

**MANAGEMENT OF COMPETITIVE SPORT AT
HISTORICALLY DISADVANTAGED
UNIVERSITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA**

BY

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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted to the University of the North for the degree of Masters in Development (Development Studies) has not previously been submitted by me for degree at this or any other University, that this is my own work in design and in execution, and that all material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Philemon Kgaudi Matlala", written in black ink. The signature is positioned above a horizontal dotted line.

PHILEMON KGAUDI MATLALA

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Afrikaners took control of South Africa in 1948 from British colonialists. The British invaded and seized land belonging to King Krela of the Gcaleka people, and confiscated 37 000 herd of cattle, 14 000 goats and a few horses. Krela's headquarters were burnt down and a further 10 000 herd of cattle taken. The land that was not seized through warfare, was taken through legislation as a result of the most notorious Native Land Act of 1913. Africans lost most of the land they owned previously, and had to live on farms now owned by Whites with rental placed as a price tag. Africans held land on a leasehold basis, popularly known as farming-on-the-half. This meant an agreement between a White and an African farmer whereby the harvested crops are shared in half with the White-owner farmer (Qunta; 1995: 7). This agreement would legalise the African farmer to live on the land and graze his livestock. The African farmer lived on some economic independence, thus resulting in him seeking employment on the mines or in the developing industries. The Native Land Act of 1913 was to reserve 13% of the land for Africans and leave the rest for Whites. The land left or reserved for Africans was barren and unproductive in areas that later became known as the "bantustans" (Qunta; 1995:8).

The National Party excluded Africans from the mainstream of the economy thus enriching themselves with all resources namely land, agriculture, mines and industries. The British colonialists legislated atrocious Acts that discriminated against Africans to the maximum degree. Some of the Acts were the - Vagrancy Act of 1809; The Glen Act of 1856; The Native Labour Regulation Act of 1911; Mines and works Acts of 1911; The Apprenticeship of 1922 amended in 1944; The Factories Act of 1941; and The Urban Areas Act of 1945. All the Acts listed above were inherited by the Afrikaner Government under the National Party in 1948. Some of the Acts were amended to make them more difficult and tougher for an African to survive, thus forcing him to be more dependent (Qunta; 1995:9-13). The Afrikaners also enacted laws to oppress Africans, namely, The 1951 Native Building Workers Act & Bantu Labour Act of 1964 (Qunta; 1995:11 & 13).

The discrimination and oppression continued to thrive till at the end of 2 February 1990 (Gouws; 1997:187), when the ex-President F W de Klerk unbanned all liberation movements and released all political prisoners. Congress of Democratic South Africa (CODESA) was formed to negotiate a unified South Africa for all. This process of negotiation led to the first democratic elections on 26-28 April 1994, followed by the second elections in 2 June 1999.

Between 1994 and 2000, many achievements were attained by South African athletes on national and international fronts. The unity achieved in sporting circles by various national federations had started to bear fruits (TSCC - Minutes 20/11/91 and SASSU : Business Plan for 2000 30/09/1999).

Sport in South Africa was characterised by division and discrimination based on colour. This discrimination was detrimental to the dispersed or segregated races on social fronts. Racial discrimination termed "apartheid" in sport affected all sporting sectors of South Africa, including sport in education. The discrimination in sport resulted in uneven distribution of resources, facilities and opportunities. This also resulted in the majority of the discriminated South African citizens including students at universities being marginalised.

Politics played a major role in sport in South Africa, dating back from 1968, at the helm of "apartheid". Mr B J Vorster as Prime Minister, denied Basil D' Oliviera (Coloured from Cape Town) to replace Tom Cartwright, both of England, in touring South Africa (Laubscher; 1987:8). B.J. Vorster denounced the squad as not being the team of the Midland Cricket Council (MCC), but the team of the Anti-Apartheid Movement, namely, the South African Non-Racial Olympic Committee (SANROC). Due to these accusations, the tour was called off. In 1970, the MCC announced a projected tour by the South African cricket team, but was met with a "Stop the Seventy Tour" campaign and a series of disruptions of the Springboks rugby tour of the UK. The campaigns and disruptions were more of a reminder of what would happen to any attempted cricket tour by the South Africans. South Africa made a declaration of its sports policy a decade before Basil D' Oliviera saga i.e. in 1956 which supported the "apartheid" policy. The segregation clause was entrenched in the South African constitution of 1948 by the Afrikaners, thereby encouraging pass laws and police brutality (Cashmore; 1990: 163 & 164).

The extension of the University Education Act of 1959, made provision for the establishment of racially exclusive universities for Black South Africans. Under this Act,

the following universities emerged: University College of the North, University College of Zululand, University College of the Western Cape, and University College of Durban Westville. Before the establishment of the Act for the establishment of these four Universities, the South African Native College (later renamed University of Fort Hare) was the only existing Higher Education institution established exclusively for Black South Africans, dating back from 1916 (Calender; 1986:6).

An attempt by Blacks (Africans) to challenge the government, resulted in the massacre at Sharpeville in 1960. In the Sharpeville massacre on 23 March 1960, 69 Blacks were killed and 180 seriously wounded. This incident was signalled as the first organised Black resistance to a White minority rule in South Africa. The Pan-African Congress (PAC) asked Blacks to leave their pass books at home and march to the police stations in defiance of carrying them, so as to be addressed. Some Blacks acceded to this message voluntarily, but refused to disperse when ordered to do so by the police, who ultimately opened fire. This incident triggered nation-wide demonstrations and campaigns against the pass laws and other discriminatory laws. The government subsequently arrested the leaders of the PAC and the other main Black organisations like the African National Congress (ANC), thus resulting in both movements being banned (Cashmore; 1990:165). SANROC was launched in 1962 with an intention to apply for recognition from the International Olympic Committee (IOC) thereby replacing the only Whites Olympic and National Games Association. The government banned SANROC before the 1964 Olympic Games in Tokyo. The IOC charter forbids racial discrimination on the basis of colour, thereby demanding large concessions from South Africa before its entry could be approved. Some concessions were made in trials, but still the South African government insisted that sport complies with its customs, norms and values suitable for

its citizens and its populace. This resulted in South Africa being completely thrown out of the Olympic Movement. The pressure to isolate South Africa intensified at the 1968 Mexico Olympics, when the IOC received a threat to boycott from 50 member countries, as well as protests from the Black members of the American team, thus forcing the IOC to ban South Africa permanently - until it rectified and changed its status quo (Cashmore; 1990:166).

The British Rugby Union, as an ex colonialist of South Africa, retained sporting ties with the Springboks from 1969 to 1970. All these tours were marred by serious disruptions and mass demonstrations (Cashmore; 1990:166). More and more South African teams were expelled from the IOC; eliminated from the Davis Cup, and gymnastics. The IOC officially terminated South African membership in 1970 and the South African National Olympic Committee (SANOC) was to work towards South Africa's readmission to the Olympic Games. In 1990 SANOC received 42 affiliated national sports bodies, some of which represented non-Olympic sports (Gouws; 1997:187).

SANOC, National Olympic Sports Congress (NOSC) and SANROC established one single Olympic movement for South African sport in 1990. SANOC was unconditionally devoured by the NOSC/ANC alliance in a newly-established South African Olympic movement in 1992. The establishment of the Confederation of South African Sport (COSAS) in 1988, was the result of a government supported inquiry into the rationalisation of macro-sport in South Africa. By 1990, COSAS managed to acquire 130 sport federations affiliated to it. The NOSC in its initial launch in July 1989, linked sport to the freedom struggle, and the destruction of apartheid was set as a prerequisite for normalization of sport in South Africa (Gouws; 1997:188).

After the IOC announced the termination of the South African membership in 1970, the then ex Prime Minister of South Africa, Advocate B J Vorster, took an action in 1971, due to the fact that sport was his highest passion. He initiated and allowed a multinational sports programme including Whites, Africans, Coloureds and Asians to compete against each other as nations, but only in international competitions. This system allowed Black sports performers to compete, provided they were affiliated to one of the government's "National federations". The system divided Blacks on two folds - the first was wishing to compete felt compelled to affiliate and the second group rejected the racist division, thereby refusing to affiliate. Due to international pressure, the government of South Africa had no choice, acceding to competitions and tournaments between "nations" (including Whites, Africans, Coloureds and Asians), and later moved to club-level competitions between "nations" (Cashmore; 1990:167).

The South African government used the strategy on sports performers and teams visiting the country to "respect South Africa's customs as she respected theirs. Amongst others, the White minority population argued that Blacks have no "aptitude" for sport and the alleged potential for conflict in "mixed" teams and crowds of spectators may cause serious problems. Furthermore, the Blacks who constituted over 70 percent of the South African total population, were barred from entering a new rugby stadium in Bloemfontein in 1955. After Bishop Trevor Huddleston, a member of the anti-apartheid movement, observed that sport is a soft target to weaken the South African apartheid system, he started organizing international campaigns against South African in cricket and rugby touring teams. Bishop Trevor Huddleston believed that denying South Africa

the opportunity to demonstrate its excellence and prowess would put it in his *Naught for Your Comfort*, "shake its self-assurance very severely" (Cashmore; 1990:165).

Intensification by the resistance movement in South Africa erupted again on 16 June 1976, as Soweto upheavals, driven by students who were against the enforcement of the Afrikaans language as a medium of instruction in content subjects. The introduction of Afrikaans was in line with the policy of the Bantu Education Act of 1953, which was designed to reinforce passive acceptance among the Blacks of perpetual servitude in a racist capitalist society ... it was the youth who not only redefined their own role in society, but articulated new visions of a post-apartheid society (McKay; 1993:102). The total number of people killed as a result of the conflict countrywide was officially recorded as 575 with 2 369 wounded. The Gleneagles Agreement in Scotland in 1977, which comprised Commonwealth countries - made a statement of "discouraging contact or competition by their nationals with sporting organisations, teams or sportsmen from South Africa or organised on the basis of race, colour and ethnic origin". The delegates further stated that the transgressors of the Gleneagles Agreement will be subjected to sanctions (Cashmore; 1990:167-168).

After Frank Waring, Dr PGJ Koornhof was appointed as the second South African Minister of Sport. During his term of office in the 1970s, his government approved awarding Springbok colours to all deserving population groups (Gouws; 1997:186). Pressure groups refused to accede to the request of the sporting community, appealing to the government for a policy of sport autonomy. Allowing sport autonomy, would have meant immediate termination of sport isolation, thus leaving apartheid to thrive as before. The argument raised by pressure groups (NOSC, SANROC, COSAS, SACOS and COSATU) was that sport could not isolate itself from the politics of the country, and that only the abolition of apartheid would ensure unhindered international participation for all

deserving South African sportpersons (Gouws; 1997:187).

When the first Minister of Sport and Recreation, in the “New” South Africa, namely, Mr Steve Tshwete presented his speech to the National Assembly of the South African government on 6 May 1996 - he emphasised his department’s commitment to legislate sports related matters in order to:

- allow sports federations to enjoy autonomy in order to cater for the needs of their members
- let government ensure that the environment in which sport and recreation are practised was conducive to the promotion of such activities (Biennial General Meeting - Unitra: - Umtata, 6/07/1996:63)

Under the Sports programmes with the Department of Sport and Recreation which are not catered for by any of the macro bodies and national federations, are, amongst others, women in sport, rural sport, Sports Development Foundations, school, and tertiary sport. The Minister acknowledged that the United School Sport Association of South Africa (USSASA) and the South African Student Sports Union (SASSU) were not catered for financially (Biennial General Meeting - Unitra: Umtata, 6/07/1996:67, 69-71).

All the above endeavours led by the African National Congress who were in government, were seeking to fast track the imbalances created by the apartheid system since 1948 until its end in March 1994. The fast tracking in problem-solving was far from levelling the playing field between Black and White citizens of South Africa. The African Black communities are still not at a level of their White counterparts in performances and management of sport, despite the fact that Whites are minorities in South Africa. The

Blacks (Africans, Coloureds and Indians) are in the majority, but are not well represented in the national and international teams in accordance with the demographics of the population due to the lack of basic coaching at an earlier ages in certain codes that demands certain skills namely, tennis, gymnastics, swimming and athletics field events, especially the throws. This then, aggravates the problem on the basic needs to set the Blacks in a quick false start in order to catch-up with their counterparts, but the lack of facilities, coaches, administrators, finance, technical officials (referees), effective women participation, and the lack of participation by the disabled or handicapped (differently abled) population, frustrate all the good endeavours of governments, multinational corporations and the general populace.

The Cocoyoc Declaration in Mexico in 1974 indicated some basic needs which were rooted in the socio-economic structure. The lack of these basic needs (namely food, shelter, water, security, health services, jobs, education, a clean environment and land) will have a negative impact on the development of sport, whereas the converse will bring much more satisfying patriotism to the South African populace (Bartelmus; 1986: 12 - 13).

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) addresses itself to the "Meeting of Basic Needs" for the South African populace (RDP : White Paper - 1994, 6). The RDP furthermore emphasised the importance of "Developing Human Resources", with special reference to education and training, literacy, further education and skills, arts and culture, sport and recreation, and youth development (1994:6). Zoning in sport and recreation reflected that apartheid divided people in sport, and denied sporting and recreational facilities to the majority of South Africans. One other function of the RDP is to change

the status quo and legacies created by the apartheid system, while making facilities accessible and affordable to all. The RDPs focal point of growth in sport is focussed or concentrated on schools and communities (RDP; 1994:16).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Sport at Black Universities in South Africa, was highly influenced by the liberation movements, namely, the South African Students' Organisation (SASO), the Azanian People's Organisation (AZAPO), the Azanian Students' Organisation (AZASO), the Black Consciousness Movement, and the South African Council of Sport (SACOS) in the 1970s till 1984. The formation of the South African Black Interversity Council (SABIC) in the 1970s, was through fulfilling a need to interact in sporting levels. The following universities formed a core of SABIC, namely, Zululand (UNIZUL), Fort Hare (UFH), the North (UNIN), and Western Cape (UWC). During the reign of SABIC, all these universities formed an alliance with SACOS, thus adopting its policy. SACOS policy was adopted by all its allies of Sport Unions or All Sports Committees at Black universities in South Africa. These allies "pursue sport within the parameters of non-racialism and non-sexism". Furthermore, SACOS propagated the notion that there should be "no normal sport in an abnormal society or country". SASO and the Black Consciousness Movement were well entrenched in all the Black Universities.

McKay (1993:102) states that education in South Africa is a struggle; thereby reaffirming the 1976 June, Soweto upheavals as well as the tertiary students' fight against apartheid at South African Universities.

SABIC and SACOS also supported boycotts of touring "rebel" teams to South Africa, by demonstrating against them. SABIC died in 1984 due to the Committee of University Rectors (CUR) having taken a resolution not to fund it because of misappropriation of funds, accompanied by failure to submit an audited financial statement. The reasons behind the bad management in SABIC, was caused by exclusive student leadership without creating room for full-time staff members at the employ of the universities, instead they were regarded as associate members without voting status.

The Coordinating Sports Council of Universities and Technikons (COS CUT) emerged in 1985. COS CUT was founded on the principles of running intervarsities under the name of clinics supported by UNIZUL, UNIN, Unifort, Medunsa and Technikon Northern Transvaal (TNT), now called Technikon Northern Gauteng. In June 1987, COS CUT had its last clinic at UNIZUL.

In the late 1980s, the South African Tertiary Institutions Sports Association (SATISA) emerged followed by South African Tertiary Institutions Sport Council (SATISCO), and the South African Tertiary Institutions Sport Union (SATISU). All these associations were formed on the principles of non-racial policy, adhering to SANROC, SACOS and the Gleneagles Agreement. Contrary to the above, the White Universities all affiliated to the South African Universities (SAU), which started (with three universities competing in the Dalrympic Cup in Athletics) in 1962, under the Committee of University Principals (CUP). SAU was run professionally with a full-time Secretary who coordinated and promoted the affairs to the benefit of its members. Furthermore, SAU received sponsors due to its stability in management, which was accompanied by effectiveness, efficiency and accountability. Full-time members at the employ of the universities occupied executive positions at SAU and also in diverse clubs within their university.

The need to form one tertiary association arose in 1991, thus three meetings held under the auspices of the Tertiary Sports Commission (TSCC) at the then University of the Orange Free State on 8 August, 30 September and 13 November. This Commission was formed by two representatives from each structure, namely, the South African Colleges of Education, SATISU, the SAU Sports Council, the South African Technikons, and the South African Inter-College Sport Association (SAICSA). Amongst others, the Commission identified its main task as being, "to investigate issues on unity raised by the Tertiary Sports Conference and to set clear goals and objectives for a unified structure". TSCC identified principles on which unity should be based on non-racialism, democracy and non-sexism. Furthermore, TSCC identified as its "core" to assist less developed people in skills, management, coaching, finance (budgets) as well as facilities (TSCC: Minutes 20/11/91).

The South African Student Sports Union (SASSU) was promulgated on 16 April 1994 at the University of Port Elizabeth after four years of intense negotiations in order to achieve a unified non-racial student sports structure in South Africa. The White Paper on Sport and Recreation approved by Cabinet, published by the National Department of Sport and Recreation on 27 May 1998, confirmed and recognised SASSU as a coordinating body for the organisation of sport at tertiary education level (SASSU - Business Plan for 2000 : 30/09/1999).

All three types of institutions, namely, Colleges, Technikons and Universities were represented under one constitution after unity was achieved. In 1993, South Africa was represented at the World Student Games (Universiade) in Buffalo, New York, a year before SASSU was officially promulgated. Since 1993, SASSU had sent official teams to the World Student Games in Fukuoka - Japan in 1995; Sicilia - Italy in 1997; and

Palma Mallorca - Spain in 1999. SASSU is also affiliated to the Confederation of Universities and Colleges of Southern Africa (CUCSA) Sports Association and started taking part in 1996, Blantyre -Malawi; Harare - Zimbabwe in 1997; Johannesburg - South Africa, 1998; Zomba - Zambia in 1999, and Maputo - Mozambique in 2000. All these teams were fully representative and reflected the demographics of the South African student populace.

The impact caused by the delay of pulling the historically disadvantaged universities into the mainstream of sport, will be looked into critically. Management structures at Black universities will be analysed on the basis of philosophy (Sport policy), composition of clubs as well as competitive sport versus recreational activities.

Based on the foregoing, the problems of this study are outlined as follows: the impact of economics and politics on University Sport, the influence of Physical Education on sport development in primary and high schools, the role played by the All Sports Committee (Students), the impact brought by readmission to International University Sports Federation (FISU) and CUCSA in international sport and the role played by fundamental and universal elements of management of sport. This research will be guided by the following questions:

- How has the management of sport at HDUs changed since unity was achieved?
- How did the post-unity in sport management at HDUs impact on students' (sportpersons) participation and performances in sport?

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 SPORT ACTIVITIES

2.1.1 Introduction

A narrow sense of sport will be used to avoid controversial and contrasting meanings. Sport activities involve physical activities, physical skill, physical powers or physical exertion (power) when engaging in it. To narrow the meaning more for the purpose of this research, sport activities are characterised by some form of competition under formal and organised conditions that are institutionalised (Coakley; 1994:13-15).

Institutionalisation is characterised by a patterned or standardised set of behaviours maintained over a period and from one situation to another. Institutionalisation elements recognises the rules of the activity being standardized, rule enforcement is taken over by official regulatory agencies, the organisational and technical aspects of the activity become important and the learning of game skills formalised. Institutionalisation of sport activities are complimented by sponsorships due to attendance of spectators (Coakley; 1994:15-18).

2.1.2 What is sport?

Gouws (1997) shares different meanings of sport from other authors but for the purpose of this study, the researcher will restrict the definitions of sport to those proposed by Snyder and Spreitzer, Spears and Swanson, and Ramsamy in Gouws. Snyder and Spreitzer in Gouws (1997) define sport as:

"... a human activity that involves specific administrative organisation and the historical background of rules which

define the objective and limit the pattern of human behaviour; it involves competition and challenge and define outcome primarily determined by physical skill".

Spears and Swanson in LeUnes and Nation in Gouws (1997) define sport as:

"... the activities involving powers and skill, competition, strategy engaged in for the enjoyment and satisfaction of the participant and/or others. This definition includes both organised sport for recreational purposes. It clearly includes the component of sport as entertainment, which encompasses professional sport".

Sam Ramsamy in Gouws (1997) refers to various perceptions of sport observed with administrators as:

"Sport is competitive by nature and is based on the natural tendency of man to compete with himself, others and nature. By practising sport, man is pursuing excellence, because sport tests the perseverance of every participant".

Gouws (1997:257) emphasises that sport is also characterised by specific genetic and experience factors, whereby participants will display certain hereditary traits and would have undergone certain exercise programmes. According to Gouws, sport activities are performed in terms of certain accepted standards and rules either individually or in a team against each other, and sometimes a system of points is used to indicate the winner.

2.1.3 Summary

Having analysed the above definitions and explanations about sport, an attempt has been made to explain it in accordance with this research to avoid contradictions and ambiguous meanings. For this research, the following narrow definition will be adopted, sport is a physical activity in which power is exerted by participants through using prowess (skills and expertise) in order to gain advantage by competing against oneself or one-on-one or in a team/group, using physical prowess and is governed by formal and organised institutionalised rules for standardisation in order to promote fairness and enjoyment.

2.2 RECREATION ACTIVITIES

2.2.1 Introduction

It is true that defining recreation is not very easy, since the concept is complex to understand. Many writers have attempted to do so, but instead came up with alarming meanings or definitions, a fact which cannot be escaped or ignored. Several theories of recreation exist. Most of them embrace a large number of interrelating elements, such as need-serving, satisfying, associated with activity and of value to society (Torkildsen; 1993:65).

2.2.2 What is recreation?

According to Slarson, in Torkildsen (1993), recreation is described as a need-serving experience by an individual who seeks to satisfy some inner need. Torkildsen, further quoted Jack (1993:65) that breaking the word as re-creation, gives a meaning of

repairing something that was damaged in human beings, the repair of human damage where it is repairable and the prevention of it in the rising generation. Torkildsen; (1993:66-67) used the Sport Council's report for describing recreation as the purposeful use of leisure time. Furthermore, Torkildsen uses Meyer and Brightbill's description of recreation as containing the characteristics of contributing to fulfilling human needs, namely, action, variety of form, motivation towards enjoyment, engagement during leisure, voluntary participation, universality, purposefulness, flexibility and creation of by-products. Butler assumes a similar view on recreation in that he sees recreation as a force influencing people's lives, and as a system of services which provide "wholesome" experience, to counteract disruptive social influences.

Gouws (1997:254) shares different meanings of recreation from other authors namely Butter, Botha, Scholtz, Zucker, and Krause.

Butter in Gouws (1997) gives an extensive definition of recreation as:

“It may be considered as any activity which is not conscientiously performed for the sake of reward beyond itself, which is usually engaged in during leisure, which offers a main outlet for his (the individual's) physical, mental and creative powers, in which he engages because of inner desire and not because of outer compulsion”.

Botha in Gouws (1997) points out that recreation can take place in various ways, and he distinguishes between physical recreation, which mainly comprises sport and games; community recreation, which is related to socially organized recreation; public recreation, where the public pays for the facilities used; voluntary recreation; commercial recreation

where the purpose is to make a profit; and industrial recreation organized within an enterprise.

Scholtz in Gouws (1997) points out that leisure time activities, recreation and relaxation should be regarded as synonyms. He, included inter alia, with recreation, activities such as sports, games, music, dancing, drama, outdoor activities, social programmes, arts and crafts, reading and writing, pleasure drives and biking.

Zucker in Gouws (1997) defines recreation as:

“Any activity pursued during leisure, either individual or collective, that is free and pleasurable, having its own immediate appeal, not impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity. Recreation includes play, games, sport, athletics, relaxation, pastimes, certain amusement, art forms, and hobbies.

Krause in Gouws (1997) defines recreation as:

“... activities or experiences carried on within leisure, usually chosen voluntarily by the participant - either because of satisfaction, pleasure or creative enrichment derived, or because of certain personal or social values to be gained”.

Neumeyer et. al (1949:22) explains recreation as:

“Any activity pursued during leisure, either individual or collective, that is free and pleasurable, having its own immediate appeal, not impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity. Recreation includes

play, games, sports, athletics, relaxation, pastimes, certain amusements, art forms, hobbies, and avocations. A recreational activity may be engaged in during any age period of the individual, the particular action being determined by the time element, the condition and attitude of the person, and the environmental situation”.

2.2.3 Summary

Having considered the above definitions, one is tempted to use the following as an explanation of recreation - that it is need-serving, purposeful engagement done voluntarily, with enjoyment in order to repair human damage.

2.3 HISTORICALLY DISADVANTAGED UNIVERSITIES (HDU'S) IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.3.1 University Education Act

The National Party established the University Education Act (Act No. 45 of 1959) as a further entrenchment of the apartheid system in exclusively Black South African communities. Under this Act, the following universities emerged as satellites for the exclusive White institutions, namely, University College of Zululand, North, Western Cape and Durban-Westville. As early as 1916, the South African College (later renamed University of Fort Hare) was the only existing Higher Education established exclusively for Black South Africans (UNIN Calender, 1986:6).

All state supported institutions, including universities, were considered as part of the extension of the apartheid system. White academics in South Africa became guilty by participating in racial privilege reluctance. Black students at their universities organised resistance activities in the 1980s and that raised serious problems among White South Africans. The dilemma is that the progressive academics supported the struggle against apartheid while internationally all Whites were regarded as upholders of apartheid (Berger et al; 1988:109).

The Cocoyoc Declaration in Mexico in 1974 agreed on basic needs, and further noted that rooted in the socio-economic structure. The common denominator prevalent among the South African HDU's was that they all lacked basic facilities. These basic needs facilities missing at HDU's ranged from facilities, equipment and, personnel (coaches, administrators and technical officials) to economics (budget).

The RDP document also identified basic needs by specifically addressing sports and recreation, and reflected that apartheid divided people in sport, and denied the majority of South Africans access to sporting and recreational facilities. This document identified schools and communities as focal points for further growth in sport (RDP, 1994:16).

2.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING SPORT MANAGEMENT AT HDU'S

There are major and minor factors that influenced sport at HDU's, either positively or negatively. These factors are identified as follows: politics in sport, economics in sport, national and international federations, creation of role models, and the role played by the media.

2.4.1 Politics and sport

Peter Ueberroth, former President of the Los Angeles Olympic Organizing Committee in 1984 was quoted as saying "we now have to face the reality that the Olympics constitute not only an athletic event, but a political event" (Coakley; 1994: 358). Charles Barkley, a member of the USA Basketball (dream team) to the 1992 Olympic Games to Barcelona, was quoted as saying "I know why we're here. We're here to spread basketball internationally and make more money for somebody ... We're going to win the gold medal, but there won't be any life changing decisions made because of it ... poor people will still be poor and racism and sexism will still exist ..." (Coakley; 1994: 358). John MacAloon, a cultural anthropologist, in 1984, was quoted as saying "if the images of shared humanity generated by the (Olympic) Games ignore the structural realities that separate (human beings) from one another ... then the spectacle has made us victims of the most dangerous illusions (Coakley; 1994:358).

Organised competitive sport is closely connected to politics and political organisations. Societies have become more complex, and relationships within societies have also become more interdependent, and government more involved in many spheres of social life. There is a close relationship between sport and government and the general relationship between sport and politics. Notable factors on sport and politics are:

- governments involvement in sponsorship and control of sport.
- political consequences of international sport events like the Olympic Games and the role towards unity and peace.
- political consequences of the globalisation of certain sport and forms.
- politics occur within sport and sport organisations (Coakley; 1994:359).

In the case of South Africa the Minister of Domestic Affairs, Dr T.E. Donges, in 1956 issued a statement that Whites and Non-Whites had to practise sport separately. In his first official statement on South African sport, the Minister's viewpoint was explained as follows:

"... The Whites and Non-Whites groups must organise their sport separately and also under separate control bodies. Although Non-Whites will be allowed to attend sport meetings at facilities where separate amenities are unavailable, the public opinion at the moment is not in favour of sport competition between Whites and Non-Whites and mixed sport teams are not approved of (Gouws; 1997:184-185).

The Ex-Prime Minister, John Vorster, realised the harmful impact that the international sport boycott had on South Africa, therefore declared in public that he would try his best to maintain traditional sport ties with foreign countries. This failed due to demonstrations, added pressure on the UK team touring South Africa (Gouws; 1997:185). After the IOC announced the termination of the South African membership in 1970, the ex-Prime Minister, John Vorster, took action in 1971, due to the fact that sport was his highest passion. He initiated and allowed a multinational sport programme, including Whites, Africans, Coloureds and Asians to compete against each other as nations, but only in international competitions. This action by Mr B.J. Vorster, led to the establishment of the Herstigste Nationale Party (Cashmore; 1990:167-168).

Several questions are asked around whether sport can be used to bring about real political transformation around the world. The isolation and boycott of South Africa did make an important contribution in assisting to break apartheid (Cashmore; 1990:377).

The reign of the National Party collapsed due to pressure from internal and external groups, necessitated by banning South Africa from taking part at the Olympics as well as in cricket and rugby touring teams.

2.4.2 Economics and sport

Sport is characterised by economics to the extent, that without it, its future is terribly threatened. Philippe Charrier, President of the International Tennis Federation (1990) is quoted as saying "money is killing our game The motivation for true greatness is gone for most players by the time they are eighteen. They win a couple of matches as juniors and they are millionaires ... Now you don't have to win, you just have an act". The market economics and material rewards benefit athletes, owners of teams or sponsors and those who promote events. Large concentrations of potential spectators contribute to the growth of commercial sports. Commercial sport is regarded as a luxury. Commercial sport ends up serving the interests of the owners, public or a combination of both. This factor gives rise to social stratification (Coakley;1994:303).

The marketing personnel expects short-term financial results. Gouws (1997) used McCormack's thoughts that "... knowing what business you are really in and understanding the underlying perceptions that can connect your product to the people it is being marketed to" (Gouws; 1997:223). According to Cashmore (1990:79-80) sport has been regarded as a channel towards a better life for Blacks in the USA, UK and Europe. Good examples are Mike Tyson, Florence Griffith Joyner and John Barnes, who received international stardom, as well as big earnings. It is also accepted that sport has led a few thousand Blacks/African Americans out of the ghetto life. Black performers

have made sacrifices in order to survive.

Racism and racial discrimination have worked to exclude Blacks from many areas of employment thereby restricting their opportunities towards been marginalised. Due to this impasse, Blacks had to seek alternative employment in order to have something to stick to. This resulted in Sugar Ray Leonard making ring earnings of approximately \$60 million. In the UK and USA, many Blacks were systematically squeezed out of education and employment opportunities due to racism. This situation was caused by European colonial expansion in the West Indies, and the expansion of trade in slaves, gold, and sugar between Africa, the Americans and Britain. Slavery means that Whites maintained their domination over Blacks and kept a rigid inequality. Sport to Blacks was regarded as the only manner in which they could maximize their prowess. Blacks still approach sport with vigour and commitment, because racism has effectively closed off other means of survival. This has necessitated preparation for Blacks to have a good transition from school to work thus making sport their career of first choice (Cashmore; 1990:89-90).

Sugden (1993:208) classified professional boxing as subterranean, located in the pocket of urban poverty, and largely unexposed to the public gage. Boxing as sport, is not embedded in the school system unlike other professional sports. Young ghetto boxers are being exploited under the amateur status and the gradual manner through which fighters are encouraged to grow into the occupational role of the boxer by a manager. The boxers mature through adolescence and become aware of a world at the professional level, as a means of removing them from urban poverty with a hope of a better future. Only a few

achieve the top ranks of professionalism but a lot fail and get frustrated without gloves, education and without jobs, thereby falling back into the same poverty that they were trying to avoid.

Schaller (1990:39-40) used the findings of Boshoff that income does play a serious role in the choice of sport to be played between 20-29 years amongst Whites. In the case of Whites, the middle and high income play rugby just as the low income. Tennis and golf are played by only the highest income comes, while soccer has no bearing on incomes, especially for school-going boys. The rackets games are all dominated by the high income groups, while basketball has no bearing on income levels of groups. Hockey and athletics (track and field) are played by middle class income groups.

Boshoff in Schaller (1990) states that Coloureds from high income corners, plays soccer and hockey, in contrast to Whites. Boshoff attaches the low income life patterns of Coloureds as the cause for the choice of their sport.

Boshoff in Schaller (1990) argues that the involvement of Blacks in sport is to a large extent influenced by income levels. According to Boshoff future participation patterns are likely to be influenced by income levels. The highest income group is dominating rugby and tennis, while the middle and non-income groups prefer athletics, boxing, soccer, wrestling and karate. From Boshoff's results, it appears that income does play a role in the participation patterns of an individual. Income levels is also a determining factor in the choice of recreational activities in which a person would wish to be involved.

The above research refers to society, but become important and relevant due to the fact

The above research refers to society, but become important and relevant due to the fact that universities are a part of society and they are thus influenced to a large extent by income levels of parents and guardians. Universities cannot function in isolation of the societies where they are placed. Since there has not been research previously done on this topic locally, it is hoped that the findings will make a significant contribution to this field.

2.4.3 National and International Federations

HDUs in South Africa, to a large extent, had links by forming alliances with progressive movements like SACOS and SASO, in order to further the interests of transforming the South African society. SASSU's formation and promulgation in April 1994 through achieving unity by all tertiary bodies in South Africa, opened the channel for national and international participation (SASSU - Business Plan for 2000 - 30/09/1999). SASSU is also an ex-officio member of all national and provincial federations in South Africa, thus making development of sport at tertiary level to have a support base.

The potential impact (Coakley; 1994:368-369) of sport on international relations has been summarised more clearly by Alan Reich, a former US State Department official:

- Sport opens doors to societies and key leaders.
- Sport provides an example of friendly competition between nations.
- Sport enhances understanding of another nation's values and cultures, but is often absent in many forms of international communication.
- Sport can help to improve perceptions of other peoples, and close the gap between myth and reality.

- Sport organisations communicate continuously with other countries across national boundaries.

2.4.4 Creation of role models

Sport performers are role models for the young as well as tertiary sportpersons, and it is important that sportpersons avoid using drugs to enhance their performances. The up and coming sportpersons may also try to emulate their role models by also engaging in drugs. The competitors on a national and international front are pushed by greed for money and “winning at all cost” (Cashmore; 1990:128-129).

2.4.5 Role played by the media

Sport and the media have become inter-connected parts of our lives. Sport programming has become an important segment of media content and many sports have become dependent on the media for publicity, revenue, and sponsorship. The media perform three major functions in society, such as, inform the society about events and people, interpret events in the world, and entertain the society in various ways (Coakley; 1994:331).

Coakley (1994:330) uses a quote from Michael Real in SUPER MEDIA:

"Media today saturate our daily lives ... (they serve) as the central nervous system of modern society ... Popular media today operate on a scale of inclusiveness, unimaginable in earlier generations ... (They create) the environment where identities are formed".

Sport does not depend on the media to take place and to survive, but the success of sport as a commercial entertainment does depend on the media. People, including students, played sport long before the introduction of newspapers and television. People are still participating in a variety of sports without receiving media coverage. Commercial sport depends highly on media coverage in order to acquire mileage.

CHAPTER 3

MANAGEMENT OF SPORT

3.1 GENERAL MANAGEMENT

3.1.1 Introduction

Management is primarily, concerned with people in organisations and with human resources. Three widely respected early theorists are associated with management, namely, Henri Fayol, Ralph C. Davis and Chester Barnard. Fayol and Barnard wrote from their experiences as chief executives of corporations, the former with a major mining firm in France, and the latter with the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company in the United States. Davis, a professor at Ohio State University throughout much of his career, developed his ideas from experience in industry. The recent writers also drew their conclusions primarily from theory and research in the field, rather than from personal executive experience. Recent writers, namely, Harold Koontz, Cyril O' Donnell and Heinz Wehrich (1980); William Newman, Kirby Warren & Jerome Schnee (1982); Dalton McFarland (1979); and Theo Haimann, William Scott and Patrick Connor (1982) identified the elements or functions of management (Miner et. al; 1985:4-5) .

3.1.2 What is management?

According to Gouws (1997:1) management is the process by which human, financial, physical and information sources are utilised in order to achieve enterprise objectives.

Cronje et. al (1994:73) define management as the process by which human, financial, physical and informational resources are employed for the attainment of the objectives of an organisation.

Stoner et. al (1995:7) consider management as the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the work of using all available organizational resources to reach stated organizational goals. Management is the practice of consciously and continually shaping organizations by utilizing human resources to attain or achieve goals.

Torkildsen (1992:256) regards management as the sum of art and science that makes a manager. Management situations vary, and are concerned with change, continually flowing and interacting (1992:257). Torkildsen regards management as being made possible by the manager through his planning, vision, setting objectives, motivating, leading, deciding, checking and monitoring performances.

Greenwood (1965:34) explains management as a process of getting things done through and with people operating in organised groups. It aims at analysing the process, to establish a conceptual framework for it, to identify principles underlying it, and to build up a theory of management from them.

Miner et. al (1985:4) explains the field of management as dealing with organizations; how people behave in them, how they are designed, and how they function. It is concerned with organizations primarily and human resources. In spite of the fact that historically, management has extended into areas of production and manufacturing, the predominant thrust remains that it is the study of people and their actions in an organisation.

Wehrich et. al (1993:4) define management as the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish selected aims.

McFarland (1979:5) views management as the fundamental integrating process designed to achieve organized, and purposeful results. Management is defined as the process by which managers create, direct, maintain, and operate purposive organizations through coordinated, and cooperative human effort.

Longenecker et. al (1984:4) define management as the process of acquiring and combining human, financial, and physical resources to attain the organization's primary goal of providing a product or service desired by some segment of society.

3.1.3 **Summary**

Early theorists have identified the elements of management arising from the extensive research that they made. Their researches identified the elements of management which are widely used in all organizations as planning, organizing, staffing, leading/ leadership /directing, and control. Henri Fayol is regarded as the founder of the elements of management, dating back from 1916, followed by Ralph Davis in 1934. The recent writers came in groups, except Dalton McFarland in 1979; Harold Koontz (1980), William Newman (1982), and the Theo Haimann School of thought (1982) are regarded as theorists.

Management is characterised by three levels as in top management, middle management first-line/low management. The size and type of an organization determines the structure

and levels of management. The number and size of human resources or staff will be determined by the goals and objectives of the organization. An effective and efficient management, compliment achievements of goals and objectives. The levels are systematically stratified in organizations to encourage and assist with better coordination, efficiency and effectiveness in performances.

From the above definitions and explanations, one is tempted to use the following ideas as an inclusive definition. Management is defined as a process whereby human, financial, physical, information resources are consciously coordinated in order to achieve stated or identified organizational objectives or goals.

3.2 Levels of Management

3.2.1 Introduction

Management requires leadership for direction on managerial position. Depending on the type and size of the particular business, many levels of management can be distinguished. The three most common management levels are - top management, middle management and first-line management (Kroon; 1996:18-19).

3.2.2 Different levels of management

Kroon and Gouws explain the three management levels as: Top management, middle management and first-line management / lower level management.

Top Management: Kroon (1996: 17) explains top management as consisting of the managing director or chief executive officer and a few executive managers who together make up the management committee. Top management is responsible for the management of the business as a whole and is appointed by the Board of Directors. Top management is responsible for the strategic management of the business. In this process of their function they develop a mission, strategy and goals.

According to Gouws (1997:6) top management consists of the board of directors, the executive manager and a few assistant or deputy executive managers who together form the management committee. Top management is responsible for the management of the enterprise as a whole. The executive manager serves as a link between the board of directors and the controlling body of the enterprise and managers. Top management is also responsible for the determination of the enterprise's direction of existence, mission and objectives, long-term planning, provides direction to the enterprise by means of the top leader and controls it by means of submitted reports.

Middle Management: Kroon (1996:19) regards middle management as responsible for the tactical management of the business functions or departments. Each manager must implement the goals and broad policy of the business through functional goals, objectives and policy and together with first-line management, draw up operational plans and programs.

According to Gouws (1997:6 - 7) middle management is responsible for the functions of departments, and all heads must ensure that the objectives of their functions or departments are achieved, and that the enterprise and functional policy laid down is applied. Middle management must implement policy of the enterprise by means of

functional objectives, subordinate policy and suitable schemes and programmes together with lower level management. They are concerned with medium-and long-term planning, organizing, directing and controlling, and make less important decisions within the guidelines set by top management.

Middle management must ensure that the functional or department goals are achieved and that the business and functional policies are applied.

First-line Management: Kroon (1996: 19 - 20) explains first-line management as responsible for the operational management of smaller sections or sub-departments of the business. It implements the objectives of middle management with the help of feasible, detailed operational plans and programmes and sees to it that the workers under its control perform their work satisfactorily. First-line management serves as a link between the workers and high levels of management and plays an important role in the daily performance, productivity, and, ultimately, the success of the business.

Gouws (1997:6-7) explains that management in directive positions in the enterprise is found in all departments and functions and at all levels of the enterprise. The size and type of enterprise, will determine a number of management levels required. Three levels of management are distinguished as top management, middle management and lower-level management.

Gouws (1997: 7) unlike Kroon, uses lower level management whereas Kroon uses first-line management. The two distinguished terms have a similar meaning as used by Kroon and Gouws. Gouws also called lower leadership responsible for smaller segments or subdivisions in the enterprise. They implement the objectives of middle management

with the aid of practicable detailed schemes and programmes, and ensure that the workers who are accountable to them, perform their work in a satisfactory manner.

Miner et. al (1985:6) distinguish three management jobs at different levels. The significance of his study shows a disproportionate large amount of the time to those holding management positions in organizations and having a number of levels from top to bottom. The proportion of primary planners on various levels are as follows: Top management - 28%, middle management - 18%, and lower-management - 15%.

Wehrich et. al (1993:5) made no basic distinction between managers, executives, administrators and supervisors. Tasks, duties and situations differ considerably among various levels in an organization or various types of enterprises. The scope of authority held may vary and the types of problems dealt with may be considerably different. Managers all obtain results by establishing an environment for effective group endeavour. All managers carry out managerial functions, but the time spent for each function may differ. Wehrich et. al (1993:5-6) distinguished three management levels, as being top-level managers, middle-level managers and first-level supervisors.

3.2.3 Summary

From the above explanations of levels of management, many authors have distinguished three levels as being top, middle and first-line or lower-management. The different levels have all different authority, responsibility and functions to perform in order to assist in the process of achieving goals and objectives. The levels are systematically stratified in organizations to encourage and assist with better coordination, efficiency and effectiveness in performances.

3.3 **Fundamental and universal elements of management**

3.3.1 **Introduction**

Early theorists have identified the elements of management, dating back to 1916. Henri Fayol and Ralph Davis, in 1934, also identified the elements. The recent scholars or writers in 1980, namely, Harold Koontz, Cyril O' Donnell, and Heinz Wehrich identified the same elements. Other scholars in the 1990's also identified the same elements. The interesting factors to note is that most theorists in early years, as well as the recent and present ones have four elements, while others have five and more. A chronological schematic tabulation will best reveal and expose these elements systematically (Miner; et. al 1985:5).

Chronological presentation of theorists of fundamental and universal elements of management appears on page 37.

3.3.2 **What are fundamental and universal elements of management?**

Greenwood (1965:5) explains the historical evolution of management theory that both recent and ancient reveal the presence of management in organizations. The Egyptian government exhibited patterns of administration and organization in its culture long before the birth of Christ. Management theory has also been influenced by contributions from economic theory, theories of political economy, particularly by contributions from political science and public administration.

Greenwood (1965:5) regards Frederick W. Taylor as the father of scientific management and Henri Fayol, as the father of management principles. Taylor's operations, developed refinement in the efficiency and control of managerial processes in organizations

Table 1: Chronological presentation theorists of fundamental and universal elements of management

HENRI FAYOL ^a (1916)	RALPH DAVIS ^a (1934)	GREENWOOD W.T. (1965)	Mc FARLAND D.E. (1979)	KOONITZ HAROLD ^a DONNER CYRIL WEIRICH HEINZ (1980)	NIEMAN WILLIAM ^a WARREN KIRBY SCHNEE JEROME (1982)	HAIMANN THEO ^a SCOTT WILLIAM CONNOR PATRICK (1994)	CRONJE J HUGO W M J REENEN MJ NEULAND E W (1994)	WEIRICH HEINZ KOONITZ HAROLD (1994)	STONER J A F FREEMAN RE GILBERT DR J R (1995)	KROON J (1996)	GOUJWS JOHAN (1997)
1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING	1. PLANNING
2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING	2. ORGANIZING
3. COMMAND	3. CONTROLLING	3. CONTROL	3. STAFFING	3. STAFFING	3. MOTIVATING	3. STAFFING	3. LEADERSHIP	3. STAFFING	3. LEADING	3. ACTIVATING	3. DIRECTION
4. CO-ORDINATION			4. LEADERSHIP & SUPERVISION	4. LEADING	4. LEADING	4. INFLUENCING	4. CONTROLLING	4. LEADING	4. CONTROLLING	4. CONTROLLING	4. CONTROLLING
5. CONTROL			5. CONTROL	5. CONTROLLING	5. CONTROLLING	5. CONTROLLING		5. CONTROLLING			
			6. CO-ORDINATING								
			7. DECISION MAKING								

^a Source: Adapted from Miner J B, Singleton T M and Luchsinger V P. The Practice of Management(C E Merrill Publishing Company, 1985) USA, Columbus: p. 5.

consisting of large numbers of production processes and personnel. He applied the basic economic principle of specialization and division of labour to production operations in an industrial organization. Henri Fayol, emphasized the universal principles of management as planning, organizing and controlling. Fayol developed the principle of the universality of management function to all levels of management and all types of business organizations. This principle established the significance of traditional management theory used in any organization and bureaucratic structures.

From the above table of theorists the fundamental and universal elements of management are essential for all levels of management in all types of business organisations. An interesting factor to note is that all theorists agree on the three elements as: planning, organizing and controlling. Koontz et. al (1980), McFarland (1979), and Haimann et. al (1982) all included staffing as an extra element. Single elements that are exposed by various theories include command, motivating, decision-making and influencing, discovered by Fayol, Newmann et. al, McFarland and Haimann et. al.

3.3.3 Summary

For this research, emphasis will be placed on five fundamental and universal elements identified as being: planning, organizing, staffing, leading and controlling. Each fundamental element will hereunder be discussed in details and at the same time the different approaches, and explanations on various theorists will be compared. An analysis and critique will also be made to align the different explanations with personal comprehension of the elements. The elements will be discussed in the following order: planning, organizing, staffing, leading/directing and controlling.

3.3.1 Planning

3.3.1.1 Introduction

Planning is regarded as the first fundamental element of management. It is basic in its nature in any organization for it lays down objectives and goals to be achieved through strategic planning executed by top management. Planning in itself sets the premise for good management, because all role-players are identified with their roles. Without good planning, organizations will fail to meet their objectives and goals.

Kroon et. al (1996:111-112) regard planning as the basic management function that encompasses the purposeful consideration and visualisation of what the business or sections of the business should achieve within a particular time-span, despite the uncertainty of the future, in order to be successful. Top management is mainly concerned with strategic planning and the strategic plan, while middle and first-line management are responsible for tactical and operational planning.

Wehrich et. al (1994:118) regard planning as involving selecting missions and objectives through actions to achieve them. Planning requires decision-making and innovation, and closes the gap from where we are, to where we want to go. Planning involves prediction of the future, despite that factors beyond planners may interfere with the best-laid plans.

McFarland (1965:123) considers planning as the activity by which managers analyse present conditions to determine ways of reaching a desired future state. Planning embodies the skills of anticipating, influencing and controlling the nature and direction

of change. It involves continuous function, analysis, conceptual thought, communication, decision and action.

Greenwood (1965:139) considers planning as a definitive, decision-making function of management that determines a wide variety of broad and detailed goals which will be adapted to forecasted external and internal environmental influences. It is a prerequisite to organizing and controlling. Planning produces goals and objectives, effective organization, policy-making, forecasting, defining objectives and reflective thinking by using scientific methods.

3.3.1.2 What is planning?

According to Cronje et. al (1994:88) planning is regarded as the first fundamental element of management, that pre-determines what the organization proposes to achieve and how it is to be accomplished. Planning is regarded as the point around which management activities revolve. The objectives and the plans determine the type of organization needed, the leadership that is necessary, and control methods to be exercised.

Cronje et. al (1994:88) regard planning as forming the basis of management because it gives the organization its direction and determines the actions of management. Planning directs the organization's objectives to be realised. The importance of planning rests on giving direction focused on the objectives.

Stoner et. al (1995:263) regard planning as the locomotive that drives the train of organizing, leading and controlling activities, or as a taproot of an oak tree, from which

grow the branches of organizing, leading and controlling. It is an ongoing process that reflects and adapts to changes in the environment surrounding each organization. One of the most important results of the planning process is a strategy for the organization.

Miner et. al (1985:7) regard planning as occurring in any management position and its major manifestation being at the top. Plans are often based on forecasts of future events, ending in results, policies and procedures (role prescriptions), which guide the behaviour of those who implement the plans.

Greenwood (1965:139) explains planning as a definitive, decision-making function of management that determines a wide variety of broad and detailed goals which will be adapted to forecasted external and internal environmental influences. It is a prerequisite to organizing and controlling. He classified planning into three headings: decision-making process, external planning with forecasting environmental influences, and internal planning with defining goals and philosophies.

Ross (1976:57) regards planning as the most basic of all management functions because it involves the selection of organizational and departmental objectives and the determination of the means to achieve these objectives. Planning is the same whether applied to an entire organization or to any hierarchical level.

Gouws (1997:19) defines and describes planning as a process by which it must be decided beforehand what must be done, how it must be done, when it must be done and by whom it must be done. Planning is the instrument (tool) used by managers to anticipate the future and to deal with it effectively. Planning comprises the objectives and ways in

which these objectives can be achieved. It helps in intuitive judgements with rational decision-making.

Wehrich et. al (1994:117) regard planning as a process which begins with objectives; defines strategies, policies, and detailed plans to achieve them; which establishes an organization to implement decisions; and includes a review of performance and feed-back to introduce a new planning cycle.

Kroon (1996:111) describes planning as the basic management function that encompasses the purposeful consideration and visualization of what the business or sections of the business should achieve within a particular time-span, despite the uncertainty of the future, in order to be successful. The first phase of planning comprises the consideration of future circumstances and the formulation of goals (long-term) and objectives (short-term) in every area where performance or results are expected. The second phase is concerned with drafting a feasible plan which indicates the activities that have to be executed, the resources that are to be allocated and which policies, programmes, schedules, procedures and methods should be followed.

McFarland (1979:123) defines planning as the activity by which managers analyse present conditions to determine ways of reaching a desired future state. It embodies the skills of anticipating, influencing, and controlling the nature and direction of change. Planning is a pervasive and continuous function involving complex processes of perception, analysis, conceptual thought, communication, decision, and action.

Greenwood (1965:139) regards planning as decision-making, forecasting, defining

objectives, policy-making and reflective thinking, using scientific methods.

3.3.2.3 Summary

From the above definitions, explanations and descriptions, planning can thus be defined as a process of directing objectives to achieve results, while forecasting of future, and considering adapting to change in the external and internal environment of the entire organization/any hierarchical or bureaucratic organization. Planning forms the basics of all management functions followed by organizing, staffing, leading and controlling.

3.3.2 Organizing

3.3.2.1 Introduction

Organizing is regarded as the second fundamental element of management. It plays an essential role to compliment planning. The growth and magnitude of organizations and institutions developed concepts of organizational theory, patterned like that of the military. Managers emerged to control and design these organizations, thus encouraging more literature in the field of "Business Organization and Management (Greenwood, 1965:437). Kroon (1996:221-222) summarises organizing as a basic management function carried out by a manager to his sub-ordinates in order that they work effectively to achieve goals and objectives, the division and grouping of business activities into departments, job design within each department, delegation of tasks that has authority and responsibility and finally, build one vision for the organization. Weihrich (1994:244) explains organizing as capable of identifying and classifying required activities, grouping

of activities to attain objectives, assigning managers authority and, finally, the provision for coordination in the organization structure.

3.3.2.2 What is organizing?

Cronje et. al (1994:101) regard organizing as tasks and resources being distributed among individuals or departments to set a plan or strategy in motion, based on two principles of specialization or division of labour, and departmentalisation or the grouping together of activities.

Stoner et. al (1995:315) explain the first step in organizing as the process of organizational design. The specific pattern of relationships that managers create in this process is called organizational structure. Through organizational structure of a framework of managers emerges a division and coordination of the activities of members of an organization.

Miner et. al (1985:7) regard organization as corporate decision-making strongly influenced by a particular cast of characters involved, varying from one organization to another depending on the nature of the problem, the location and numerous other factors.

Greenwood (1965:437) explains organizing as having emerged from the resolution of organizational problems accompanied by the growth and gradually developed concepts of organization theory, patterned similar to the military organization. Organizational objectives are directed towards two dominant objectives, namely, productive efficiency and management control. The flow of the work-production process determines the

structure of production lines and the structure of basic and secondary departments.

Miller, et. al (1985:33) uses Allen's definition on organizing as the process of identifying and grouping the work to be performed, defining and delegating responsibility and authority, and establishing relationships for the purpose of enabling people to work most effectively together in accomplishing objectives.

Ross (1976:42) explains organizing as the method by which effective group action is obtained. Organizing addresses itself to the structural system for achieving coordination and authority delegation. Classical or traditional organization theory is based upon four basic principles: labour specialization, span of management, authority relationships and unity of command.

Gouws (1997:34) defines and describes organizing as the management function performed by managers in order to ensure that subordinates do their work as efficiently as possible. Organizing includes: creative element at all times, establishing the relationship between persons and groups to promote cooperation, systematic execution of the work to achieve objectives and goals in the most efficient manner and the arrangement of the enterprise activities and resources.

Jensen (1988:39) views organizing as involving the responsibilities assigned to departments or divisions, and specifying organizational relationships with the purpose of achieving coordinated effort by the total organization.

Kroon (1996: 221 - 222) uses De Bruyn's definition and views that organizing as

the management function deals with assignment of duties, responsibilities and authority to people and departments. Organizing promotes co-operation and systematic performance of the work, and the achievement of objectives in the most efficient way. In organizing, the manager defines subordinates' work as effectively as possible by determining the goals and objectives; division and grouping of activities into departments; job design; delegation of tasks, authority and responsibility to individuals and, finally, designs a visual representation of the organization.

Wehrich et. al (1994:244) regard organizing as the identification and classification of required activities, the grouping of activities necessary to attain objectives, the assignment of each grouping to a manager with the authority (delegation) and the provision for coordination horizontally and vertically in the organization structure.

Greenwood (1965:439) considers organization practices as efficient and controlling the goals of the organization by emphasizing competitive pressures within and between industries. The manager addresses continuously greater efficiencies through better organization and increased specialization and standardization of repetitive tasks.

Longenecker et. al (1984:199-202) consider organizing as the formal structuring of relationships among jobs, people and activities. The manager must devise some pattern to be related to each other, and integrate the contributions of many individuals. Organizing may be visualized as a design function that creates the structure or framework of the system in order to give effective results driven by a manager.

3.3.2.3 Summary

Organizing is coordination of work in an organization with efficient and effective patterns to achieve set goals and objectives. Structuring and classification of work functions in departments promote more production through specialization, standardization, quality and authority on performances thereby assisting achievement of goals and objectives. All these activities above are possible through good planning with vision and positive expectations.

3.3.3 Staffing

3.3.3.1 Introduction

Wehrich (1994:359) considers staffing as affecting, leading and controlling. Managers create enabling environments for their staff, including groups, to achieve organizational objectives. Proper staffing facilitates leading through selecting quality managers for control. Staffing entails recruitment, selection, placement, promotion, separation, appraisal, career strategy, training and development of managers. McFarland (1979:238) regards staffing as getting managers to surround themselves with subordinates of their own choice. Alongside staffing exists training, development and orientation, selection, transfers, discharges, resignations and retirements. Greenwood (1965:601) regards staffing as recruitment, selection, training for specific job needs, replacements, promotions, transfers and retirements.

Effective staffing is filling the job positions with the right people complimented by personnel specialists on recruiting and screening people. Position descriptions and

specifications are essential in staffing. The type of job determines the description and specifications of the position.

3.3.3.2 **What is staffing?**

Greenwood (1965:601) explains the organizational aspects of the staffing and development function as performed in larger organizations by highly skilled organization planners. These organizational planners will relate the organizational structure to the goals, policies and strategies of the company. In order to recruit, select and train personnel, jobs must be analysed and defined in job titles, descriptions and specifications.

Kroon uses de Villiers's article (1996:303) by regarding people as the most important resource utilised in producing goods and services. The provision of suitable personnel and their integration with the activities of the business determine the eventual attainment of objectives and the success of the business. The human resource system of a business embraces all the programmes, techniques, practices and procedures that will ensure that suitable personnel are recruited, trained, developed and maintained in order to contribute to the achievement of business goals.

Wehrich et. al (1994:353) define staffing as filling, and keeping filled, positions in the organizational structure through identifying work-force requirements, inventorying the people available and recruiting, selecting, placing, promoting, appraising, and training or otherwise developing both candidates and current job holders so that they can accomplish their tasks effectively and efficiently.

McFarland (1979:238) defines staffing as the function by which managers build organizations through the recruitment, selection, and development of individuals as capable employees.

Jensen (1988:40) regards staffing in an organization as composed of people carrying out specific responsibilities which lead towards set goals. Effective staffing is filling the job positions with the right people. Personnel specialists can help in staffing by recruiting and screening people. Through the staffing process, job descriptions and specifications are made. The details of responsibilities are related to qualifications, professional experience, personality characteristics, rank, salary and tenure status.

Stoner et. al (1995:376-377) regard staffing as equivalent to human resource management. Staffing is regarded as an ongoing procedure that tries to keep the organization supplied with the right people in the right positions, when they are needed. Staffing includes seven basic activities, namely, human resource planning, recruitment, selection, socialization, training and development, performance appraisal, and promotions, transfers, demotions and separations.

3.3.3.3 Summary

Staffing is selecting of the right people for the right jobs in order to achieve goals and objectives for an organisation's maximal production. Proper staffing is assisted by efficient and effective recruitment, selection, placement, training and development, demotions, performance appraisal, resignation and retirements. Job descriptions and job specifications will assist the organizations in employing specialists. Responsibilities of

personnel has to match qualifications, professional experiences, personality characteristics, ranks, salary and tenure status.

3.3.4 Leadership/Leading/Directing

3.3.4.1 Introduction

Wehrich (1994:490) regards leadership as requiring an effective manager to lead. An effective manager needs followers in order to gauge the leadership skills. Followers also follow a leader that they trust, respect, and finally the one having their desires and aspirations. Leadership and motivation are closely interconnected. Greenwood (1965:689) considers leadership as directing, leading, communicating, and motivating employees toward organizational goals. Kroon (1996:353-354) uses Kruger's article by saying that leadership requires subordinates willing to achieve the leader's aims, and leaders will continuously influence their subordinates. The leader has to be creative and should stimulate, direct and co-ordinate group interaction and cooperation to achieve group goals.

3.3.4.2 What are leadership, leading and directing?

Cronje (1994:113) explains the leadership assumed by someone to set things going and to keep them going to attain the ends in view. Leadership, gives direction to the activities so that goals or objectives of the enterprise may be fulfilled as productively as possible.

Stoner et. al (1995:470) define leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. It involves other people-employees or followers who are willing to accept directions from the leader. Leadership involves unequal distribution of power between leaders and group members and influences the followers' behaviours in a number of ways and the last aspect acknowledges that leadership is about values.

Greenwood (1965:687) defines leadership as aimed at having individuals work towards achieving organization and work/job objectives in a personal way. To achieve effective leadership, management must learn how to direct, lead, communicate, and motivate employees towards organizational goals.

Gouws (1997:49) defines and describes leadership as the process by which a specific person, the leader, influences a group of persons (subordinates) to such a degree that they voluntarily pursue the objectives conveyed to them by the leader. It includes the ability to persuade others to pursue defined objectives enthusiastically, by binding them together as a group.

Kroon (1996:353-354) uses Kruger's definition that leadership is the process whereby the leader influences a group of people in such a manner that they will strive to achieve the objectives he presents them with. A leader should possess special ability to influence the subordinates, creatively stimulates, directs and co-ordinates group interaction and co-operation in order to achieve group goals.

McFarland (1979:214) defines leadership as the ability of an individual to influence others to work beyond ordinary levels to achieve goals. The influence in leadership occurs with organizations, and in great men of influence in the community and society.

Longenecker et. al (1984:435) explain leadership as not equated to management. Management activities include strategy, budgeting, or monitoring environment information and are not directly related to leadership. Leadership is more properly viewed as a management function directed towards getting effective work from team members, thereby getting the best effort from the organizations employees. Leadership emphasizes building a strong relationship between the leaders and his or her subordinates.

3.3.4.3 Summary

Leadership/leading/directing is a process that becomes meaningful only when followers and subordinates trust and respect the leader. The leader has to lead by example, direct, communicate, coordinate, cooperate and, finally, influence followers for maximum production to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization.

