occupations), such as exercise specialists, sport dieticians, biokineticists, sport psychologists, orthopaedic surgeon, doctors (Darby & Browder, 1998:199) and the like, and could be regarded as specialist competencies. As school sport becomes increasingly competitive, commercialised, professionalised and scientific, there is an increased move towards the medical side of sport participation in order to elevate the level of sport participation. This implies that the school sport manager should be competent in sport medical content associated with the different professions and are amongst others Physiology, Anatomy, Physics, Chemistry and Psychology. It further includes the sciences like Biomechanics, Exercise Physiology, Motor Learning and Behaviour, Sport Dietetics and Sport Psychology (Guskiewicz, 2008:123). This division of the scientific areas from which the professional medical practitioners are trained, points towards a strong sciences of nature orientation that focuses mainly on the physical aspect of the athlete and are thus considered specialist competencies, which could be optional for inclusion in a sport management training programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. The all-encompassing nature of the sport management for school sport and the diverse needs of South African schools are such that these different specialised competencies referred to could contribute to the theoretical, practical and professional aspects of educator training.

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In conclusion, it can thus be stated that the competencies required by the school sport manager can be divided into core (fundamental and general), functional and specialist competencies (sport, human movement and recreation and sport medical) (cf. Fig. 12, p 199.). These competencies require closer examination, investigation and empirical and scientific verification. Inevitably, this will translate in the empirical part of the study and the results hereof will be discussed and revealed in Chapter Six.

3.7 SYNOPSIS

In this chapter the management competencies required by the school sport manager to successfully manage school sport were identified and described (cf Fig. 12, p. 198). Through this an attempt was made to provide a theoretical framework for comparison with existing sport management training programmes used as part of international and national educator training. On the basis of this comparison, possible weaknesses and a gap could probably be determined, whereupon empirical evidence could be collected in an endeavour to develop a sport management training programme for school sport managers in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.

Initially sport as an enterprise, focusing on what an enterprise entails and the interrelationship between the macro-, market- and micro environments were studied to describe the environment of the school (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122). Hereafter the fundamental school sport management competencies were discussed briefly (cf. par. 3. 5, p. 151) according to which certain management competencies were disclosed. Finally, the functional management areas for the management of school sport, namely- marketing, public relations, finances, human resources, purchases, and sport law as well as operations management (facilities and events-, risk- and project management) were described to disclose the competencies subjacent to the management of school sport (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155; 3.6.7, p. 179).

It is imperative to expose the competencies underlying the management of school sport, because these competencies not only have implications for educator training, but also could improve the efficiency and effectiveness of schools (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005:29, 34). The different fields of management competencies of the school sport manager are depicted in Figure 12 (cf. p. 199).

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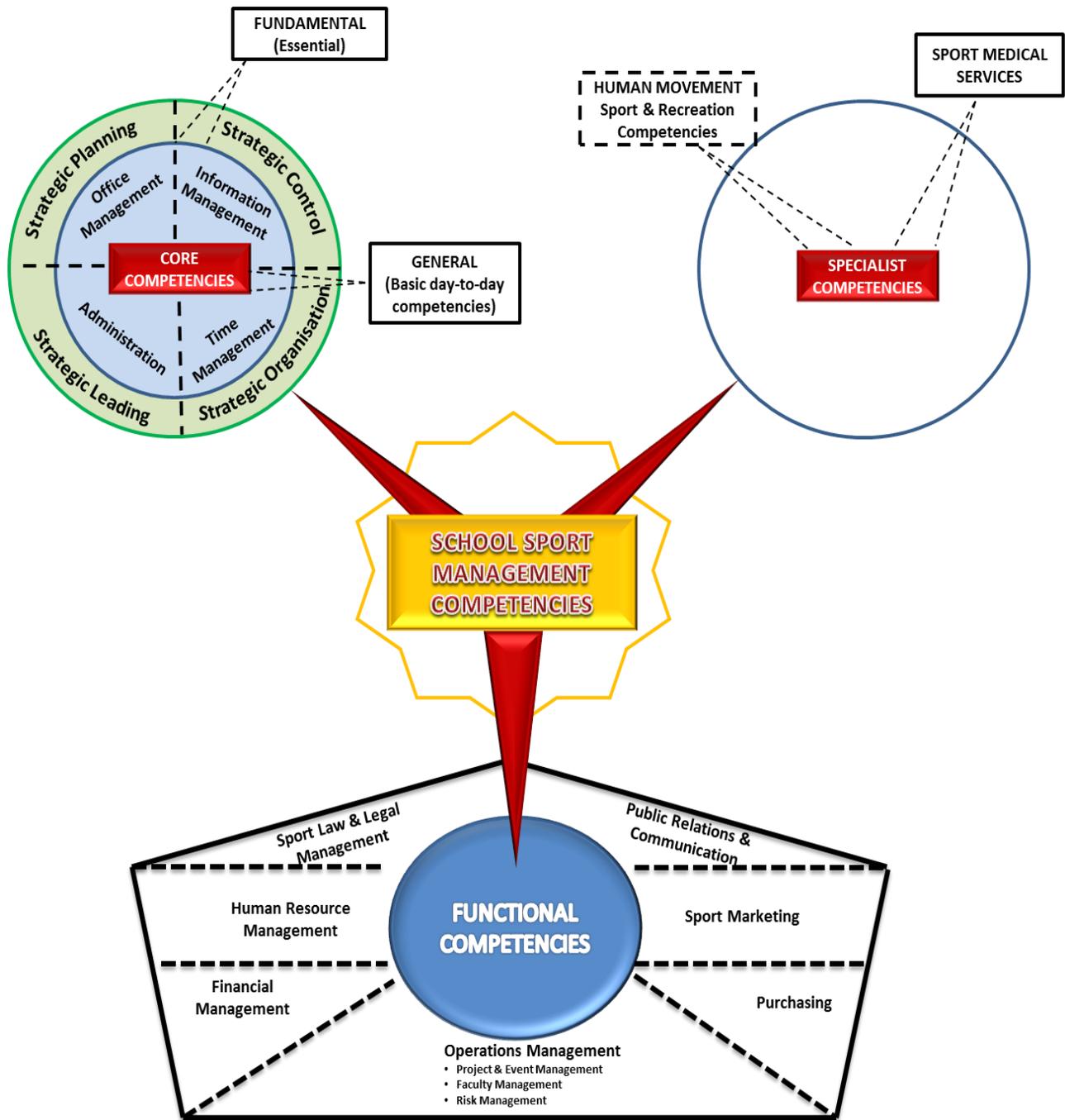


Figure 12: Fields of Management Competencies

The following chapter (Chapter Four) provides a historical overview of the development of sport management training programmes used as part of international and national educator training. Selected examples of sport management training programmes from different HEIs will be compared in order to provide a framework of content and competencies. The intended framework could possibly also assist the researcher to identify shortcomings (gap) in the competencies that

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are required by the school sport manager or should have according to the literature, in contrast to those competencies intended as outcomes in current training programmes based on the needs and requirements from the practice. Additionally, informed by the identified gap, this framework can be further refined in the unique South African context to develop a context-specific sport management training programme for educators in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools.