CHAPTER 2: SCHOOL SPORT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to have a better understanding of what the management of school sport entails, an investigation into the history of sport, and more specifically the history of the origin of sport, and school sport and physical education in a sociological context, is necessary. This approach should provide a better understanding of where the management of school sport as a field of study developed from (cf. par. 4.9, p. 296), and why it is currently rated as an important field within the study of sport management. This chapter starts with a brief discussion on the nature of the school which is followed by an account of the historic development of sport. Thereafter, school sport and physical education are analysed in a sociological context, whereafter the management of school sport is analysed through a social and development perspective by using social theories as instruments, in order to better understand this phenomenon.

Modern trends in school sport and the impact these have on the role of the school sport manager and the management of school sport (cf. par. 2.4, p 70), are discussed before the chapter concludes with a discussion of the context, role, value and place of school sport in relation to the sport education sector and the sports industry (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98).

2.2 THE NATURE OF THE SCHOOL

In order to look at the nature of the school more closely, different aspects related to a school, will be examined. An analysis and a discussion of the nature of the school require a good understanding of the South African context. The educational system under the apartheid regime will be presented; and thereafter the focus will shift to the major changes that have taken place since apartheid was abolished.

2.2.1 The South African educational system under apartheid

Under the apartheid regime, the education systems of whites and non-whites were separate; and any racial mixing in school was forbidden by law. Apartheid's former racial classification distinguished between white, coloured, Indian and black children[9] – and required them to attend separate schools located in exclusive portions of the urban space. In the logic of apartheid, there were stark disparities in the treatment of population groups in *per capita spending, class size and*

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[9] When explicitly referring to any of Apartheid's four predefined population groups, capital letters will be used. Observe that in the South African terminology, the term black can also designate any non-white person. In this sense, it can include Indians/Asians, Coloureds and Blacks/Africans.

teacher quality. For every R4 spent on a white learner, only R3 was spent on an Indian learner, R2 on a coloured learner and R1 on a black child (Thomas, 1996:330). During most apartheid years,[10] the average pupil/educator ratio in black schools was commonly in the range of 50:1 and 70:1, at least twice as large as that of white schools (Krige *et al.,* 1994; Fedderke *et al.*, 1998:8-9; Case & Deaton, 1999:1048). In 1994, the year apartheid ended, 46% of black educators, and only 1% of white educators were under- or unqualified (Sidiropoulos *et al.*, 1997:153). In fact, it is no exaggeration to say that under apartheid *'most African schools had little beyond the shell of their buildings'* (Lemon, 1999:96).

The deprivation of school resources caused extreme human capital discrepancies across population groups. In 1996, nearly one in every four blacks aged 20 years or more had no formal schooling; whereas only 10% of coloureds, 6% of Indians and 1% of whites were in a similar situation. At the higher end of the qualification ladder, 65% of the whites and 40% of Indians aged 20 or more years had reached matriculation level (the South African high school certificate), in comparison with only 16% of coloureds and 15% of blacks (Forgey *et al.*, 2000:111; Erasmus *et al.*, 2005:118).

In 2009, only 9% of blacks aged 20 years or more had any formal schooling; whereas only 4% of coloureds, 2% of Indians and less than 1% of whites were in a similar situation. At the higher end of the qualification ladder, 76% of the whites and 61% of Indians aged 20 or more years had passed matriculation in comparison with only 32% coloureds and 29% of blacks (Roodt, 2010:373-375). It seems clear that the apartheid educational system served the interests of the dominant white class and emphasised stratification along the lines of the racial classification it promoted.

The "Liberation before education" movement led to protests, demonstrations, marches and boycotts to express dissatisfaction against the enforced use of Afrikaans in schools and the lack of equal opportunities and recources (South African History Archive, 2010; African National Congress, 2013; Nations Online, 2013; South African History Online, 2013).[11] On closer investigation, I am of the opinion that the figures provided in the previous paragraph suggest that lack of a culture of learning and the absence of a desire to excel in school among black and coloured learners in particular should be blamed along with apartheid. It is against this background that the contemporary school sport manager has to face the challenge of continuously being confronted with issues related to apartheid and to manage school sport in a socially stratified community. The

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[10]In the South African history, apartheid refers to the period between 1948 and 1994 when different races in South Africa were separated by legislation

[11] Cf. also Morrow (1989:119); Smit and Oosthuizen (2011:50)

preceding view would imply knowledge of the two types of schools in the South African context and their different needs regarding the management of sport (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4).

Empirical studies, according to Selod and Zenou (2003:354) suggest that stratification along the lines of racial classification was socially inadequate. They refer to research by Mwabu and Schultz (1996:338) showing that the private wage returns to schooling are twice as high for non-whites than for whites, making a case for the escalating education of blacks. It can thus be inferred that non-whites spend more of the money they earn monthly on private education than their white counterparts. Selod and Zenou (2003:354) therefore concur with Case and Deaton (1999:1069-1075; 1080) and Case and Yogo (1999:1-2; 11-13; 17-23) who suggest that the expansion of education for blacks might well have been accomplished by lowering the learner/educator ratios in black schools; thus contributing to a better and more equal distribution of resources; and consequently better education. What appears to be apparent from the preceding is that perhaps all was not necessarily done wrong during apartheid, but neither was everything done right.

2.2.2   Changes since apartheid

The public educational system has undergone major changes (Moloi, 2010:363). In 1990, in the last days of apartheid, most white public schools were granted the right to appoint educators, to decide on admission policies, and to impose school fees (becoming so-called Model C schools).[12] The main effect on this first reform was to introduce a semi-privatisation of the white public educational system and to shift the financing and control of white schools to parents. This permitted the preservation of a privileged white public schooling system in spite of the rising pressure for racial integration that would eventually lead to the collapse of apartheid.

The dismantling of apartheid education was applauded when South African schools opened up their doors to learners from different racial backgrounds. There were hopes that the quality of education would improve, since the markets were now going to exercise their power as choosers. There was also a belief that, with apartheid outlawed, all schools would be able to match world standards. Furthermore, the South African Schools Act, (Act 84 of 1996) allows parents more power to have a say in the education of their children (South Africa, 1996d:3). However, since the early 1990s, increasing numbers of black parents heve been avoiding historically black schools by enrolling their children in historically white schools – a trend which appears to continue even more than a decade after the advent of democracy (Selod & Zenou, 2003:352,355; Msila, 2005:173-176;180;187; 2011:3,7). [

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[12]Cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4

According to Msila (2005:173), black parents are looking for quality education in former Model C schools. A recent survey by the South African Institute for Race Relationships (SAIRR) shows an increase of 50% in the number of learners from all races in independent (private) schools. This indicates that parents have lost their faith in public schools (Kruger, 2011:12). Black parents now seem to be contending that choice is a nebulous concept, which describes the situation in which parents choose the schools (public or independent), regardless of where they live. In fact, Lee *et al*. (1994:434) have pointed out that the parental choice of schools has been a contentious political issue for a long time now. Thus, black parents exercise the exit option,[13] and act in what they consider to be the best interests of their children. Hence, the choice of black parents in particular of schools which their children should attend is influenced by a number of problems that are still endemic in South African schools. These problems include, amongst others, socio-economic status, unequal access to resources and the manipulation of school sport (cf. par. 2.4,1, p.72).

Socio-economic status seems to be one of the key drivers for choosing schools outside one's residential area. Subsequently, depending on the family's socio-economic status, the schools chosen by parents, regardless of where they live, include historically coloured schools, Indian schools and white schools. As result of the 'exit option' referred to by Msila (2005:174), many educators contend that the quality of education offered in historically black schools is deteriorating (Waghid, 2007:103) and these schools are not able to attract high profile educators and sport coaches. The preceding and other factors mentioned in this paragraph, would have a significant influence on the school sport manager and the management of school sport, as will become evident, later (cf. par. 2.2, p. 26; 3.3, p. 128), because the school sport manager should be able to manage school sport in a diversity of South African schools; to be able to do so, they need to be competent and trained.

When apartheid ended, all restrictions on racial mixing in schools were officially abolished; and the 1996 South African Schools Act, (Act 84 of 1996) extended most of the financing and government provisions of Model C schools to all public schools (South Africa, 1996d:5).[14] Even though this reform aimed to level out all public schools, it has been argued that an extension of financing and government provisions only reinforced a system that permits disparate fees and maintains a high degree of inequality (Lemon, 1999:98). Indeed, under the new democratic dispensation, all public

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[13] Based on Hirschman's theory contained in his book Exit, voice and loyalty. Black parents are regarded as consumers or customers who seek a quality product. In this regard black parents (customers/consumers) exercise the choice to have a situation improved, because they are dissatisfied with the current one. The latter is referred to as the exit option. See for example: Hirschman (1970) and Msila (2005:174)

[14] Cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4

schools are now allowed – and are expected – to raise funds by themselves, albeit through the imposition of school fees. In fact, allowing all schools to raise funds was probably the most direct way of addressing the scarcity of government sources available for public education, while trying to limit at the same time the increasing exodus of white learners to independent (private) schools.

The consequences of these reforms have been to hand over the control of public schools to local communities. On the one hand, they have given parents more power to have a say in the education of their children; yet on the other hand, this has increased social stratification (i.e. rich schools become richer; and poor schools become poorer as a result of parental choice). This would thus require the researcher to distinquish between the needs of affluent and less-affluent schools as regards the need for training in sport management (cf. par. 6.3.3, p. 492).

Despite the implementation of the South African Schools Act in 1996, independent schools have mushroomed in response to the flight of many white learners from the public educational system, and in response to the rising demand among some middle-class non-white families for private education offered by independent schools. Consequently, the number of independent schools in South Africa has increased almost threefold since 1994, reaching 1399 schools in 2010. The enrolment in independent schools now stands at approximately 451 000 of the 12.2 million South African learners (Department of Basic Education (DoBE), 2012:4; Rademeyer, 2012a:8). Furthermore, there has been a continuous rise in fees in both public and independent schools over the past decade.[15]

These fees have increased on average by 10-20% a year (Anon, 2011:1; Masondo, 2012:1). According to the South African Institute for Race Relations, there has been an increase of 50% in the number of learners in independent schools between 2000 and 2009. This could be an indication that parents are losing faith and trust in the public schooling system (Kruger, 2011:12).[16] Since 1994 the more affluent schools have increased their fees to maintain high standards and low learner/educator ratios; whereas the poorer schools have little capacity, if any, to raise funds (Lemon, 1999:100-104).

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[15] Measures were put in place by the government to ban SGBs from dishing out hefty perks and bonuses to principals and educators at former Model C schools (Govender, 2012a:1). This move, ultimately was to rein in escalating school fees, but could result in a wave of top teachers ditching state schools for better paying private institutions and independent schools

[16] Despite fears of increases, are South Africa's independent (private) school fees still cheaper when compared with those paid in the UK, US and Australia (Naidoo, 2012b:1)

Currently, this situation has not changed; and it would appear that parents are prepared to pay more for school fees at independent schools than at public schools, because in independent schools, parents pay for the education of their children (Kruger, 2011:12). Thus, social stratification is also increased even further – to the detriment of the school sport manager who now faces a daunting task to manage school sport in the diverse South African school context. This has also impacted on the development of a sport management programme for educator training. The school sport manager should be trained to understand the diverse context and background of South African schools.

The contemporary school sport manager is faced with various challenges. Davies (2004:228) mentions the increasing secularisation of communities and the increased materialism; while Vandeyar (2010:343-344), claims that now people have to come to terms with inclusivity and the integration of different cultures, but also with intra-black dynamics and xenophobia, as the emphasis has shifted from race to ethnicity. The school is the cornerstone of the community's morale. Central to this are the morals and ethical values set by the school sport manager, together with the principal and SMT in their roles as leaders in the community. Related to the current study, this would mean that the school sport manager should be trained to have an understanding of different cultures, as well as the moral and ethical values endorsed by society. In addition, this requires an understanding of the relationship between sport and education. An understanding of and unbiased insight into the history related to schooling in South Africa, especially during apartheid, would further enhance the school sport manager's view of the context of South African school sport.

2.2.3   The relationship between sport and education

The school is widely regarded as the place where teaching and learning takes place; this is true of all kinds and types of schools. In fact, according to the White Paper on Education and Training (1995) and the Bill of Human Rights (1997), Article (29.1) all learners have a right to basic education and teaching (South Africa, 1996b; Liebenberg, 2000:17-19; Smit, 2011:4).[17] From the researcher's extensive review of the literature, it seems that different authors and researchers have semantically different interpretations concerning the concepts of teaching, education, training, learning, development and instruction, often using the concepts interchangeably, and in doing so make it difficult to put the concepts in perspective.

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[17] **Chapter Two of the [Constitution of South Africa](#)** contains the **Bill of Rights**, a [human rights charter](#) that protects the [civil, political](#) and [socio-economic rights](#) of all people in South Africa and was finally approved on 4 February 1997 (South Africa, 1996b; Wikipedia, 2013). Cf. also note 18, p. 32

2.2.3.1 Teaching and Education

According to Jarvis (2002:11), **teaching** itself has a number of different meanings. For him, teaching has a negative and a positive connotation and includes the intention to give systematic information, enabling a person to do something by instruction and training (e.g. swimming and dancing) with the purpose of inducing a person – by example or punishment – to do or not to do a thing. Teaching is defined by Black and Holford (2002:194) as not only the delivery, but also all the preceding planning of learning, as well as the feedback on progress.

Teaching is aimed at the transferral of knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and competencies. Moreover, teaching can be regarded as the intellectual development of learners, which implies the development of independent thinking (Van der Westhuizen, 2005:54-55). It has to do more specifically with specific subjects or disciplines and is utilised to teach learners in a specific subject, aimed at a learning action and education (Steyn *et al.*, 2011:1). In other words, teaching has to do with the development of the mind, sense, memory and hand. According to Gunter (1968:110), teaching is part of education.

Education, on the other hand, refers to the social processes that bring a person into cultural life; and it is an action intended to bring about change, namely: the accompaniment to adulthood, and preparation for life (Pretorius, 2005:3; Erasmus *et al.*, 2010a:2). Accompaniment to adulthood implies the holistic development of learners, and the school is one of the most important educational institutions in the contemporary world of the twenty first century. Education is a life-long process with age-specific points of concentration (Haag, 2006:54).

An anonymous author in Wikipedia (2007) quotes Dr. Martin Luther King, as follows*: "The function of education therefore is to teach one to think intensively and to think critically... The complete education gives not only power of concentration, but worthy objectives upon which to concentrate.*"[18] This view of King's clearly underlines the importance of inter alia critical thinking

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[18] The accuracy and quality of Wikipedia articles has been most debated and consequently the most studied aspect of the collaborative encyclopaedia. Generally Wikipedia has been recognised as reliable, despite it not being recognised as scientific source. More recently findings from studies by amongst other Black (2008); Janetzko (2008); Huvila (2010); Luyt and Dan (2010), as well as Rand (2010) indicated a general increase in the use of Wikipedea and an agreement to scientific citation patterns. Users of Wikipedia are guided by three fundamental policies that guide the development of Wikipedia, and in this way the role of Wikipedia is to provide a comprehensive summary of existing knowledge rather than functioning as a source of findings. Based on findings from recent studies, it would thus appear as if Wikipedia is gaining wider acceptance as a scientific source, provided that the body of contributors are scholars, and not enthusiasts. Authors adhere to the policies guiding the development of Wikipedia, in particular with regard to citations and defences. In relation to the current study, the use of Wikipedia is limited and is seen as use of a body of

during teaching. This importance also finds sediment in the strong cognitive focus which can be found in the National Curriculum Statement of South Africa (South Africa, 2003:4-5). Griessel, Louw and Swart (1986:53) put it clearly that all teaching does not necessarily qualify as education. For teaching to qualify as education, the school as a specialised social agency should cultivate preferred skills and help learners to build their acquired knowledge into a value system. In this case it is referred to as educational education or as Van Dyk (2006:127) reminds us, *'didactic pedagogics'*. Stated simply, didactical pedagogics or educational education refers to teaching that occurs in an educative situation.

2.2.3.2 The role of the school

In the school, education takes place in a formal and deliberate sense. Learners now come into contact with educators and coaches, who are regarded as experts in the learning processes and whose primary job is to lead and guide learners to adulthood; therefore the school should, assist parents with the education of their children, inter alia through participation in sport.

According to Janson (1992:215-216) the school is a place where emphasis is placed on tasks, namely: (i) academic (teaching and learning process); (ii) education (capable of bearing arms, able-bodied, prepared for life; establishment of acceptable Christian values and beliefs; cultivation of good manners and character development); (iii) culture (the practice of cultural activities like singing in a choir, acting, fine arts); and (iv) sport.

Rink (1996:171), on the other hand, sees the primary role of the school as the provision of intended learning. In conjunction with this, it can be accepted that the school should provide to all learners in accordance with their own, unique nature, education and development opportunities in the school situation in an effort to develop physically, psychologically, socially and morally (Gouws *et al.*, 2008:6-8).

The school forms an enduring component of their existence in the sense that the foundation laid in school bear and support learners throughout life. This implies lifelong learning. In this regard the Department of Education (2002a:2) points to the value and role of the new curriculum [Curriculum

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existing knowledge, rather than a source of findings. The view expressed by authors in Wikipedia and recent views of authors on the history of South Africa as found in a comprehensive literature review, nonetheless confirms my view that in an attempt to address or give the other side of the story, so as to speak of South Africa's unique political context, is also rather one-sided and does offer an objective, realistic picture witnessed. One has to critically observe both views. In sum, the unique South African political context could be seen from different perspectives, but in my opinion a critical perspective, as explained in the discussion on the various sociological theories (cf. par. 2.3.3, p. 45), provides the best option

2005 (C2005)], which was an unprecedented curriculum reform in the history of South Africa and was introduced in Grade 1 in 1998 after extensive preparations. Because schools were funded and administered by provincial governments, the preparations suffered due to budgetary problems encountered at the provincial level in the 1997/98 financial year. As a result then of the lack of funds and resources (human and physical), the implementation of C2005 was postponed in Grades 3-6 until 2002, while it was phased in from Grade 1 and 2 in 1999 and revised in 2001. According to the revised C2005, learners should be made aware of their responsibility to learn and acquire the necessary competencies and skills, in order to survive in both the complex social and economic world of living and also to develop holistically. A new curriculum improvement process was announced on 6 July, 2010 in South Africa, by Minister Angie Moshekga, Minister of Basic Education. This revision served to strengthen the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools (Mtshali & Sapa, 2010:5).[19] The revision is referred to as Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) and would result in fewer subjects, with an emphasis on literacy and numeracy. The implication would be that educators' administrative duties would be lessened and as such more time would be available for teaching and extra-mural activities, like sport.

Sport is a contributing factor to prepare learners for their later life. Krüger (1994:2, 14, 60, 86); Tinning and McCuaig (2006:8), as well as Pill (2007:5-8), advocate that a school is *par excellence* the institution to prepare the youth for the polymorphic and complex world of sport and movement. In order to prepare learners through sport and movement, it is necessary to put in place a balanced recreation and performance programme (competition) for learners, and in their participation in organised sport to enable learners to develop in totality, yet also to be educated. A positive experience of sport between the ages of 13 and 18 years, in particular, could have an enduring impression on individuals, which ultimately could lead to lifelong participation (Balague, 1999:89-91; Bruening, 2000:203-227; 239-246; Fourie *et al.*, 2011:67). A recent study by Raubenheimer and Le Roux (2008) brought to light the fact that a negative experience in intensive participation in sport in particular, could also impact on the future participation in sport, more pertinently in the

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[19]The new curriculum, schooling 2025, would replace the highly criticised OBE system introduced in 1998. However, OBE would not be completely scrapped, but was being reshuffled to remove the last ghost of 1998 with the aim of improving the performance of learners. Changes followed recommendations by a ministerial committee tasked with the review of the implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in 2009. It was the third time the curriculum had been reviewed since its introduction 12 years ago. The revised curriculum would be phased in for Gr. R-3 and Gr. 10 in Jan. 2012; Gr. 4-6 and Gr. 11 in Jan. 2013 and Gr. 7-9 and Gr. 12 in Jan. 2014. End-of-year results would be continuous assessment based and are aimed to reduce the administrative workload of educators, providing learners with in-depth skills and focus more on curriculum outcomes. Coupled with a revised curriculum, new Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) were developed for all approved GradeR-12 subjects. For more detail on CAPS visit the Department,s website (www.education.gov.za or www.thutong.doe.gov.za)

South African context. During this period (13-18 years), it is the personal goals and perceptions of success, amongst others, of participants in sport that inform their identity; more specifically a sport identity, and as such positively impact on continued participation (Stroot, 2002:132). She adds that apart from the establishment of a sport identity, learners also install an interest in sport, and regular sport participation and exercise now becomes part and parcel of their daily routine. For all that, various structural barriers such as discriminatory practices and social stratification patterns may negatively impact on the chances of 'being chosen' for a career in sport, for it seldom happens by personal choice only (Nauright, 1998:19, 20; Bruening, 2000:34; 164-172).

Racial quotas and politics in sport may intend to level the playing field, but would inevitably disenfranchise players and influence team selection and composition. As a result, learners could experience sport negatively, yet sport ultimately offers a learning school for situations with which they could be confronted in their adult life (Leonard II, 1998:123-127; 129-130; Wuest & Bucher, 2009:8).

The literature suggests that sport and related sport-activity programmes can be less effective for young learners who are deeply touched on a personal level at a very young age if they are not particularly capable or confident in their movement skills (Loopstra, 1991:419; Pill, 2007:25). The result hereof is that many learners struggle to see a sense of purpose and personal relevance in sport and related physical activities, like PE (Pill, 2007:25).

In conclusion, it may be stated that sport has educational value and can be used as an educational instrument, provided it is brought into play in the correct way (Rahschulte, 1999:59). Educators perform an important chaperonage role in the moral development of learners (Krane *et al.*, 1997:54, 58). Drew (1999) describes the role of educators and coaches: "... *in order to be more successful, teachers and coaches need to develop greater understanding of the reasons athletes give for their moral behaviour".* Schoon (1994:52) and Goncalves (1998:181; 187-188) believe that it is the task and responsibility of both the coach and parents to put opportunities in place for development through participation in sport. However, according to Benson (2000:226), many coaches and parents are unaware of the value of sport in the personal development of the child. The role of the school in society is graphically depicted in Figure 2 below (cf. p. 36).
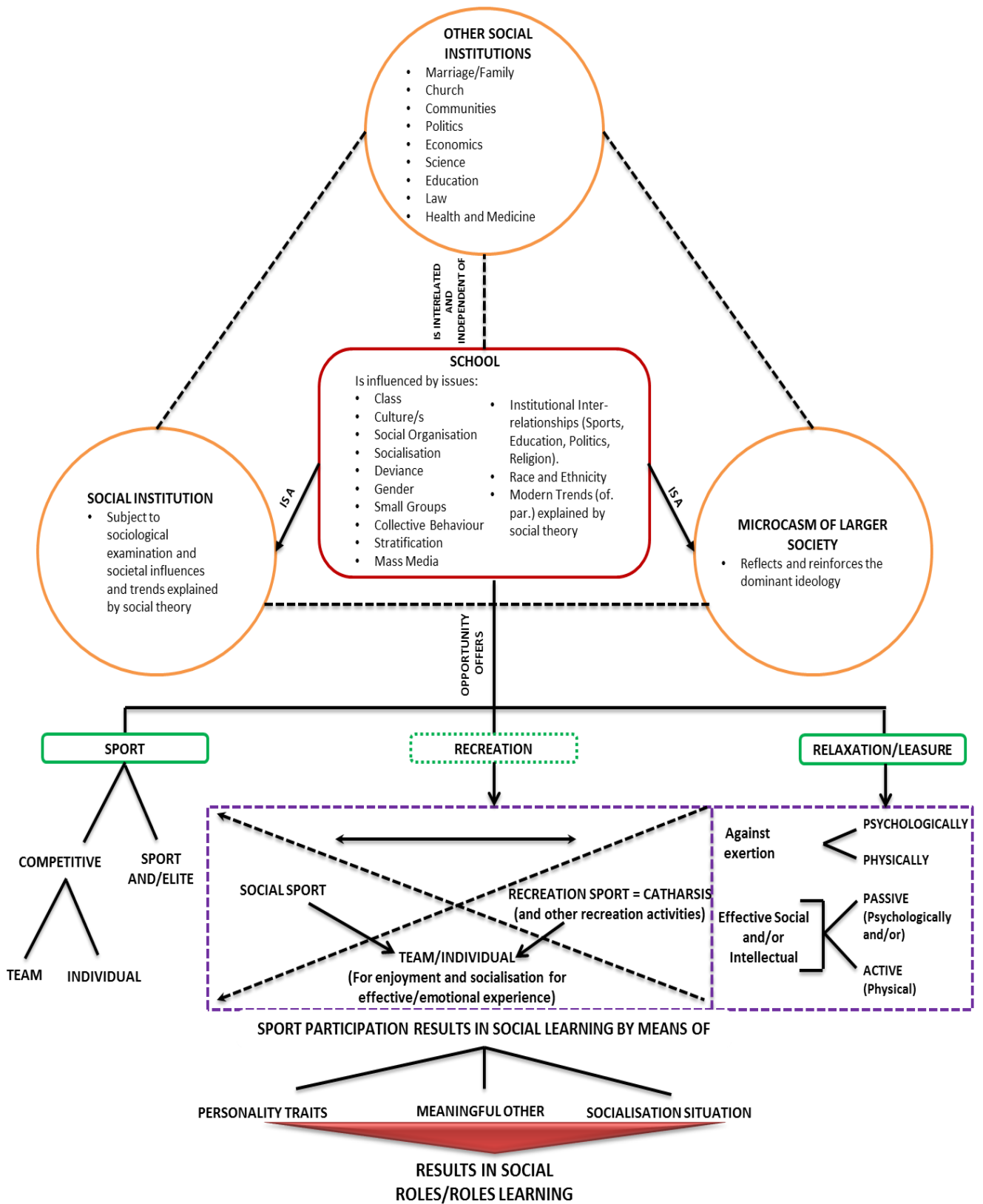
Figure 2: The role of the school in society

Having placed the relation between sport, education and teaching in context and having examined some related aspects of a school to provide an even better understanding of the South African context as is outlined in chapter two, it is now essential to look into the school as societal context. A discussion on the historic development of sport will guide the reader in understanding the school as societal context, the process through which school sport has developed and how the researcher used that in achieving the objectives of this study (cf. par. 1.3. 2, p. 12).

2.3   A SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE ON SPORT

From the preceding paragraphs, it may be seen that educators as school sport managers are faced with a daunting task, and are required to perform several functions which are critical to the overall success of schools. School sport managers require unique sport management training in relation to the diverse needs of South African schools. In par. 2.1 (cf. p. 26) the sociological perspective of sport to better understand the management of school sport was mentioned. However, before any discussion of the sociological perspective of sport can be done, it is first of all necessary to discuss the historic development of sport.

2.3.1   A historical orientation of sport

Sport has always occupied the mind of man (Watt, 2004:23), it pervades many aspects in society (Lumpkin, 1998:17) and is all around us (Eitzen & Sage, 2003: 1; Keim, 2006: 98, 99; Keim, 2008: 343, 344; Lera-López & Rapún-Gárate, 2007: 103; Thibault, 2009: 2,3). People from different cultures and different social backgrounds have participated in sport and physical activities in the form of physical expression as far back as the ancient Sumerians, Mesopotamians, Egyptians and Chinese (Van der Merwe, 2007:5; Mechikoff, 2010:28,42). These civilisations participated in sporting activities as part of their daily lives, and (Gouws, 2001:158) needed strength, stamina, speed, leanness, agility, coordination, courage and skills to live their ordinary lives and to survive.

Mechikoff (2010:29) argues that when, *"Kings, queens, pharaohs, emperors warlords and tyrants ruled in ancient civilisations, survival and the necessity to triumph over one's adversaries..."*, and to achieve this, the citizens had to be fit and strong. The activities of these civilisations can be utilised to give meaning to some of the sporting activities participated in and watched today. For example, Coakley (2009:58) and Coakley and Pike (2009:67) identify that javelin throwing originated from spear-throwing; and athletic events such as learners from schools exercise when participating in athletics offered by schools come from foot races between ancient warriors.

In the times of the ancient Greeks and Romans, physical prowess in relevant sporting fields was seen as important and a mark of someone's characteristics and worth (Watt, 2004:23-24). Idealizing the ethos of athleticism, the English Bourgeoisie also considered sport and exercise as important vehicles for character formation and superiority, stating that, *"The battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton"* (Loy & Kenyon, 1969:9). The Olympic Games and Soccer World Cup may capture the interest of as many as 100 billion spectators, creating independent social networks across the globe. This perceived status has placed sport in the public eye and has made it a subject of scrutiny, comment and criticism.

The attendance and utilisation of early sport facilities varied from nation to nation, individual to individual and from group to group according to their different cultures, perceptions and physical activity needs. Beashel, Sibson and Taylor (2001:170) summarise this phenomenon when arguing that: "*Sport reflects the society in which it is found*". These civilisations all showed a different social behaviour towards the management of sport facilities, and therefore the attendance at and utilisation of sport facilities varied accordingly (Sage, 1998:45,282). For example, the Romans and Greeks used their facilities to host activities, such as gladiator fights, which entertained the spectators and helped the rulers to see their warriors in action. Through this the rulers used athletes to demonstrate the importance of physical prowess in relevant sporting fields and as a mark of someone's characteristics and worth. Some rulers also built sport facilities to impress their neighbouring rulers.

In short, the size and aesthetic value of ancient sport facilities and spectacles were very important for the rulers of those times to show off their power and the skills of their soldiers. Sport facilities were also developed and utilised for the health and wellbeing of people as long as 2 500 years ago (Arthur, 2004:332).

2.3.2   School sport and physical education in a sociological context

Sport is no longer a male-dominated pastime that is merely indulged in for pleasure. The participation of females has increased dramatically over the past years (Dixon & Bruening, 2007:377,378; Edwards & Jones, 2007:350, 351) with the arrival of new events, such as the Women's Soccer World Cup, the Women's Cricket World Cup and the Women's Rugby Union World Cup (Mahoney & Howard, 2001:289; Lynn *et al.*, 2004:335,336; Kluka, 2008:493; Wuest & Bucher, 2009:6; Wuest & Fisette, 2012:6).

In addition, in South Africa, sport is no longer dominated by one racial group, as it was during the apartheid era (cf. note, 10 p. 27). Thus, sport is shaped by society; and society has reciprocally shaped sport. Because of the symbiotic relationship between sport and society and the multi-faceted dynamics of sport, different trends in society have emerged.

Over and above the afore-mentioned trends, some of the developing trends are also quite troublesome. To this end, Coakley (2009:124-130) and Siedentop (2009:137-138) describe five trends that are disturbing. These are the privatisation of school sport; the segregation of programmes by socio-economic status; decreasing opportunities for children in low-income families and communities; and more learners (children) seeking alternatives for adult-controlled organised sports.

Throughout the centuries, Western ideology has dominated the African education system (Van der Merwe, 1999:14). The Western education system is not always the solution for the African way of life, as in Africa, and especially in South Africa, holism is a lived experience with its vast cultural diversity. This holistic way of life has had a major impact on the indigenous sporting culture. Sport and sport-related physical activities, like PE, in South Africa in particular, are faced with many problems (cf. par. 1.2.2, p. 5), such as the lack of qualified educators, facilities, equipment and curriculum development, with the greatest problem being to implement a policy addressing specific economic, political and social circumstances within South Africa (Van Deventer, 2002b:106; 2005:144; 2007:142; 2009b:142,143; Rajput & Van Deventer, 2010:48; Van Deventer, 2011a:121-122; 2012:154).

Children need a safe environment and a secure space from which they could reconnoitre and control an unfamiliar world (Van der Westhuizen & Mentz, 2007:68,69). As a result thereof, opportunities for leadership should be created during participation in sport and related activities, in order for learners to increasingly accept responsibility and to develop their characters (Gouws, 1994:5, 10, 74; South Africa, 2000; Gallahue & Donnelly, 2003:132; Mull *et al.*, 2005:18; Montreuil, 2006:24; Darnell, 2010:65-66).

Hoffman (1987:122) is of the opinion that through the development of character, school sport obtains educational value. Apart from the element of enjoyment, school sport results in educational experiences which contain important implications for both the individual and society as a whole. Realising the role of sport in educational experiences has resulted in a new basis for the organisation and advancement of sport and PE in South Africa in particular after the

Renaissance.[20]   After the Renaissance, a new educational system, which included PE in the curriculum to apply the value of physical activity and sport to education, was introduced in schools. In this way the new education system has contributed to the improvement of the State and the revaluation of PE, because the merits and educational value of PE as an academic discipline with quality programmes were realised (Darst & Pangrazi, 2009:4; Pangrazi & Beighle, 2011:7, 8).

In schools, extramural activities, such as sport and sport-related physical activities and programmes are intended as an educational medium, and their purpose is directly pedagogical in nature (Sallis & McKenzie, 1991:124,134; Ennis, 2006:41-43; García López *et al.*, 2009). Extramural activities are intended for the development of psychological characteristics considered necessary for learners in schools; and these form part of the school living world in which the child-image becomes visible. This grounding has an enduring, moulding influence, and is viewed by Raalte and Brewer (1997:301) as a microcosm of society, where learners in school sport learn and are faced with situations that they need to be able to cope with later in life.

Fundamental to the holistic development of learners in schools is the aim of increasing opportunities in pursuit of sport at all levels (amateur, professional, mass participation), where people are more active more often.   Scholars, exponents and practitioners, like Amusa (1999:333,334); Mull *et al.* (2005:18); Amusa and Toriola (2006:220; 2008:355, 356); Amusa, Toriola, Onyewadume and Dhaliwal (2008:115); Roux, Burnett and Hollander (2008:92, 101), as well as Roux (2009:583), are thus of the opinion that sport and PE play an important role in human development. Building on this, Van Deventer, a strong advocate for the return and inclusion of PE as a school subject in itself in the curriculum of the South African education system, is highly critical of the viewpoint of the South African government whose message in 1997 during the curriculum reform of the new African National Congress (ANC) government, was clear: that PE is not an important part of a child's holistic development (Van Deventer & Van Niekerk, 2009:147).

By their very nature, sport and PE are about participation, inclusion and a sense of belonging. **Sport** is the pursuit of a physical activity, where set rules are involved. In the modern and post-modern tradition, sport is constructed to be fair, non-deviant, competitive, and guided by laws and

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[20] The period of the Rennaisance stands out as a time of cultural change with respect to the church and refers to the period 1300-1600, which can be seen as an intellectual reawakening, confined primarily to the upper class and nobility that helped change medieval attitudes toward the body. Different theories on how to view the human body were developed during the Renaissance and as such it laid the groundwork for different attitudes toward sport and physical education for those who followed and was in part caused by the reintroduction of Greek and Roman thought in intellectual circles, who advocated their beliefs around the ideal of the universal or "Renaissance man", that is a well-rounded individual who used the body to develop discipline and character (Mechikoff, 2010:126-134)

institutions (Curry & Jiobu, 1984:8; Donnelly, 2000:167-178; Slack, 2000; Wuest & Bucher, 2009:10; Wuest & Fisette, 2012:10). **PE**, on the other hand, is a broad concept, which presupposes that all human movement phenomena (sport, dance, play, games, gymnastics, aquatics and swimming) are utilised to educate learners, and have been embedded in human behaviour and society since ancient times, reflecting and informing all spheres of human existence. To this end, PE involves the use of physical activity as medium for the realisation of educational goals (Kirk, 2006:256); and it strives to develop the general physical ability and appearance of learners (Alderson, 1996:4; Chow *et al.*, 2008:38-39; 46-49).

PE, according to Coetzee *et al.* (2005:61); Lennox *et al.* (2008:59) and Roux *et al.* (2008:101) and sport (Chalip *et al.*, 1996:426; Doll-Tepper, 2006:72; Green, 2008a:129) both contribute to the holistic development of learners towards adulthood, because the holistic development of learners, according to Burnett (2005:48), Singh (2005:83), Biddle (2006:163), as well as Dorch *et al.* (2009:444-445), assume that socialising plays an important part and role in the holistic development of learners' values, beliefs and norms, which are regarded as valid and normative by society.

Socialising is relevant to sport, other facets of human behaviour and values, and merely points to moulding and influencing (Coakley, 2009:90). Socialising is an interactive process based on the ever-changing demands of society. In this regard, school sport has shaped society; and it plays an important role in the socialisation of learners who are reciprocally shaped by society. During world games, such as the Wimbledon Tennis Championships, the Tour de France, the recent 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™, held in South Africa, and the 2012 Summer Olympics held in London, nations, as well as learners in schools, are gripped by the action within these games.

Even when individuals have no interest in sport, the influence from relatives and friends can be significant, to the point where sport is included in their lives, sometimes only for the duration of a tournament – as was the case personally experienced by the researcher during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™. This study recognises the significant social impact sport raises. The school sport manager should therefore, without a doubt, take into consideration the social and market environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122), because sport is seen as a popular and unique commodity, which can be used to improve one's position in the society (Burnett, 1998:14; 2003:16; Peetz *et al.*, 2004:141; Van Heerden *et al.*, 2008:147,162; Bevan-Dye *et al.*, 2009:182-184).

On close examination of school sport, it appears that school sport, according to Coakley (2009:20, 24-26), is tied to important ideas and beliefs in many societies. It is connected with major spheres of life, like family, religion, the economy and politics, all of which play a role in the socialisation of learners. More specifically, apart from O'Donovan (2006:476), Smith (2006:151), Bowley (2007:59), Light (2007:325,335), Naidoo (2007:66), and O'Donogue (2007:62), Lorber and Martin (2008:234) are also of the opinion that organised school sport is characterised by participation and character formation, ideas on masculinity and femininity, the need for alternative kinds of sport (Coakley, 2009:131) professionalisation, commercialisation, racism (Brooks & Althouse, 2007:5; Azzarito & Harrison, 2008:348; Zwecker, 2010:6) and discrimination (Engelbrecht, 1996:4).

To downplay the significance of school sport due to the work ethic and qualifying concept of usefulness is to adhere to a form of cultural ethnocentricity[21] - which may impoverish the study of human behaviour and society. The world of school sport provides a rich and complex reality for a phenomenological review of school sport from a sociological perspective, together with an explanatory potential of how school works in the context of a social system. To generate understanding, the researcher can focus on observation and theory, where social "facts" are discovered and explained. Such facts, according to Durkheim, do not include everything that is merely social in a popular sense, but they are more external and enduring in their influence on human behaviour. These social "facts" may be established deductively and tested by exposing them to public debate.

Debate on social issues may also generate scientific investigation into trends and challenges in contemporary school sport; thereby challenging sociologists to undertake a *"detour via detachment"* (Burnett, 1998:2), and to discover and enhance sociological inquiry. Nowadays, sport, and more specifically school sport, operates in the business environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) as a very important economic entity and economic role-player in the world economy (Chernushenko, 2002:61; 2003:12; Burger & Goslin, 2005:1; Hoye & Doherty, 2011:272; Ferkins & Shilbury, 2012:68). The proliferation of physical education, exercise science and sport programmes during the last four decades has been remarkable (Wuest & Bucher, 2009:5; Amusa & Toriola, 2012:639; Wuest & Fisette, 2012:8). Programmes have expanded from the traditional school setting to the community, home, work site, commercial and medical settings. School-

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[21]Cultural ethnocentricity refers to an action whereby the focus (centre or middle point) is on a particular (one) population and is based on cultural traditions and history. Cultural ethnocentricity thus implies that a phenomenon such as sport is only viewed from the perspective of one particular population, based on their cultural traditions and history. In this way, one could say that the development of sport takes place in isolation, negating all other factors of human behaviour and trends, demands and needs of society

community partnerships bring sport instruction and fitness programmes to learners in the community and offer increased opportunities for youth involvement. Community recreation programmes offer a variety of instruction and sporting activities for learners of all ages and abilities. Tennis, golf, gymnastics, and karate clubs offer instruction to learners of all ages. Coupled herewith, the utilisation of school sport and sport facilities of schools can be seen as a part of sport business, because athletes and the sport facilities of schools are identified as revenue-generating possibilities (cf. par. 2.2.1, p. 26; 2.3.3, p. 45; 3.2.1, p.117; 3.4.2, p. 150; 3.6.6, p. 175).

Modern stadiums and other facilities have been built and developed in numerous schools all over the world. These stadiums and facilities can generate revenue for their schools if managed successfully. In this regard, the contemporary school sport manager could play an important role. In their article on *Sport in the Third Millenium*, Cuneen and Scneider (2001:267-273) stipulate that the sport industry grew rapidly in the 1990s, and that abundant new venues were being erected in the United States, leading to an increase in the need for financing. More specifically in relation to South African school sport, Blonski (2009:15) indicates a 50% growth in an alternative school sport, such as rock climbing since 2007. Disadvantaged learners, in particular, are being afforded more opportunities to participate, as school sport is becoming more commercialised (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90).

Sporting activities practised at the sport facilities of schools are also being managed and played on a more professional basis (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82). Bolligelo (2006:84) traces the development of professionalism in South African rugby; while Fourie, Slabbert and Saayman (2011:70) have researched the leisure patterns and sport participation of high school learners. They found that there is currently a distinct movement away from the traditional ways of operating in rugby and sport participation. This movement away from traditional ways (amateur and organised by volunteers) to more professional and more commercial ways, indicates a new era in the management of sport, sport facilities and school sport on a more business-oriented basis.

Sport facilities are needed for learners to participate in professional, amateur, recreational and/or mass sport. Specific sporting codes have different needs in terms of the facilities that they use. Athletics needs an athletics track; mountain biking needs a mountain bike course; water skiing needs a dam or lake; rock climbing requires a wall or rocks; golf requires a golf course; cricket needs a field and a pitch; and hockey needs a grass field or astroturf surface, to mention a few examples. For operational efficiency as a business, in a commercial environment, these sport facilities need to be managed in order to be financially successful and self-sustainable. In other

facilities, such as those of independent schools (private) and those that are owned by the State and local government, for example, the focus would be on self-sustainability – and not just on financial success. In short, schools could offer a myriad of facilities, thereby offering learners the opportunity to participate in sport.

To this end, the school sport manager is seen as a central figure in the athlete's sport experience and in the management of school sport. However, in order to do so, they should be properly trained. In this study, school sport management and the competencies that the school sport manager should have (cf. Chapter 3), as well as current sport management training programmes, both abroad and locally (cf. Chapter 4), have been discussed. Additionally, parallels have been drawn with modern trends in school sport (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70) and the role, place and value of school sport in the sport education sector and the sport industry as a whole (cf. par. 2.5, p.98) as main areas of discussion. These parallels have helped to achieve the outcomes of this study, to develop a sport management programme for educator training in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p, 12; Chapter 7). Daprano and Titlebaum (2003), as well as De Haan and Sherry (2012) have done research on the content of a sport management curriculum, and De Villiers and Bitzer (2004) have compiled a curriculum framework for sustainable sport management training.

Danylchuk (2011:4-5), on the other hand, although she has not developed a curriculum for sport management training, is also a strong believer in internationalizing the curriculum. According to her, the internationalisation of a sport management curriculum could be implemented by means such as workshops provided by an educational development centre, or an international office, the appointment of an international student advisor, faculty handbooks, and special funds to support the internationalisation of courses. The outcomes of these studies were included in this research and comparisons will be drawn at the end of this study.

Contemplation and critical reflection on the current state of affairs in contemporary school sport have resulted in school sport being in the spotlight. This necessitates the establishment of a theoretical framework from sociological and related theories to contextualise school sport (cf par. 1.3.2, research aim 1, p. 12). Understanding the sociological and cultural contexts in which sport exists, and how those perspectives and contexts are influenced by sport and the participation in sport, may help in applying that knowledge to other sub-disciplines of sport studies, such as the management of school sport.

2.3.3   Social theories

Sociology and social theory provide an appropriate intellectual framework for an analysis of sport and the application thereof in society (Sage, 1998:1; Armour & Jones, 2000:1). The importance of setting a sociological framework, according to Maguire and Young (2002a:2), is that the study of sport is embedded in sociological theory, and that the study of sport without theory is the same as simply describing and reproducing the status quo. The authors further argue that social theory must be understood as a form of scaffolding whereby one can build explanations about the social world in which we live (Maguire & Young, 2002a:3).

The social significance and theoretical development within the sociology of sport provide a conceptual framework that can be used for a contextual analysis by practitioners in sport-related industries (Hollander & Burnett, 2002:23). Hollander and Burnett (2002:33) suggest that: *"By utilizing a sociological framework, [this] provides meaningful insight into the dynamics of global society and possible predictions that may trigger proactive educational programmes in answer to developing trends and societal needs"*. Understanding the social and cultural contexts in which sport exists, and how these contexts are influenced by sport and the participation in sport, may contribute to applying that knowledge to other sub-disciplines of sport studies, such as school sport management.

Reflecting mainstream sociological research, sport studies evolved into interdisciplinary diversity, emphasizing the socio-historical, political, economic, cultural and symbolic dimensions of play, game and sport. Among the magnitude of socio-cultural and historical studies are the contributions of several sociologists, amongst whom Max Weber, who during the seventies (Sage, 1987:257; Jarvie & Maguire, 1994:5) used the functional theory to research various questions in sport and the society. In reaction to this, the conflict theory of Karl Marx and others (Brohm, 1978:76-81; Bryant & McElroy, 1997:19; Ritzer, 2010c:264) was formulated to describe the conflict in society; thereby the changing relationships between different economic groups in society were described (Bryant & McElroy, 1997:19; Eitzen & Sage, 2003:10; Popenoe *et al.*, 2003:13; Ritzer, 2010b:119).

Apart from the theories already mentioned, sociologists also use several forms of the critical theory to describe and understand the everyday realities of individuals, groups and communities in sport. The symbolic interactionists' approaches to the sociology of sport take primarily into account the meaning humans ascribe to language, other symbols, and the subjective orientation theretowards, as well as the meanings created through social interaction and socialisation. Moving away from value-laden and change-oriented action research, supporters of Eric Dunning study sport in view of

the figurative theory that has its origins in the thoughts of Norbert Elias, a German sociologist, who claims that life consists of a complex network of interdependent social structures (Dunning & Rojek, 1992:12). According to him, these structures are context- and process-related; and they gradually form specific figurations. These figurations, in turn, can expose trends that could create opportunities to understand and describe the development of school sport management as a profession in a diversity of schools.

Each theory relies on certain suppositions concerning the social order of the community, and also possesses unique characteristics that can offer the researcher the opportunity to critically reflect on the multi-dimensional image of sport in society (also in a school). It further includes the possibility that the complexity of sport can be described as an essentially societal phenomenon. For that very reason, each theory will be scrutinised; and on the basis thereof, an appropriate theoretical framework will be established to identify and predict trends in society.

These trends could contribute to advance a possible new field of study and academic discipline for the management of school sport. Furthermore, identified and predicted trends in society (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70), could also contribute to advancing the management competencies that the school sport manager requires to manage school sport in a diversity of schools in the South African education system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 2; Chapter 3).

With such knowledge and facts in mind, better and adequate training could be given to school sport managers – to thereby offer an improved, quality service to learners who participate in sport. In summary, there are five major sociological theories that can be used to study sport in society. Each of these theories will be briefly discussed and used to analyse the management of school sport. The impact on school sport management will also be mentioned; but this will be discussed in depth in Chapter three. Next, the various sociological theories, which could be implemented will be examined, after which a suitable theory or combination of theories will be selected.

Seeing that the functional theory can be used as a possible point of departure, in view of which trends in sport can be exposed for the benefit of identifying specialist profession-related competence opportunities in school sport, the functional theory will be reviewed and explored next.

2.3.3.1 The Functional Theory

Functionalism or structural-functionalism, as a holistic approach and perspective for the macro-analysis and understanding of sport in society, has maintained theoretical hegemony for more than

a century. Although the functional theory has its origin in the thoughts of the Ancient Greeks, the early exemplars of modern versions of functionalism are found in the works of Herbert Spencer and Emile Durkheim (Loy & Booth, 2002:9).

Following the lead of Comte (who already used the concept of sociology during the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries), Loy and Booth (2002:9) compare social structures with the functioning of biological organisms. The analogy of the functioning of a biological organism and society underpins the notions of Talcott Parsons (1966:7), who theorises that functionalism is an integrated socal system, in which each part is integrated and contributes to the functioning and maintenance (functionality, order, and survival) of the systematic whole (Barnes, 1995:37).

The functional theory therefore presupposes that society is an organised system of interdependent parts that is constructed through people's communal values and processes of consensus (Radcliffe-Brown, 1965:178-187). According to the functional theory, the underlying motive of society is to bring about a balance in the societal system – so that it can be continually effective and functional. The balance is naturally achieved if groups have unity, are striving for communal values and command functional societal structures. Besides Frey and Eitzen (1991:504), Popenoe *et al.* (2003:54) and Ritzer (2010c:251; 254, 255) also suggest that when actions or forms of behaviour contribute to order in the society, this should be seen as functional.

Consistent with the views of Frey and Eitzen (1991:504) and Barnes (1995:37), Craib (1984:43) recommends that different systems, such as the economy (adaptation), polity (goal-attainment), socialising (integration), and the community (pattern-maintenance) are to provide the collective values, roles, strategies and resources to influence and produce collective behaviour for a functional society. On the other hand, when actions and forms of behaviour influence the social order negatively, the social order is seen as dysfunctional, and society is in an abnormal or pathological state – as was coined and put forward by Henslin (2008:26).

The approach of Henslin to the study of community presupposes that the functional theory negates conflict as a social phenomenon. In relation to the current study, this would mean that the school sport manager, who supports the functional theory, assumes that all the different functions (cf. par. 3.6, p. 153) within a school need to work together in harmony towards a common goal, or else the school might have to close down. As such, it would not have to cope with conflict when school sport is offered as a service to the community.

In summation, the social order is seen as functional if human behaviour does not cause a major social decline that might increase the evils of society – such as poverty and alcohol abuse. This means that, for example, if everybody in a school and the community it serves, work together to prevent poverty that could lead to a decrease in crime in society. And because of factors, such as high employment, everyone would be able to live in harmony, without any conflict – and thus the social stability of society as a whole would be promoted.[22]

According to Coakley (2009:33), the functional theory requires the presence of four functions in a society for the social system to function effectively. Firstly, to influence people to learn and accept important cultural values; secondly, to bring people together, to bind them together and to establish integrated social relationships; thirdly, to motivate people to try and reach cultural goals; and lastly to protect the system from outside influences and changes.

Within the macro-functionalist or societal level, it is believed that sport can contribute to the maintenance of society – by providing a socio-emotional outlet (serving as an opiate). Through this, according to various authors (Tumusiime & Frantz, 2006:294; Krotee & Bucher, 2007:147; Steyn & Roux, 2009:33,41,42; Dishman & Chambliss, 2010:564) sport in schools can be utilised as an escape valve to relieve repressed impulses and feelings, like aggression and frustration. Despite a lack of scientific support, Terry (2004:53-64) Cox (2007:353,354), and LeUnes (2008:228,229,238,564) are but a few advocates of this principle known as catharsis which has been received with open arms by the various media.

The effect and principles of catharsis can be explained from the functional theory. Weiskopf (1982:188-193), Horne and Van der Merwe (1990:41), Harris (2005:78; 2010:28), Mull *et al.* (2005:21), Torkildsen (2005:37), Johnson (2006:351), Chetty and Edwards (2007:7), Green (2008b:96) and Williams (2010:249,250) all presuppose a need to participate in sport, because of the relaxing and therapeutic value of sport.

When these processes for the effective functioning of the social system are studied, it is obvious that the functional theory sees these as the building blocks on the basis of which social order in the community can be brought to pass and maintained. The question consequently arises as to what the role of sport within this theory would be to bring about this good order in society, and also to ensure the optimal function thereof, because researchers, scholars and practitioners, who have a

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[22] Interestingly, these social theories are seen as ideal, since they suggest that society could be perfect. They, however, overlook the fundamental human nature. According to the Bible, mankind is intrinsically evil and there cannot be any perfect society without the intervention of God himself [the Kingdom of God]

vested interest in society, often want to see results that confirm the value of sport to relieve stress in educational goal accomplishment, in positive social togetherness, as well as in health and fitness. The functional theory, therefore, contributes to the purpose of education and governments in various societies.

- *Application of the Functional Theory*

The functional theory seemingly possesses several research possibilities, which can be used in support of the dominant cultural values in societies. It is necessary, however, to determine the extent to which the functional theory could serve as an instrument to identify and describe the trends in a society and in specific school sports. The management and specialist competencies required by the contemporary school sport manager in society can also be identified.

Research findings from longitudinal studies lend support to the popular opinion of various scholars that participation in sport leads to positive youth development, as measured by influential indicators. These indicators are termed the 5 C's, namely: (a) Competence in academic, social, and vocational areas; (b) confidence, or a positive self-identity; (c) connections to community, family and peers; (d) character or positive values, such as integrity, and moral commitment; and (e) caring and compassion (Linver *et al.*, 2009:354-355; 363-366).

Informed by Comte's adopted naturalist/positivist vision of sociology, advocated under the general heading of functionalism – where the social processes are viewed as static – each component functioning in harmony with others, Cashmore (2005:61-79); Hylton and Bramham (2008:24) and Jarvie (2011:24) all emphasise the role of sport within the functional theory as an agent to bring about good order in society, and to ensure the optimal function thereof. This can be done by ensuring that a positive relationship is maintained between participation in sport and the development of a good character.

Mass participation and accomplishment, or achievement and performance motivation, are seen as typical sport-focused outcomes (Crum, 1999:6; Sugden & Tomlinson, 2002:312; Agbuga & Xiang, 2008:186-188; Darst & Pangrazi, 2009:70-71; Pangrazi & Beighle, 2011:9). In this sense, the functional outcomes serve as a medium through which the success of communicated ideology and values can be determined.

The functional theory focuses on those structures that can contribute positively to the social order of society. Within the context of sport as a system of society, it focuses on the positive aspects

which sport may offer a society. A good example of this is the 2010 Youth Olympic Games, which gives the youth an education based on the Olympic values like peace, brotherhood, tolerance, democracy and universality (Judge *et al.*, 2009:173, 174; 180-186; Parry, 2012:140-141). In Judge and colleagues' word the Youth Olympic Games is the best kept secret.

Another example of the positive focus of sport is that at the beginning of the previous century, PE in English public schools was considered to be a method for learners to understand their physicality. Schools, as educational facilities, have used PE as a method to form the characters of learners, to educate them in a determined educational ideology, and to foster a healthy lifestyle and habits. A healthy lifestyle includes physical development (Toohey, 1997:21), to be healthy (Galloway, 2007:10), fit (Green, 2008b:100-105; Harris, 2010:28), to eat correctly and to exercise regularly. Darst and Pangrazi (2009:7) share a similar view but also offer meaningful advice to all and sundry. To them exercising to live, rather than living for sport is an important distinction that should be understood.

According to Frey and Eitzen(1991:507); Putter (2003:64); De Donder(2006:45), as well as Steyn and Roux (2009:33), the educational value of sport is lost in most schools where sport is a high priority, because the negative use thereof as the focus for participation is external motivation. Frequently, sport is used for the personal benefit of the principal, coach, parents or learners; while its functional value, namely: to serve as an effective vehicle for socialising and controlling the masses through education and coercion, is lost (Fernándes-Balboa & Muros, 2006:203, 204; Kanters *et al.*, 2008:65, 66; Weber, 2009:55, 56).

It is obvious that sport cannot only be used for the positive aspects of society, but that an overemphasis of the positive could also yield negative results for mankind. An overemphasis of the positive negates the use of forbidden aids and social stratification, as well as exclusion from sport (Jones, 2000:36; Loy & Booth, 2002:16; Scheerder *et al.*, 2005:20-21; Coakley & Pike, 2009:41). To disregard the important role of the school sport manager and significant others (coaches, parents, educators, members of the peer group or colleagues), and to focus on the positive aspects, which school sport may offer, can be a crucial mistake, because authors, such as Baranowski *et al.* (1999:1622), Chalip and Scott (2005:44), Fessler (2005:77), Bloemhoff and Coetzee (2007:149), Bloemhoff (2008:282), Booth (2009:148), Emrich *et al.* (2009:152-153), Judge *et al.* (2009:180-186) and Spaaij (2009:247, 248; 255-263) are of the opinion that competitive school sport only has educative potential under certain circumstances. According to them, competitive sport offers physiological and mental advantages, in addition to a personal or

educational value. Meaningful sport participation today (Davis *et al.*, 2000:438; Hartman, 2008:10, 12; Weiss, 2008:434; Zarrett *et al.*, 2009:378; Kirk, 2010:17) is one of but a few mediums which present individuals with the opportunity to demonstrate their competencies (agility, suppleness, kick, run), and it also provides a way to increase an individual's pride, confidence and social acceptance.

The extent to which these and other factors are realised, contributes to the organisational effectiveness of a well-developed sport and related activities programme at schools. It can therefore be assumed that, for an organisation such as a school to benefit from a sports programme, such a sports programme has to be functional. Schools should therefore aim at making the sports experience enjoyable to the learners. In this regard, Chelladurai (1984:31) is of the opinion that the degree of satisfaction experienced by learners *"taps the degree to which their performance reached or failed [to reach their] expected levels".*

Satisfaction with the sports programme, and experience thereof, would not only contribute to the personal growth and development of learners as individuals, but also to the success of the organisation. In addition, schools serve as carriers of an ideology that controls and utilises the socialising process of society.

From a school sport management perspective, the functional theory deals with the functionality of the school and its facilities used for sport. Issues about how the school's sport facilities are used (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175), how the school and school sport fit into social life, and how school sport contributes to the stability of the particular community, may be addressed. To contribute to society, school sport and the sports facilities of the school should be utilised maximally by offering programmes and hosting events (cf. par. 3. 6.6, p. 175).

If the school facilities are utilised maximally, activities and/or sport and other events will be hosted, and the learners as well as the community will take part as participants and/or spectators. To do so, school sport managers need to be competent and trained to market the school (cf. par. 3.6.1, p.155). The commercialisation of school sport and the facilities of the school can be seen as a modern trend that could be utilised maximally. Sport and the school's facilities, should be seen as a business unit, and the management thereof approached accordingly (cf. par.3 2, p. 117).

In some cases the community might even take ownership of schools and help to maintain them (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175; 3.6.8, p. 189). In short, using the functional theory could assist the school sport

manager to focus on the positive contributions that sport and the availability of sport facilities might have on society. The compentencies required to manage facilities will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Three.

A shortcoming of the functionalist theory is that it offers a one-sided presentation of the positive consequences that it can hold for the individual. In addition, the functional theory assumes that all groups in society have the same needs and values; and that the importance of historical and cultural influences between societies is ignored. The presence of conflict, which is caused by power differences, exploitation and hegemony (Andrews, 1996:50-69; 2008:539-540), is at odds with the objectives of the functional theory; and this therefore falsely emphasises harmony and consensus, while the functional theory also ignores conflict.

A new conceptual paradigm, known as neo-functionalism, was developed to address multi-level and multi-faceted analysis and understanding of the potential role of sport in society (Lüchen, 1990:53). This strand of functionalism will be utilised to explore the trends of manipulation (cf. par. 2.4.1, p. 72) and institutionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.2, p. 79) in contemporary sport and western capitalist societies.

When proponents of the functional theory assess the role of sport in the maintenance of the basic systems in society, sport is negated as a social construct that is created by groups of people. The role of groups that contribute to the inequality in society, as for example those with the economic power in the sport world is not researched. Ignoring the role of those with power in the sport world, assumes that social problems, change and inequality in society, are not taken as the focus of the research. Further theories would have to be investigated to reach scientific conclusions concerning specialist professional competencies of the school sport manager in a diversity of schools, as currently manifested in the wider society.

The study of sport as a social phenomenon would be incomplete if the trends of gender discrimination, economic exploitation, manipulation and social stratification of the participants, coaches and management in school sport were not described in essence (Hall, 1996:11-21). Different forms of feminism, namely the liberal and radical forms, put patriarchal hegemonic practices and structures into the pillory. It is thus necessary that the "radix" or root of conflict in sport be studied as a phenomenon, in order to understand the essence of the conflict theory.

2.3.3.2 The Conflict Theory

Utilising methods, concepts and dominant ideologies, social scientists have focused on the study of conflict and change in society, refuting the assumption of society as being static and harmonious. Based on this, the Conflict Theory, unlike the Functional Theory, does not assume that society is a stable system with interdependent parts, but that it comprises a continually changing set of relationships which exist because of inherent differences over economic interests (Bryant & McElroy, 1997:19; Rigauer, 2002:28, 29, 33; Ritzer, 2010c:235, 236).

Considering the purpose of this research (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12), the Conflict Theory offers the opportunity to study and analyse school sport from a market-economy perspective. It is within this context that school sport should be researched and the management competencies of the school manager are contemplated and reflected upon (cf. Chapter 3). In this way, the ideologies underlying the economic systems in sport can be studied. To understand the ideologies underlying the economic systems in sport, one has to look beyond the assumption of society as being static and harmonious, and focus rather on the continually changing set of relations that exist because of inherent differences over economic interests.

Social order (or disorder) exists because certain people do not have equal access to resources, while they are subtly manipulated (Rowe, 1995:12; Haralambos *et al.*, 2008:9, 10) into accepting the ideologies and values (work and sport ethic) of the economically strong groups. Winning and persistence are set as the essentials of the core ideology (Rojek, 1995:140-145); while it is actually all about indoctrination and economic principles. This view of society presupposes that class relationships, systems or social stratification are the departure point for any authentic study.

The Conflict Theory addresses a gap that the functional theory has exposed, namely that inequalities in society cannot be taken as the focus of a study. Moreover, the Conflict Theory has created the possibility that further trends may be exposed which can lead to a description of possible specialist profession or occupation related competencies of the school sport manager.

The conflict theory is based on the Marxist theory of Karl Marx, who in the nineteenth century described his theory of change by means of conflict and economic power (Morgan, 1997:187-188). His theory is used as a departure point to describe the events as they appear in the social life of countries with a capitalistic economy.

- *Application of the conflict theory*

In the South African context, the conflict between economic forces and the identified needs is a very relevant issue, as there is always a lack of funds and a constant increase in needs for sport activities and facilities in society (Ebrahim, 2006:177; Alegi, 2007:325). Racial differences in sport participation may thus also occur, because township schools, for instance, differ from ex-model C schools in size and resources. Schools with more resources provide more sports and teams, and sport participation rates are higher in independent (private) schools than in public schools (Goldsmith, 2003:152). Conflict then arises between those who have and those who do not have, and those whose needs are addressed against those whose needs are not addressed.

The individual needs of certain cultures would vary, and because of the compilation of these different cultural groups in society, conflict might result if certain needs are addressed, while others are neglected. For example, a new basketball court at a school might not satisfy the needs of the football players and cricket players in that particular school or community, which might lead to conflict. Within the context of the conflict theory, the need for a new basketball court, for example, would be based on financial incentives rather than on school or community needs.

In relation to the current study, it follows that the school sport manager should be trained to use the resources of the school in accordance with the diverse needs of society, and also to solve any conflict between different cultures. The researcher seeks to describe economic favouring in school sport in the society, and through that attempt to expose the underlying ideologies which further the exploitation of the lower socio-economic class (workers). In this regard, the whole structure of learners' participation in sport (Booth & Tatz, 2000:200; Kremer-Sadlik & Kim, 2007:35-38; Dorch *et al.*, 2009:444) is dependent on human resources for the facilitation in participation. Examples hereof are, amongst others, parents' time, money and emotions, which are functions of economic class and status. Single parents and people from lower income groups, more often than not cannot afford it that learners can participate in sport, because of inadequate or limited funds (money), a shortage of food for intensive energy consumption, as well as physical health, high costs of transport and so forth. The conflict theory, in this sense, offers the opportunity to study and analyse sport from a market economic perspective. For the purpose of this study, the school sport manager should thus be trained to understand the different economic systems and also how to manage school sport as a business (cf. par.3.2, p. 117).

Another aspect in school sport which can be explained, applying the conflict theory, is the trend of increasing professionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) in school sport. In the post-modern era

increased media exposure has compelled schools to seek and adopt a professional approach towards competitive school sport in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. Although independent (private) schools are relatively more affluent than public schools, and in particular ex model C schools, especially ex-model C schools have in the past ten years entered into this competitive arena by utilizing sport as a means for generating revenue through events, attracting sponsorships and marketing their schools through the achievements of their athletes and sport teams.

To approach school sport through the conflict theory, can lead the school sport manager to a better understanding, explanation and interpretation of trends and reasons why schools empower and favour elite by means of sport. In relation to the preceding view, Coakley (2009:33) recommends research about the relationship between sport, market forces and commercialisation through the conflict theory to find a possible explanation for the way in which schools empower and favour elite groups with economic and financial power through sport. Apart from the afore-mentioned, the school sport manager can also study the connection between sport, racism and sexism (Mikoza & Phillips, 1999:5-7; Chappell, 2002:92-96; 99-107; Baca, 2004:71-77; Burnett, 2006d; 2006g; 2009b; Eitzen, 2009:174; Pelak, 2009:102-118; Knoppers & McDonald, 2010) to understand unequal participation in sport, the way in which athletes see their bodies as objects in order to reach results and how sport is used to manipulate people.

Several school sport management competencies and specialist profession or occupation related competencies (specialist competencies) can be identified from the preceding paragraphs and should also be included in a sport management programme for educator training (cf. Ch.7). One of these is that sport has become increasingly professional (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82). The phenomenon of professionalisation was noticed the first time under the Romans. It also appears during industrialisation and in the modern and post-modern era of the history of mankind. Professionalisation of sport has in turn contributed to the increased scientific approach that led to the chasing of achievements and records. As a result of increased professionalisation and scientification, the school sport manager requires specialised training in sport management, marketing, human resources and financial management (cf. Ch.3). Professionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) and scientification (cf. par. 2.4.5, p. 88) of school sport implies that the contemporary school sport manager requires competencies in sport management, marketing, public relations, various financial related aspects, human resources and also new methods of coaching, in order to make the sporting experience enjoyable and to maintain a sustainable competitive advantage.

2.3.3.3 The Critical Theory

Critical theory as a research framework is well established as a rigorous discipline and has been employed by notable academics in the social sciences, such as Carr (1995), Carspecken (1996), Alvesson and Sköldberg (2000), Neuman and Kreuger(2003), Ritzer and Smart (2003), Henning *et al.* (2004), Hesse-Biber and Leavy(2004), Reason and Bradbury (2006), Valentin (2006), Giulianotti (2009) and Denzin and Lincoln (2011b). These authors' use of the critical theory as a basis for construction of knowledge, acknowledges the importance of Critical Theory in the broader domain of critical qualitative research.

Critical Theory has its origins in mankind's involvement with reality in attempting to understand society from a critical perspective. The primary focus of this theory is the explanation of the different cultures, powers and social relationships in society (Coakley, 2009:40). Different cultures, powers and social relationships are used to shape different identities in society. These identities may help to dictate what is acceptable, normal behaviour within a culture. Generally accepted behaviour may then lead to a situation where certain inviduals get offered certain privileges, and others are denied the same privileges in terms of sport and sport participation. For example, the more experienced players in a school's first hockey team would have the privilege of initiating new members into that team.

It would thus further be useful to find answers to the key question critical theorists often ask, namely how can the community be influenced in order to make life more just and open for diverse groups? Critical theorists, in an attempt to bring about change in society, therefore seek to find answers to key questions and issues like discriminating systems and practices in addition to exclusion of minorities from sport. Mechanisms like affirmative action or transformation are therefore utilised in order to further equality, justice and openness in sport and society (Bailey, 1996:54-60; Abromowitz & Burnett, 2007:149, 155-156).

The focus is on the transformation of sport and practical programmes in respect of seeding and the selection of teams and policies in order to make sport, and the pursuit thereof, more accessible to women and racial and ethnic minorities. Understanding society from a critical perspective, as a prerequisite to social change, is thus useful in providing explanatory power in the study of gender relations, equity or ethnicity (Bruening, 2000; Shakib & Dunbar, 2004:287-294; Bruening, 2005:330; Scraton *et al.*, 2005:87-95; Shaw & Frisby, 2006; Patrick *et al.*, 2008:178-181; Burnett, 2009b:12-13; Adair & Rowe, 2010:252).

In the context of the proposed study, one can thus assume that sport and related activity programmes should indeed be transformed and adapted to make them more accessible for women, racial and ethnic minorities – in order to further equality, justice and openness in sport and society. In this way, the political objectives that are pursued in order to favour those with power, such as the politicians, are opposed (Padwe, 1989:105; Lippi *et al.*, 2008; Gradidge *et al.*, 2010; Stewart & Smith, 2010; Wikipedia, 2010),[23] as are other forms of deviated behaviour.

The critical theory is increasingly used in the sociological study of sport, seeing that it offers the possibility to acknowledge the role of power in the structuring of sport. The trend that emerges from this could be seen in the context of the changing society. Coakley (2009:36) shows that the basis of the critical theory, assumes that sport cannot be studied outside the context of the specific cultural and historical existence; however, it is constantly being structured by people to cope with the realities of everyday life. This has implications for the school sport manager in the sense that training for the school sport manager should be informed by practice and competencies required for the management of school sport in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Through adherence to the mentioned pre-requisite, the school sport manager would attempt to not only provide optimal opportunities for participation, relevant to the needs of the society in order to contribute to the development of sport at school level, but also to bring about change in the perspectives and structures of society with regard to the role and position of sport. This state of affairs could imply some level of determination, especially in a free market or capitalistic economy.

The role played by sport isolation during the rule of the National Party's policy of apartheid (1948-1994) when South Africa for almost three decades did not participate in the Olympic Games, in addition to the segregation of PE in schools for white, black, coloured and Indian learners since 1948, are typical examples of the role of sport as agent for change (Dunning & Rojek, 1992:188-190; Kloppers, 1996:61; Van Deventer, 1998/99:89-90; 92-93; 99-100; 1999:104).

In summary, it may be said, that Critical Theory comprises different paradigms, evolving into interdisciplinary diversity, emphasising the socio-historical, political, economic, cultural and symbolic dimensions of sport. The aim of this theory is to understand, explain and initiate change in society. It presupposes the answering of questions about the role of sport in different communities, how sport opportunities differ from one community to another, and how sport can be changed to further the interests of all the participants. Sport, as an agent of change, is the essence of the Critical Theory. Further, because an understanding of society from a critical perspective is

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[23]Cf note 17, p. 31

seen as a prerequisite to social change, one has to analyse the role of sport within the context of the historical and social developments in communities.

- ***Application of the critical theory***

In the South African context, questions on the meaning and source of "affirmative action" or transformation in school sport could be explained by means of the critical theory. Answers resulting from this could be used to explain the manner of sport participation and management in South African schools, in particular, given the context of this study. This would enable the researcher to determine the context of school sport within the educational system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 1). Informed by the context of school sport in the educational system, the researcher would then be able to describe and delineate the current role of the sport manager within the educational system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 2). In order to do precisely that, the researcher should also take cognisance of the process of social construction in sport as it manifests in different societies.

The social construction of sport (Rigauer, 2002:41-42) is a continuous process, because as society changes, the social relation of sport to community changes. An example of this is the commercialisation of sport (Slack, 2004; Bayios, 2006:171-174; Dubal, 2010) and the access or entering of transnational corporations (Silk & Andrews, 2001:186-188; 192-199; Jackson & Hokuwhitu, 2002:126-127; Mager, 2005:176; Knott, 2007:29-30; Worthen, 2010:124-126) to sponsor major school sport events.[24] In this way, finances determine the availability of participation in a variety of kinds of sport and related activities.

The critical theory focuses on the study of the different forms in which society appears. It demands justice from systems and the application of that in society. In contrast with the functional theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.1, p. 46) and the conflict theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53), the critical theory is adaptable to critically study the different forms in which society appears. Societies are further seen as complex, given that they can differ from situation to situation. Here, the emphasis is especially on the changing nature of sport, as it has developed historically, together with the political and power orientations of the society. One of the areas of criticism is that none of the variations of the theory give any indication as to when sport reproduces the dominant forms of social relationships, or when sport acts in opposition to the transformation of social relationships.

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[24]Cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175

The critical theory also offers an opportunity for critical reflection and contemplation on the historical and social development of society – pertinent and salient in South Africa with its unique political context. To this end, school sport is regarded as a counter-agent for negative societal powers (Gerdy, 2000:128; Singh, 2005:83; Rajput & Van Deventer, 2010:161). Although some of the recent work in which the critical theory is used focuses on the way that sport acts as a counter-agent for negative societal powers, few guidelines are given as to how sport could be applied and effectively used as a catalyst for change.

Moreover, specific situations in the past are not fully used to establish future perspectives about the way in which sport can be used as an agent of change in society. Specific situations in the past, can however (Raper, 2003:33,67) be utilised to create future perspectives about the way in which school sport can act as an agent of change in the community. The dawn of post-apartheid in particular, has therefore witnessed a proliferation of writing on the value of sport in breaking down racial barriers and building a united nation, and highlighting the way in which school sport can act as an agent of change.

The proliferation of feminism in South Africa is most evident in the plurality of research conducted by Burnett, a well-known scholar and researcher in sport sociology. Various studies by her over the years have resulted in a unique body of knowledge about the way in which sport can be used as an agent of change in society (Burnett, 1999; 2004; 2006b; 2006e; 2006f; 2006c; 2006d; 2007e; 2007c; 2007a; 2007b; Burnett & Africa, 2007; Burnett, 2008c; 2008a; 2010c; 2010b). Her studies confirm the view of the researcher that knowledge of different social theories should enable the school sport manager to better understand the context of school sport in the education system. For this reason should the sport management programme for educator training also include training in social theory (cf. par.7.5.3 p. 561).

In conclusion, it may be said that the critical theory focuses on describing and explaining the changing questions concerning power and the political orientations of society and specifically sport in a historical and context sensitive way. This theory further attempts to expose the complex interdependency of sport and power. In so far as the power structures in society change, the approach, use and managing of sport will necessarily change. It is nevertheless essential to pay attention to the fact that the multidimensional nature of this theory provides the opportunity to expose various forms of appearances and approaches to sport. Trends concerning the power structures and the shifting of power could possibly be identified in sport. .

2.3.3.4 The Symbolic Interaction Theory

In direct contrast to the aforementioned macro theories, namely functionalism (cf. par. 2.3.3.1, p. 46), conflict (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53) and critical (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56), the symbolic interaction theory is a micro theory. Symbolic interaction offers a wide range of interesting and important ideas, and a number of major thinkers have been associated with the approach, including amongst others George Herbert Mead, generally regarded as the founder of symbolic interaction (Haralambos *et al.*, 2008:881), Charles Horton Cooley, W.I. Thomas, Erving Goffman and Herbert Blumer, who (Ritzer, 2010a:57) first coined the term symbolic interaction.

As has been noted by other scholars (Douglas, 1980; Denzin, 1992; Prus, 1996), there are various styles and types of symbolic interactionism, yet much of the basis of the symbolic interactionism approach is exemplified in Blumer's (1969) discussion (Beal, 2002:353). The symbolic interaction theory differs significantly from the macro theories and addresses the weaknesses of the preceding macro theories. According to Bryant and McElroy (1997:154) and Coakley (2009:47), symbolic interaction theory investigates social relations and the subjective points of view of those who give meaning to themselves, others, and the world around them during their social interaction with others and the formation of social relations. This focus derives and draws from Mead's pragmatism, which focuses on human action, and interaction, not on isolated mental processes (Ritzer, 2010b:219), and on earlier studies by Max Weber, Herbert Blumer and Charles Horton Cooley (Sage, 1987:269; Bryant & McElroy, 1997:154).

The symbolic interactionists' approaches to the sociology of sport (McCall & Becker, 1990:3; 6-8;13-14) centrally take into account the meaning humans ascribe to language and other symbols (Ritzer, 2010c:219); the subjective orientation towards, and meaning validated when people agree on a definition of a social phenomenon (Beal, 2002:353, 354), and created through, social interaction, socialisation and the formation of an own, unique identity (Weiss, 2001:393; Stier, 2007). Identity is formed by means of perceptions and interpretations of social relations (Stevenson, 2002:131). Through their world of living, perceptions and interpretations of social relations humans are able develop a sense of who they are and how they are connected to the social world, while it further leads to that end that humans are influenced by choices on their way to the establishment of a social world of living and relations.

This social world of living and relations, demonstrated by Bandura's (1993) social learning theory and Burnett's (2005) socialising model, are in turn influenced by significant others (such as parents, family members, the coach, peers and team members) who more often than not possess status

and high esteem. Through observing and internalising the values of significant others towards achievement in sport, the social influences on learners participating in sport provides a network of influential relationships (Brustad, 1992:59-71; Goncalves, 1998:181;184-189; McCallister *et al.*, 2000:35-41; Stroot, 2002:131; Waldron & Krane, 2005:315; Omar-Fauzee *et al.*, 2007:59-69; Surujlal *et al.*, 2008:514-518;520-530; Lu & Xu, 2009:442-443;453-454).

In addition, a frame of reference for athletes to make important choices and take decisions during their social interaction with opponents, team mates, umpires, referees and other facilitators who guide identity formation also serves to strengthen and provide more networks of influential relationships. Ultimately, the role of the school sport manager is crucial to support and assist learners with identity formation and the establishment of relationships.

In a nutshell, it may therefore be stated that the symbolic interaction theory sheds light on the experiences of athletes and the ways that athletes define and make sense of their sport participation to guide identity formation.

- *Application of the Symbolic Interaction Theory*

Theoretical debates in general sociology have spilled over to the study of sport challenging the naturalistic/positivist (cf. par. 5.2.1.1, p. 301) orientations and the use of operational concepts, as well as the assumption of "value-free" enquiry and analysis, in addition to political conservatism and ignorance of symbolic meanings inherent in social relations (Sage, 1987:260-262, 269). The symbolic interaction theory is thus increasingly being used in the sociological study of sport, because it presents the possibility of acknowledging the role of social interaction in the structuring of sport (Coakley, 2009:48).

In the context of South Africa, and in particular the study in question, the symbolic interaction theory can in the first place be utilised to contextually explain the inactive lifestyle of learners and to describe the meaning assigned to the importance and role of a specialist educator for PE in schools in order to ensure active, fit, and healthy learners (Rajput & Van Deventer, 2010:159-160). Secondly, this theory offers the opportunity to explain the meaning humans ascribe to sport objects and events, like the recent 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup (Van Wyk, 2008). An example of this is the use of stars, such as Michael Jordan, as a symbol of success with his salient Nike outfit to attract people to the gymnasium, in order to bring together sport, body, culture and commodities.

The utilisation of famous and well-known sporting personalities and heroes in South Africa, like Schalk Burger, Bryan Habana, Jacques Kallis and many more, together with talented sport stars in schools to attract promising learners to schools by means of symbols of success (Shannon, 1999:519; Grainger *et al.*, 2005:89,90; Van Heerden *et al.*, 2008:163; Goldman & Johns, 2009:125) serves as an example of the use of the Symbolic Interaction Theory.

In the context of school sport, rugby is a symbol of an overtly manly game and training ground for boys to become men. Rugby is an engendered space of ritualised male behaviour and ethos rooted in the Darwinian notion of strength through struggle – and by following a code of rules, conduct and honour that embodies manliness. Rugby, in particular in the South African school sport context, symbolises cultural and social divisions between white and black South Africans, which according to Nixon and Frey (1996:50) during the nineties provided a major obstacle for social integration in the realm of national sport. Continuous reference to the past and the ills thereof, and the legacy of apartheid, which resulted in social segregation, is currently part of the baggage carried. In the modern, democratic, non-racist professional era of rugby, a white dominating rugby fraternity naturally would impact on a school sport manager and as such, training in sport history and understanding of Afrikaner nationalism and the related struggle for eqeual opportunities to participate in sport.

For the interactionist theorist the enjoyment of the experience, and how they make sense out of their participation in sport, are important issues (Coakley, 2009:47). For individuals participating in sport at a school to experience this enjoyment, they need to be given the opportunity to express themselves. Whether that happens in reality is debatable; however, given the opportunity to express themselves, they might take part in sporting activities or even become professional athletes.

If sport facilities are available at schools, they can help to increase the impact that the participation in sport activities may have on the forming of the individual's identity and/or relationships. The sport facility can make a contribution to the enjoyment of the sporting experience of individuals. The individual can also develop an association with the school, not only in the physical activities at the facilities offered by schools, but also when they refer to 'their school'. When individuals refer to 'their school', they may mean the school where they are learners. Every aspect involved in the sport facilities of the school must strive towards ensuring that the participant and even spectators and supporters at the facility, enjoy experiences at the facility to its full extent.

Learners can only enjoy their sporting experiences when they are allowed to participate in sporting activities, either as competitors or spectators. If something prohibits them from taking part in sport or any sport-related physical activity, they are excluded from enjoying certain privileges; and that forms the basis of the critical theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56). Hence, with regard to the management of school sport, the mentioned perspectives for the school sport manager concerning the spectators, athletes, and everybody using the facility, are important.

In short, it can be said that the symbolic interaction theory would thus allow the researcher to determine the context of school sport in the educational system (cf. par.1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 1) and also to identify certain prerequisites, conditions and implications for the management of school sport and the development of a 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).

It is clear that the symbolic interaction theory attempts to point out the complex mosaic of subjective perspectives and opinions, together with human experiences, and their own social relations. In so far as the perspectives of humans change, their approach to sport and the symbols they use, can also change. An understanding of inequalities in school sport could contribute towards sport no longer being manipulated to the advantage of educators, parents and politicians – often with hidden social agendas.

2.3.3.5 The Figuration Theory

Dichotomies and dualisms between individual and society present in most of the sociological theories, pose unique problems for research and the interpretation of social phenomena and sport. Central to the figurational sociology is the notion of the civilising process, based on the analysis of empirical data which indicates that the societies of Western Europe over centuries have evolved and become relatively refined in terms of self-control, refinement of manners and social values that for instance perceive violence and violent sports as 'undesirable and uncivilised' (Dunning, 1999:158; Mennell, 2005a:105).

The figuration theory focuses on the collective relationships of people in a bigger socio-historical context within the society. Elias describes a figuration as ''*a structure of mutually oriented and dependent people''* (Elias, 1978a:261). Elias in particular is critical of what he regards as misleading unhelpful dualisms and dichotomies between individuals and society (Elias, 1978a:261). Elias (1978b:119) comes to the conclusion that individuals and society are inseparable. To this end, people are, according to Dunning (1986b:34), part of a dynamic relationship or social network

of structures in society. Social networks are complex figurations or processes in the interdependent links of power relations in society (Maguire & Young, 2002b:16). These social networks are, according to Mennell (1989:253-257), Dunning and Rojek (1992:12) also context-related, implying a historical point of departure. In essence, the figuration theory focuses on the relationships of people in a social and historic context within a community.

The historical point of departure centres around social networks, which surround the world of sport: (i) Human beings (mankind) are interdependent, and their lives are interwoven with complex social figurations; (ii) figurations are continuously in interaction, subject to change which differs, some quickly and short-lived, others slow, but enduring; (iii) long-term changes in human social figurations could be contemplated; and (iv) the development of knowledge occurs within the context of human processes, and forms an important aspect of the holistic development of human beings (Goudsblom, 1977:6, 105; Murphy *et al.*, 2002:93).

In the explanatory framework of Elias and Dunning (Dunning, 1986b:39-55; 1986a:218; Van Krieken, 2001:359-362), these authors identified complex processes, such as nation-state formation, industrialisation, social division of labour and globalisation, which represent the complex co-existence of social networks of human beings moving through time (Elias, 1956:226-238; Mennell, 1989:257-258; Mansfield, 2002:319; Mennell, 2005b:279; 2005a:105; Mansfield, 2008:95).[25] The framework of Elias and Dunning is similar to that of Giddens, who describes the symbolic value of sport in resolving tensions during the process of state formation in *"modernising societies"* (Rowe, 1995:103). The approach to describe the symbolic value of sport that tends to focus on what is best for society and for themselves, does not, however, adequately address the nature of sport itself, nor the manifestation and dynamics of power relations within society.

Murphy (2003:109) provides an explanation of these interdependent relations or networks by means of a process diagram. According to him, the following processes amongst others appear in a complex society: the development of sport, globalisation, secularisation, bureaucratisation and industrialisation. School sport – with homogeneous forms of governance, interdependence and democratisation, increased public control and the 'sportisation' of global society – is part of the processes characterising the civilisation process across the globe. So are the local leagues, competitions and events scheduled, in accordance with the fixtures (dates) of international

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[25] Murphy *et al.* (2002:92) refer to the fact that figurational sociology, or as it is sometimes called, process sociology, has grown out of the work of Norbert Elias (1897-1990). Credit is thus given to Elias as original source. For a detailed biography and analysis of Elias' work see Mennell (1989; 1992; 2005b; 2005a). See also note 9 (p. 25)

governing bodies. These processes or figurations are created by mankind, and can be distinguished from each other, but not separated.

The study of sport as a figuration as it has developed historically, can possibly advance specialist competencies of the school sport manager in view of which the role, state and place of the school sport manager can be described. In addition, the concept of school sport management can be conceptualised, and the context of school sport within the educational system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p., 12, research aim 1), can be determined.

- ### *Application of the Figuration or Process Theory*

The awareness of sport as a figuration in society can be studied as a phenomenon in view of those trends in school sport that can be exposed, which makes the identification of specialist school sport management competencies possible (cf. Fig. 12, p. 199).

Building on Elias' notion to always study social relations as emerging and contingent processes, Murphy *et al.* (2002:93) emphasise the fact that the figuration theory has at its disposal the possibility to study sport as a figuration, historically both as source and extent. By using the figuration theory, in conjunction with the functional, conflict, critical and symbolic interaction theories in describing the sport-related trends, one can get a complete picture of the development of sport and the management thereof – seeing that the focus of each of the theories differs (cf. Table 1, p. 68). It then opens the possibility that a combination of the theories can describe the complexity of the reality of sport in its essence and scope. Given the unique context of the study, the identification of trends in school sport (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70), which could possibly bring about social change in schools and the way sport should be managed in schools may, be meaningful for the contextualisation of school sport within the educational system, in addition to the conceptualisation of school sport management (cf. par. 1.2.1.1, p. 2).

Social change could bring about renewal in the South African norms and values by addressing trends. In view thereof, the researcher will attempt to utilise various sociological perspectives in order to offer a comprehensive description of school sport, and to determine the context of school sport within the educational system (cf.par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 1). The value base and assumptions of each theoretical framework would inevitably produce different explanations in the study of sport in society (cf Table 1, p. 68).

For the purposes of this study, a synthesis of the different theories would, therefore, provide a conceptual framework for the projection of, and analysis of societal trends and specialist school sport management competencies. In this sense, the phenomenon of school sport would include what Singleton (2003:193) and Coakley (2009:102) refer to as *"the power and performance"* and the *"pleasure and participation"* models. These models, respectively, refer to high-performance sports – in which elite athletes might compete at such events as inter-school competitions, or at an international event, such as the Youth Olympic Games, and focus on strength and power to dominate others, view opponents as enemies, use a hierarchical authority structure, and regard the body as a weapon or machine.

The nature of the figuration theory creates the possibility that the source and nature of sport as a phenomenon can be described in a phenomenological way. The theory further offers the possibility to explain the current appearance of sport in its multitude of forms, which in turn, offers a phenomenological look at the current and future appearance of sport in its complexity. It thus presupposes that the figuration theory can be seen as a possible tool to expose the trends in sport as they appeared in the past, as they appear now – and could possibly appear in the future (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70).

Theorists using the figurational theory have made general conclusions that sport participation opportunities for women, working-class people, and the ethnic minorities may increase their standards of living, but they have not made recommendations in this regard in very explicit terms or in a very assertive manner (Coakley, 2009:44;72-74). The need to give these individuals opportunities to express themselves should undoubtedly be addressed. Sport facilities for learners to participate in sport offered by the school need to be available to everybody to use. Where individuals create sport-related figurations in society, they may necessarily be related to and may be dependent on other figurations in the community like religious, economic, social and others.

Sport facilities and the management of sport in a school surely fits into this definition of a network of interdependent figurations working towards a common goal. The management of sport in a school and its facilities consists of functional management areas such as marketing, financial, human resources, and operations (cf. par. 3.6, p. 154). By using this perspective, the interrelationship between functional management areas (cf. par. 3.6, p 154) and the school sport environment (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) has been highlighted. Figurations not only exist in the functional management areas, but also in the environments impacting on the management of school sport. Environments such as the political, economic, social, education and others are

applicable here (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122; Fig. 8, p. 124). This will assist the researcher in achieving the purpose of this research in developing a sport management programme for educator training.

2.3.3.6 Synthesis

In conclusion, it could be stated that the figuration theory, in combination with the functional, conflict, critical and symbolic interaction theories, offers the opportunity to study sport and physical activities, as they have been practised and managed historically, are currently practised and managed, and will possibly be practised and managed in the future. The functionalist theory can be used to explain the management of school sport (cf. Ch.3) and the role of schools as provider of a service to the community as part of the bigger sport societal system; it also provides guidelines on how the system can function as a whole. In short, the functional theory offers guidelines on how school sport functions within a community and in the broader context of the sport industry (cf. par. 2.5, p.98).

The conflict theory has an impact on the management of school sport through the economic forces that may guide the actions that are taken to manage school sport. In contrast to the impact of the conflict theory on economic forces that may guide the school sport manager's actions, the Critical Theory is used to address transformation and the exclusion of certain parties or individuals, often by people with power, in the usage of facilities, participation in and management of school sport. School sport and the management thereof can, from an interactionist perspective, be used as a tool to help people, learners, other participants and role-players in school sport to create meanings, identities and relations.

Lastly, the figuration theory can contribute by supplying a framework for the management of school sport. The mentioned theories enable one to get a complete picture of the development of school sport, the management thereof, and the role of schools in their endeavour to provide sport and related physical activities as a service to the community and learners. A summary of the five theories is offered in Table 1 below, in order to summarise the focus and value of each.

Table 1: Five theories

FUNCTIONAL THEORY	CONFLICT THEORY	CRITICAL THEORY	SYMBOLIC INTERACTION THEORY	FIGURATION THEORY
ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT THE BASIS FOR SOCIAL ORDER				
Social order is based on reaching consensus and shared social values as well as coordinating interdepen-dent systems.	Social order is based on the use of economic power and the exploitation of individuals by using this economic power to subtly manipulate individuals.	Social order is established (negotiated) through taking the cultural ideologies, historical forces, materialistic circumstances, diversity, complexity and contradictions of social life into consideration.	Social order takes the needs of society into consideration and is created from the bottom up through intentional social interaction in society.	Social order is based on figurations and interdependency created over time, which are maintained by individuals and groups.
FOCUS OF THE STUDY OF THE SOCIETY AND THE IMPACT ON THE MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL SPORT				
The management of school sport is part of the bigger sport societal system and it may contribute to the overall functioning of the system as a whole. The management of school sport will be focused on the needs of the community. A needs-driven management philosophy will be followed.	Economic (market) forces may guide the actions that are taken to offer and manage school sport. Availability of resources (financial, human, physical and information) is a major concern. A business driven philosophy will be followed when the main focus is on economic positions and the availability of resources.	Social life recreated through social relationships and cultural practices. For that matter can everybody participate in sport. All learners however have or have not had equal opportunities to participate in sport. The school sport manager is thus seen as an agent to change the society to reach its full potential. The management philosophy for the management of school sport will focus on excluding certain parties/individuals from participating based on aspects such as gender, income, social status and age.	The enjoyment of the experience to participate in school sport and how learners make sense out of their participation in sport can be used for self-development and that of society to create meanings, identities and culture through social interaction. A needs driven management philosophy should be followed to help learners to define reality of their own lives and their surrounding world as well as to give individuals the opportunity to become involved in sport and satisfy their needs	The community consists of figurations of aspects such as religion, political, views, etc. and should the school sport manager should understand how these figurations were brought about and should The management of school sport should thus focus on combining these figurations. School sport can overcome this figuration as these figurations can be seen as the basic framework for the management of school sport to bring about structures and restructure in society.

FUNCTIONAL THEORY	CONFLICT THEORY	CRITICAL THEORY	SYMBOLIC INTERACTION THEORY	FIGURATION THEORY
MAJOR CONCERNS IN THE STUDY OF SPORT				
To what extent can school sport contribute to the basic social needs of people recovering from stress, adaptation, etc.? How do schools and sport contribute to social stability in society and in personal development?	How are schools and sport used to maintain the interest and commitment of those with power and wealth in society?	What is included in sport in the community? How is sport defined and organised? How is sport related to the development of and change in society? How are power relations reproduced and/or resisted in and through school sport and the participation in sport?	To what extent can social interaction contributes to meaning, identity and creation of culture? How do learners become involved in school and school sport? How do learners make transitions out of school sport into the rest of their lives?	How did modern sport emerge and become so important in society and for individuals? Which figurations of sport are found in society? To what extent can sport create and explain figurations in society?
CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE SPORT-SOCIETY RELATIONSHIP				
Sport is a valuable social institution that holds benefits for the society and the individual. Sport is seen as a source of inspiration on personal and social levels.	Sport is a form of physical activity that is governed and distorted by the needs of capital and economic power.	Sport can repress or empower people. Culture can be produced, reproduced and transformed through sport.	Sport is a form of culture that is created through voluntary social interaction based on the participants' decisions, identities and relationships.	Sport can relieve boredom and control displays of violence in society. Global sport has local and national significance.

Adapted from Hollander, 2000: 41[26]

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[26] Original text was taken and adapted from Coakley (1998:38-40)

A phenomenological view of sport with the accompanying perspectives (management, recreation, education, and fitness), as they appear in society, yields the possibility that trends in school sport can be described (cf. Table 2, p. 98). Through this, the researcher will further strive to briefly describe the role of schools as service providers, the role, status and place of the school sport manager, and the influence of trends on the management competencies of school sport managers (cf. Chapter 3, Fig. 12, p. 199; Chapter 4, Fig. 2, p. 36; Fig. 13, p. 252); after which the influence of identified competencies in sport management training in a diversity of South African schools will be studied.

Next, sport is analysed in view of the integrated perspective in combination with the different sociological theories described earlier, utilising the phenomenological method, in order to describe the trends in sport that have brought about and will bring about specialist school sport management competencies. An attempt will also be made to paraphrase the specialist competencies as they appear.

2.4   MODERN SOCIETAL TRENDS IN SCHOOL SPORT

Scholars, researchers, academics, exponents and practitioners, like Ellis (1988:69-84); Hollander (2000:43-61); Mahoney and Howard (2001:275-292), as well as Bergsgard and Rommedvedt (2006:8) are of the opinion that sport is frequently characterised as a mirror image of the trends and developments in society at large. The question of whether this is really the case, remains to be seen, because answers to particular questions are still being sought. For example: To what extent does sport reflect the general social and political trends? Is sport the forerunner, latecomer, or deviant case, when compared with general political developments?

These questions are important when sport managers and representatives of sport organisations on the one hand, and politicians and government representatives on the other hand, have to deal more closely with each other. Furthermore, when the trends are not identified and described by the sport industry, this could cause the sport industry to fail to develop in relation to the needs of society.

Because the broad public (Oosthuizen, 1996:93-95; Darst & Pangrazi, 2009:4, 5) does not have a true and reliable image of the sport reality, a historical overview of sport may (Odendaal, 2006:11) possibly offer proof of the realisation of trends in modern and post-modern sport. These are typified by specified ethical misdemeanours or felonies, myths, hidden interests and continuous change. Once viewed from this perspective, the sport industry (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98) on the one hand reflects

changes in society, and on the other hand, individuals, institutions or events from the world of sport might initiate change. Trends in society will thus be reflected, and in some cases, spearheaded by sport-related phenomena and human agencies.

The most influential trends include demystification, market segmentation and embodiment. Several other writers refer to additional trends, which characterise contemporary modern and post-modern school sport (Tinning & Fitzclarence, 1992:288;291-300; Mangan & Nauright, 2000:280-300; Edwards & Jones, 2007:346-366). An example hereof is the ever-increasing spectator and crowd violence, together with rioting, which ultimately results in danger and/or militancy in relation to the chasing of records and achievements, and an attitude of 'win at all costs' (Guilbert, 2004). In addition, Landman (1983:94) mentions specific factors, which have influenced the nature of school sport, namely: government involvement, greater financial responsibility on the shoulders of parents, and changes in educational policy. Trends like these and commercialisation, globalisation and professionalisation have all catapulted school sport into the business arena (cf. par. 3.2, p. 117), making professional careers in sport possible (Goslin, 2007:2). With sport being professionalised, globalised and commercialised, a whole new international market (cf. par. 3.2.2, p. 122) has opened up for sport and businessmen and -women to exploit.

These modern trends may also impact on the management of school sport. For this reason, the school sport manager has to be trained in understanding and awareness of modern trends in sport and the impact of these on school sport (cf. par.2.4, p. 70; par.7.5.3, p. 561). These and other trends, can be studied in the light of the theories discussed in the previous paragraphs (cf. par. 2.3.1, p. 37). Examples of this are trends like institutionalisation from the functional theory, globalisation from the figurative theory, demystification and scientification from the critical theory, and professionalism from the conflict theory (cf. Table 2, p. 98).

Trends, like institutionalisation and globalisation (Maguire, 2005; 2007), have their origin in the historical existence of mankind. Inherent in the globalisation process is the transcendence of boundaries of nation-states, time-space compression, diminishing contrasts, bidirectional global flows and global interdependency. Globalisation is viewed as a global interactive process introduced by Western nation-states that are underscored by notions of civilisation and emphasis on international exchange and competitions (such as the Olympic Games and Youth Olympic Games) to meet the interests of dominant groups (political power) and satisfy powerful trans-national corporations (economic power) (cf Table 2, p. 98).

Where sport appears as a figuration of the society in interaction with other integrated figurations in society in general, but more specifically in schools in the context of this study, certain trends that appear in society would necessarily also be found in school sport also. When the trends in school sport are collectively clarified in view of the theories (cf. par. 2.3, p. 37; Table 2, p. 98), it offers the possibility that school sport can be studied in its complexity, and the role, place and necessity of the school sport manager are exposed,, in addition to those of the specialist school sport management competencies as they have developed in the course of time.

One of the trends that have appeared in school sport from the earliest times and still appears today, is that it is applied and manipulated for a variety of reasons. Next, manipulation as a phenomenon in sport in general, but more specifically in school sport, will be discussed.

2.4.1 Manipulation

Since antiquity, sport has been manipulated to serve the ideological, political, social and religious purposes of influential leaders of institutions in society in order to reach specific objectives. Although the conflict (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53) and critical (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p.56) theories are used in the study of manipulation as a trend, this stands in direct relationship to the functional value of sport in most cases, regardless of its nature. In this way, the ancient Greeks used physical and sport- related activities to hunt and practise their religion. In Greek mythology, gatherings took place as a combination of prayer, religious services, combined with music, dance and other ritual festivals with the express purpose to practise religion (Coakley, 2009:56). The church in this time fulfiled the role of the institution that practises and manipulates social control in society (Coakley & Pike, 2009:71; Mechikoff, 2010:99).

As sport developed and the power and influence of economically prosperous people in society grew, the sport meetings and spectacles increased in importance to serve as a reason for the division of rich and poor (McIntosh, 1957:43; 1979:27; Sage, 1998:37; Armour, 2000:69; Tomlinson, 2000:100; Van der Merwe, 2007:63; Wuest & Bucher, 2009:143; Wuest & Fisette, 2012:136,144).

Roman leaders in the first century after Christ, used sport and other activities as an important vehicle to train young men for war (Mechikoff, 2010:89), and to offer entertainment and spectacles for the general public. Another type of institutionalisation of sport emerged – one where the ideology of the government of the day was communicated and confirmed by statesmen, in order to control the masses (Harris, 1972:24; Mechikoff, 2010:91-95). This is directly related to the critical

theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56), where sport was manipulated for the benefit of those in positions of power.

The practice of being socialised (and manipulated) according to group norms, became a modern institution in British schools during the nineteenth century with the intention of preparing young boys for manhood (Chandler, 1996:15,27; Chandler & Nauright, 1996:9; Morrell, 1996:91; Nauright, 1996:122; Davis *et al.*, 2000:673, 674; Vincent & Stevenson, 2010:289). A similar approach was observed in the USA and Canada during the latter part of the nineteenth century (Coakley, 2009:71; Pangrazi & Beighle, 2011:2, 3). It was believed during this period that sport could make a contribution to the development of mankind's character and behaviour. This new approach was a critical catalyst in the growth of modern sport and added (Hoffman, 1987:122; Barrow & Brown, 1988:85) educational value to the element of enjoyment.

Sport was systematically defined as a source of potentially educational experiences, an approach best described by the functional theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.1, p. 46). These educational experiences contain important implications for both the individual and the society. This change resulted in a new basis for the organisation and advancement of sport participation. PE was included in the curricula of schools to apply the value of physical activity and sport to education (Harvey & Sparks, 1991:182-183; Curtis & Russell, 1997:221; Davis *et al.*, 2000:673-678; Pangrazi & Beighle, 2011:3).

Providing an outlet for 'male energy', spectator and athlete control, and perpetuating dominant social values to maintain the economic (class structures) and political control (powerful elite), PE found expression in societies across the globe and in different historical periods (Goodale & Godbey, 1988:34-35, 93-102; Godbey, 2008:35). Through perpetuating dominant social values, people in positions of power could retain their positions of power (Brailsford, 1988:169), in order to facilitate societal control and structures to maintain the *status quo* in different cultural contexts. At the same time, people in positions of power create opportunities for people to participate in sport. By promoting the practice of sport as pleasurable for the participants in school sport, it enables the economically prosperous person to manipulate (control) school sport, in order to pursue his/her economic objectives (Sheard, 1997:43-45). This approach presupposes that school sport was used, and is still used, as both a political and economic activity, while most of the participants in school sport see it as a physical activity and an opportunity for pleasure or enjoyment. People who have financial power and economic prosperity (that is rich people with money who are well-known and famous) at their disposal, have manipulated school sport, and continue to do so, in order to

generate profit and to increase their own status, while the participants see it as mere relaxation (Bell, 2007:1; Waring *et al.,* 2007:25; Coakley & Pike, 2009:140-142; Graham, 2013).

Contextual pressures affecting sport-related professions create the challenge to probe more deeply into the complex social relationships and dominant forms of physical culture promoted by powerful groups. These pressures also open the debate on political motives to manipulate school sport to serve the ideology of the government, which increasingly emphasises competitive elite sport, yet claims to enhance holistic development through PE for lifelong participation for all (Burnett, 1998:10; Gallahue & Donnelly, 2003:99; Amusa & Toriola, 2006:220; 2008:355, 356; Green, 2008b:117-136; Shilbury *et al.*, 2008:218, 219; Rajput & Van Deventer, 2010:148-155).

In South Africa, this is a real dilemma, as lack of resources and economic pressure are causing PE to decline; whereas its narrow focus in the NCS and the national programmes increasingly fosters achievement-oriented sport (school sport). Despite national incentives, only the gifted few will experience any significant upward social mobility through sports participation. In the USA, the chances of becoming a professional sports person during the eighties were rated as 0.004% for men and 0.007% for women (Rowe, 1995:108). This increased marginally during the nineties to 0.014% for men participating in football, basketball and baseball (Eitzen & Sage, 2003:278, 279).

Similar findings have been reported worldwide in other countries. In China, research conducted in 2002 by Yaping (2002:67-69), a former table-tennis world and Olympic champion provides an interesting case study. She concluded that it was not good for those children who started from a very young age to play table tennis and aimed to become professional players in future, because there were nearly 1,000 professional table-tennis players in China, but only 20 of them could join the national team and have the opportunity to reach the top.

Yet, according to Burnett (1998:10) the myth to pursue a professional career in sport is effectively marketed and advocated to naive youths and their gulilible parents in South Africa. She continues the discourse and debate, by posing the question: If the "Sport for all programmes" is introduced successfully and children socialise in a lifestyle of active participation, will society be able to provide the necessary infrastructure and resources to accommodate a wide spectrum of participants, despite initiatives by government? Furthermore, she highlights the role of manipulation of sport by government to serve their ideology, when she hypothetically raises the question: If approximately 10% of the 3.5 million active sports people in South Africa between 13

and 18 years (Sports Information and Science Agency (SISA), 2000) were to increase significantly, would the available resources and infrastructure be adequate?

The majority of these participants are from the white population group (1.8 million). The most popular sport activity is football with about 1.2 million participants, followed by athletics with one million participants (HSRC (Human Sciences Research Council), 2006:3; Burnett, 2010b:46; BMI-Sport Info, 2012).[27] Gender imbalances are still visible in the fact that the majority of participants are male (57%), despite netball (in which most participants are girls or women), being the third most popular sport in South Africa with about 800 000 participants. Class divisions are still evident in the participation of more-affluent whites taking part in tennis, swimming and cricket, which are respectively rated as having the fourth, fifth and sixth largest number of participants (HSRC (Human Sciences Research Council), 2006:3). In conclusion, Burnett (1998:10) states that manipulation of sport for their own ideology by government should be debated realistically, and the provision of infrastructure and resources for equal sport participation opportunities should be highlighted, especially in view of the increased professionalisation (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) in school sport.

The advent of professionalisation (after industrialisation),[28] has brought about change in the participation of sport. Participants are now offered the opportunity to use sport as a medium and to manipulate it (Kjeldsen, 1992:105) in order to generate an income. In so far as sport is professionalised, learners use the opportunity to participate in sport with the view of a future career. This implies that school sport managers, in their role as educators, are required to socialise athletes into knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and thought processes to enhance survival in an increasingly scientific, commercialised and technological society. Fact of the matter is that school sport managers are not adequately trained and lack the competence to do so, something which training can change (cf par. 7.5, p. 547).

Influential leaders of institutions (sport and business) in society utilise schools and school sport as persuasive propaganda vehicles, use school sport as a medium of instruction to increase the productivity of their respective businesses, because it presupposes that the foundation for a fit and productive workforce in accordance with the needs of society is laid during participation in sport (Wuest & Bucher, 2009:6; Wuest & Fisette, 2012:8). Consistent pressure is exerted on school sport managers to adapt to the changing needs of society.

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[27] BMI-Sport Info was formally established as the first and, only independent research company in South Africa to focus exclusively on the sport and sponsorship market (BMI-Sport Info, 2012)

[28] Cf. par. 2.4.2, p. 79; 2.4.3, p. 82

To this end, the role of the school sport manager thus changes from a person who purely and simply instructs and educates an ideology, to someone who should manage processes and participants amidst continuously changing perspectives and needs of society. In the role as school sport manager, they are required to transmit to their athletes a body of knowledge and skills, as well as a related set of processes, which may require the school sport manager to assume the role of counsellor, advisor, trainer, motivator and psychologist, to name but a few.

Those in positions of power in society control sport. Examples hereof are the military, educational institutions and sport institutions, which are the main exponents in the manipulation of sport and related physical activities for different reasons. This was eminently the case during the middle and late twentieth century, when PE was originally placed in the school curricula (Toohey, 1997:21), to serve as a medium through which learners could discover their physicality, be fit and healthy, and through that develop to complete maturity. In this way, it confirms what the ancient Greeks had argued since the earliest times, namely that a healthy body houses a healthy mind (Mechikoff, 2010:50, 51); and in addition, it explains why numerous concerned contemporary stakeholders, scholars, academics, medici and researchers of the twenty-first century, like Rooth (2005:196, 200), Christiaans (2006:136, 140, 142, 172, 181), Du Toit, Van der Merwe and Rossouw (2007:252), Mchunu (2008:86) and Van Deventer (2000a:86; 2000b; 2002b:104; 2004; 2007:131, 137; 2009b:128; 2009a:473), as well as Van Deventer and Van Niekerk (2009:157) plead for the return of PE to the South African school curriculum as a separate or stand-alone school subject (cf. par. 1.2.2, p. 5; 1.2.3, p. 7), taught by specialists who are qualified educators (Van Deventer, 2008b:376). The identified need for specialist qualified educators is in accordance with the aims of this study, namely: to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par.1.3.2, p. 12, reserach aim 4, 5; par 7.5, p. 546)

From the above it is clear that sport has been manipulated throughout the centuries in order to reach various objectives in society. Sport was in ancient times, and is still today. manipulated for their own benefit by political groups and economically prosperous individuals, in particular in relation to contemporary (and notably international) agendas in and for education (Penney, 2008:33). The phenomenon of manipulation can be debated from the perspective of the conflict (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53) and critical theories (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56), although in most cases the functional theory is used to explain the role and place of sport and related physical activities in the educational system.

Manipulation has also appeared in different forms in the history of South Africa, since 1910. In order to fully understand contemporary debates about manipulation as it appears in different forms, it would be meaningful to place it in the unique South African political context, according to which the context of school sport in the educational system (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 1.) could be understood and determined. From this the role of the school sport manager, together with the field of study for school sport and the management competencies for school sport management training can be described (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 2).

Consequently, a South African perspective of manipulation in the unique South African political context will be investigated next.

2.4.1.1 A South African perspective of manipulation

From the literature it is apparent that school sport is manipulated by politicians to promote their own ideology and prestige through so-called nation-building (Frey & Eitzen, 1991:511; Katzenellenbogen & Potgieter, 1991:24; Smith & Bond, 1993:80, 81, 119; Black & Van der Westhuizen, 2004:1195; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:14; Zuser, 2008; Vincent & Stevenson, 2010:287-289), military power (Curtis & Russell, 1997:213) and the school system (Rowe & McGuirk, 1999:128-129). This has been done throughout the centuries, in order to reach various objectives in society. In this way, sport was in the ancient times, and still is today, manipulated for their own benefit by political groups and economically prosperous individuals. The "economic apartheid" in education, and more specifically in school sport, still prevents the development of the sporting abilities of the majority of our youth; for they still lack even basic educational resources (human, physical, financial, information), let alone resources for the practice of sport.

Equality in school sport will only be reached when there is equity in education, which in turn can only be achieved in a truly democratic, egalitarian society, in which there is not only political, social and economic justice, but also no manipulation and hidden agendas to serve the ideology of political and economically prosperous, influential leaders of institutions in society. The phenomenon of manipulation can be debated from the perspective of the conflict theory (cf par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53) and it also appears in different forms in the history of South Africa. An understanding of manipulation and its appearance in different forms in the history of South Africa should enable the school sport manager to obtain a bird's-eye view on the context, role and place of school in society. For this very reason training in the societal trends in school sport should form part of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par.7.5.3, p. 561). These identified specialist competencies that came to the fore through the social theories (cf.par. 2.3.3, p.

45 could be used to develop a sport management programme for educator training (cf.par. 7.5, p. 547).

Various specialist competencies required by the school sport manager were identified through the sociological and other theories, as well as the above-mentioned trend of manipulation. One of the competencies is that of education and training. When the school sport manager in his/her role as coach or trainer offers education and training through the medium of sport, it is imperative to have the necessary sport-related and didactical knowledge. A second aspect that arises from manipulation as a trend is that school sport also forms part of the political world. Here, it refers to the fact that school sport always plays a political role in society (Burnett, 2002a:178; 2008b:111-112; Delaney & Madigan, 2009:238;240-242; Piggin *et al.*, 2009b:88-90; 2009a:463; Burnett, 2010b:45). The political role (manipulation) of sport in society should be determined and understood by all participants of sport like managers, specialist fitness trainers, coaches and the athletes (elite). Through an understanding and determination of the political role of society, the scientification of school sport can be placed in a prominent position, where the achievements of athletes can be improved, in order to win medals and junior world cups, which may have a so-called influence on the building of the nation, in particular the youth of South Africa. In this way school sport is manipulated for the benefit of the politicians and the ideology that is adhered to.

Lastly, entrepreneurship has come to the fore where school sport can be used for the economic benefit of the entrepreneur. Examples of this are more affluent public schools and independent (private) schools utilising sport and also their amenities (parking, hostels and well-equipped gymnasium, sport fields) as a means for generating revenue through events, attracting sponsorships and marketing their school through the achievements of their athletes and sport teams (Hollander, 2000:46; David, 2005:126; 2008:117).. This phenomenon has resulted in business people increasingly coming to the fore in the school sport world to promote their economic interests (cf. Table 2, p. 99); and it also requires the school sport manager to be trained in the field of sport management and marketing (Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003:70) and to display the necessary entrepreneurial skills. In relation to the current study, this supposes that entrepreneurship should also form part of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 7.5.3, p. 561).

The manipulation of school sport is a precursor for its institutionalisation. As sport is manipulated for one or another reason, it is placed in structures in order to control the activities more efficiently.

The reason for this is that the objective of manipulation determines the structure in which sport is manipulated. This is why the institutionalisation of school sport will be scrutinized next.

2.4.2 Institutionalisation

Organised and competitive sport as it is known today, has its direct origin in the process of industrialisation and other social constructs of mankind during the industrial revolution (Cashmore, 2005:300-303). Although it is difficult to link the start of the industrial revolution to one specific happening, it brought about mass production, organised recreation, and the institutionalisation of competitive sport forms – as evidenced in the birth and spread from modern sport forms from a British core and the establishment of the Modern Olympic Games by De Courbertin in 1896 (Cashmore, 2005:303). Global and national organisational structures of sport were established, thereby giving impetus to stratified participation, as only the more affluent members of society could afford free time and financial support to participate as amateurs in sport competitions, or make recreation part of their lifestyles of leisure and luxury (Donnelly, 2002:82-85; 2008:12-18). Members of the lower socio-economic strata saw opportunities to experience social mobility through competitive sport participation, leading to the exclusivity of clubs. The lack of resources and free time hindered mass participation in high performance sport and international participation.

What has contributed to the significance of this 'figuration' was the development of a sporting market through imperialistic drives to export modern sport forms and the creation of career opportunities to manage, market and control the institutions of sport, such as, for example, schools, universities and clubs. Hence, sport clubs in particular, were created to offer the participants the opportunity to participate in sport for recreation, or with the focus on achievement. Insofar as sport was managed on a more structured basis, economically prosperous civilians increasingly focused on achievement, which finally led to the development of amateur sport (Smith, 1993:431).

The middle and lower class citizens continued to participate in sport (Schneider & Butcher, 1993:461), mainly for financial gain. This led to an increase in the number of participants, because the unemployed members of society saw an opportunity to generate an income from sport. It should be put clearly that sport participation was not limited to the elite athlete, but that it was also practised for the purposes of recreation and relaxation – although a growing focus on the governing and control thereof could be observed during the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries in the American community.

Sport and other activities were placed in a communally organised structure in the form of clubs (Donnelly, 1997:389). Club membership was restricted to reasonably prosperous people and after-school learners; while external funding wasis increasingly used for the presentation of competitions. These competitions drew spectators from all social classes, which could then benefit the presenters of such competitions financially. This trend is also found in South African school sport, Europe, and in particular England, which is considered as the birthplace of modern sport in general, but also school sport.

As sport became more globalised and a field for competition and the gaining of status (Brand *et al.*, 1997:357), its rules were standardised at an international level. International school sport bodies, like the International School Sport Federation (ISSF) and the Confederation of School Sport Association of Southern Africa (COSSASA), were created to co-ordinate the international structuring of all school sport by setting specific requirements for affiliation and participation. Thus, school sport was not only structured on an international level, but also standardised and institutionalised, in order to bring about international competitions (Jackson & Andrews, 1999:31-33; Nongogo *et al.*, 2009:223-225;232). Examples hereof are the rugby and cricket World Cup tournaments for under nineteens, All Africa Games, World Athletic Championships, COSSASA Ball Games (Burger, 2010:172-173; 482), Youth Olympic Games (Judge *et al.*, 2009; Parry, 2012) and international competitions for soccer, cross-country, basketball, hand ball, swimming and gymnastics.

As result hereof, learners obtained larger exposure and came into contact with products and trends as they appeared in the global market, and are included in junior world-ranking lists. The win-at-all costs approach was now emphasised at a much younger age, with far-reaching consequences for the development of learners and the school sport manager (Guilbert, 2004). Not only were specific requirements for affiliation and participation set, but the rules were standardised in an effort to prevent confusion and misunderstanding. International sporting success was highly acclaimed and translated in terms of national self-worth, status and identity. The drive for international success, internal conflict and the democratisation of western society presented the drive for widespread contestation and inclusivity. Amateurism gave way to a process of professionalisation under powerful economic forces. Additionally, Coalter (2010:296-311), argues that there was a strong democratic infusion, namely: mass participation and sport development, which in turn resulted in commitment to sport participation based on participation outlets and skill levels (Casper & Andrew, 2008).

The structuring and institutionalisation brought about the realisation of the need for facilities, meetings and clubs to be controlled by the general public. In short, an increasing need for a place (institution) to practise sport exists. As a result thereof, schools as providers of sport as a service (cf. par. 2.2.3, p. 31; Fig. 2, p. 36) play an important role in providing facilities and amenities to practise sport. New sporting activities require new sporting facilities where they could be practised. So, in South Africa, schools have to build (design) new mountain bike trails to accommodate the increasing number of learners riding mountain bikes, as mountain biking is now offered as a sport at secondary schools (Groenewald, 2012:39; Sharim, 2012b:14).

Naturally, stemming from an increased need for facilities, new facilities had to be erected; and existing facilities had to be upgraded, in order to host a bigger variety of sporting activities. Suggestions were also made to compel schools to share and/or make their facilities available to less affluent schools in close proximity. Usage of the schools' sporting facilities thus has to be maximised in order to validate the high expenditure in building them.

Consequently, sport facilities at schools need to be used for more than one sporting activity and become more multi-purpose in nature; and the management of not only school sport, but also the sport facilities needs to adjust accordingly. It should nonetheless be pointed out, that in schools, soccer, rugby and athletics, for example can all be played at the same facility. The use of the same facility at schools, like, for example, soccer and rugby, which use the same fields, however, creates a challenge to the school sport manager to schedule the different activities at different times (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175). Inevitably, the school sport manager is also affected and should be able to adapt to meet the competencies required for the management of school sport and facilities (cf. par. 3.6.6, p. 175).

Various specialist competencies and tasks, as products of the era of institutionalisation, have now come to the fore. Examples of this are that the school sport manager is responsible to see to it that learners are coached and trained; all officials, managers and outside coaches, for example, are also trained; facilities are built and maintained; events and recreational activities are institutionalised, and reported on; while apparatus and equipment are purchased. The increased structuring of sport has thus led to a number of specialist sport management competencies appearing later in the professionalisation of sport, and in particular the context of this study: school sport in the diverse South African context.

The identified competencies and related trends (cf. par. 2.4, p. 70, Table 2, p. 98) should all be looked at when developing a sport management programme for educator training (cf. Ch. 7). The specific competencies required to manage school sport are discussed in more detail in Chapter Three.

2.4.3   Professionalisation

As sport activities were presented in a more structured way, this confirmed the current class systems in communities in Europe, the USA and Canada (Branch, 1990:162). Using the centre stage of sport, Marxist and Marxian thinking often guided critique on oppressive structures, hegemonic sporting practices and the quest for equality among classes and nations. During the early twentieth century, the commodification and commercialisation (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90) of sport became a reality, creating new opportunities for the exploitation of sports people (as a workers' class) by the owners of teams, facilities and sponsors (conflict paradigm) (Coakley, 2009:73). In this way, there developed a prominent sense of professionalisation (Sparvero & Chalip, 2007:1-2;19), and action – in some cases bordering on the exploitation of child labour (David, 2005:125-143; 2008:117-119).

Elite clubs emphasised the attainment of achievements during the participation of sport with an orientation that later led to amateurism. The concept amateur was according to Smith (1993:431), finally approved as a medium, through which the working class was prevented from participating in sport meetings with the elite – an aspect that brings the critical (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56) and conflict (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53) theories once more to the fore. Through preventing the working class from participating in sport, it was attempted to maintain social stratification in the community, in order to protect the interests of the elite citizens participating in sport (Coakley, 2009:73), because the working class could get an extra merit, (Kjeldsen, 1992:105) apart from a job wage out of sport.

Governments, such as those of the USSR and the USA, utilised sport in the imperialistic ventures during the nineteen twenties to spread socialist and capitalist ideologies, and to form alliances with other nation-states (Riordan, 1980:82,348). Educational institutions, sport federations and the media became important role players in the marketing, popularisation and professionalisation of sport. Emphasis was placed on competition, winning and the setting of records to promote the commercial interests of sport. As a result, a high degree of unethical and unfair behaviour came to the fore fore (Verroken, 1996:18-53; Hong, 2004:351-352; 2006).

Control structures for professional sport in general were set in this time (Frey & Eitzen, 1991:508), and an association for sport at tertiary educational institutions was founded. Several other national sport associations were founded, like the Olympic Games that were reinstated in 1896, mainly as a result of the economic value of this for the people who were financially prosperous, as well as the political advantage for the various participating countries. External rewards, the monetary value of athletes, events and the profitability of sport, proliferation through the intensification of controlling structures and professions in the sport industry became the order of the day. Tertiary institutions reacted to this trend by establishing curricula and professional programmes for the sports market. During this period, PE, together with a change from PE to Human Movement, was utilised to attract students, in an attempt to boost student numbers.

Similar trends can also be found in South African sport, where athletes became the primary focus of interest in many schools and post-school training institutions. Intensified competition for the recruitment of learners and the early specialisation in high-performance sport, have compelled more affluent schools to accommodate the professional trends of sport at the level of the school and thus to reprioritise their goals (Buitendach & De Witte, 2005:27; Penney, 2006:24; Bloemhoff, 2008:282-283; Penney, 2008:40-45; Nongogo *et al.*, 2009:224-227; Rajput & Van Deventer, 2010:159,160).

Increased media exposure has compelled schools to seek and adopt a professional approach towards competitive school sport, in addition to offering opportunities for mass participation. Although independent (private) schools are relatively more affluent than public schools (ex model C schools),[29] the latter have in the past ten years entered into this competitive arena by utilising sport as a means for generating revenue: through events, attracting sponsorships and marketing their school through the achievements of their athletes and sport teams (Hollander, 2000:46; Malherbe, 2004:5,6; 57-61; 82-86; Benadie, 2005:213-235; David, 2005:126; McAlister, 2005:2; Mbonambi, 2006:2,64; Manganyi, 2007:2-3;35;48-49;53-55; David, 2008:117).

In addition, promising, talented and well-known athletes are recruited to form part of the school's sport programme, in order to attract more learners to the school, but also to motivate current learners to participate and to excel. In this way, these learners contribute to the school's marketing plan; and in turn, these learners can be seen as a source of income. The researcher concurs with the view of Donnelly (1997:339), who already more than a decade ago questioned the ethics and

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[29] Cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 3

rationale of recruiting so-called sports workers (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53), thereby exposing learners to sport employment in professional sport.

Above and beyond the trend that learners are seen as a source of income, the professionalisation of school sport, also resulted in the establishment of coaching as a specialised technical profession. Schools are increasingly employing specialised coaches, ex-players and well-known sport personalities and heroes like John Smit, Francois Pienaar, Ashwin Willemse, Allan Donald, Makhaya Ntini, Mark Fish and Steven Pienaar to maintain the winning of records; while national teams are used to conduct coaching clinics. The management of teams has moved away from the athletes to the coaches, managers, owners or recruiters of the so-called sports workers and top administrative personnel (Smith, 1993:437; Hong, 2004:338-341).

The principles of scientific management (cf. par. 3.3.1, p.129) are used to teach coaching strategies; and athletes are trained in a professional way (Donnelly, 1997:389; Hong, 2004). Athletes use physicians and training specialists to improve their achievements. After the debate on 'genetic engineering' in the nineties, medicine became more institutionalised as a result of the professionalisation thereof. This trend increasingly became a requirement in the twentieth century, and continues to do so into the twenty-first century in an attempt to take sport achievement to its limit.

In addition, it has also contributed to the use of drugs, stimulants, steroids, banned aids and substances and other forms of deviant behaviour, because of the continuous professionalisation and win-at-all-costs approach (Kruger, 2010:27; Mamabolo, 2010:6; Ferreira, 2011:6; Van der Berg, 2011:6; Van der Berg & Wondergem, 2011:6; Wondergem, 2011b:7; 2011a:7; Govender, 2012b:1; Sharim, 2012a:I; Steenkamp, 2012:9). Learners in schools participating in school sport, in particular, are being targeted, which has inevitably led to learners being exposed to drug tests at a young age, and running the risk of being banned from school sport, as has already happened.

Unfortunately, no-one has yet sought to ensure the protection and healthy development of sports workers and athletes participating in high-performance sport as a result of this continuous professionalisation (Kidd & Donnelly, 2000:141). Coupled with the preceding, competition (winning-at-all-costs) among primary school learners has become out of hand, putting a spoke in the wheel of the physical, emotional and intellectual development of learners (Du Plessis, 2011:I), while sport physicians, physiotherapists, biokineticists, sport psychologists and coaches play an increasingly important role in the professional participation in school sport. These sport

professions came to the fore in the nineteen eighties, when they were created to promote sport participation and sporting achievement.

Coakley (2009:74) points out that the rules of various kinds of sport were standardised on national and international levels in the twenties. This ensured that international competitions could be presented. Sport managers, coaches, administrators, communicators, scientists, medical experts, recreation leaders and tourist agencies responded – as national and international competitions were globally awarded a high profile (De Knop & Standeven, 1998:31,32; Giulianotti & Robertson, 2007; Smart, 2007:113-118).

The technological development reached sport, and travelling by plane became an everyday event. Television and other forms of the media, like faxes, the Internet, broadband and e-mail, changed sport into a product that is accessible to all (Waser, 1993:379; Nalapat & Parker, 2005:433). The globalisation of sport has resulted in athletes at all levels (school, club and provincial, professional, amateur) increasingly participating in national and international competitions. Consequently, managers of school sport and school sport meetings and events could offer greater exposure to athletes and potential sponsors (Eastman & Riggs, 1994:142; Van Heerden *et al.*, 2007:412; Van Heerden *et al.*, 2008:147; Martinez *et al.*, 2010:44). This, in turn, eventually led to the commercialisation of school sport (cf. par. 2.4.6, p. 90).

The development of sport as an industry was not only stimulated; but this has also resulted in the inception of professional players, coaches, officials and administrators, who now offer school sport as a professional product to consumers (cf. par. 3.2.2, p 122). The sixties witnessed the increased scientification, investigation and training of specialists to support professional athletes, institutions, and to work in the diversified field of performance sport, the expanding sports market, and in health-related physical activities.

The scientification of sport has also contributed to the creation of scientific fields, such as Sport Psychology, Sport Sociology, Sport Management, Sport Science, Exercise Physiology, Kinesiology, Biokinetics, Sport Communication, Sports Law, and Facility and Event Management (Kelley *et al.*, 1994:97-98; Theberge, 2009:265-269; Amusa & Toriola, 2012:632). Inevitably, the scientification of sport has reached schools; and it now impacts on the school sport manager – who is required to have know-how and expertise in all the sport-related scientific fields, and to be able to offer guidance to learners – in order for them to realise their full potential. Thus, professionalisation has contributed to the scientification of school sport; and research has increasingly been

undertaken, as competition and achievements demand more from the participants (Curry & Salerno, 1999:177; Robinson, 2003:170; Wheaton, 2005:156, 157; Wuest & Bucher, 2009:5, 10-11; 155-182; Wuest & Fisette, 2012:5;8-13).

Through the scientification of sport, it is clear that as the practice of sport has increasingly become formalised; and it has also became increasingly professional. Exploitative power relations were economically (trans-national companies as sponsors) and politically constructed and perpetuated in the 'sportisation' of society (Murphy *et al.*, 2002:95-99). Law practices (including sports and contractual law), and international movements took up the case of unequal power relations (gender, race and class) – in order to lobby for change.

Formalisation and professionalisation have both led to the development of several specialist competencies in sport early in the twentieth century, which in turn could also be required by the contemporary school sport managers in a diversity of schools during the twenty-first century. Examples of this are professional participants: like athletes, coaches, team managers and administrators, as well as educational and training specialists, who present education and training in the field of sport.

Other competencies like sport-related medical competencies (fitness and training specialists, biokineticists, optometrists, orthopaedic surgeons, physiotherapists and sport psychologists) and the marketing of both sport and sport-related products and services offered by the school, could be regarded as specialist competencies or professions, since they are important in the context of the continuous professionalisation of school sport (cf.Table 2, p. 98) as the economic value of sport and related activities becomes clear, and competition and achievements demand ever more from the participants. Through these competencies, the school sport manager would thus be able to understand and analyse the trends and figurations of professionalisation through science, and apply the competencies to the benefit of the participants and the ultimate improvement of sport practised in schools. It is clear that the identified specialist competencies (cf. par. 3.7, p. 198; Table 17, p. 245; 18, p. 265) should be taken into account when the intended sport management programme for educator training is developed (cf. par.7.5.3, p. 561).

In conclusion, it may be stated that sport became increasingly diversified in the nineteen twenties; and it continues to do just that in the early part of the twenty-first century – a trend which has also reached school sport. This change in sport in general, but more specifically school sport, indicates that segmentation has occurred – as a result of the needs of various groupings in society. The

consequences of this diversification were that a variety of products and services provided by schools also had to be marketed.

2.4.4   Segmentation

Society has increasingly become more differentiated since the Second World War. Enhanced and specialised marketing techniques have enabled companies and institutions to produce tailor-made and sophisticated products for different segments of consumers within the sport industry (Curtis & Russell, 1997:219-220).   The decentralisation and demystification (cf. par. 2.4.5, p. 88) of knowledge systems have typified technology-driven production and consumerism in the wider society. Through the global expansion of sport consumerism and national states' interdependency to compete internationally, to recruit athletes, to control athletic (labour) migration, and to gain access to international sources (media and sponsorship) sport-specific frames of reference, ideology and structures have been created.

The trend of segmentation in sport has its origins mainly in the ideological orientation of the modern society, namely: equal opportunities for all, which can be related to the Critical Theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56). By global expansion, niche markets were established in terms of the type of sport or interest-orientation, gender, class, age, as well as physical ability (such as Paralympic sports and sport for the mentally challenged). International and local sports federations reacted to this trend by adapting rules of traditional sports, promoting events – such as sports for veteran athletes, or play forms for juniors, such as mini-golf or mini-cricket.

This segmentation is most evident in internationally recognised forms of sport, such as in the case of recognised forms of rugby that include Rugby Union, Rugby League, Australian Rules and American Grid-Iron (Cashman, 1995:198-200). Through segmentation, the rules of each are not only adapted to accommodate the needs of the participants, but also to attract large crowds to the matches.

With regard to school sport, segmentation is part and parcel of the contemporary school; and different kinds of sport or forms thereof are offered to a variety of participants in society, in order to not only improve the quality of their experience, but also make it simpler for children to understand and play. Various countries, like Australia, Canada, the USA and the UK, have widely advocated the modification of children's sport, and have used segmentation (Hill & Green, 2008:186). Through segmentation, the school sport manager is thus afforded the opportunity to categorise sport products, and also to create related products and services. Examples of this are to be found

in the rules of similar kinds of sport. These are adapted for different age groups, and for the sexes, in order to fulfil the specific needs of the group of participants. The rules of traditional soccer, as played by boys, were adapted for girls as regards the size of the field, the time played, and the number of players per team. In the same way, the change in the rules for mini-soccer in the Netherlands (Van der Meer, 1997) to accommodate a smaller (number) group of players can be used as an example.

More specifically, in South African school sport, similar trends can be observed. So, the standard rules for hockey, soccer and cricket are adapted for younger learners, and the size of the field adapted to accommodate a smaller (number) group of players, in order to allow learners to participate in what is known as mini-hockey, -soccer and -cricket, along with "bulletjie rugby". The rules of school boy rugby also differ from those of adults, and allow learners the opportunity to participate in Rugby Union, Australian Rules, seven-a-side (sevens) and touch rugby. Through segmentation, each form of sport can thus not only cater for a wider, yet unique, sophisticated target market (Shank, 2009:187) and audience, but they can carry with them local symbolism and sentiment, as well as unique market and (political) persuasive content (symbolic interactionism, cultural-studies paradigm and post-structuralism (cf. par. 2.3.3.4, p. 60; Table 1, p. 68; 2, p. 98).

The contemplation of sport as a micro-cosmos (Eitzen & Sage, 2003:13), and as a product of human actions (Coakley, 2009:6,7) contributes to a better understanding of the broader society, together with the cultivation of school sport, in a more organised and structured basis. To this end, market segmentation (cf par. 3.6.1, p. 154) has contributed to the increasing emergence of marketers and merchants in sport-related products. This trend implies that new products have to be continuously designed, manufactured and marketed.

Apart from the contribution of the industrial revolution to the structuring, professionalisation and segmentation of school sport, another direct result of the technological development of the society is demystification.

2.4.5 Demystification

The needs created by the expansion of specialised knowledge and services have spiralled to all spheres of society and resulted in the availability of personalised knowledge and the dissemination of specialised sport-related knowledge. Specialisation and personalisation of knowledge and resources have instigated the demystification (Ellis, 1988:73-75) of school sport. Not only is information more accessible for the individual and unique groups, but also the media (printed and

electronic), technological advances and globalisation have contributed to the availability of expert opinions at the click of a button (Trabal, 2008). Globalisation, the reduction of space and time, travelling and public debates on ethical practices in sport have served to inform and empower sport groups, individual athletes and practitioners alike (Silk, 1999:113-115).

The trend towards demystification has directly impacted school sport managers, as the need for 'self-help' manuals and programmes has developed. The generalist approach has been replaced by specialised knowledge, and eventually by differential disseminated knowledge, which can be related to the symbolic interaction theory; cultural studies paradigms and post-structuralism (cf. par. 2.3.3.4, p. 60; Table 1, p. 68; 2, p. 98). For instance, in the fitness industry (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98), the generally prescribed exercise programme has been replaced by the personal trainer, which is now being replaced by the health and fitness consultant who assists individuals and teams to 'tailor-make' a training programme for themselves. In the same way, the general exercise programme, originally prescribed by the school sport manager, is now being replaced by the personal trainer or specialist exercise and fitness trainer. And this is being currently replaced by a health and fitness consultant who assists individuals and teams to 'tailor-make' a training programme for themselves. The role of the school sport manager as a trainer, thus, changes from being the person who has all the knowledge and expertise to be the one who trains those who manage exercises and instructs individuals and teams.

The ready availability of information also refers to a trend that training can be increasingly managed by the individual – through distance education and telematics training. Dominant debates about sporting practices, bureaucratic forms of "modern" sport and trends, referred to earlier in preceding paragraphs, include the class-based struggles of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries over the issue of amateur-professional sport, influenced by the processes of globalisation and commercialisation. The challenge facing school sport managers to "meet society's unique needs" is globally identified as involving economic concerns, technological influences, consumerism, political strife, contestation, devaluation of the body, identity-formation, equity, the environment, violence, commercialisation, globalisation and the application of research (Haggerty *et al.*, 1997).

The major issues of concern in the South African school sports context, as they have manifested in preceding paragraphs, are tied to broader social, economic, educational and political debates, and linked to cross-cultural, national and international discourses. Sociological enquiry related to contemporary school sports debates of national concern, such as commercialisation, hegemony

(class, race and gender), collective violence, deviance, national identity and nation-building may contribute to address problems meaningfully in all their complexity in school sport and society.

2.4.6   Commercialisation

Amateurism is a complex phenomenon and represented a grey area often debated in public, exposing hypocrisy, exploitation and inequality. Sport was played both for money and for fun prior to the 1860s in England, where the amateur ethos was especially an issue of class bias. Britain, the world's first industrial and sporting nation spread its sport forms and ideologies around the world as part of their imperial thrust. As the working class began to be absorbed as players into elite sport, they needed to be subsidised and remunerated for their wages lost through playing sport (Dunning & Sheard, 1979:205). Sport participation was no longer restricted by social class; and elite sportspeople were training full-time and needed to be subsidised and remunerated. Sporting ability became a marketable commodity and sports workers sold their labour power or exchanged it for its material equivalent. Players became employees – and they were often exploited under the guise of amateurism.

Professional sport persons not only practise sport; but they also provide an input (Zimmer & Zimmer, 2001:203; 212-213) in sport production. So, they become commodities. The commodity character of top-level sport has created a player market and professionalism (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82) where an athlete's worth is rated in monetary terms for which s/he can be bought, sold or owned. Owners of sport clubs or teams, professional organisations or government agencies are paying compensation when they purchase and/or sponsor a sport person or worker, turning the latter into a commodity. It is clear that as the practice of sport increasingly became professionalised, it also became increasingly commercialised (Slack, 2004; Robinson, 2008:308-311). For that very reason, the image and values reflected by these commodities are of cardinal significance for all role players who participate in the relevant sport. In this regard, the work of Van Heerden and his colleagues proves useful when they reiterate the importance for potential sponsors to select the correct celebrity (Van Heerden *et al.*, 2008:162), if they wish to find an association or be associated with a sporting code, like for instance amateur field hockey in schools, that could reinforce the desired corporate objectives (Van Heerden *et al.*, 2007:400; 411-412).

Since the media have become so important to the survival of contemporary sport, they are capable of dictating what they want from various codes to improve their advertising sales (Miller *et al.*, 2001:68-94; Kim & Trail, 2011:57-58). To be a more marketable product, sport in general has had to change its rules, format and scheduling to become more theatrical and entertaining, in order to

generate larger revenues. Changes have been introduced to increase action and scoring, and even races are often scheduled around peak television times (Burnett, 1998:13; Delaney & Madigan, 2009:296).

Other innovations which have been forced upon sporting bodies by the media include the introduction of colourful uniforms worn by players and the positioning of corporate logos and brands on the players' kit and playing surface. Schools, organisers of games and events, like the NuPowerTuks Super 16 Series for schools, administrators and the like, have all responded as local, provincial, national and international school competitions were awarded a high profile. Emphasis was placed on competition, winning and the setting of records to promote the commercial interests of school sport and the presence of cyberkinetic principles (Waldron & Krane, 2005).

Sports, such as tennis and soccer, adopted a sudden death or shoot-out format, while a sport like hockey introduced additional time with the winner being the first to score (golden rule); and rugby, in an attempt to determine a winner, in the event of scores being equal, applied the principle of: "First to score wins the game". More recently, a shortened version of cricket, namely T20 (20 overs a side) was introduced nationally and also in school cricket, known as the Standard Bank Schools Pro20 Challenge. All of these changes were introduced to not only spice up the game and to determine a winner, but also to commercialise sport. In this regard the critical theorists (cf. par. 2.3.3.3, p. 56) argue that the predominance of a market mentality of sport led to regression, stimulation and sensation. Popular culturists may view commercial sport as an "expression" of the people and ignore the negative dimensions, or they refuse to take responsibility for creating such tastes. Sport as a mass cultural form is to some extent an expression of people's needs; but it has the potential to become tyrannical and manipulative.

Market forces find opportunities in schools. Examples of this are: to entice or lure away promising and talented athletes from one school to another, in particular 'rugby schools' offering bursaries, other incentives and schemes, parent involvement for participation and achievement. Schools are increasingly being compelled to seek revenue from other persons and institutions (sponsors, donors, grants, gifts, endowments), in order to expand and attract promising sport stars and to offer improved services (e.g. professional coaches, modern training facilities and equipment, and sport tours) to learners. As a result of market forces involved in school sport, school sport is fraught with rapidly changing issues and treading water in a fragile economy, often referred to as the debate between the Temple (spirit of sport and the Agora (the marketplace of sport; Martinkova, 2006;

2012), or what Hums (2010:7) simply calls the debate between the conscience and commerce of sport (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155).

Dewhirst and Sparks (2003:383-394) offer valuable advice to schools that wish to generate or seek additional revenue, namely: to ensure that a close, working relationship and bond exists between the school, businesses, sport stadiums, teams and specific types of sports or sport codes; while Benadie (2005:227-230), more specific to the South African context and situation, developed a framework for relationships in sport sponsorship, and identified trust, empathy, loyalty, bonding and reciprocity as the key elements to be considered when a lasting relationship with sponsors needs to be established.

It is clear, that as the relationships between schools and the mass media improve, school sport is increasingly becoming commercialised. However, schools with limited resources and those which are either less affluent or which do not excel in sport are being marginalised, especially if there is no working relationship with the mass media. This aspect can be viewed on the basis of the conflict theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.2, p. 53) which offers the opportunity to study and analyse why imbalances in economic power and access to resources cause conflict in relationships in society.

With the advent of television, sport was (Goldlust, 1987:8) changed for ever. Sport, sport products and celebrities were brought into people's homes, generating billions in consumerism. In this way, the consumer market was dramatically extended, mediating symbols, ideology and messages to capitalise and package sport as a unique commodity (Andrews, 2001:132-154; Andrews & Jackson, 2001b; 2001a:4-17; Cashmore, 2005:324-345; Kim & Cheong, 2011:143,152). A direct school sport example in this regard is the *Beeld* Trophy for schoolboy rugby. Players are used to create images, through which rugby in schools is introduced, made known and marketed – an aspect that brings the symbolic interaction theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.4, p. 60) to the fore.

The emphasis is placed on competition and winning, in order to enhance the commercial interests of both rugby and the school, together with *Beeld*, a newspaper. Consequently boys are socialised into the competitive sports fraternity from a very young age and rugby is practised in a professional way. Inevitably, young players are faced with the complex reality of choosing and succeeding along a career path in a professional and high-profiled sport, such as rugby (Stevenson, 1990:238-250; 1999:88-94; Burnett, 2005:41-47; Burnett & Muncer, 2007:179; Burnett, 2008b:118) and/or to gain access to sport bursaries and contracts from rugby unions or academies.

The commercial interests of rugby and the school were enhanced with the advent of television, and it also created opportunities for the creation of economic exploitive power relations and an ever-growing realisation of the importance of television and the opportunities it provides (Oosthuizen, 2010:1). Television exposure has been used as an instrument to motivate, convince and persuade – especially those with economic power – to become involved in one or other tangible way in an effort to market schools and to commercialise school sport.

Higher educational institutions like the North-West University (NWU) and the University of Pretoria (Tukkies), leading financial institutions like First National Bank (FNB), transnational corporations like Coca Cola and other leading businesses, like NuPower Solar Solutions and GWK Wildeklawer all responded and became important role-players to support school sport in one way or another. They have thereby obtained relatively cheap publicity, which in turn, may result in larger turnover and profit for the institution.

As sport in schools grew in stature, and schools demanded more from the different role-players, so the interest of the public developed; consequently, sport reporting on the different events and games has had a positive impact on the circulation figures of newspapers and viewer numbers of television channels. This growing interest in school sport has resulted in the establishment of separate television programmes, like Let's Play and Siyadlala, to encourage learner participation. More recently, *Beeld* and *The Star* (newspapers) have started to provide separate sections exclusively for school sport results. These are the results of school rugby and cricket shown on television. These reports provide the necessary motivation and recognition for school participants; and although there are no statistical data, larger television exposure serves to motivate learners to participate in these sports.

Since the commercial success of the Los Angeles Olympic Games in 1984, corporate sponsors have seized the opportunity; and the market value of sport and sport stars has served to create global empires. Successful advertising campaigns sell products, capitalising on individual characteristics, such as the maleness of the beer drinker, the spectacular, physical attraction and excitement or glamour of the sport and/or star. An aspect brought to the fore by the symbolic interaction theory (cf. par. 2.3.3.4, p. 60) is that even children are lured into the world of consumerism, selling them the make-believe success of their sporting heroes wearing Nike or Reebok, eating cornflakes or yoghurt-products associated with, and essential in, obtaining sport success.

From a very young age, boys in particular, are socialised into sport consumerism and the cult of masculinity by identifying with tough masculine sporting heroes. Male superiority is sponsored and advocated through advertising and broadcasting, thereby marginalising women to glamourize male sport, the ultimate symbol of superiority and national achievement. Sport (also school sport) is commercialised to further the interests of the economically prosperous. Given the changing nature of school sport, the school sport manager should be properly trained and equipped in knowledge regarding the interests of boys and girls who participate in sport for different reasons.

The nature of sports commentary and the presentation of gender, race and class categories by the mass media, reinforce stereotypes and serve to reaffirm ethnocentric and ideological values. The increased commercialisation of school sport, largely through the media, has promoted the *"massification"* and increased *"politicisation"* – a *"war without weapons"* – between the super powers and a highly publicised platform for national prestige (Coakley, 2009:370-399; 451-467). Sport events are mediated to provide ideological viewpoints in a unique and convincing way. Prime examples relevant to South Africa, illustrating this point, are national television and media reports which produce and encode messages to further their own or "national" interests, as was demonstrated in the broadcasting and reporting of the Coca Cola Craven Week.

In this instance, some newspapers and television channels (in particular the English and black newspapers and television channels) were used by the members of the ruling ANC party to express their dissent and disapproval of the apparent reluctance of "racist whites" to "let go" of rugby and the slow rate of transformation in school sport. At the same time, the Afrikaans television channels and newspapers were critical of the government's quota system, or calls to do away with the Springbok emblem (Botma & Wasserman, 2008:7-16; Botma, 2010:2; 4-9), because the government was "interfering" in sport.

The mass media is not a single entity, but a complex network of competing groups aggressively marketing ideology and the symbols of success. In the quest to sign lucrative contracts with television networks, the recent 2010 FIFA™ Soccer World Cup was unabashedly manipulated by the mass media to shape global perceptions of Africa and South Africa – in an attempt to change perceptions of the country and continent. However, two stereotypes, which signify the perceptions of people emerged. In a nutshell, these stereotypes emerged to signify Africaness and blackness as risky, incompetent, backward, on the one hand, and filled with warmth, exoticism, Ubuntuism, and rhythm on the other hand (Berger, 2010:180-187). In this, the complexity of the task facing the

school sport manager amidst increasing commercialisation and use of the media to portray or reflect images and ideology is, clearly illustrated.

In the era of commercialised school sport, the use of elite sport persons or ex-learners in schools to sell products is central in promotions (Till, 2001; Von Hoecke *et al.*, 2002; Mayet, 2006:56,72,94; Joymag, 2007:1; Lee & Cho, 2009:48). Development programmes in collaboration with provincial governing bodies and sport federations are presented to involve more participants in different forms of sport. Well-known South African sport personalities, like Jonty Rhodes and Jacques Kallis (cricket), John Smit and Bryan Habana (rugby), Pietie Coetzee (hockey), Elana Meyer (athletics) and Mark Fish (soccer) can be involved in training sessions to offer sport and coaching clinics. Sport personalities, like Allan Donald, could also be used with great success during dinner parties, fundraising attempts and as a source of motivation before important games or events. All these examples are offered as a service to the public. So the public esteem, status and image of the sport personality could have a direct influence on the school, as well as on the role of the school sport manager, which proves that school sport has become increasingly professional in the era of commercialisation.

It is clear that as the practice of school sport became increasingly professionalised, it also became increasingly globalised. Globalisation reached school sport, as athletes increasingly participated in national and international competitions; while global sponsors realised the seemingly inexorable power of both major-high profile events, such as the Rugby and Cricket World Cups for under nineteens', Youth Olympic Games, and the World Junior Athletic Championships and sponsorship of school sport (and other) activities.

In a number of countries, including the USA, UK and Australia, purveyors of so-called junk-food sponsor school sport and other activities (Currie, 2004:248). With legislators in the USA and UK exhibiting increasing concern at the high levels of obesity and Type 2 diabetes, by calling for a limit in the sale of junk-food and soft drinks in schools, and the use of celebrities to promote such products (Cozens, 2004; VanderSchee, 2005:2; Czapnik, 2012), Amis and Cornwell (2005:13) are of the opinion that it is appropriate to consider the ethical dimension of school-sport sponsorship by global purveyors – and indeed local firms – of all product firms.

The trend of commercialisation shows a close link to the functional aspect of management, namely marketing. The role of the *sport marketer* can be interpreted in two ways. In the first instance the school sport manager as marketer markets sport related products and services to the participants,

spectators and school community. In the second place school sport is marketed to potential sponsors so that the school as a sport enterprise can exist economically (Breed, 2008:5,34,86,123) as is the case with independent schools in particular (McAlister, 2005). Simply stated, marketing through sport, and marketing of sport (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155). Through commercialisation and the use of competent school sport managers, other enterprises are enabled to use school sport as a medium to market their products. Examples of this are that players from high profile schools wear the clothes of certain clothing manufacturers, or that a car is offered as sponsorship or that certain energy drinks are linked to certain teams or sport personalities. Through initiatives as mentioned in this paragraph, the marketer tries to obtain funds so that sport enterprises (inclusive of schools) can be economically managed (cf. par. 3.6.1, p. 155). In sum, school sport is marked by commercialisation which has resulted in increased media coverage and a shift in focus where school sport managers are compelled to seek and adopt a different approach to school sport. Hence for all the above mentioned reasons, a sprt management programme should include marketing as a component (cf. par.7.5.3, p. 560).

2.4.7 Privatisation

Looking at the philosophy of private versus public sport, Morgan (2000:17) in his research on private and public sports argued that: "...*we should expand the private side of sport and at the same time narrow the public, moral side*". In pursuing a business-like approach, the contemporary school sport manager should also acknowledge the fact that, privately-owned schools form part of the privatisation process, and for that matter, sport in schools.[30]

With school sport becoming a major player in the global market, even schools are being privatised with the objective of running them as profitable businesses. Two examples of this would include, amongst others, Curro Holdings, which offers private school education and is run as a private commercial enterprise, and individuals opening up private academies for sport, such as rugby, cricket, hockey and soccer.

Authors, such as Flintoff (2003:247); Houlihan and Green (2006:88); Sparvero *et al.* (2008:253); Siedentop (2009:138); Fletcher-Hackward (2012:1); Gove, Cameron and Johnson (2012:1) and

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[30] The Constitution of South Africa enshrines the right to basic education and the right to establish private schools. In South Africa two types of schools are found and recognized, namely public (state) and independent (private). Clearly not in line with international usage, in this study the concept independent schools are used when referring to privately owned/ private schools. In terms of international usage privately owned/private schools refer to all formal schools that are not public and are founded, owned, managed and financed by actors other than the state. Cf. also. par. 1. 2.1.4, p. 4

Simon (2012:1) conclude that the only way for less-affluent public schools (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4) which are unable to privatise and thus compete with the privatisation of sport in public and independent schools, is to make sure that they meet industry standards for service. If the set industry services are met, all those not being able and/or prepared to privatise, would still be able to survive in the completive school sport market.

A clear trend in schools has been the privatisation of sport and sport-related physical activities, recreation and leisure (Siedentop, 2009:322). User fees and pay-to-play have become more the norm than the exception. Public expenditure on sport has decreased, as privatisation has gradually spread. The real action in sport is in the private sector[31] that seems to offer numerous opportunities and advantages to prospective entrepreneurs. However, despite the mentioned advantages of privatisation outlined earlier, it would seem as if arguments for the profit motive in school sport, appear to hinge on the conflict between ideology and reality, because there is no internationally supported evidence that the profit motive is needed to raise schools' performance in sport.

Independent schools will continue to exist, while public schools should continue to offer quality service. If the trend of privatisation in school sport continues, it seems clear that access to opportunity in sport and sport-related physical activities will increasingly be tied to personal wealth, mainly as a result of the evident failure of developing countries, such as South Africa, to provide effective and efficient public education (Tooley, 2000:25; Brighouse, 2004:619). To reverse the situation of privatisation in school sport and to support learners, school sport and sport-related physical activity programmes should be readily available in the public sector,[32] in all schools. Additionally, it would seem as if government is concerned that even more popular, affluent and better public schools, known for good results in sport and academics, are privatised, with school fees on the rise, because school governing bodies and parents approve the budget (Masondo, 2012:1). Seen in the context of the current study, the privatisation of public schools would impact on the school sport manager, because parents would demand more and better facilities, opportunities and improved results in sport.

2.4.8 Conclusion

In conclusion, it may be said that it is possible to identify and describe the trends in school sport as figurations of society. The phenomenological description of the figurations (cf. par. 2.3.3.5, p. 63)

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[31] Private sector refers to profit making businesses owned by individuals or shareholders
[32] The public sector consists of all institutions, like schools run and owned by the government (cf. par. 1.2.1.4, p. 4.)

could create the possibility of identifying different specialist school sport management competencies that occur simultaneously with the trend from different perspectives in view of the functional, conflict, critical, symbolic interaction and figurative theories.   The specialist competencies of the sport marketer, the professional trainer, the biokineticist, the physiotherapist, and the coach can be traced back to the trend of professionalisation. Several specialist school sport management competencies have, therefore, been identified as a result of various trends.

Table 2 (cf. p. 98) reflects the social conceptual framework for the analysis, explanation and contextualisation of school sport within the educational system (cf. Fig. 2, p. 36; Fig. 6, p. 111). It should, however, be clearly stated, there is not necessarily a causal relation between the identified theories and trends in society. The researcher has merely attempted to contextualise school sport in the contemporary educational system, and also to offer a possible point of departure – from which school sport-related trends can be explored and explained.

The fact that no school sport manager can manage school sport without proper training indicates how important it is that school sport be managed well. Therefore, discussion of the place of school sport in the sport industry and the sport education sector is necessary.

Table 2: Sociological theories and school sport related trends in society

SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES	SCHOOL SPORT- RELATED TRENDS
Functionalism	Manipulation Institutionalisation
Conflict	Segmentation Privatisation
Critical paradigm Marxism Feminism	Professionalisation Scientification Demystification
Symbolic interaction	Nation building Branding Commercialisation
Figurative	Globalisation

2.5   THE SPORT INDUSTRY: SECTORS AND SEGMENTS

In the late eighties, early nineties and the beginning of the twenty-first century the collocation of the sport industry was undertaken to identify the possible sectors of the industry. During this time, researchers created different classifications that eventually showed broad planes of contact. Several examples of these classifications are found in literature. Cuskelly and Auld (1991:38) identify five areas or sectors.   These are: government-based sport, area and local sport organisations, commercial organisers, as well as the public sector and agencies. De Sensi, Kelley,

Blanton and Beitel (1990:33-34) identify six sectors: school sport, private sport clubs, university sport clubs, professional sport, government and volunteer agencies. In his investigation into training of sport managers, Kjeldsen (1990:124) concludes that the sport management student finds work in six sectors of the sport industry, namely: at tertiary education institutions, in professional sport, facilities management, marketing, school sport and sport agencies.

In their study Pitts *et al.* (1994:15) categorise the sport industry according to products and buyers (product-type model). Based on the fact that every product was considered according to its function or benefit to a consumer, they identify three categories or industry segments, namely: the sport performance, sport production and sport promotion segments. Their industry segmentation approach is especially useful to sport marketers, who are typically responsible for formulating competitive strategies. Meek (1997:16,17) on the other hand, adopts a different approach, when he proposes his economic-impact model. Based on an analysis of the economic activity of teams and businesses within each sector and the economic activity associated with sport, he proposes that the sport industry be defined by describing three primary sectors: sport entertainment and recreation, sport products, and sport-support organisations (profit and non-profit).

A third model, namely the sport-activity model, which differs conceptually from the other two models (product type and economic impact) in that it places sport at the centre and illustrates the dependence of the subsectors on the production of sporting activities, is proposed by Li, Hofacre and Mahony (2001:7). In this model, the sport-producing sector is the core of the sport industry. Six supporting subsectors surround, and overlap with, the activity-producing core. These subsectors can be identified as: (i) Administration and regulatory athletic associations; (ii) sporting goods manufacturers, wholesalers and retailers; (iii) sport facilities and buildings; (iv) sport media; (v) sport management firms; and (vi) state municipal and country sport councils, as well as authorities.

In research more specific to the South African context, Hollander (2000:273) is of the opinion that the afore mentioned researchers have described different sectors that ultimately have broad similarities in common. He further argues that the following six sectors of the sport industry are appropriate for smaller groupings of related occupation fields: sport marketing, sport goods, facilities and events, recreation and tourism, education and training as well as fitness and health. At the *Sport Colloquium on jobs in sport in 2007*, Hollander (2007b:6-8) presented an updated explanation on the segments in the sport industry and all its various sectors (cf. Fig. 3, p. 101). According to these discussions, the sport industry can be divided into three segments according to

product and buyer type. These three segments are firstly the sport activity/participation segment, secondly the sport production segment and thirdly the sport promotion segment.

When the categorisation of the different researchers is studied, it is obvious that similarities exist between the sectors of the sport industry. These include sport at educational institutions, like tertiary institutions (universities, universities of technology), Further Education and Training Colleges (FET Colleges)[33] and schools, as well as professional sport, sport agencies and sport in the public sector. Professional sport refers to the full-time participation in sport and related activities as a professional person, whereby an income is generated. Public or government sport, on the other hand, implies that sport and related activities are practised on an amateur basis. In this instance, it is out of the question that a participant would be able to make a living out of sport, despite the fact that sport, also school sport, is becoming increasingly professionalised (cf. par. 2.4.3, p. 82).

In Figure 3 a summary of the three main segments of the sport industry is presented to help understand where school sport and the management thereof fit in. The three main segments, sport activity, sport production and sport promotion are the further subdivided into different sectors in each segment

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[33] In the South African context FET Colleges were previously known as Technical Colleges

SPORT INDUSTRY
All sport-related products (goods, services, places, people and ideas) offered to the consumer

SEGMENTS
By product and buyer type

SPORT ACTIVITY
As offered to the consumer as a participant or spectator product

SPORT PRODUCTION
Those products needed to produce or influence the quality of sport activity

SPORT PRODUCTION
Those products needed to produce or influence the quality of sport activity

SECTORS

SECTORS

SECTORS

1. Sport Consumer
   • Primary
     o Participant
   • Secondary
     ‼ Management
     ♦ Coaching
     ⚕ Sport Medicine
     ♦ Referees
     ♦ Tertiary
     o Sport Media
2. Private Organisation Sport.
3. Public Sport.
4. Non-profit Organisations.
5. Sport Education.
6. Health and Fitness.

1. Outfitting products
   • Equipment.
   • Apparel.
2. Performance production products
   • Fitness trainer.
   • Medical care.
   • Events.
   • Governing bodies and officials.
3. Facilities
   • Venues.
   • Parks.
   • Pools.
   • Stadia.

1. Promotional merchandising products.
2. Promotional events.
3. Media.
4. Sponsorship
   • Event.
   • Participant.
   • Teams.
   • Facilities.
5. Endorsement
   • Athlete.
   • Team.
   • Full Organisation.
   • Non-specific.

(Hollander, 2007b:7)

Figure 3: Segments and sectors of the sport industry

In the context of the preceding, the sport education sector (cf. fig. 3, p. 101) plays an important role, therefore the study under review focuses on competencies required by the school sport managers to manage school sport effectively, according to the diverse needs of South African schools (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 4) and the important role that the training of educators plays in offering sport as a service to different consumers (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 2.).

2.5.1 Sport Education Sector

Wuest and Fisette (2012:342) use the concept of sport pedagogy[34] and maintain that sport pedagogy is concerned with the study of the teaching and learning processes of physical activity. Sport education,[35] on the other hand, more specifically refers to developmentally appropriate education providing opportunities to all to be competent, literate, enthusiastic sport persons (Siedentop, 2009:71). In South Africa, the sport education or education and training sector (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, p.101) in sport is found in both the formal and informal structures. Schools, public and private, universities, colleges private and further education and training colleges (FET), sport academies and universities of technology (formerly known as technikons) constitute the formal component (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, p. 101) of training and education by means of the presentation of coaching and management courses.

Sometimes the informal training of learners (students) is looked after by clubs, non-government organisations (NGOs), as well as national sport bodies and federations who offer their own in-service training programmes. Examples of these comprise the training of coaches (Surujlal, 2003:110; Surujlal & Singh, 2007:94-95), managers, marketers, researchers and so forth.

Sport education[36] as a sector of the sport industry can be described in various ways. Aspects that are important here are that learners are educated and trained by educators or coaches in sport and related matters both theoretically and practically (Blikman, 1992:497-500). A typical example is where sport and physical activities in schools are used as education mediums. Set outcomes are to establish positive values in learners and to ensure lifelong participation (Sawyer, 1993:5; Gruneau, 1999:30,100,101). In the school, coaches, for example, should be empowered, trained and educated to master the intricacies and theoretical background of coaching; team managers ought to be able to fulfil their duties; and for chairpersons of committees, it is necessary to fulfil their responsibilities.

The school sport manager, therefore, should possess the competency to manage human resources (cf. par. 3.6.5, p. 169) effectively, which in itself has implications for the management of school sport. According to Stier (2001:41), this requires adaptability, a willingness to learn, to discover and to approach the future with a new vision. Thus, in order to educate and train successful administrators and managers, highly competent, well-trained, scholarly and experienced

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[34] For more detail on sport pedagogy, cf. Wuest and Fisette (2012:342-353)
[35] For purposes of this research report sport education refers to the education and training of persons, irrespective of age to be competent, literate and enthusiastic sport persons
[36] Cf. note 35, p. 102

individuals are required (Clarke, 2000:63). Historical trends, according to Bridges and Roquemore (2004:4), reveal that more than 98% of persons appointed for the first time as sport managers, do not possess the necessary formal training and education to be a manager.

2.5.2   Education, Training and Development

The contemporary school sport manager has tremendous power over the game of football, for instance, and this is understandable. They determine to a large extent, the style of play to be employed, the players that get fielded and benched, and the periodisation structure utilised weekly, seasonally and annually. It is thus imperative that school sport managers be well grounded in the fundamentals of coaching. Quality coaching at school, local, and national level is largely dependent on the qualifications of school sport managers. SRSA attributes sustainable sport development to a structured school sport management education programme within a specific code in line with the South African coaching framework. They deem two elements very important: firstly, that sport management-education programmes are developed in partnership with local clubs, sport bodies and federations, as well as educational bodies, such as the DBE and the DHET. Secondly, that structured and comprehensive sport management and coaches' education programmes are promoted to ensure that a constant process of recruitment can be maintained.

In the case of school sport in South Africa, the *National Skills Development Strategy III* (South Africa, 2011a:3), the *Sector Skills Plan of 2012/2013* (Cathsseta, 2012:45) and the *School Sport Capacity Development Programme* (Swimmersden, 2012:2) have all prioritised the need to develop innovative education programmes to support and develop young people, educators, school sport managers, leaders and parents. The key issues they address to concentrate on improving the development of school sport through the sport education sector (cf. par. 2.5.1, p. 102). In South Africa, development through the sport education sector is displayed through partnerships, such as Orlando Pirates with Boston City Campus; and in the past, Kaiser Chiefs with the University of Johannesburg.

Furthermore, there are the international stakeholders with political clout, such as UNICEF South Africa, the Australian Sports Commission, GTZ (The German Development Corporation), The European Union and British Sports Council increasingly forging strategic partnerships with SRSA (Burnett, 2008a:260-262; 2010b:49). Besides these examples, there are the partnerships established with transnational companies, such as Barlowworld, KFC,[37] Nike (Sport and Recreation

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[37] KFC is a well-known fast food restaurant with headquarters in in Louisville

South Africa, 2010; Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit, 2011); tertiary institutions, e.g. University of Western Cape (Bouah & Keim, 2011) and government departments, like SRSA (Youth Development through Football, 2012).

The democratisation of sport in South Africa in the post-apartheid era has set the scene for racial and gender liberation as a basic human right under the new constitution in all spheres of engagement – from participation to leadership. The transformation was spearheaded by the government sector under the driving force of the then Minister of Sport, Mr. Steve Tshwete. This also required the development of new skills for education and training of sport managers at different levels. Consequently, in 1998 the new national democratic government introduced the Skills Development Act, Act 97 of 1998 (the skillsportal, 2011).

In order to repeal or amend certain provisions, which became obsolete as a result of the transfer of the administration of the said Act (Act 97 of 1998), to the Minister of Higher Education and Training (cf. par. 2.5.2, p. 103; .7.2, p. 509), as well as to provide for matters connected therewith, the Skills Development Act, Act 26 of 2011 was implemented on 28 March 2012 (South Africa, 2011b:2). One of the objectives of the Skills Development Act is to *'transform labour from a low skills base to one that is committed to high quality lifelong learning'* (South Africa, 1998:8). As part of the Skills Development Plan, all sporting clubs and associations must register with the Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority (Culture Arts Tourism Hospitality Sport Education and Training Authority Sector Education and Training Authority, 2012; Tourism Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority, 2012).[38] Furthermore, they must have a sector skills plan (Cathsseta, 2012:8)[39] and a national skills development strategy that has been developed (South Africa, 2011a).

However, the deeply carved inequalities of apartheid were not easy to bridge, and the inability of the newly elected ANC-led Government to put in place proper sustainable long-term strategies and plans, particularly with regard to skills development, has sparked a fierce and public debate after the publication of the National Skills Development Strategy that was to be implemented in three phases. In fact, as Freeman (2012:1) wrote*: "The national skills development strategy is in disarray".* A key element in this state of affairs, as Hattingh asserted, was the confusion surrounding the implementation of pivotal programmes, payment of grants, lack of priorities from

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[38] For the purposes of this study the acronym: CATHSSETA will be used when referring to The Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA), while The Tourism, Hospitality, Sport Education and Training Authority will be referred to as THETA
[39] Cf. note 58, p. 104

SETAS, and the delay in the implementation of the third phase of the skills development strategy – to put in place structures and procedures – because the responsibility for formal skills development (as opposed to university and college education) was being transferred from the Department of Labour to the newly created DHET (Freeman, 2012:3-4) (cf. par. 7.2.1, p. 512).

In the face of ever-increasing criticism and to streamline areas of business focus, CATHSSETA has clustered or grouped the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes in its scope into logical areas of overlap or similarity of business focus that collectively make up a sub-sector (Cathsseta, 2012:8). These sub-sectors include Sport, Recreation and Fitness. The sport, recreation and fitness sub-sector includes sporting activities, sport federations, clubs and sports academies. In direct compliance with the requirements of the Skills Development Plan and THETA, the following boost adherence to the aforesaid Act and the registration for the Skills Development Levy: Mpumalanga Academy of Sport (Mpumalanga Academy of Sport, 2008; Skhosana, 2008); Mpumalanga Provincial Government (Mpumalanga Provincial Government, 2008); Msukaligwa Municipality (Msukaligwa Municipality, 2010); Amanzimtoti Primary School, a primary school in KwaZulu-Natal (Cylex, 2012b),[40] Phil Masinga Sports Academy (Sport Industry, 2012); Orlando Pirates Football Club (Orlando Pirates Football Club, 2012); the South African Sport Anglers and Casting Confederation (South African Sport Anglers and Casting Confederation, 2012) and Sportweni (Sportweni, 2012).

According to the official website of Orlando Pirates, a Workplace Skills Plan was submitted to THETA in 2002 (Orlando Pirates Football Club, 2012). This was a comprehensive plan addressing the skills needs of youth and senior players, management and staff, all as employees of the club. With the overall focus of this study on school sport and the management competencies of school sport managers, different plans and strategies were formally documented, more specifically for schools and school sport. These include the following: National Skills Development Strategy III Sector Skills Plan of 2012/2013; a School Sport Capacity Development Programme; a National Plan for Sport and Recreation South; and a strategic initiative, namely: the South African Sport-for-Life (SAS4L) Long-Term Participant Development Model (LTPDM), to enhance participation in sport training and high performance sports by the citizens of South Africa, as – An Active and Winning Nation (South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee, 2011:2).[41]

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[40]CYLEX is a company that operates over 30 online business directions. It promotes and showcase business to potential customers in a simple, but appealing way (Cylex, 2012a)

[41]For purposes of this study, the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee will be referred to as SASCOC. It is also important to note that where there is reference to SASCOC, it includes National Federations as well as the Provincial Sports Councils affiliated to SASCOC

The role of the school in the sport education sector is unique and complex in providing learners with the necessary skills, knowledge, values and attitudes to ensure their wellbeing and holistic development. The school sport manager plays a crucial role to ensure the education, training and development of learners participating in sport. It thus follows that it is imperative that the school sport manager be also well grounded in the fundamentals of sport education, and also well trained in sport. The education, training and development of school sport managers is unique; and it has its own characteristics and requirements that need to be dealt with, and the school, education, training institutions, and the school sport manager, as well as the trainer needs to be aware of all these different needs and characteristics of training.

It may thus be said that the school plays an important role in the sport education sector; and it should establish partnerships and alliances with major stakeholders involved in the design and development of sport and sport-related programmes for learners in schools and sport management training for educators, in accordance with the diverse needs of schools. Major stakeholders involved in the designing, managing, implementation, and striving for successful and sustainable service delivery of sport and recreation programmes would include international organisations, transnational companies, government agencies, sport federations, NGOs operating at all levels, research and tertiary institutions (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 2, p. 36; 3, p. 101). By initiating declarations, international forums and networking to forge global partnerships, the school sport manager would therefore also be equipped and well-trained to utilize sport as a means of promoting development and peace, globally and also in South Africa.

Proper education, training and development imply that school sport managers would thus obtain a proper and accredited qualification. In relation to the current study, it thus requires an understanding of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF).[42]

2.5.3   National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

A review of the research literature did not reveal an updated/newer proposed structure and range of accredited qualifications within THETA. The National Qualification Framework (NQF), Figure 4 below (cf. p.108), courtesy of Solomon (2008:41) tabulates the proposed structure and range of accredited qualifications within THETA (Theta, 2007). The referred-to version, dated October 2005, was the only version found after an extensive literature review. This has more non-existent qualifications than qualifications existent at the time. SRSA, much the same as the Football Association (FA) in England, has identified and addressed the need for appropriate and quality-
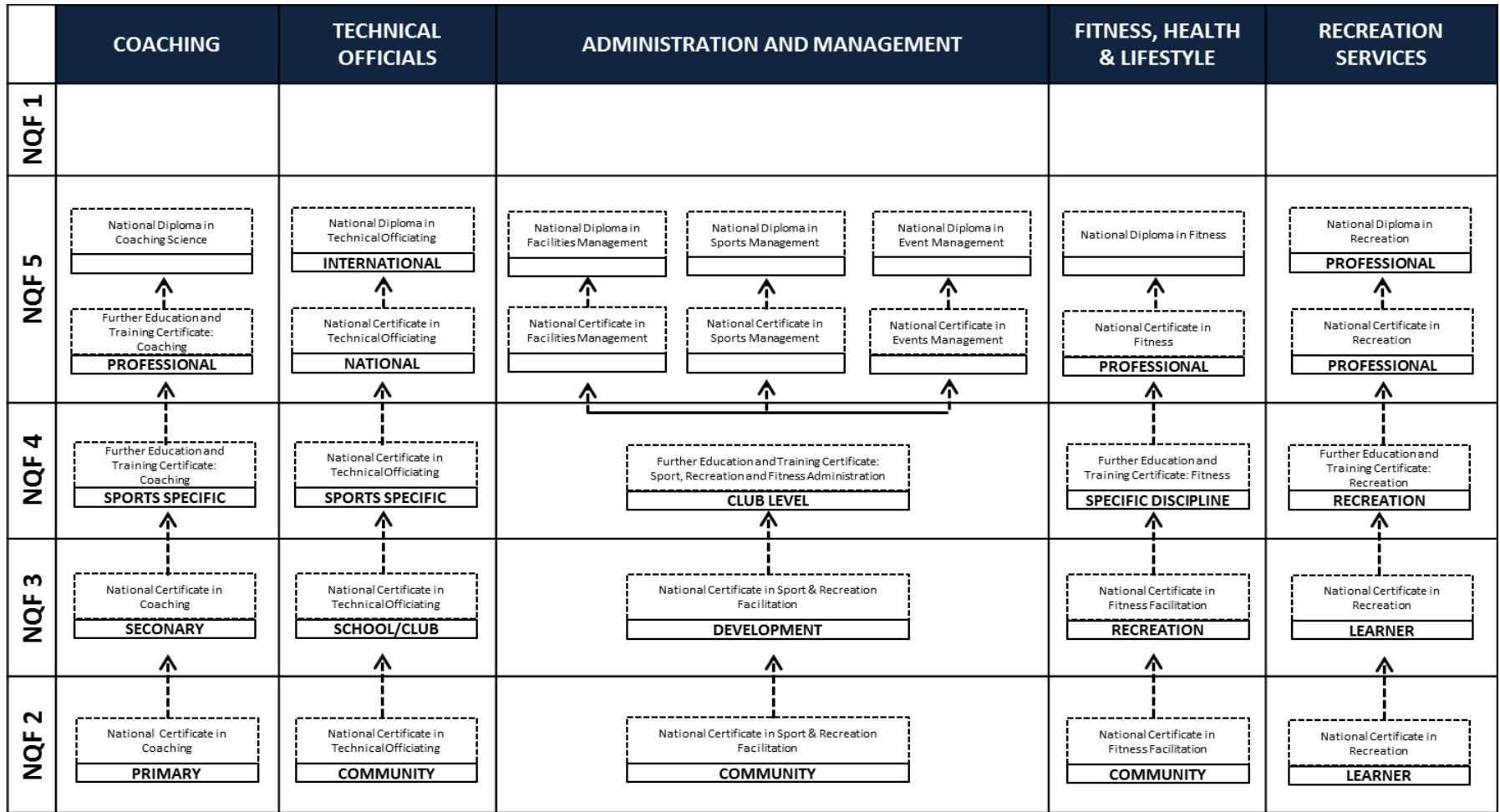
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[42]Cf. also par.7.2.4, p. 524

assured support, training and resources for educators, to overcome the obstacles that prevent the delivery of football in schools, such as limited knowledge of the game.

All the programmes of education and training for sport and recreation are currently under revision and will still have to be submitted to Cathsseta for approval, while only a generic sports coaching programme is available (Theta, 2012; Mene, 2012). This coaching programme was the result of an identified need to scope the potential development of a South African Coaching Framework (Sascoc, 2010:8). A literature review nevertheless provided evidence of one registered qualification, namely, National Certificate: Sport Management, accredited by the South African Qualifications Framework (SAQA) (South African Qualifications Authority, 2012). On closer examination, the mentioned qualification appears to be generic, and as such is not appropriate and relevant to the training of educators who need content and context-specific training as school sport managers.

One could come to the conclusion that a need exists or an opportunity has been created for the development of a sport management programme for educator training. The identified lack of a programme for educator training is consistent with the findings and the views expressed throughout this research report for the development of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 1.3.2, p. 12, research aim 5). A resolution adopted at the *National Sport and Recreation Indaba*, held on 22 November 2011, serves as further evidence of the need for the training of educators, to ensure a supply of quality educators capable of improving the quality of life of all South Africans (Sport and Recreation South Africa, 2011a:2,12).

Figure 4 (cf. p. 108) displays the existing and envisaged qualifications as they relate to different roles within a sport organisation (cf. par. 3.2, p. 117). It demonstrates the qualification for each of coaches, administrators, etc. at the different NQF levels. The Further Education and Training Certificate: Sports Administration (FET Certificate: Sports Administration), NQF Level 4, was designed to meet the needs of learners who are already employed or involved as volunteers in the sport industry. Furthermore, this qualification enables learners who want to enter the industry to develop careers in one or more of the related sub-fields (cf. par. 4.6, p. 249).

	COACHING	TECHNICAL OFFICIALS	ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT			FITNESS, HEALTH & LIFESTYLE	RECREATION SERVICES
NQF 1							
NQF 5	National Diploma in Coaching Science —	National Diploma in Technical Officiating — INTERNATIONAL	National Diploma in Facilities Management —	National Diploma in Sports Management —	National Diploma in Event Management —	National Diploma in Fitness —	National Diploma in Recreation — PROFESSIONAL
	Further Education and Training Certificate: Coaching — PROFESSIONAL	National Certificate in Technical Officiating — NATIONAL	National Certificate in Facilities Management —	National Certificate in Sports Management —	National Certificate in Events Management —	National Certificate in Fitness — PROFESSIONAL	National Certificate in Recreation — PROFESSIONAL
NQF 4	Further Education and Training Certificate: Coaching — SPORTS SPECIFIC	National Certificate in Technical Officiating — SPORTS SPECIFIC		Further Education and Training Certificate: Sport, Recreation and Fitness Administration — CLUB LEVEL		Further Education and Training Certificate: Fitness — SPECIFIC DISCIPLINE	Further Education and Training Certificate: Recreation — RECREATION
NQF 3	National Certificate in Coaching — SECONARY	National Certificate in Technical Officiating — SCHOOL/CLUB		National Certificate in Sport & Recreation Facilitation — DEVELOPMENT		National Certificate in Fitness Facilitation — RECREATION	National Certificate in Recreation — LEARNER
NQF 2	National Certificate in Coaching — PRIMARY	National Certificate in Technical Officiating — COMMUNITY		National Certificate in Sport & Recreation Facilitation — COMMUNITY		National Certificate in Fitness Facilitation — COMMUNITY	National Certificate in Recreation — LEARNER

Education and Training framework for sport and recreation

Figure 4: Education and Training framework for sport and recreation
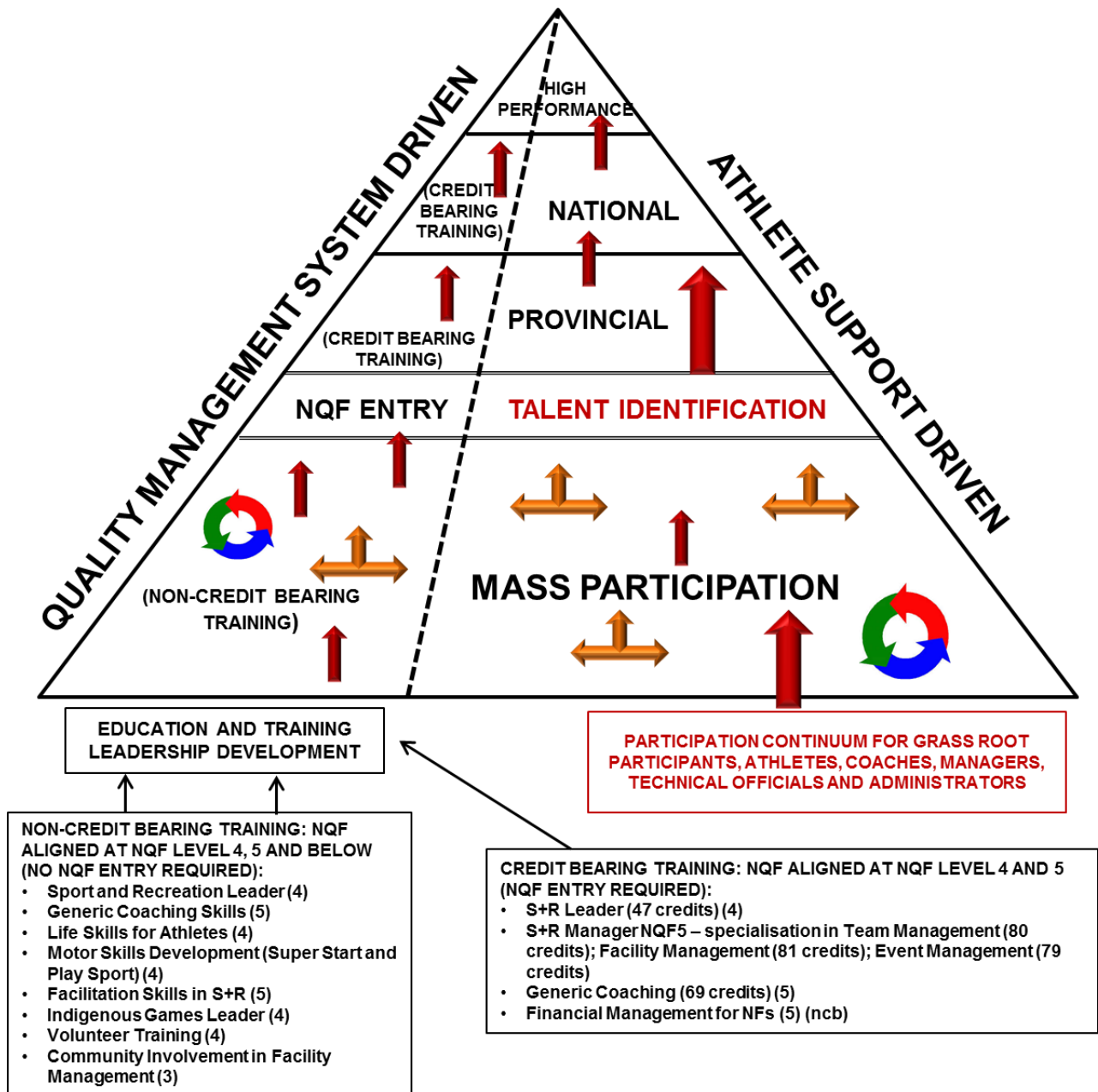
The SASC has provided a practical leadership development model (cf. Fig. 5, p. 110) that indicates credit and non-credit bearing education and training programmes in sport and recreation (South African Sports Commission, 2005a).[43] In addition, the model also indicates what training is required at the different levels of the sport development continuum, namely foundation, participation, performance and excellence (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2012:8). For all that, revisiting the framework of sport and recreation in South Africa, the White Paper was revised in synergy with the National Sport and Recreation Plan (NSRP) for sport and retains the 'development triangle' as conceptual guideline for sport, based on the vision of *'creating an active and winning nation'*, representing a truly *"bottoms-up"* plan to transform the delivery of sport and recreation in South Africa (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2012:10,12).

When the practical leadership development model (cf. Fig. 5, p. 110) is looked at more closely, the model indicates credit and non-credit bearing education and training programmes in sport and recreation. These could be a useful guide to determine competencies and qualifications required for coaches and administrators at different levels in a club; however, it is not adequate for the development of a sport management programme for educator training (cf. par. 7. 5, p. 547).

The transformation of sport, can be seen as a catalyst in the promotion of national reconciliation, social cohesion and national identity (Burnett, 2010b:49; Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA), 2010:12;17-20; 2012:8;10-14; Van der Westhuizen & Swart, 2012:168). In relation to the aforesaid, school sport could play a crucial role; and it is thus important for the school sport manager to take cognisance of the newly developed sport development continuum, as illustrated in Fig. 6 (cf. p. 111 below). When a sport management programme for educator training is developed, the competencies required for the transformation of school sport and sport-related physical activities (e.g. P.E.) for all levels of participation (mass, competitive, high performance, elite, etc.) should be kept in mind.

In Chapter 7 the development of a sport management programme for educator training will be looked at in more detail.

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[43]The South African Sports Commission (SASC) was incorporated into SASCOC, a non-governmental sports organisation in 2004. The SRSA Skills Programme for Sport and Recreation Leaders is currently under revision (Mene, 2012)

South African Sports Commission, 2005b)

Figure 5: Practical leadership development model for credit and non-credit bearing education and training programmes in sport and recreation

To sum up, the NQF is valuable in proposing the structure and range of accredited qualifications within THETA; but this requires continuous revisiting. Currently, all sport and recreation's education and training skill programmes, as well as the sport leader programme, should be seen as essential to the development continuum (cf. Fig. 6, p. 111) of sport in South Africa. These programmes are under review, and must be submitted to Cathsseta for approval.
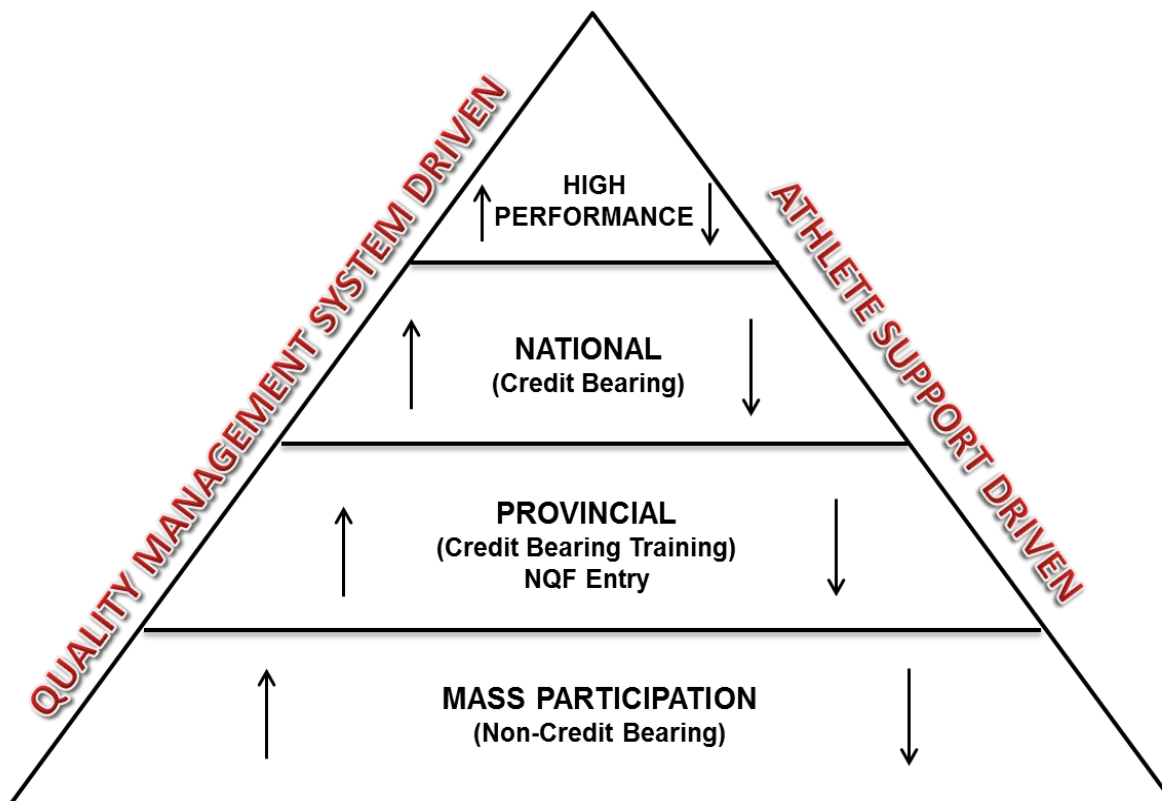
Figure 6: Sport development continuum

2.6 SYNOPSIS

In this chapter, attention was paid to school sport in the South African education system. More specifically, to find solutions to the stated problems (cf. par. 1.3, p. 12) and to delineate the focus of the research, (cf. par. 1.3, p. 12), a societal perspective of school sport was presented. Firstly, nature of the school with regards to the educational system under apartheid, changes since apartheid and the relationship between sport and education was discussed to provide the reader with an understanding of the role of schools in society (cf. par. 2.2, p. 26; Fig. 2, p. 36). Secondly, the historical development (longitudinal) of sport and other means of physical participation (cf. par. 2.3.1, p. 37) was explored and described from the literature; this was followed by an analysis of sport and physical education in a sociological context (cf. par. 2.3.2, p. 38).

Thereafter, the management of school sport was analysed through a social and development perspective – by using social theories as instruments to better understand the phenomenon of school sport management (cf. par. 2.3.3, p. 45); after which a summary of the five theories was offered (cf. Table 1, p. 68). A phenomenological view of sport, with the accompanying perspectives

(management, recreation, education and fitness)[44] as they appear in society, opened up the possibility for a discussion of school sport in view of the integrated perspective (cf. par. 2.3.3.6, p. 67), in combination with the functional, conflict, critical, symbolic interactionist and figurative theories utilising the phenomenological method to explore issues, such as manipulation, institutionalisation, professionalisation, segmentation, demystification, commercialisation and privatisation in school sport. These trends have brought about and will bring about sport medical and sport medical emergency occupational careers (fields). Then, various sectors of the sport industry (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98) were described contextually and universally wherefrom the role, place and value of school sport in the sport industry as a whole, but more importantly, in relation to the current study, in the sport education sector (cf. par. 2.5, p. 98; Fig. 3, p. 101), were also described contextually and universally.

In summary, the focus of Chapter Three has been the contextualisation of school sport. In so doing a theoretical framework for trends in school sport and societal trends was presented; and the role of school sport and the school sport manager in the sport education sector was described. In Figure 7 below (cf. p. 113) an integrated societal perspective of school sport is presented.
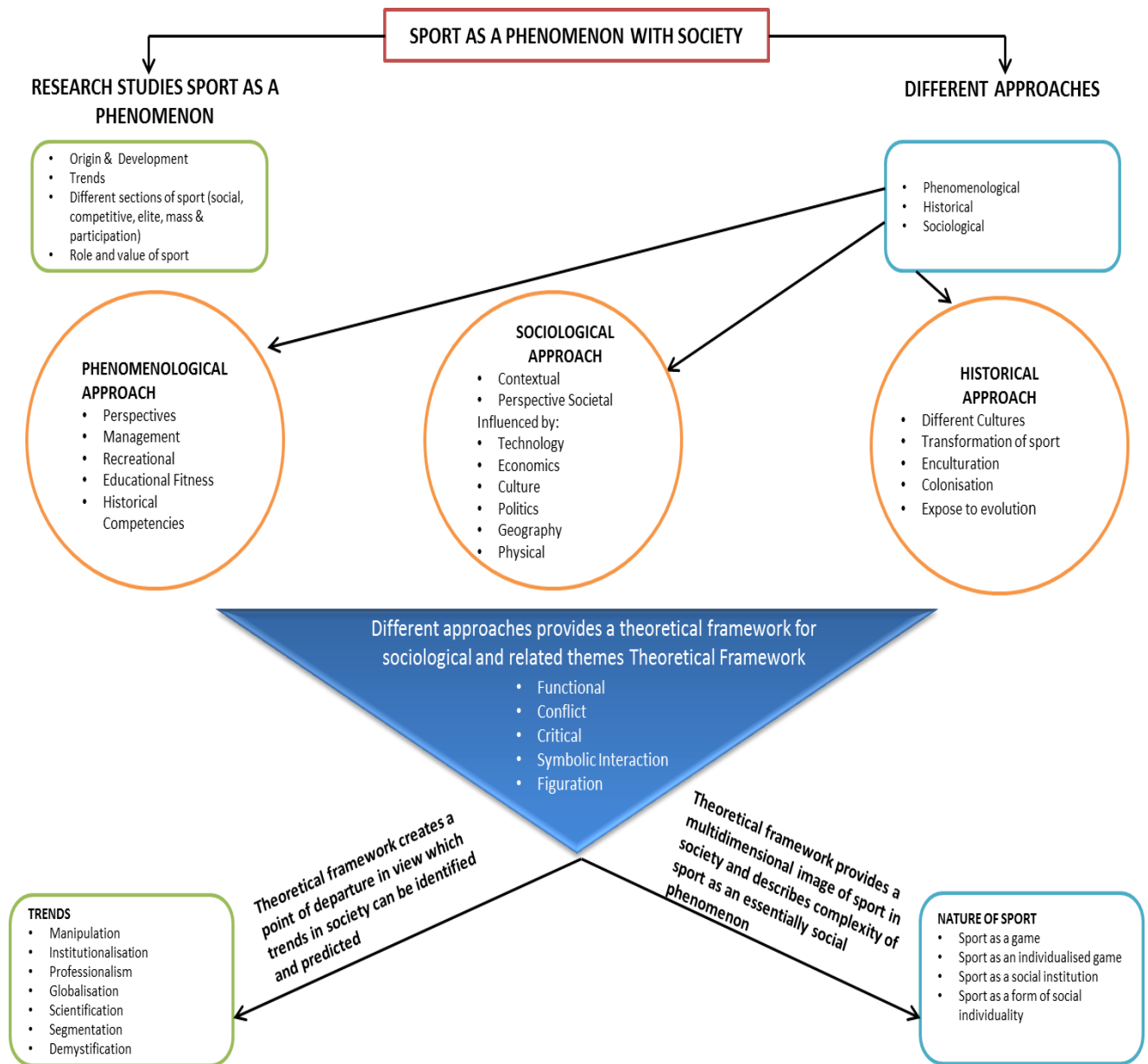
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[44]Cf. par. 2.3, p. 37

Figure 7: A societal perspective of sport: The South African view

The ensuing chapters will comprehensively explore and investigate the research problem, research questions and related aims, in order to develop a school sport management programme for educator training, in accordance with the diverse needs of South African schools. Subsequently, Chapter Three will probe the issue of sport management training for educators.