3.3.5 Controlling

3.3.5.1 Introduction

Wehrich (1994:578) regards planning and controlling as closely related and cannot be separated. Planning and controlling are viewed as the blades of a pair of scissors whereby the scissors cannot work unless there are two blades. Without objectives and plans, control is not possible. Control is performed by line management for coordination.

Kroon (1996:443-444) uses Crous's article in explaining control. The primary aim of control is to ensure that activities are undertaken to achieve objectives successfully. Three different types of control are identified as being pre-control, steering control and post-control which can be carried out before the activity commences, during and after the completion of the activity or during all three stages.

McFarland (1979:188) regards control and planning as closely related. Control is a measure of the effectiveness of planning, organizing and coordination. Control is an integral part of managerial effort and with it, corrective decisions can be minimized. Management control is the process by which managers assure that resources are used efficiently to accomplish the organization's objectives.

Greenwood (1965:805) views management control as a process applied to all activities in the organization through the establishment of budgeted goals and objectives. Accounting procedures have standardized control practices in the organization. Merit rating or performance appraisal of personnel within the organization may be controlled by the management tool.

3.3.5.2 What is control?

Cronje et. al (1994:126) view control as the process through which organizational activities are regulated by facilitating the attainment of planned objectives and operations. Effective control is defined as a management process designed to keep deviations from

planned activities or levels of achievement to the minimum so that the organization's aims may be accomplished with as little disturbance as possible. Controlling is a continuous means of getting planning and performance to coincide.

Stoner et. al (1995:558) define management control as the process of ensuring that actual activities conform to planned activities. It is more pervasive than planning, and it helps managers to monitor the effectiveness of their planning, their organizing and their leading activities.

Miner et. al (1985:7) regards controlling as attempts to identify, determine the causes of, and correct deviations from acceptable standards of performance that have been established by role-making activities such as planning and organizing.

Ross (1976:72) defines control as setting standards of performance, measuring performance against the standards, and the correct deviations from information given or received.

Miller et. al (1985:93) defines control as determining what is being accomplished, through evaluating the performance by applying corrective measures for performance to take place according to plans.

Gouws (1997:89) defines and describes control as the process during which personal behaviour and job performance can be observed and monitored to determine whether the behaviour and job performance corresponds with the standards and objectives that have been set, so that corrective action can be taken. It is a relatively simple process, but the effective application thereof requires great skill and even a degree of resourcefulness.

The primary function of control is to ensure that actual results correspond with set objectives as far as possible.

Kroon (1996:443) uses Crous's definition that control is a process through which managers can compare real performance with plans, standards and objectives and take corrective action if deviations occur.

Weihrich (1994:577) explains control as the measurement and correction of performance to make the enterprise's objectives and the plans devised to attain them to be accomplished. The basic control process involves three steps: establishing standards, measuring performance against these standards, and correcting variations from standards and plans.

McFarland (1979:188) defines control as the process by which managers make sure that intended, desirable results are consistently and continuously achieved. Control and planning are closely related. Control is a measure of the effectiveness of planning, organizing and coordinating.

Longenecker et. al (1984:487) use Henri Fayol's definition of control and planning as closely related with control, ensuring that the organizational system operates effectively while focusing on encompassing all of the organization's resources - human, material and financial.

3.3.5.3 Summary

Control is regarded as closely related to planning. Control is summarised as applying standardised corrective measures of action through using a degree of people or

resourcefulness in order to achieve goals and objectives for the organization. Control is a measure of the effectiveness of planning and coordinating. It is regarded as a simple process, but requires skilled personnel who subscribe to the goals and objectives of the organization. Merit rating and performance appraisal of personnel in the organization may be controlled by the management tool to assess their effectiveness and efficiency.

3.4 ORIGIN OF SPORT MANAGEMENT

Sport management has existed for a long time through sport promoters, event organizers, and athletics directors. The first issue of the Journal of Sport Management states that:

...the Games sponsored in 11 B.C. by Herod the Great King of Judea who was made an Honorary President of the Games during the eleventh - century Olympics.

Sport Management has been in existence from the time of the ancient Greeks, when gladiators and animals attracted crowds of spectators (Parkhouse, 1991 : 4).

The games began with a magnificent dedication ceremony. Then there were athlete and musical competitions, in which large prizes were given not only to the winners but also an unusual feature to those who took second and third place. Bloody spectators were also presented with gladiators and wild beasts fighting in various combinations, and there were also horse races.

Large prizes attracted contenders from all areas, and this in turn drew great numbers of spectators. Cities favoured by Herod sent delegations, and these he entertained and lodged at his own expense. What comes through most clearly is that gigantic sums of money were spent (Parks et al; 1998: 1-2).

Without doubt, Herod's Games must have been staged by the counterparts of today's sport managers, namely, a general manager, a business manager, marketing and promotions specialists, communication experts, crowd - control personnel and their assistants. Sport management is an ancient practice and one can draw many parallels between Herod's Games and ours or contemporary games. Of note, sport and management have changed dramatically since ancient times (Parks et. al; 1998 : 2).

Parkhouse (1991 : 4) says that during Herod's Games there was a magnitude of such events, that there must have been purveyors of food and drink, promoters, purchasing agents, marketing personnel, and management directors, which are today referred to as practitioners, a term that includes all persons employed in the applied field of sport management.

3.5 DEFINING SPORT AND SPORT MANAGEMENT

According to Parks et. al (1998 : 2) sport implies fun, but it can also be work (professional athlete), a means of employment (sport tourism), or a business (sport marketing agency). Sport takes many forms as in team sports, such as, soccer and volleyball; the two participants, as in dual sports, such as, tennis and badminton; or one person, as in, individual sports, such as, golf and surfing.

Various definitions are discussed in Chapter two under sub - item 2.1.2. Definitions by the following authors are discussed, namely, Gouws, Spears and Swanson, and Sam Ramsamy. But for this research, the following narrow definition will be adopted after having analysed the others. Sport is a physical activity in which power is exerted by participants through using prowess (skills and expertise) in order to gain advantage by competing against oneself or one - on - one or in a team / group, governed by formal, organised, and institutionalised rules for standardisation in order to promote fairness and enjoyment.

3.6 SPORT MANAGEMENT AND ITS EVOLUTION

Sport Management exists in two forms, i.e., an area of professional endeavour and an area of academic professional preparation.

Sport Management according to De Sensi et. al (1990 : 33) as an area of professional endeavours to define sport management as any combination of skills related to planning, organizing, directing, contracting, budgeting, leading and evaluating within the context of an organization or department whose primary product or service is related to sport and/ physical activity.

Sport Management as an area of professional preparation started in Ohio University, U.S.A., specifically at a Master's in sport administration programme in 1966. This programme was the first applied sport management programme in the United States, although several universities had been offering professional preparation programmes in athletics administration for many years. The Ohio University programme was the first recorded attempt to study sport management in the private sector, emphasizing practical

and internships as well as academic course work. A few years later, Biscayne College (now St. Thomas University) and St. John's University became the first institutions offering baccalaureate degrees in sport management. The second Master's programme was established in 1971 at the University of Massachusetts. In 1980, 20 colleges and universities in the United States offered graduate programmes in sport management (Parkhouse; 1991 : 6). By the early 1990s, there were more than 200 graduate and undergraduate sport management programmes in the United States and Canada. (Parks, et.al 1998:3)

West Germany, Korea, France and the United Kingdom have all implemented programmes on sport management. In 1990, the Bowater Faculty of Business at Victoria College, established Australia's first bachelor of business programmes in sport management. The Guidelines for Programmes Preparing Undergraduate and Graduate Studies for Careers in Sport Management, published by the American National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE) in 1987, were especially instrumental in the development of the Australian model. The NASPE and Sports in the Republic of China (Taiwan) established a curriculum in sport management through the help and influence of NASPE (Parkhouse; 1991 : 6).

The United States has two professional associations that serve the sport management profession. The North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) and NASPE. The Task Force on sport management have monitored the rapid growth in this profession. In 1985, NASSM was established to promote, stimulate, and encourage study, research, scholarly writing and professional development in sport management (Parkhouse; 1991 : 7).

In this chapter, sport management will be emphasised as an area of professional endeavour involving any combination of skills related to planning, organizing, directing, controlling, budgeting, leading and evaluating which were addressed / discussed earlier on in this chapter and referred to as fundamental and universal elements of management.

3.7 FUNCTIONS OF SPORT MANAGERS:

The responsibility of sport managers can be classified into four clusters of activities, namely - the general management tasks, organizational management, information management, and exercise and sport science (Parks et. al; 1988).

3.8 MANAGEMENT AS A PROCESS IN SPORT ORGANIZATIONS:

According to Quarteman, et. al as cited in Parks, et. al (1998 : 107), the process approach requires that managers practice their work in the sport industry, by using a set of ongoing interactive activities for accomplishing the goals and objectives of their respective organizations, departments, or work units. Such process was first introduced more than six decades ago as POSDCORB. POSDCORB is an acronym that describes the underlying elements of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. There is a general agreement about the nature of the management process that: the process starts with planning and ends with controlling or evaluating; there is no logical order in which practising managers use the activities; and the managers may engage in several activities simultaneously as they carry out the responsibilities of their jobs.

Quarterman, et.al as cited in Parks, et. al (1998 : 107 - 108) argued that the model process of management in sport organizations illustrates how decision making is inherent in each underlying process of planning, organizing, staffing, controlling, leading, motivating and communicating. The model used in this chapter, Figure 1, illustrate management as a process for sport organizations, puts decision making as central to each underlying process of planning, organizing, staffing, controlling, leading, motivating and communicating.

The Sport Management Process

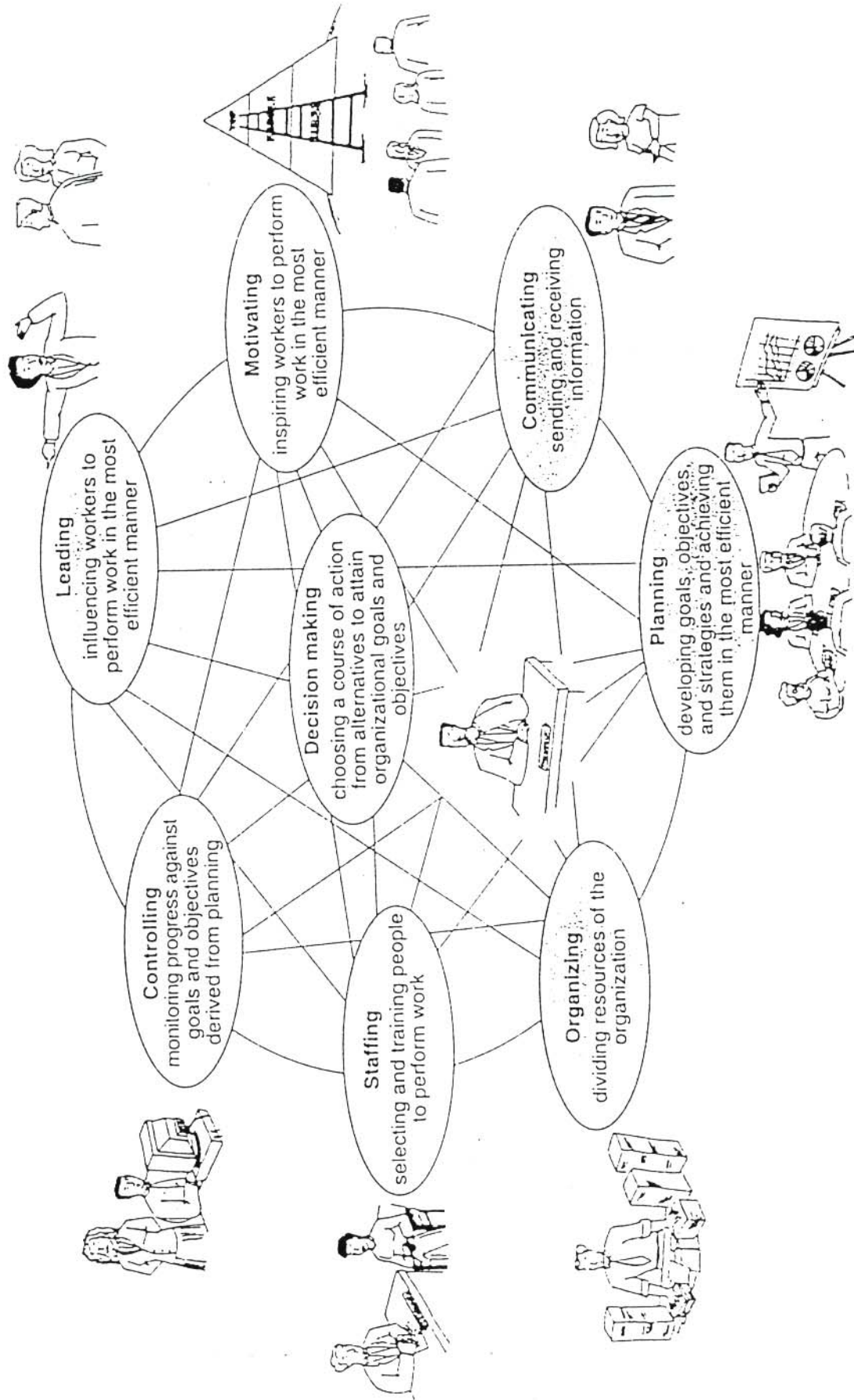


Figure 2: The process of Management in Sport Organisations

Source: Quarterman, et.al (1998: 108)

The model of the process of management in sport organizations is further explained in Table 2 in which each underlying process is followed by a simple definition and examples of how a general manager might practice the process in order to attain the goals of a private sport club (Quarterman, et. al as cited in Parks, et.al 1998 : 108). The table of Quarterman, et. al (1998: 109) will be adopted hereunder as Table 2. A table, explains all the processes or elements discussed in this chapter, namely, planning, organizing, staffing, leading, motivating, communicating, controlling and decision making, with a definition of the process or element explained, followed by an example of the appropriate function. An example of planning is explained followed by an example that shows how it fits into the puzzle. The table of Quarterman, et.al. (1998: 109), entitled: The Management process of a General Manager in a Private Sport Club, explains all the other processes or elements more than the previous authors did, in that Quarterman, et. al (1998) went further by presenting new processes or elements, namely, motivating, communicating and decision making. The new processes / elements discussed by Quarterman, et. al with an exception of decision making, are mentioned in Table 1, (i.e. Chronological presentation of theorists of fundamental and universal elements of Management).

Quarterman, et. al (1998:105 - 106) identified three levels of management, namely, top, middle and supervisory. All managers have formal authority for directing the work activities of others, but there are differences in the degrees of authority possessed by different managers.

Top level managers, according to Quarterman, et. al (1998 : 105), are the smallest group of managers. These executives or senior level managers have the highest power and total authority in the club or organization.

Table 1: The Management Process of a General Manager in a Private Sport Club

Underlying process	Definition	Example
Planning	Identifying the organizational goals to achieve, and developing and implementing strategies to achieve them	The general manager of a private sports club predicts the increase in enrollment at the start of the new year and arranges for the facility to be open 18 hours per day instead of 15 hours.
Organizing	Dividing the organization into work units and subunits so their efforts will mesh and fulfill the overall objectives	After conducting an assessment, the general manager establishes a work unit for teaching golf at the club. A full time coordinator is appointed who will coordinate three teaching pros and a new golf course with an adequate budget.
Staffing	Recruiting, selecting, hiring, orienting, training, developing, compensating, evaluating, and maintaining highly qualified human resources for achieving the organizational goals (selecting the right person to do the job)	The general manager advertises the positions: three teaching pros, one maintenance person, and one secretary. The general manager then holds interviews, checks references, makes job offers, and selects the staff needed for the golf program.
Leading	Influencing an individual employee or group of employees to better perform their jobs in attaining the goals and objectives of the organization	The general manager encourages the golf teaching pro to prepare weekend course packages for local executives who have expressed an interest in learning golf skills.
Motivating	Igniting the internal forces (inner drives and needs) and external forces that affect an individual or a group to produce goods and services in the most effective manner	The general manager announces the new system of rewards to the support staff (e.g., merit pay, profit sharing, stock ownership, flexible benefits).
Communicating	Sending and receiving information via a variety of channels to fulfill organizational objectives	The general manager holds individual conferences with the coordinator of golf and tennis each Friday to determine the activities for the next week.
Controlling	Monitoring progress against goals and objectives derived from planning; evaluating performance to determine if the goals were met as planned.	After 3 months, the general manager monitors the progress of the new golf program with the coordinator and discusses possible ways to make the program more attractive to lure new memberships.
Decision making	Choosing a course of action from alternatives to attain goals and objectives in the most effective manner	The general manager initiates a brainstorming session with the staff to develop alternatives in promoting another new sport program.

Source: Quarterman, et.al (1998:109)

Middle level managers (Quarterman; 1998 : 105 - 106) are known as administrative personnel and are selected by the top level managers. They report to top level managers, and are responsible for supervisory managers, and sometimes for the technical specialists. The middle level managers are the interface between the lower and upper management. They may often be confronted with contradictory demands from the two extremes of the organizational hierarchy. The middle managers appear to their subordinates as the source of information and a solution to problems, because they know the technical side of the product and services. Middle managers are unique because they must be both leaders and followers. They have communication access to their superiors as well as their subordinates.

Supervisory level managers (Quarterman; 1998 : 106 - 107), also known as first - line managers or supervisors, report to middle level managers and are responsible for non-managerial employees. The supervisory managers are made of coordinators who are the largest of the managers with the least amount of authority. They are responsible for a single area in a work unit, division, or department in the sport organization. Their job is to communicate, inspire, and influence the non - managerial workers to perform the job in the best effective and efficient manner. They are unique because they are the main source of contact between the non-managerial technical specialists and management.

3.8.1 Managerial Skills:

Managerial skills are not innate but can be learned and developed through experience and formal training. Katz in Quarterman, identified skills needed by managers of all types of organizations as conceptual, interpersonal (human), and technical (Quarterman; 1998: 108 - 109).

3.8.1.1 **Conceptual Skills**

Conceptual skills help managers in sport organizations to coordinate all activities as a whole. The top executives, like the chief executive officer, use conceptual skills to compare and contrast the total market share of goods and services produced by his federation, with the market share produced by each individual club that makes up the federation / association (Quarterman; 1998: 109).

3.8.1.2 **Interpersonal Skills**

Managers also use interpersonal skills to interact with others and to coordinate individual and group efforts in achieving an organization's goals. The manager has to be able to work with both internal and external constituents (Quarterman; 1998 : 109).

3.8.1.3 **Technical Skills**

Technical skills include specialized knowledge on using tools, techniques and resources to achieve an organization's goals. Managers must be able to perform certain technical skills and be able to show their subordinates how to perform the skills. All managers use conceptual, interpersonal and technical skills, but to varying degrees. Top managers devote a major portion of their time to long range planning, therefore they will spend more time using conceptual skills than will middle and supervisory managers. In contrast, supervisory sport managers spend most of their time directing (i.e, motivating, leading and communicating) non - material staff, and use more technical skills than top level or middle level managers (Quarterman; 1998 : 110).

3.9 SUMMARY

General management is concerned with people in organizations. H. Taylor, R.C. Davis as well as C. Bernard are regarded as the earliest theorists associated with management. Recent writers like H. Koontz, C. O' Donnell and H. Wehrich, N. William, J.A.F. Stoner and J. Kroon, also identified the elements of functions of management.

The theorists listed above on general management, all agree that the elements of management include planning, organizing, staffing, leading / directing, controlling, supervision, command, co-ordination, motivation and influencing. The earliest theorists have identified these elements of management arising from extensive research that they carried out over the years. These elements are extensively and widely used in all organizations in the past and are still currently applied.

Sport management started at the ancient Greek games sponsored by Herod, the Great King of Judea in 11 B.C. The magnitude of Herod's games would not have succeeded in that they lacked personnel or staff as sport managers, general managers, business managers, marketing and promotions specialists, communication experts and spectators. Today's games are run by sport practitioners who perform the same duties as those carried out during ancient times under King Herod of Judea and the ancient Greek Olympics. It is true that sport management is an ancient practice from the former and latter statements. Furthermore, one can draw many parallels between Herod's games and our contemporary games, namely, the Olympics.

Sport management has also adopted general management principles initiated by Henri Fayol who is regarded as the father and expert on management. Gouws (1997 : 218) emphasised the management process in sport to be consisting of four fundamental and

universal elements of management (namely planning, organizing, direction and control), supplemented by a few supporting activities as information management, decision making, communication and negotiation. Gouws (1997:218) refers to the management process in sport as having fundamental and universal elements. Quarterman, et. al, as cited in Parks, et.al (1998:107) regard the management process in sport organizations as having interactive activities or underlying processes of management for accomplishing goals and objectives of organizations, departments, or work units. The processes are identified as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. This process of sport management first starts with planning and ends with controlling or evaluating; in the second stage, there is no logical order in which a practising manager uses the activities; and finally the managers may engage in several activities simultaneously as they carry the functions and responsibilities of their jobs.

The main purpose of using the management processes in sport organizations, also called fundamental and universal elements of management (i.e planning, organizing, staffing, leading / directing and controlling), is to promote effective and efficient management which is goal oriented.

Sport is an enterprise and therefore necessitates being managed as business, because sport as a product is made available to clients through management. Managing human resources and finances in sport is different as compared to the other enterprises, but the principles remain the same, while the application makes sport differ widely from other enterprises (Gouws, 1997 : 236). Any sport enterprise or industry is established in order to attain goals and objectives by maximizing profits. Sport management processes are fundamental and universal elements of management used as tools to achieve effective and efficient management.

It is important to mention that for the purposes of this research, emphasis on management processes in organizations, also called fundamental and universal elements of management, is placed on five elements, namely, planning, organizing, staffing, leading/directing and controlling.

The management process requires accompaniment of strategic planning which leads to the strategic management process. Strategic planning will expose a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis. Through a SWOT analysis, key performance areas (KPA) will also be identified. The key performance areas will undoubtedly reveal objectives, thereby setting realistic and measurable standards (Gouws; 1997 : 271).

Quarterman, et.al, as cited in Parks, et.al (1998: 105 - 106) also identified three levels of management in sport, namely, top, middle and supervisory. Despite that all managers have formal authority in sport management for directing the work activities of others, there are differences in the degrees of authority possessed by different managers.

Many authors on sub item 3.2 above, i.e., general levels of management, have distinguished three levels as being top, middle and first - line or lower - management. The different levels exist because they all have different authority, responsibility and functions to perform in order to achieve goals and objectives. These levels are systematically stratified in organizations, including, sport, to encourage and assist with better management accompanied by better coordination, effectiveness and efficiency. From the above discussion, it is imperative that any sport club or enterprise must endeavour to create three levels of management, namely, top, middle and lower / supervisory in order to operate effectively and efficiently, thereby achieving maximum goals and profits.

CHAPTER 4

METHODS AND PROCEDURE

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1.1 Population and Sampling

The population for this research comprised 21 South African state owned universities. These universities have different historical and socio-economic backgrounds. Out of these universities, ten are classified under HDUs. From the HDUs, five were sampled on the basis that they were established through the University Act, i.e, Act No. 45 of 1959. Under this Act, the following universities emerged as satellites to exclusively White universities namely, University Colleges of Zululand, North, Western Cape and Durban Westville. The South African College, established as early as 1916, later named University of Fort Hare, was also classified under Act No. 45 of 1959.

The sampling of five HDUs was based on the following criteria:

- The institutions are 40 years and older, established solely for Black people.
- The institutions were made satellites of HAUs which were well established White institutions.
- The institutions lacked a wide spectrum of basic needs, such as infrastructure (facilities), equipment and personnel (coaches, administrators and technical officials).
- The institutions had irregular sports competitions, as well as budgets or finances with which to run sport.

A non-probability sampling method was used to choose the respondents. Purposive sampling was also used to select only those respondents who best met the purpose of the study in terms of affiliation to SASSU, as well as involvement in SASSU at regional/provincial federation tournaments.

The target group comprised university students registered for the 2000 academic year and who were sportpersons. Full time staff members of the university, involved in sport management, and students also filled the questionnaires and were interviewed. The demographics of the staff and students (sportpersons) at the HDUs were as follows:

Table 3 : Demographic characteristics of staff at HDUs who filled the questionnaire and were interviewed

University	African(s)	Indian(s)	Coloured(s)	White(s)	Work experience	Male	Female
UNIZUL	-	-	-	1	7 years	1	-
UDW	-	1	-	-	7 years	1	-
UNIN	1	-	-	-	3 years	1	-
UWC	-	-	1	-	12 years	1	-
UFH	1	-	-	-	5 years	1	-
TOTAL	2	1	1	1	34 years	5	0

- Indicates unavailability of staff in specific categories

As presented in Table 3, the staff at HDUs have a total work experience of 34 years. This ranged from 3 to 12 years for the least and most experienced staff, respectively. It is noteworthy that sports administration in all five HDUs is dominated by male staff. All the major racial groupings of South Africa are fairly represented in staffing at HDUs.

Table 4: Demographic characteristics of students at HDUs who filled the questionnaire

University	African(s)	Indians(s)	Coloured(s)	White(s)
UNIZUL	13	-	-	9
UDW	22	1	-	-
UNIN	25	-	-	-
UWC	21	-	6	-
UFH	20	-	-	-
TOTAL	101	1	6	9

- Indicates unavailability of sportpersons in specific categories.

From Table 4, it is observable that out of a total of 117 sportpersons who responded to the questionnaire 101 were Africans, while 1 was of Indian origin. The number of Coloured and White respondents were 16 and 9, respectively.

Table 5: Demographic characteristics of students at HDUs who were interviewed

University	African(s)	Indian(s)	Coloured(s)	White(s)	Age	Years at institution	Male	Female
UNIZUL	1	-	-	-	26	7	1	-
UDW	1	-	-	-	23	4	-	1
UNIN	1	-	-	-	26	6	1	-
UWC	-	-	1	-	32	8	1	-
UFH	1	-	-	-	26	5	1	-
TOTAL	4	0	1	0	133	30	4	1

- Indicates unavailability of sportpersons in designated categories.

There is a male dominated leadership at HDUs in All Sports Committees. It is remarkable that UDW is the only institution with a female African student leadership. The students' ages ranged from 23 to 32. The number of years that the students' leadership spent at the respective HDUs ranged from four to eight years. The students had been at HDUs for a total number of 30 years.

4.1.2 **Research Instruments**

4.1.2.1 **Questionnaires**

During the process of operationalisation, a measuring instrument, namely, a questionnaire was developed. The instrument was developed to measure the key concepts in the research question concerning the HDUs. The questionnaires (i.e., for both sportpersons and staff) had a five-point rating scale. Typical items in the questionnaire for sportpersons were as follows:

- Planning: Rate your planning level per annum?
- Organising: To what extent is organising important in your club?
- Staffing: To what extent do your executive members depend on advice from Sports Administration/Sport Bureau?
- Leading/Directing: To what extent does your club depend on leading/directing from Sport/Administration?
- Control: To what extent do other club members regard the control process as important?
- SASSU Regional/Provincial Federation Tournaments: Rate the knowledge and success level of your manager?
- Politics and Economics: At what rate does politics influence your performance at club level in SASSU regional/provincial tournaments?
- Facilities: At what rate do facilities influence your performance at club level?

The same questionnaire was used for staff and sportpersons (students). A copy of the questionnaire is contained in annexure C.

The researcher administered the questionnaires of UNIZUL, UDW and UNIN. In the case of UWC and UFH, the researcher relied on the Departments of Sports Administration to assist in distributing the questionnaires. Follow-ups were done telephonically to the latter universities for the return of questionnaires.

4.1.2.2 Interviews

Interviews were conducted with Sports Administrators/Sports Officers and Chairpersons of All Sports at HDUs to obtain more information on sports management. Three HDUs received telephonic interviews except UNIN and UNIZUL. The interview questions were open-ended. The same eight – item interview guide was used for both sportpersons and staff. Typical examples of the interview questions were as follows:

- What is your opinion about employing qualified coaches to assist or lead clubs forward?
- What are the best strategies to raise funds to promote competitive sport in your institution?
- Do you think the students contribution towards the promotion of competitive sport is essential or not? Please explain.
- In your opinion, do you regard top management practice of competitive sport in terms of human resources and funding, as comparable to that of HAUs?
 - What could be the key factors that bring about the inadequacies or disparities?
 - Recommend the best system.

- Recommend future plans and actions to be carried out to address the inadequacies of sport management and performances in your institution?

A sample copy of the interview guide is contained in annexure D.

4.1.2.3 Validation of Research Instrument

A pilot survey was done on UNIN sportpersons and a Sport Officer to test the validity of the questionnaires. The supervisor and a statistician checked and modified items on the questionnaire, after which the researcher made final corrections and used the questionnaire for data collection. Both the questionnaires and interview guide were designed to answer the research questions generated at the beginning of this study.

4.1.3 Data Collection Procedure

4.1.3.1 Researchers' Involvement

The researcher administered the questionnaires at UNIZUL, UDW and UNIN. The respondents were met at one central venue in groups of 3 to 4. The researcher explained to respondents the procedure of filling the questionnaires. Respondents were requested to fill the questionnaire individually whilst complying with the five-point rating scale.

The researcher checked the number of the five-point rating as a standard to confirm the completeness of filled questionnaires. Incomplete questionnaires were filled on the spot to conform to the five-point rating. Levels of measurement used for all the eight categories of the questionnaire included ordinal scales with a five-point rating, ranging from one to five. One equals very low (very poor), two equals low (poor), and three equals medium (neutral). Four and five equal high and very high (good), respectively. The applied statistical analysis system (SAS) was used to determine total scores per item

by institution, and overall averages on eight categories, namely, planning, organising, staffing leading/directing, control, SASSU regional/provincial federation tournaments, politics and economics, and facilities.

4.1.3.2 Data Collection by Post

In the case of UWC and UFH, the postal system was used to dispatch the questionnaires. The Departments of Sports Administration in these institutions assisted the researcher to administer the questionnaires. The researcher trained the research assistants telephonically on the basic requirements on the questionnaire in order to avoid too many spoils. The research assistants were expected to ensure that all respondents complied with the measurement criteria, including comments. Incomplete questionnaires were analyzed without tampering with the empty spaces.

4.1.3.3 Qualitative Analysis

Similar comments by respondents were considered as reliable when conclusions and recommendations were made. The same qualitative procedures were carried out to analyse interview responses from staff and chairpersons of All Sports Committees.

4.1.4 Statistical Analysis

Data was obtained from completed questionnaires administered to the five HDUs. The minimum questionnaires expected from an institution was 20 and the maximum was 25.

The analysis of data was conducted quantitatively for each item, through use of a computer mainframe and SAS software. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the differences among universities on the eight categories. Duncan multiple range test was used as a post hoc analysis. F-ratios less than or equal to 0.05 were regarded as statistically significant.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.1.1 Responses from Students

Students/sportspersons were sampled from five historically disadvantaged universities, namely, the University of Durban Westville (UDW), the University of Fort Hare (UFH), the University of the North (UNIN), the University of Zululand (UNIZUL) and the University of the Western Cape (UWC). Students' responses were measured with eight elements/variables which included the following: planning, organising, staffing, leading/directing, control, SASSU regional/provincial federation tournaments, politics and economics, and facilities. These variables are indicated as Question 1 to Question 8 in Table 6.

Table 6 presents the students' (sportspersons) questionnaire responses. In analysing the data, the average per item for each institution was compared to those of their counterparts in order to measure the institutions standard of competency per variable, i.e, from planning to facilities, as previously outlined.

Table 6: Average of total scores per item by institution

UNIVERSITY	Overall	UDW	UFH	UNIN	UNIZUL	UWC	P
Q1	18.0	18.3	18.9	17.2	17.4	18.7	0.08
Q2	18.1	17.6	19.3	17.7	18.0	18.0	0.32
Q3	17.5	16.7	18.3	18.0	16.8	17.7	0.36
Q4	18.8	18.9	19.9	18.2	18.3	19.0	0.21
Q5	17.1	16.1	17.6	17.0	16.9	17.8	0.44
Q6	17.2	16.7	17.0	16.6	16.3	19.5	0.05
Q7	16.2	16.7	18.5	15.2	14.9	16.2	0.07
Q8	17.3	16.3	17.7	18.2	15.5	18.6	0.01*
Average	17.5	17.2	18.4	17.3	16.8	18.2	
Total Score	140.2	137.3	147.2	138.1	134.1	145.5	

5.1.1.1 Planning

Question one (Table 6) represents the mean scores for planning for the following institutions namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for planning are illustrated in figure 2. The mean score ranges from the highest 18.9 for UFH, to the lowest mean score of 17.2 for UNIN.

UNIN and UNIZUL obtained the lowest mean scores of 17.2 and 17.4, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 18.0. UFH (18.9), UWC (18.7), and UDW (18.3) obtained better mean scores than the overall average. No Significant difference was observed among the institutions regarding planning.

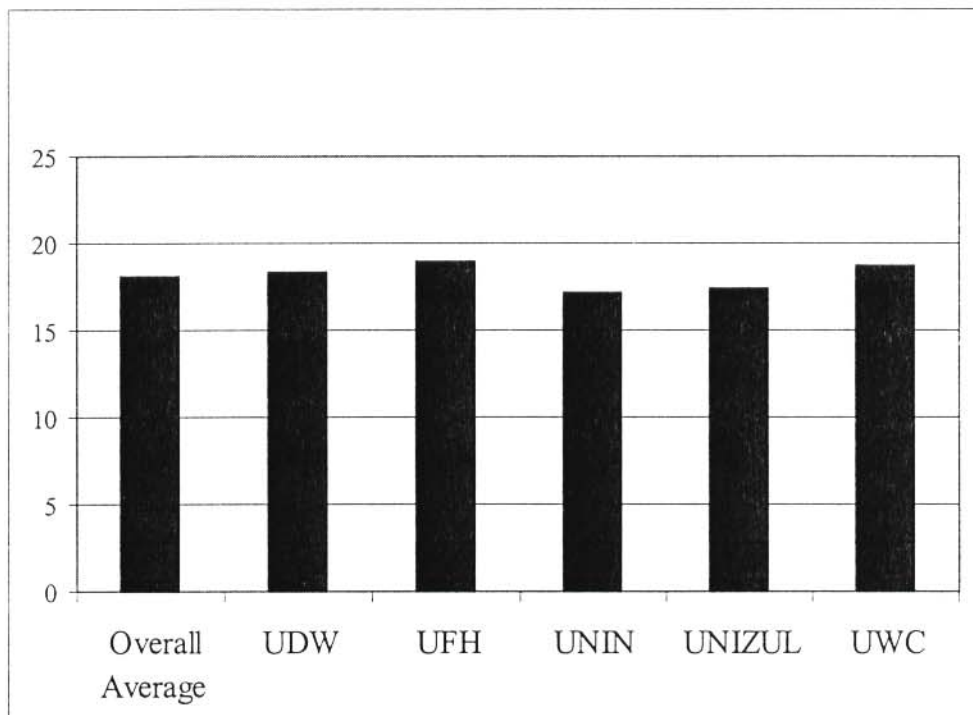


Figure 2: Mean scores for HDUs on planning

5.1.1.2 Organising

Question two (Table 6) represents the mean score for the institutions, namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for organising are illustrated in figure 3. The mean score ranges from the highest 19.3 for UFH to the lowest mean score of 17.6 for UDW.

UDW and UNIN obtained the lowest mean scores of 17.6 and 17.7, respectively. These are lower than the average score of 18.1. UNIZUL and UWC both obtained 18.0 which is still lower than the overall average. Only UFH (19.3) had a better mean score than the overall average. No significant difference was observed among the institutions regarding organising.

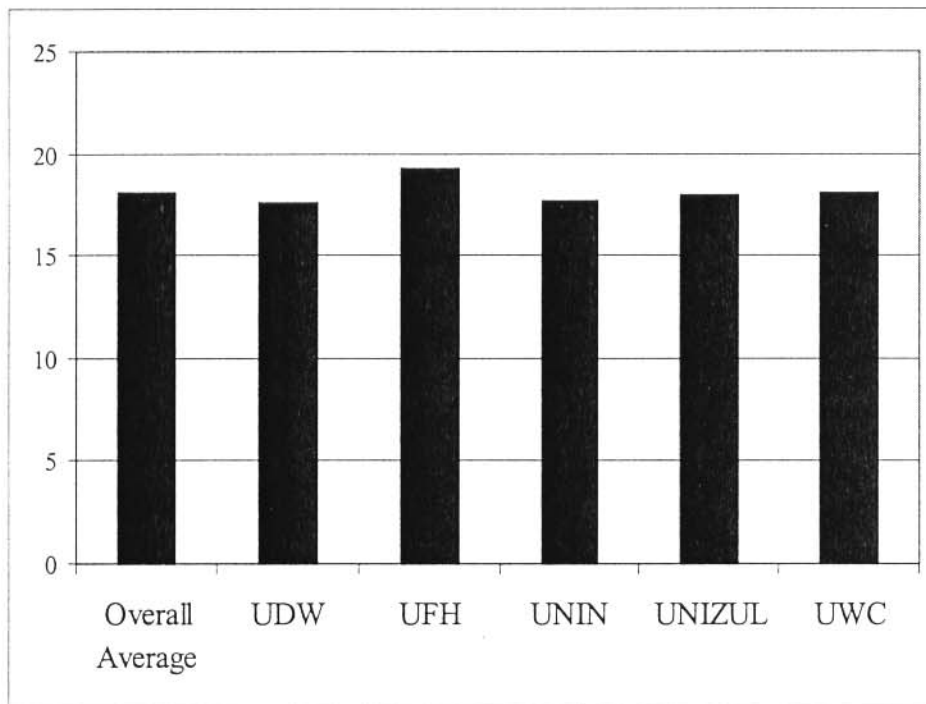


Figure 3: Mean scores for HDUs on organising

5.1.1.3 Staffing

Question three (Table 6) represents the mean scores for staffing for the institutions namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for staffing are illustrated in figure 4. The mean score ranges from the highest 18.3 for UFH to the lowest mean score of 16.7 for UDW.

UDW and UNIZUL obtained the lowest mean scores of 16.7 and 16.8, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 17.5 UWC (17.7), UNIN (18.0) and UFH (18.3) obtained better mean scores than the overall average. No significant difference was observed among the institutions regarding staffing.

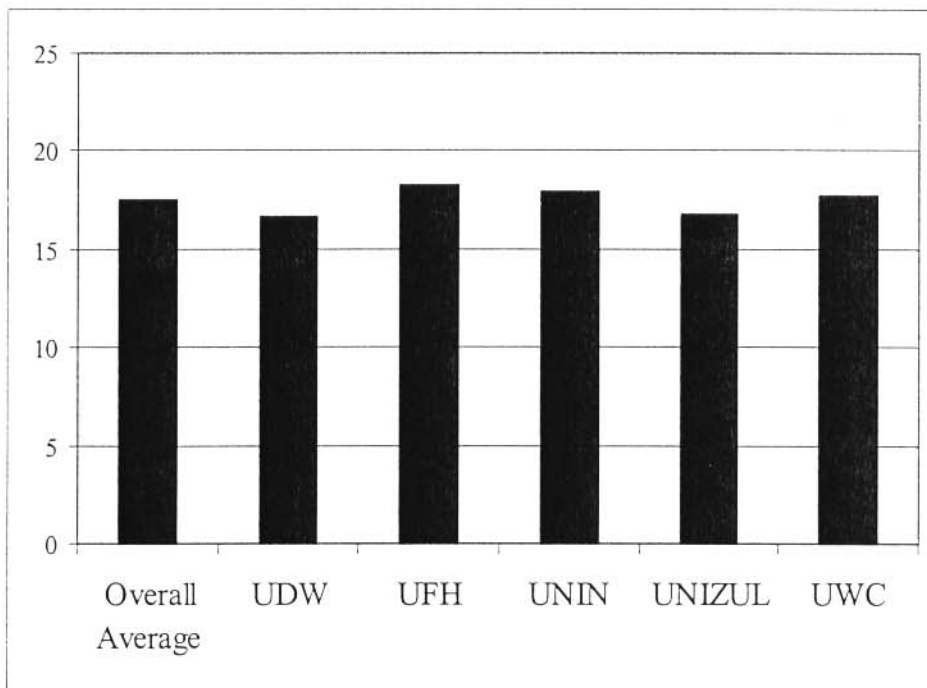


Figure 4: Mean scores for HDUs on staffing

5.1.1.4 Leading/Directing

Question four (Table 6) represents the mean scores for leading/directing for the institutions, namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for leading/directing are illustrated in figure 5. The mean score ranges from the highest 19.9 for UFH to the lowest mean score of 18.2 for UNIN.

UNIN and UNIZUL obtained the lowest mean scores of 18.2 and 18.3, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 18.8. UDW (18.9), UWC (19.0) and UFH (19.9) obtained better mean scores than the overall average. No significant difference was observed among the institutions regarding leading/directing.

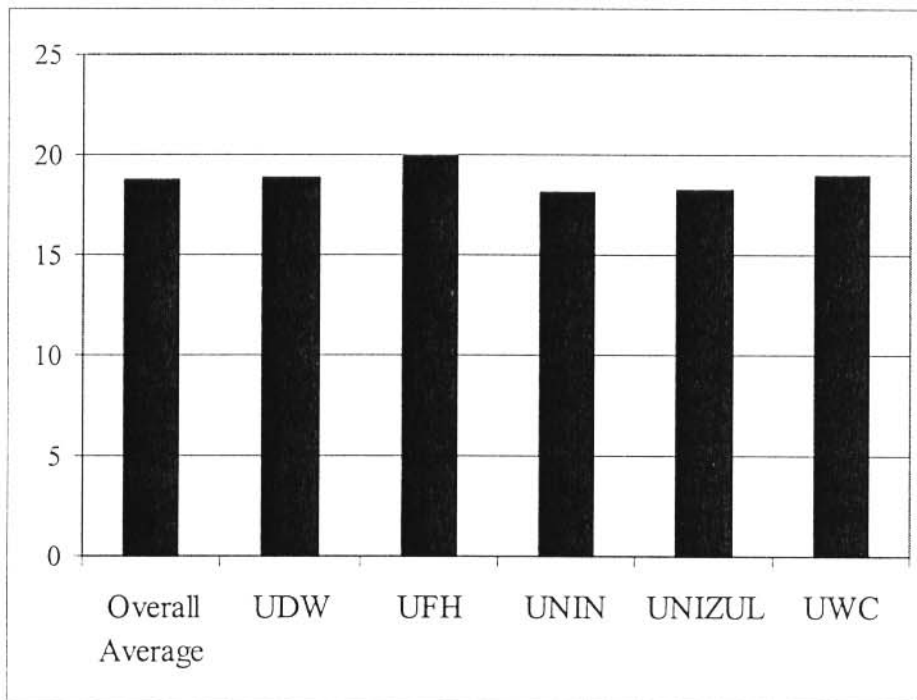


Figure 5: Mean scores for HDUs on leading / directing

5.1.1.5 Control

Question five (Table 6) represents the mean scores for control for the institutions, namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for control are illustrated in figure 6. The mean score ranges from the highest 17.8 for UWC to the lowest mean score of 16.1 for UDW.

UDW, UNIZUL and UNIN obtained the lowest mean scores of 16.1, 16.9 and 17.0, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 17.1. UFH (17.6) and UWC (17.8) obtained better mean scores than the overall average. No significant difference was observed among the institutions regarding control.

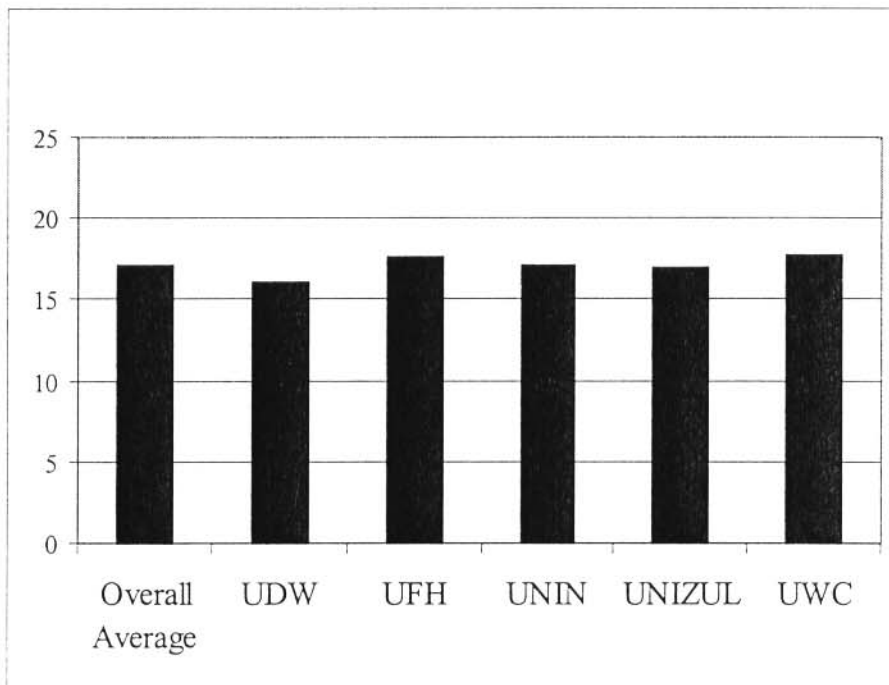


Figure 6: Mean scores for HDUs on control

5.1.1.6 SASSU Regional/Provincial Federation Tournaments

Question six (Table 6) represents the mean scores for SASSU regional/provincial federation tournaments for the institutions, namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for SASSU regional/provincial federation tournaments are illustrated in figure 7. The mean score ranges from the highest 19.5 for UWC to the lowest mean score of 16.3 for UNIZUL.

UNIZUL, UNIN, UDW and UFH obtained the lowest mean scores of 16.3, 16.6, 16.7 and 17.0, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 17.2. UWC (19.5) obtained a better mean score than the overall average. The observed p value was approximately 0,05. Statistically we cannot conclude that the differences observed amongst institutions regarding tournaments were significant at 0,05 level of significance.

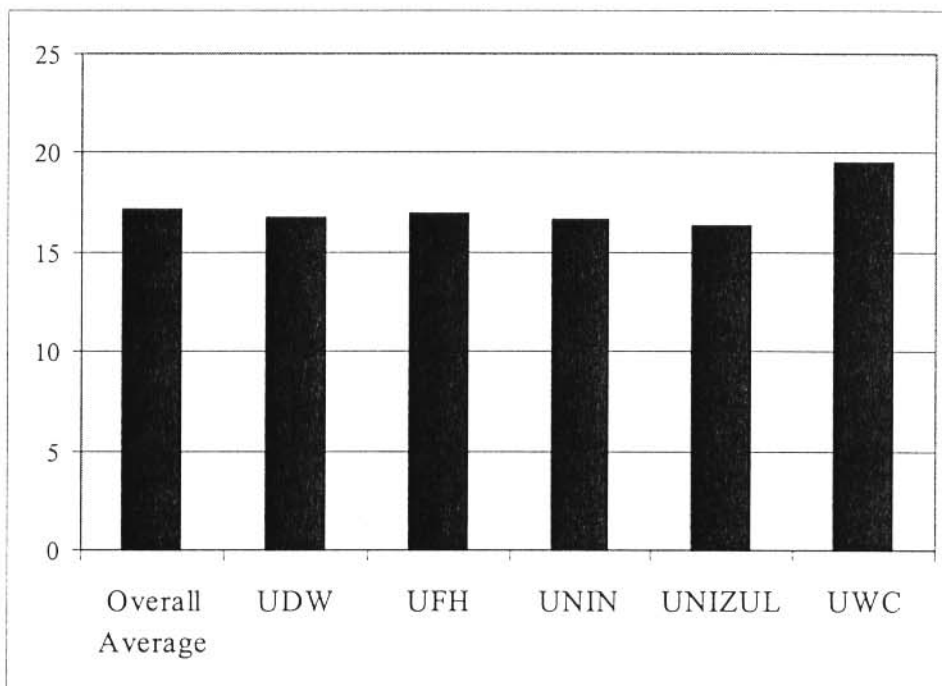


Figure 7: Mean scores for HDUs on SASSU Regional / Provincial Federation Tournaments

5.1.1.7 Politics and Economics

Question seven (Table 6) represents the mean scores for politics and economics for the institutions, namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for politics and economics are illustrated in figure 8. The mean score ranges from the highest 18.5 for UFH to the lowest mean score of 14.9 for UNIZUL.

UNIZUL and UNIN obtained the lowest mean scores of 14.9 and 15.2, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 16.2. UWC (16.2) equalled the overall average. UDW (16.7) and UFH (18.5) obtained better mean scores than the overall average.

Sportpersons are sensitive to politics, and the financial position of many parents at HDUs is not very strong, since most earn low salaries, whereas others are unemployed.

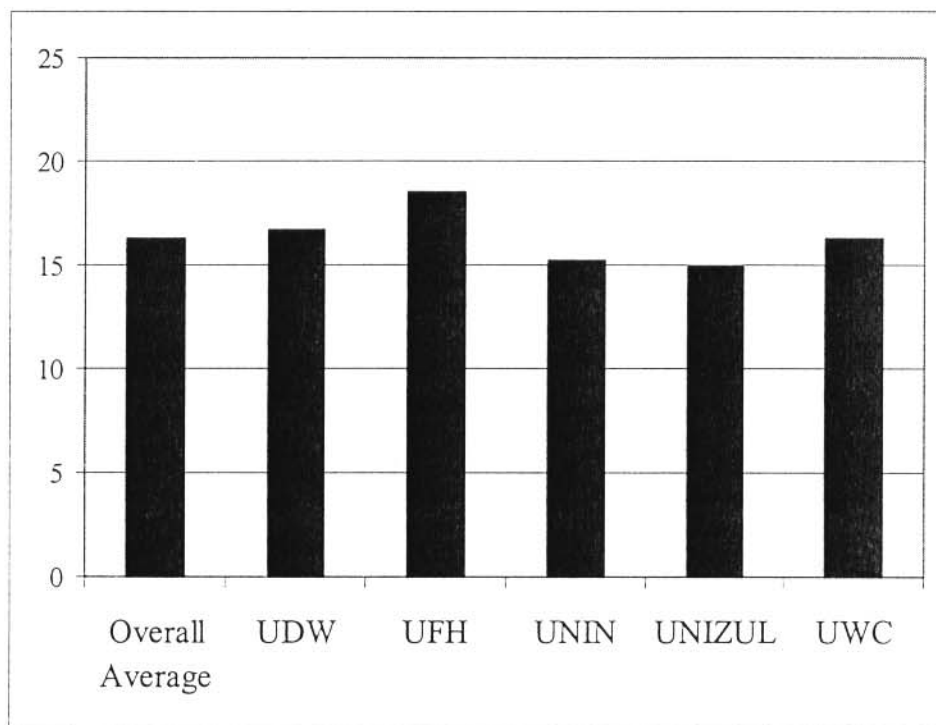


Figure 8: Mean scores for HDUs on politics and economics

5.1.1.8 Facilities

Question eight (Table 6) represents the mean scores for facilities for the institutions, namely, UDW, UFH, UNIN , UNIZUL and UWC. The mean scores for facilities are illustrated in figure 9. The mean score ranges from the highest 18.6 for UWC to the lowest mean score of 16.3 for UDW.

UNIZUL and UDW obtained the lowest mean score of 15.5 and 16.4, respectively. These are lower than the overall average score of 17.3. UFH (17.7), UNIN (18.2) and UWC (18.6) obtained better mean scores than the overall average. A significant difference was observed among the institutions regarding facilities ($p < 0.01$).

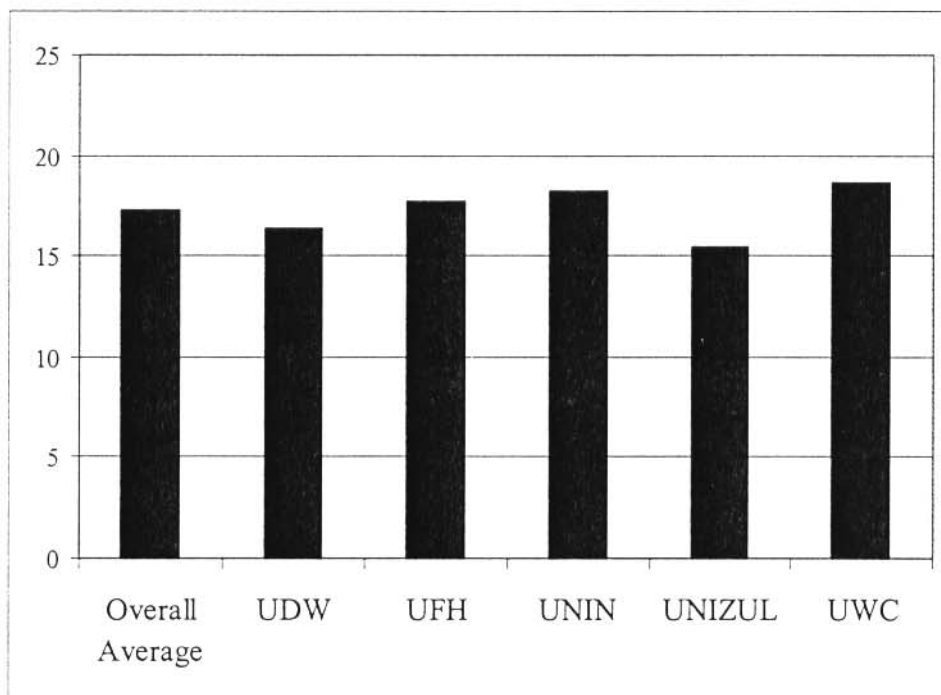


Figure 9: Mean scores for HDUs on facilities

5.1.1.9 Comparison of sub-question averages

Additional data per item appears on the students' questionnaire in Table 7. All individual sub-items were compared with each other in order to reflect the differences among averages. Concerning question 1.1 (i.e, rate your planning rate per annum) of the students' questionnaire concerned, UWC recorded the highest average of 3.8 followed by UNIZUL (3.6) and UDW (3.4). The highest average recorded by UWC, UNIZUL and UDW shows that these institutions recognise planning per annum (sub-question 1.1) as essential. UFH's (3.2) and UNIN's averages (3.0) rated fourth and fifth, respectively. UNIN (3.0) and UFH (3.2) both scored lower than the overall average of the individual sub-question of 3.4. The latter two institutions have to lay more emphasis on planning per annum (sub-question 1.1) to raise it above the overall average.

The other averages of individual sub-questions namely: 1.2-1.5 are also compared in Table 7. These data undoubtedly reveal all averages of sub-questions in item 2 (2.1 - 2.5) to 8 (8.1 - 8.5), for comparison purposes. For further comparison and on sub-questions 2 (2.1 - 2.5) to 8 (8.1 - 8.5) refer to the explanation presented in item 1.1 above. (Table 7 is provided on pages 87-88).

Table 7: Averages of individual sub-questions on student questionnaire

UNIVERSITY	Q1.1	Q1.2	Q1.3	Q1.4	Q1.5
Overall	3.4	3.5	4.0	3.9	3.4
UDW Ave	3.4	3.5	4.0	4.1	3.3
UFH Ave	3.2	3.6	4.1	3.8	4.3
UNIN Ave	3.0	3.3	3.7	3.6	3.6
UNIZUL Ave	3.6	3.5	3.8	3.8	2.7
UWC Ave	3.8	3.6	4.2	4.0	3.0
UNIVERSITY	Q2.1	Q2.2	Q2.3	Q2.4	Q2.5
Overall	3.6	3.5	4.1	3.8	3.1
UDW Ave	3.3	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.0
UFH Ave	3.7	3.6	4.4	3.9	3.8
UNIN Ave	3.4	3.2	4.5	3.4	3.2
UNIZUL Ave	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.9	2.5
UWC Ave	3.7	3.3	4.1	4.0	2.9
UNIVERSITY	Q3.1	Q3.2	Q3.3	Q3.4	Q3.5
Overall	3.5	3.4	4.2	3.6	2.7
UDW Ave	3.2	3.6	3.7	3.5	2.7
UFH Ave	3.9	3.5	4.7	3.3	3.1
UNIN Ave	3.6	3.4	4.4	3.7	2.8
UNIZUL Ave	3.5	3.3	3.9	3.7	2.4
UWC Ave	3.4	3.3	4.4	3.8	2.8
UNIVERSITY	Q4.1	Q4.2	Q4.3	Q4.4	Q4.5
Overall	3.8	3.9	4.5	3.7	2.9
UDW Ave	3.7	4.0	4.3	3.9	3.0
UFH Ave	4.1	4.1	4.5	3.8	3.5
UNIN Ave	3.6	4.0	4.6	3.3	2.7
UNIZUL Ave	4.0	3.7	4.4	3.5	2.6
UWC Ave	3.7	3.9	4.6	4.0	2.8
UNIVERSITY	Q5.1	Q5.2	Q5.3	Q5.4	Q5.5
Overall	3.4	3.3	4.1	3.6	2.8
UDW Ave	3.0	3.0	3.7	3.6	3.0
UFH Ave	3.4	3.2	4.3	3.8	3.1
UNIN Ave	3.5	3.5	4.2	3.0	2.8
UNIZUL Ave	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.7	2.3
UWC Ave	3.5	3.6	4.2	3.9	2.6
UNIVERSITY	Q6.1	Q6.2	Q6.3	Q6.4	Q6.5
Overall	3.5	3.2	3.3	3.6	3.6
UDW Ave	3.3	3.0	3.3	3.4	3.8
UFH Ave	3.8	3.4	3.3	3.2	3.4
UNIN Ave	3.4	3.1	2.9	3.5	3.8
UNIZUL Ave	3.1	2.9	3.2	3.7	3.4
UWC Ave	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.3	3.3

UNIVERSITY	Q7.1	Q7.2	Q7.3	Q7.4	Q7.5
Overall	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.8	3.8
UDW Ave	2.8	3.1	2.9	4.0	3.9
UFH Ave	3.6	3.3	3.1	4.3	4.4
UNIN Ave	2.8	2.8	2.6	3.4	3.6
UNIZUL Ave	2.8	2.8	2.6	3.4	3.3
UWC Ave	3.0	2.9	2.8	3.8	3.8

UNIVERSITY	Q8.1	Q8.2	Q8.3	Q8.4	Q8.5
Overall	3.9	3.8	3.9	2.8	2.8
UDW Ave	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.0	2.9
UFH Ave	4.7	4.3	4.5	1.7	2.6
UNIN Ave	3.9	4.2	4.1	3.0	2.9
UNIZUL Ave	3.3	3.5	3.7	2.6	2.5
UWC Ave	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.3

5.1.2 Responses from staff

Staff in Sports Administration in the HDUs sampled, namely, the University of Durban Westville (UDW), the University of Fort Hare (UFH), the University of the North (UNIN), the University of Zululand (UNIZUL) and the University of the Western Cape (UWC) also responded to the eight variables. The variables were planning, organising, staffing, leading/directing, control, SASSU regional/provincial federation tournaments, politics and economics, and facilities. Total scores per item for each institution are reflected in Table 8, i.e, staff questionnaire.

In the staff questionnaire, the total scores per item for each institution was compared to its counterparts in order to measure the institutions' standard of competency per variable, e.g, planning.

Table 8: Total scores per item for each institution

QUESTION	UNIVERSITY				
	UDW	UFH	UNIN	UNIZUL	UWC
Q1	21	18	20	21	19
Q2	18	15	18	21	20
Q3	18	19	17	22	15
Q4	19	15	18	20	21
Q5	18	19	19	21	22
Q6	18	18	16	19	20
Q7	15	9	14	12	17
Q8	19	14	18	18	15

5.1.2.1 Planning

Question one (Table 8) represents the total scores for planning for all institutions as illustrated in figure 10. The total score ranges from the highest 21 for both UDW and UNIZUL to the lowest total score of 18 for UFH.

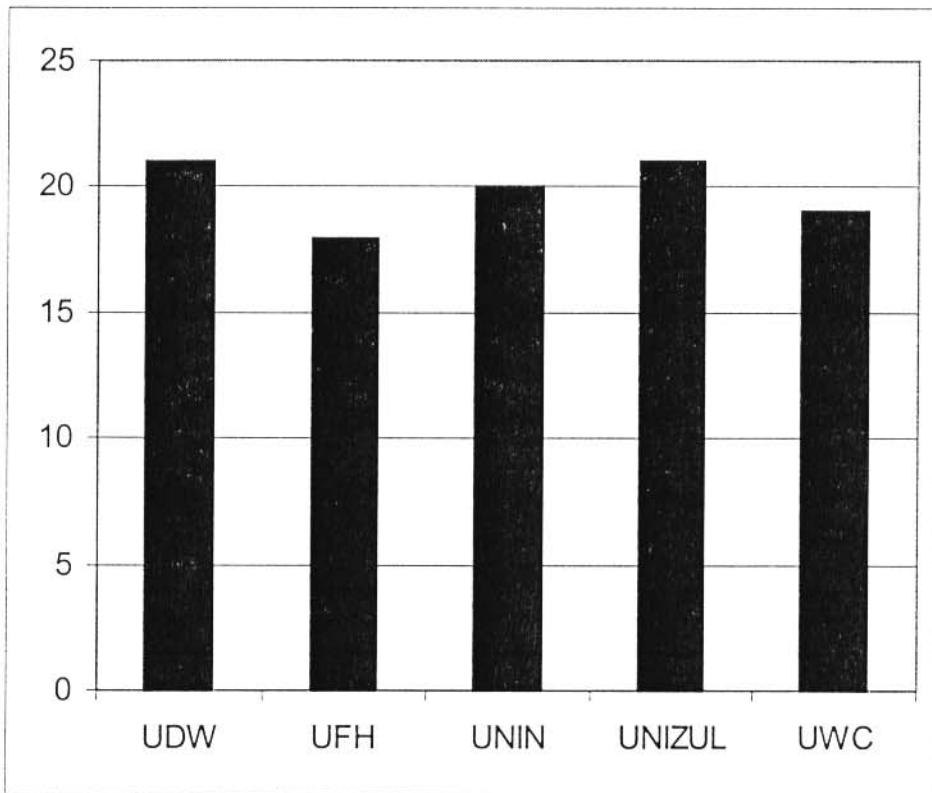


Figure 10: Total scores for HDUs on Planning

5.1.2.2 Organising

Question two (Table 8) represents the total scores for organising for all institutions as illustrated in figure 11. The total score ranges from the highest 21 for UNIZUL to the lowest total score of 15 for UFH.

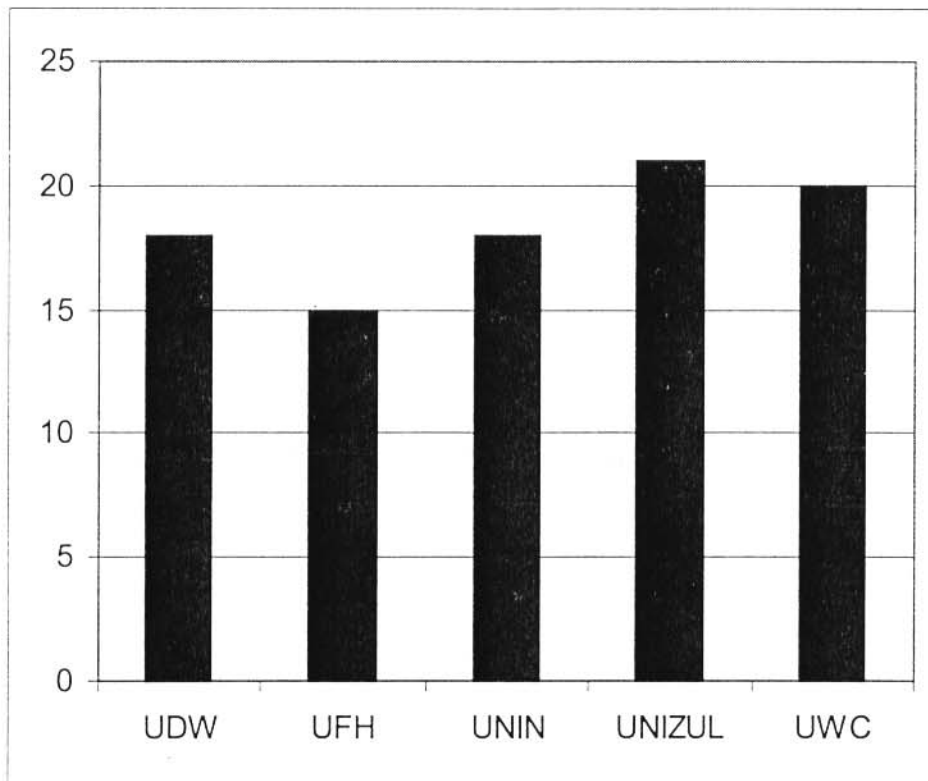


Figure 11: Total scores for HDUs on Organising

5.1.2.3 Staffing

Question three (Table 8) represents the total scores for staffing for all institutions as shown in figure 12. The total score ranges from the highest 22 for UNIZUL to the lowest score of 15 for UWC.

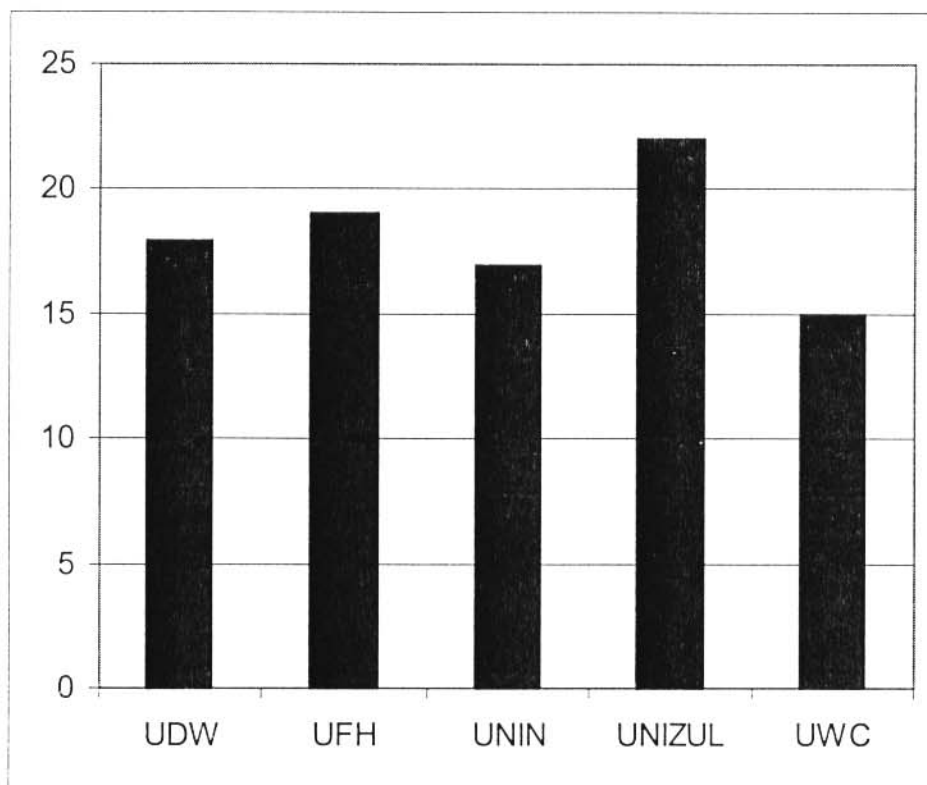


Figure 12: Total scores for HDUs on Staffing

5.1.2.4 Leading/Directing

Question four (Table 8) represents the total scores for leading/directing for all institutions as depicted in figure 13. The total score ranges from the highest 21 for UWC to the lowest total score of 15 for UFH.

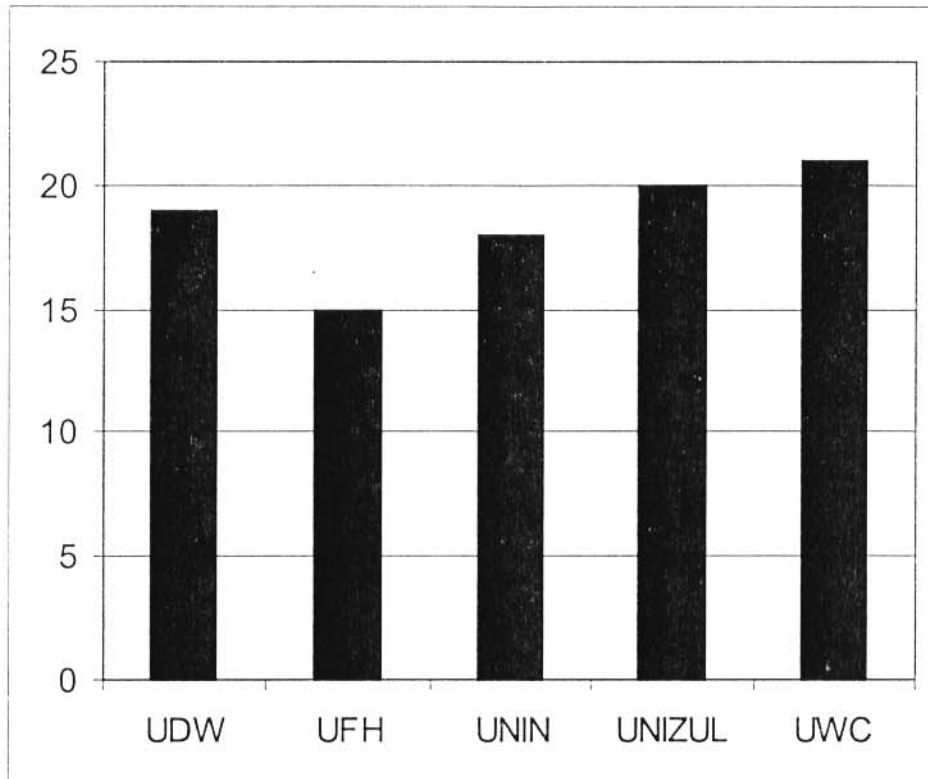


Figure 13: Total scores for HDUs on leading / directing

5.1.2.5 Control

Question five (Table 8) represents the total scores for control for all institutions as illustrated in figure 14. The total score ranges from the highest 22 for UWC to the lowest score of 18 for UDW.

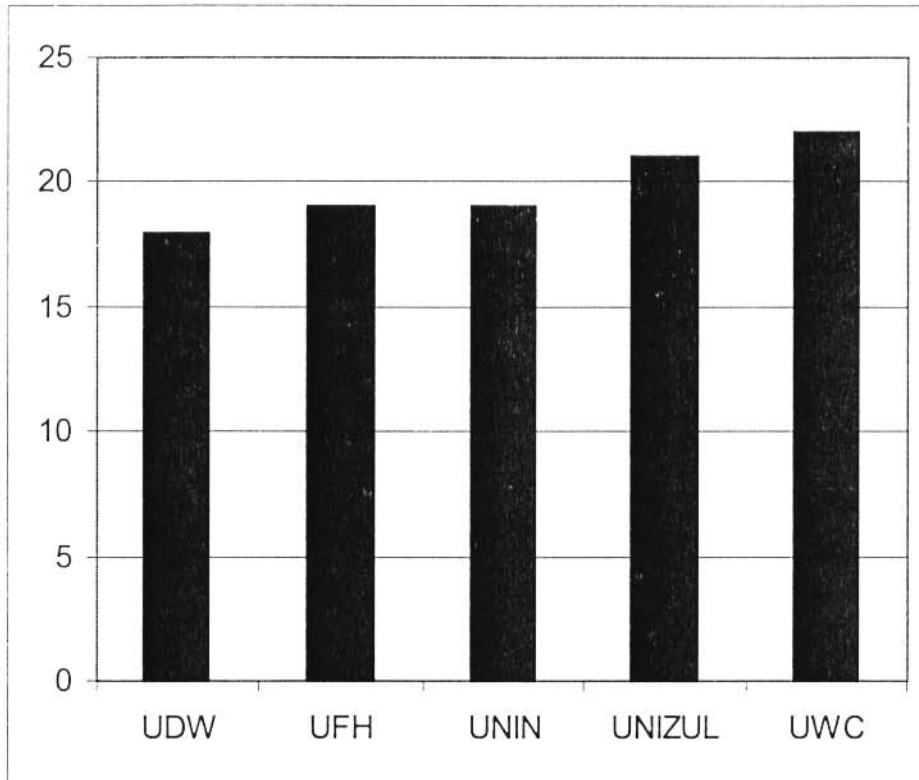


Figure 14: Total scores for HDUs on control

5.1.2.6 SASSU Regional/Provincial Federation Tournaments

Question six (Table 8) represents the total scores for tournaments for all institutions as shown in figure 15. The total score ranges from the highest 20 for UWC to the lowest total score of 16 for UNIN.

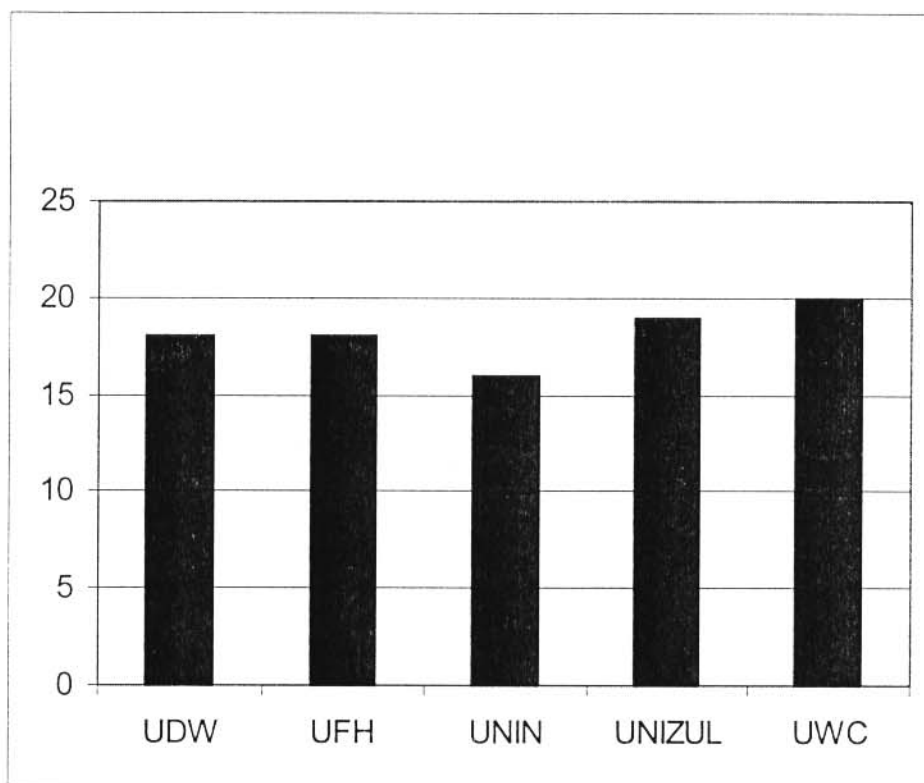


Figure 15: Total scores for HDUs on SASSU regional / provincial federation tournaments

5.1.2.7 Politics and Economics

Question seven (Table 8) represents the total scores for politics and economics for all institutions as depicted in figure 16. The total score ranges from the highest 17 for UWC to the lowest total score of 9 for UFH.

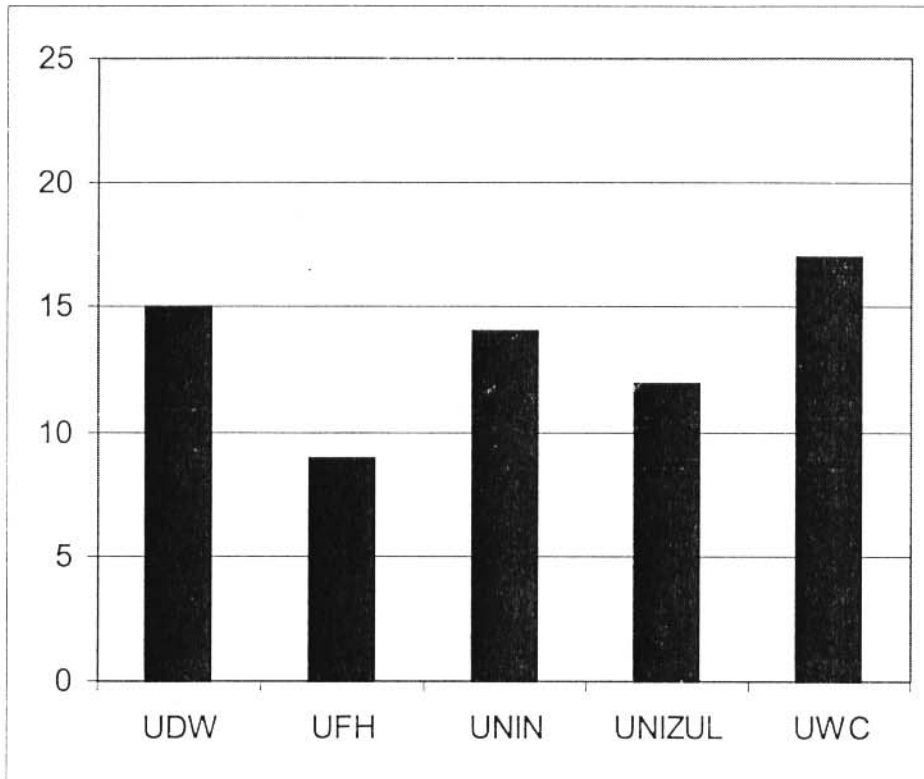


Figure 16: Total scores for HDUs on politics and economics

5.1.2.8 Facilities

Question eight (Table 8) represents the total scores for facilities for all institutions as illustrated in figure 17. The total score ranges from the highest 19 for UDW to the lowest total score of 14 for UFH.

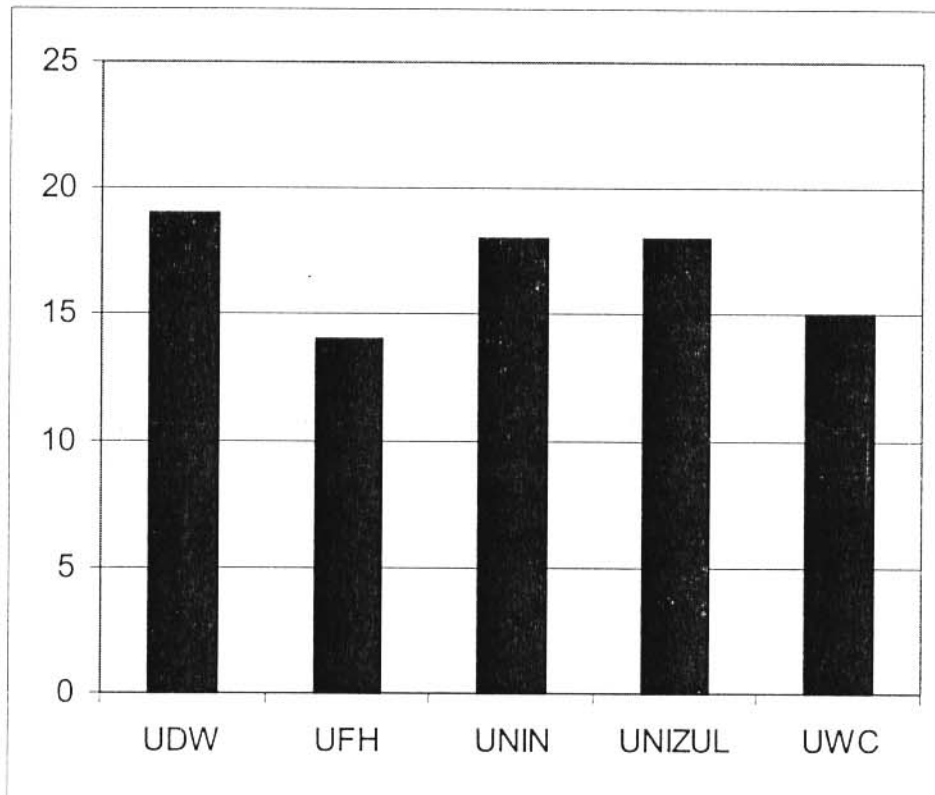


Figure 17: Total scores for HDUs on facilities

5.2 OVERALL ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS ON HDUs

5.2.1 Students analysis

The average per university was determined for all eight variables. The process of obtaining the eight averages produced the total scores per university. The universities were ranked according to the highest averages and total scores, i.e, in ascending order as follows:

- UFH - 18.4 (147.2)
- UWC - 18.2 (145.5)
- UNIN - 17.3 (138.1)
- UDW - 17.2 (137.3)
- UNIZUL - 16.8 (134.1)

The average and total scores of UFH 18.4 (147.2) and UWC 18.2 (145.5) were above the average of 17.5 and total score of 140.2. This probably accounts for UFH and UWC performing better than the rest of the universities in several of the eight management variables.

UNIN, UDW and UNIZUL obtained 17.3 (138.1), 17.2 (137.3) and 16.8 (134.1) respectively, lower than the average and total score of 17.5 and 140.2. The sub-average score and total score account for the weaker performances on UNIN, UDW and UNIZUL on management levels assessed in the eight variables.

5.2.2. Staff analysis.

The summary of staff findings obtained are presented as follows in ascending order:

- UNIZUL - 154
- UWC - 149
- UDW - 146
- UNIN - 140
- UFH - 127

The highest total score for UNIZUL (154), UWC (149), UDW (146) and UNIN (140) account for a better management on the part of staff in the eight variables assessed. The total score of these four universities was measured against the total of 200 { sub questions (5) X total questions (8) = 40}. Total (40) X five-point scale (5) per question = 200. UFH's total score of 127 is the lowest among the rest and therefore accounts for the weak management on the part of staff regarding the eight variables. The highest total score of UNIZUL is 154 against the total of 200 and the weakest total score of UFH is 127 compared to the total of 200.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.3.1. Responses from students (sportpersons)

Certain points have been observed in the findings of this research which merit interpretation. In planning, only UNIN and UNIZUL performed below the overall average. The mean scores of UNIN and UNIZUL indicate a poor performance by these universities in planning. In the case of UFH, UWC and UDW the mean scores were above the average, which indicates a better performance in this regard.

The fair planning at HDUs could be attributed to the fixtures, which are done by SASSU national office as well as the regional/provincial federations. Planning is inferior in HDUs as compared to HAUs, due to the fact that sport clubs are coordinated by sportpersons and not university staff.

The findings on organising indicated that UNIZUL, UWC, UNIN and UDW performed below the overall average. Consequently, the mean scores of these institutions indicated a poor performance in organising. Only UFH obtained a mean score above the overall average, a finding which indicates a better performance by the institution. The UFH higher mean score could be attributed to the institution allocating more time on it as well as possessing organisational skills which were inadequately developed in the other four HDUs.

In staffing, two institutions performed below the overall average, namely, UNIZUL and UDW. In the case of UFH, UNIN, and UWC, the mean scores were above the overall average, which indicates a better performance by these institutions.

The mean scores of UFH, UNIN and UWC, which were above the overall average, could be attributed to the knowledge of the executive members of their clubs, as well as the support that the clubs receive from their respective staff members at HDUs.

In leading/directing, only two institutions performed below the overall average, namely, UNIZUL and UNIN. The mean scores of these institutions, indicate a poor performance in leading/directing. On the other hand UFH, UWC and UDW recorded mean scores which were above the overall average and that indicates a better performance in this management variable. The mean scores of UFH, UWC and UDW, which are above the overall average, could be attributed to the proactive leadership of clubs at HDUs.

Regarding control, UNIN, UNIZUL and UDW performed below the overall average. The mean scores of these institutions, indicate a poor performance in control. UWC and UFH indicated superior performances in control. The poor performances of the three institutions could be explained in the light of the poor inventory, inefficiency and ineffective control mechanisms at HDUs.

Results on SASSU regional/provincial federation tournaments, like organising, showed that UFH, UDW, UNIN and UNIZUL performed below the overall average. UWC, like UFH in organising, is the only institution that obtained a mean score above the overall average. This indicates a better performance on the part of UWC in tournaments. A significant difference was observed among institutions regarding tournaments. The observed p value was approximately 0,05. At 5% level of significance, we cannot conclude whether the difference were significant or not significant.

UWC is situated within Bellville, a community that is committed to competitive sport development. Many clubs at UWC are affiliated to regional and provincial sports structures, unlike other HDUs who fail to exploit their geographical positioning, especially UDW.

Findings on politics and economics, like planning, staffing, leading/ directing, SASSU regional/provincial tournaments, and facilities indicated that UFH, UDW and UWC obtained better performances than the overall average. UNIN and UNIZUL obtained

mean scores below the overall average, an indication of poor performances by these institutions.

Historical events in politics retarded sport development more at UNIN and UNIZUL than at UFH, UDW and UWC. This could be explained in the light of the fact that there were several incidents of campus disturbances caused by students at UNIN and UNIZUL because they were founded by the University Education Act (Act NO. 45 of 1959). The poor financial position of sportpersons from UNIN and UNIZUL could be attributed to the fact that the two institutions are positioned in rural areas of the country without a high industrial development capacity for industries and multinational corporations around them compared to the other HDUs.

UDW and UNIZUL performed below the overall average in facilities. In the case of UWC, UNIN and UFH, the mean scores were above the overall average which indicates a better standard of facilities at these institutions. A significant difference was observed among institutions regarding facilities at 5% level of significance, since the p value was 0,01 which is less than 0,05.

The apartheid system of governance affected HDUs by the inequitable distribution of resources, including facilities. UDW and UNIZUL were affected by the inequitable distribution of resources more than their counterparts. This is discernible in the results of UDW and UNIZUL, which showed that they performed below the overall average in facilities at HDUs. The other three HDUs, namely, UWC, UNIN and UFH scored above the overall average, but this does not signify that their facilities were the best at the HDUs.

Out of a total of eight elements/variables measured, only one recorded a significant difference, namely, facilities. The other seven elements/variables did not show any significant difference among the institutions.

5.3.2. Responses from Staff/ Sports Administration.

The lower score of staff in HDUs could be explained in the light of the top management at these institutions who disregard sport as a marketing tool. Sport matters are associated with those of recreational activities. Emphasis is placed more on academic achievement than sport prowess and skills. The manner in which top management regard sport at HDUs is the same as the manner in which Physical Education is disregarded as a school subject in historically Black South African schools. Physical Education is considered as being of little importance and is therefore regarded as inferior when compared to the other subjects in the schools curriculum. Even though Physical Education appears on the time table, it is not being taught regularly or at all (Walter; 1994: 109).

The manner in which Physical Education is neglected at historically Black South African schools could be likened to the way top managements at HDUs (under Black/White leadership) disregard sport, especially because it does not qualify for any government subsidy. Physical Education builds character and the physique of the young through using fundamental human movements, like jumping, creeping, pulling, running, swimming, squatting, bating, throwing, climbing, dancing and playing games. Basic skills in sport are introduced while at primary and secondary schools. These skills will be developed as young school children grow physically. Obedience to teachers during Physical Education lessons inculcates discipline, rules, tolerance, perseverance, determination, a spirit of sportpersonship, and contributes to the holistic character-building. As a result of the lack of Physical Education as a school subject, most sportpersons at HDUs have missed this important element of skills development and progression during their primary and secondary school years.

On the contrary Physical Education is taught regularly at White primary and secondary schools. In predominantly White secondary schools, the subject is taught by most teachers who are qualified specialists (Walter; 1994: 108) . The historical situation in the South African education system has created several inadequacies. The interview conducted with all sports department in the HDUs indicated poor commitment on the part of top management towards sports excellence and performances.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of this research, the following conclusions could be drawn:

- 6.1.1. **Planning :** There was no significant difference in planning amongst the institutions. Two institutions, namely, UNIN and UNIZUL recorded performances below the overall average.
- 6.1.2. **Organising:** There was no significant difference regarding this element, but this finding requires more attention because performances of four institutions, namely, UDW, UNIN, UNIZUL and UWC were below the overall average.
- 6.1.3. **Staffing:** There was no significant difference regarding this variable, but two institutions, namely, UDW and UNIZUL performed below the overall average.
- 6.1.4. **Leading/directing:** This variable did not yield any significant difference amongst the institutions, which generally performed well. However, it is worth mentioning that UNIN and UNIZUL, both showed a 0.6 and 0.5 statistical difference, respectively from the overall average, unlike the other variables that showed a wider margin, particularly on the lowest mean scores.

- 6.1.5. **Control:** This variable did not show any significant difference, but three institutions, namely, UDW, UNIZUL and UNIN performed below the overall average.
- 6.1.6. **SASSU regional / provincial federation tournaments:** There was no significant difference amongst the institutions. Four institutions, namely, UNIZUL, UNIN, UDW and UFH recorded the lowest total score, below the overall average showing, 3.2, 2.9, 2.8 and 2.5 statistical difference, respectively from UWC which had the highest total score.
- 6.1.7. **Politics and Economics:** There was no significant difference in this variable, but two institutions, namely, UNIZUL and UNIN performed below the overall average.
- 6.1.7.1 **Politics:** Separate historical events retarded sport development amongst the previously disadvantaged communities (PDCs), thus the high sensitivity of HDUs towards politics.
- 6.1.7.2 **Economics:** Low salaries of parents of sportpersons at HDUs, meagre budgets of sport departments, unemployment and the Job Reservations Act created by the previous government, also affected sport development at HDUs tremendously.
- 6.1.8. **Facilities:** There was a significant difference in this variable amongst the institutions. Two institutions, namely, UNIZUL and UDW recorded the lowest total score below the overall average.

6.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions of this research, the following recommendations could be drawn:

- 6.2.1. Leadership of sportpersons should receive annually a basic sport management course focussing on the fundamental and universal elements of management, namely, planning, organising, staffing, leading/directing and control. This is necessary to equip them with the relevant sport management knowledge and skills.
- 6.2.2. Staff members at the employ of HDUs should run the student clubs. These staff members should occupy strategic positions and form the core of the executive committee in order to sustain the clubs. These latter members shall pass over the rules, norms and culture of the clubs to the new sportpersons in succeeding years without losing them. Sportpersons should occupy lower positions, such as assistants, and learn from their mentors. This shift in mind-set should help to ensure that sport clubs in HDUs have guaranteed sponsorship.
- 6.2.3. All HDUs should endeavour to form executive sports councils which would serve as a supreme body for policy implementation that provides direction to the management of sport in the universities. The composition of this body should be fully representative of all stakeholders.
- 6.2.4. Organisation of SASSU tournaments and federation leagues indicates the dire need on the part of HDUs to concentrate on establishing residential leagues, to affiliate clubs to SASSU regional / provincial federations, and to appoint qualified part-time coaches to manage such clubs.

- 6.2.5. Inadequate/poor facilities, at HDUs call for the public and private sectors to establish indoor and outdoor facilities, to bring them on equal footing with those of HAUs. This further calls for these facilities to be controlled and managed by sport departments, and not students.
- 6.2.6. Sportpersons should affiliate to a sport club, with a nominal fee annually, in order to augment the annual budgets. Clubs must further embark on aggressive fund raising campaigns at the beginning and during the year in order to finance their activities.
- 6.2.7. The national government should grant tax rebates to companies that sponsor any sport related endeavours at HDUs. This will create sport grants, incentives and scholarship awards to the needy, as well as to exceptionally talented sportpersons.
- 6.2.8. Further research is necessary to assess the similarities and differences between HDUs and HAUs on fundamental and universal elements of management, namely, planning, organising, staffing, leading/directing and controlling.

6.3. **COMMENTS ON RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- 6.3.1. The research question on how the management of sport at HDUs changed since unity was achieved and evaluated but no significant difference was found. It is noteworthy that UWC performed the highest, above the overall average score on two variables, namely, SASSU federation tournaments, and facilities.
- 6.3.2. The second research question on how post-unity at HDUs impacts on students' participation and performances in sport was also evaluated. The data showed no radical difference when the fundamental and universal elements of management (namely, planning, organising, staffing, leading/directing and control) were considered.

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ANNEXURE A

PROPOSED NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS PER CLUB.

	UFH	UDW	UNIN	UWC	UNIZUL
1. Aerobics	0	1	1	0	1
2. Athletics	0	2	2	2	2
3. Badminton	1	1	1	0	0
4. Basketball	2	2	2	2	2
5. Body-Building	0	1	1	0	0
6. Chess	0	1	1	2	1
7. Cricket	2	0	1	2	1
8. Dance Sport	2	2	1	2	2
9. Football	3	2	2	2	2
10. Hockey	0	0	1	2	1
11. Judo	2	0	0	2	0
12. Karate	2	1	1	2	1
13. Netball	2	2	2	2	2
14. Rugby	2	2	1	0	1
15. Softball	2	1	1	0	1
16. Squash	0	1	1	0	1
17. Tennis	2	2	2	0	2
18. Volleyball	0	2	2	2	2
Total	22	23	23	22	22

**NB. Kindly keep to this suggested quota per institution and club.
Clubs not listed under this table must not bother to respond/fill the questionnaire.**

The respondents must be 20 minimum and 23 maximum per institution. In case of the respondents being less than 20, increase the lowest numbers i.e. from 1 to 2 or add 1 to 2 to have a maximum of three (3) respondents per club.

ANNEXURE B

SPORTPERSONS (STUDENTS)
QUESTIONNAIRE

CLUB : _____

INSTITUTION : _____

DATE : _____ Nov 2000 TIME : _____

USE THE KEY TO RATE YOUR RESPONSE. PLACE AN X IN THE MOST APPROPRIATE SQUARE

1 PLANNING

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

- 1.1 Rate your planning level per annum?
- 1.2 To what extent do external activities on campus influence your plans?
- 1.3 How would you rate the value / importance of planning in your club?
- 1.4 To what extent does your planning depend on Sports Administration / Sport Bureau?
- 1.5 To what extent does your planning depend on the Student Representative Council?

1.6 Comment about planning in Sport.

2 ORGANISING

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

- 2.1 Rate your organising level per annum?
- 2.2 To what extent do internal and external activities on campus influence what you have organised?
- 2.3 To what extent is the value / importance of organising in your club?
- 2.4 To what extent does your organising depend on Sports Administration / Sports Bureau?
- 2.5 To what extent does your organising depend on the Students Representative Council?

2.6 Comment about organising in sport.

3 STAFFING (Executive)

- 3.1 Rate how often do your executive members Consult its members / constituency for final decisions?
- 3.2 To what extent do internal and external activities on campus influence your executive members on decisions?
- 3.3 How do you rate the value / importance of executive members in your club?
- 3.4 To what extent do your executive members depend on advice from Sports Administration / Sports Bureau?
- 3.5 To what extent does your executive members depend on advice from the Students Representative Council?
- 3.6 Comment about staffing (executive members) in sport.

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

4 LEADING / DIRECTING

- 4.1 Rate information flow from your leaders in your club.
- 4.2 To what extent does this information and communication impact on your club?
- 4.3 How do you rate the value / importance of leading / directing?
- 4.4 To what level does your club depend on leading / directing from Sports Administration?
- 4.5 To what extent does your club depends on leading / directing from the Students Representative Council?
- 4.6 Comment about staffing (executive members) in sport.

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

5 CONTROL

- 5.1 Rate your general control levels at your club for the year 2000
- 5.2 To what level do other club members regard Control process?
- 5.3 How do you rate the value / importance of control at your club?
- 5.4 To what level does your club depends on control from Sports Administration / Sport Bureau?
- 5.5 To what extent does your club depend on control from the Students Representative Council?
- 5.6 Comment about control in sport.

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

6 SASSU REGIONAL / PROVINCIAL FEDERATION TOURNAMENTS:

- 6.1 Rate your club / team performances during SASSU regional / provincial tournaments.
- 6.2 Rate your club / team performances during SASSU National tournaments.
- 6.3 Rate your club / team performances during regional / provincial federation league.
- 6.4 Rate the knowledge and success level of your manager.
- 6.5 Rate the technical officials (referees and umpires) during the SASSU tournament.
- 6.6 Comment about SASSU and Regional / Provincial Federation tournaments in sport.

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

7 POLITICS & ECONOMICS

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

- 7.1 To what extent does politics influence your performances at club level in SASSU regional / provincial tournaments?
- 7.2 To what extent does politics influence your performances at regional / provincial and national federations?
- 7.3 To what extent does national politics influence your performances in tournaments of regional / provincial and national level?
- 7.4 To what extent does economics influence your performance at club level of SASSU regional / provincial tournaments?
- 7.5 To what extent does economics influence your performances at regional / provincial and national levels of federations?
- 7.6 Comment about politics in sport.

-
-
- 7.7 Comment about economics and finance in Sport.
-
-

8 FACILITIES (Arenas, playing fields - Indoor and outdoor)

Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

- 8.1 To what extent does facilities influence your performances at club level?
- 8.2 To what extent does facilities influence your performances at regional / provincial federations levels?
- 8.3 To what extent does facilities influence your performances at SASSU regional / provincial and national levels?
- 8.4 To what extent are your facilities standard for Your club on campus?
- 8.5 To what extent are your general facilities hired by Regional / provincial federations and schools At your campus?
- 8.6 Comment about facilities on campus.
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ANNEXURE C

SPORTS ADMINISTRATION (STAFF) QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTITUTION: _____

SECTION: _____

DATE: _____

NOTE: Place one X at an appropriate square/block

1. PLANNING:

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
1.1	Rate how your planning is dependent on the All Sports Committee/Council (Students).					
1.2	Rate how your planning is dependent upon the Student Representative Council activities.					
1.3	Rate how your planning is depended on SASSU regional and national activities.					
1.4	Rate how your planning is dependent upon the budget.					
1.5	Rate how your planning is dependent upon facilities.					
1.6	Give your comments about planning in general within your Sports Administration / Sport Bureau.					

2. ORGANISING:

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
2.1	Rate the organizing level of your clubs.					
2.2	Rate the organising skills and competency of your clubs.					
2.3	To what extent do internal activities on campus influence what you have organised?					
2.4	To what extent do external activities on campus influence what you have organised?					
2.5	Rate the extent to which the absence of organising could impact on the performances of your club.					
2.6	Give your comments about organising in general in your clubs.					

3. **STAFFING:**

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
3.1	To what extent do staff in Sports Administration compliment clubs in planning and organising?					
3.2	Rate how often clubs seek assistance from staff.					
3.3	To what extent could the absence of staff affect the performances of your clubs?					
3.4	Rate the extent to which the absence of staff affect the performances of your clubs.					
3.5	To what extent do you depend on advice from the All Sports Committee/Council?					
3.6	Give your comments about staffing in general in your clubs?					

4 **LEADING / DIRECTING:**

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
4.1	Rate the quality of communication and leadership in the management of your clubs.					
4.2	Rate the extent to which you are exposed to leading your clubs.					
4.3	Rate the value / importance of leading your clubs.					
4.4	To what extent do information and communication impact on your clubs?					
4.5	Rate the extent to which the absence of leading affects the performances in your clubs.					
4.6	Comment about leading / directing in general in your club.					

5. **CONTROL**

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
5.1	Rate the control / evaluation of your club?					
5.2	Rate the general control levels at your clubs on equipments (i.e., clothing, balls, Implements).					
5.3	Rate your general control levels of your facilities (venues, indoor and outdoor surfaces)					
5.4	Rate the value of control of your clubs.					
5.5	To what extent does your section depend on control in running it?					
5.6	Comment about general control in your clubs.					

6. **SASSU REGIONAL/PROVINCIAL FEDERATION TOURNAMENTS:**

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
6.1	Rate your club performances during SASSU regional/provincial tournaments?					
6.2	Rate your club performances during SASSU National tournaments?					
6.3	Rate your club performances during regional / provincial federation leagues?					
6.4	Rate the knowledge of management of your clubs (i.e. coaches, technical officials and managers)?					
6.5	Rate the organisational level of SASSU regional/provincial tournaments?					
6.6	Comment about SASSU and federation tournaments at regional/provincial levels.					

7 **POLITICS & ECONOMICS:**

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
7.1	To what extent does internal politics influence performances of your clubs?					
7.2	To what extent does national politics influence performances of your clubs at regional levels?					
7.3	To what extent does economics influence performances of your clubs at regional and provincial levels.					
7.4	To what extent does economics influence performances of your clubs at national levels.					
7.5	Comment about politics in sport.					
7.6	Comment about economics and finance in sport on your campus.					

8 **FACILITIES:**

		Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High
		1	2	3	4	5
8.1	To what extent does facilities influence performances of your clubs?					
8.2	To what extent does facilities influence performances of your regional/provincial federation leagues?					
8.3	To what extent does facilities influence performances of your clubs at SASSU regional/provincial leagues?					
8.4	To what extent does general facilities hired by regional/provincial federations?					
8.5	To what extent do you have alternative use of facilities on campus in case of bad weather?					
8.6	Comment on your Sport facilities in general.					

ANNEXURE D

INTERVIEW GUIDES FOR HEADS OF SPORT ADMINISTRATION AND CHAIRPERSONS ALL SPORT COUNCILS / SPORT UNIONS

1. Comment freely on the merits and demerits of clubs in terms of students only, executive or staff controlled only or a mixture of the staff and students?
2. What's your opinion about acquiring qualified coaches to assist or lead the clubs forward?
3. What could be done to motivate or encourage a commitment of competitive sport participation among students, such that it is not regarded as a mere outing to socialize?
4. What are the best strategies to raise funds to promote competitive sport in your institution?
5. Do you think that the students contribution towards the promotion of competitive sport is essential or not? Please explain.
6. Do you think that institutions must buy sport clothing yearly inspite of losses incurred annually?
 - Recommend the best system or inventory method to improve this recurring malpractice.
7. In your opinion, do you regard top management practice of competitive sport, in terms of human resources and funding as comparable to that of HAUs?
 - What could be the key factors that bring about the inadequacies or disparities?
 - Recommend the best system.
8. Recommend future plans and actions to be carried out to address the inadequacies of poor sport management and sport performances in your institution.